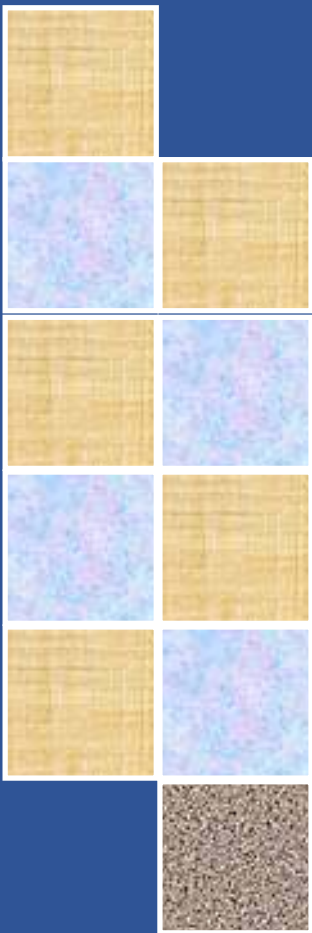




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Foreword

We proudly present the new issue of *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies* at its tenth anniversary; *Volume 10, Number 1, 2014*. We are genuinely glad to celebrate our tenth year with major developments in journal system and great contributions from the authors published in the issue. First of all, special thanks go to the Associate Editor of JLLS Dr. Hüseyin Öz, and the web editor Fatih Yeşil who safely transferred the archives, the content and the network of our journal into Open Journal Systems interface which we deeply believe to take our work further.

In this issue, we publish 16 original articles which promise a lot for the scientific enquiry in language and linguistics research. The first article is “Speaking anxiety among Turkish EFL learners: The case at a state university” by Gökhan Öztürk and Nurdan Gürbüz. They investigate speaking anxiety as ‘phenomenon with its own sources, aspects, variables and effects on learners.’

There are two great articles on the importance of pronunciation in language learning and teaching in two different contexts. Muhammad Javed and Ateaz Ahmad present an investigation of pronunciation in Pakistani context by ESL students with their article entitled “Assessing ESL students’ pronunciation in the Pakistani context”. They also suggest some improvements for the teaching of pronunciation. İsmail Çakır and Birtan Bayar discuss the importance of pronunciation teaching in terms of learner perspectives in their study “Foreign language learners’ views on the importance of learning the target language pronunciation”.

Another contribution to the issue is from Seçil Horasan with her article “Code-switching in EFL classrooms and the perceptions of the students and teachers” in which she investigates code-switching at sentential level.

We also publish four articles in Turkish language with a variety of research topics. Soner Akşehirli’s article in Turkish language “Dereceli karşıt anlamlılarda belirtisizlik ve ölçek yapısı” is on unmarkedness and scale structures in gradable antonyms. Yusuf Doğan’s article is also in Turkish language entitled “Yabancılara Türkçe kelime öğretiminde market broşürlerinden yararlanma”, contributes to teaching Turkish language with valuable insights, and suggests an alternative way to supplement vocabulary acquisition through marketing brochures. Aytaç Çelteç investigates language contact between Greek and Turkish in terms of the effect of Greek language on bilingual Turkish speakers in Rhodes with evidence of structural copying and lexical change in his article “Rodos’taki Türkçe-Yunanca ikidilli konuşucuların Türkçesinde” Yunancanın etkisi”. Nesrin Bayraktar presents a historical overview of the structural, semantic, and conceptual field of color green in her article “Türkçe yeşil renk adının biçim, anlam ve kavram alanına tarihsel bir bakış”.

Manana Rusieshvili-Cartledge and Halis Gözpinar compare Turkish and Georgian languages and cultures in terms of proverbs on child-raising in their study entitled “Similar and unique in the family: How to raise children: using examples of Turkish and Georgian proverbs relating to children”.

Testing, assessment, and evaluation in language learning and teaching are approached with different perspectives in the issue with three articles. Paşa Tevfik Cephe and Tuğba Elif Toprak evaluate ‘the practical considerations and potential problems’ related to CEFR in terms of its implications for language testing in their study “The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Insights for language testing”. Daniel Ghamarian, Khalil Motallebzadeh, and Mohammad Ali Fatemi investigate the relationship between washback effect and life skills by means of IELTS in Iranian context in their study “Investigating the relationship between the washback effect of IELTS test and Iranian

IELTS candidates' life skills". Mansoor Tavakoli and Marzieh Nezakat-Alhossaini investigate dynamic assessment techniques in reported speech structures in their study "Implementation of corrective feedback in an English as a foreign language classroom through dynamic assessment".

Anna Wing Bo Tso demonstrates an example of how to use literary text in language teaching with the article entitled "Teaching short stories to students of English as a foreign language (EFL) at tertiary level."

Seyyed Hatam Tamimi Sa'd and Mohammad Mohammadi investigate the speech act of apology in terms of politeness strategies in their study "A cross-sectional study of Iranian EFL learners' polite and impolite apologies".

Hisham Adam presents an interesting research article entitled "Dysprosody in aphasia: An acoustic analysis evidence from Palestinian Arabic" which investigates four Palestinians with Broca's aphasia through an acoustic analytic study.

Aysel Şahin Kızıl and Abdurrahman Kilimci presents a corpus based analysis of the use of recurrent phrases in Turkish EFL context in their research entitled "Recurrent phrases in Turkish EFL learners' spoken interlanguage: A corpus-driven structural and functional analysis."

To conclude the foreword and leave you alone with the works published in *Volume 10 Number 1* of *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies* at its tenth anniversary, we would like to thank to the researchers, reviewers, and editorial team members who contributed to our journal in the past ten years, and invite new authors to submit to our journal which now owns the privilege and experience of ten years of academic publishing.

On behalf of the editorial board,

Best regards,

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Arif SARIÇOBAN

Editor-in-Chief



Speaking anxiety among Turkish EFL learners: The case at a state university¹

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Abstract

This study investigated the level, major causes, determining factors of foreign language speaking anxiety and students' perceptions of it in a Turkish EFL context. Pre-intermediate students (N=383) of an English preparatory program at a state university participated in the study. The data regarding the level of EFL speaking anxiety were collected through a questionnaire, and then, randomly selected participants (N=19) were interviewed to get in-depth data on speaking anxiety. The quantitative data were analyzed through descriptive statistics, and the qualitative data were analyzed via content analysis. Although the results of the quantitative data revealed that students experienced a low level of EFL speaking anxiety, the quantitative data demonstrated that most of the students perceive speaking skill as an anxiety provoking factor. It was also found that pronunciation, immediate questions, fears of making mistakes and negative evaluation are the major causes of EFL speaking anxiety. Finally, the present study puts forward that foreign language speaking anxiety is a separate phenomenon with its own sources, aspects, variables and effects on learners.

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Keywords: English as a foreign language, EFL speaking anxiety, Turkish learners

1. Introduction

In every learning environment, human psychology plays a significant role. Foreign language learning is also one of the domains that is highly affected by human psychology. In the literature, several research studies (Chastain, 1975; Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1990; Samimy & Tabuse, 1992; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Schumann, 1999; Zhanibek, 2001) revealed that psychological factors play an important role in language learning process. All these studies put forward the remarkable influence of affective factors on language learning process. These affective factors include several features such as efficacy, empathy, and introversion (Brown, 1994).

Research on the relationship between foreign language learning and affective variables generally focuses on a number of personality factors such as self-esteem, risk-taking, extroversion, motivation and anxiety (Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2013). In the process of language learning, these qualities may have positive or negative effects. One of those qualities is anxiety, which is an important part of the affective domain and has been a research area in foreign language teaching field for so long.

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¹ This study is a condensed summary of the master's thesis entitled *Foreign language speaking anxiety and learner motivation: A case study at a Turkish state university* completed by Gökhan Öztürk in 2012.

2. Theoretical background

2.1. Foreign language anxiety

The current literature abounds with definitions of anxiety. One common definition is that it refers to an unpleasant emotional condition characterized feelings of tension and apprehension (Spielberger, 1983). With these negative connotations, anxiety is one of the prominent factors in all kinds of learning. For that reasons, it can be associated with foreign language learning which is a process highly dominated by affective variables. This association leads to a new term called foreign language anxiety.

Foreign language anxiety, which is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon (Young, 1990), can be defined as “the subjective feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening and learning” (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1993, p. 284). Being the first to treat foreign language anxiety as a separate phenomenon, Horwitz et al. (1986) define foreign language anxiety as “a distinct complex of self perceptions, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p.127). Based on empirical data and anecdotal evidence, they proposed a theory on language learning anxiety. This foreign language anxiety theory has three interrelated components; communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety. Communication apprehension is defined by Horwitz et al. (1986) as “a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people” (p. 127). Fear of negative evaluation refers to the “apprehension about others’ evaluation, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively” (p. 128). Finally, test anxiety covers the tests and examinations of the language learning process and defined as “a type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure” (p. 128).

The effect of this model led to a number of studies which have been carried out on the effects of foreign language anxiety on language learning. One of these studies was conducted by Horwitz (1991). The findings of this study carried out on Spanish and French students revealed that students with high levels of anxiety received lower course grades than the students with lower levels of anxiety. In a similar study which analyzed American students learning Japanese, Aida (1994) found that anxious students got lower grades than their calmer counterparts did.

Ying (1993) carried out a study to investigate the effects of foreign language anxiety on English learning with senior high school students in northern Taiwan. The results showed that a slightly difficult test in classroom atmosphere would increase the level of students’ anxiety and influence their language proficiency. In her study, it was also reported that facilitating anxiety did not much help to increase students’ language proficiency. In addition to this, Saito and Samimy (1996) found out that foreign language anxiety can have a negative impact on Japanese learners’ performance and the influence of foreign language anxiety becomes more important as learners’ instructional level increases.

A different study was carried out by Djigunovic (2006) on Croatian undergraduate EFL learners to investigate the effects of language anxiety on language processing. The findings of her study revealed that students with high levels of language anxiety produce smaller amounts of continuous speech in L2 and they make longer pauses while speaking compared to students with low levels of language anxiety.

Depending on the explanatory power of this foreign language anxiety model, researchers in this area became interested in conducting research studies on anxiety and language skills. Among language skills, speaking attracted the most attention and a new term, foreign language speaking anxiety, has emerged.

2.2. Foreign language speaking anxiety

Speaking is a productive one among four language skills. In today's language classrooms, students try to improve this productive skill in many ways. They perform orally in front of a group, and they make oral presentations or participate in group discussion. They are sometimes called on to speak by their teacher in the target language. All these challenging speaking tasks may sometimes influence the learners and cause such sentences uttered by the learners:

“I always feel nervous when speaking English”.

“I feel bad in my mind because I wonder why I can't speak English very well.”

“My English appear is not good enough; I can't express very well.”

“Sometimes I feel stupid, some people look at me, a strange man, cannot speak good.”

(Tanveer, 2007, p. 1)

Students in foreign language classrooms generally report that speaking in the target language is the most anxiety producing experience. According to Young (1990), speaking activities requiring in front of class and on spot performance produce the most anxiety from the students' perspective and learners experience more anxiety over speaking than other language skills.

Several research studies have been carried out related to students' foreign language speaking anxiety. In his study, Price (1991) found that speaking in front of their peers is a very anxiety provoking activity for the foreign language learners because the learners were concerned about making mistakes in pronunciation and being laughed at. Koch and Terrell (1991) found similar findings concerning students' speaking anxiety. They claimed that activities examined in the Natural Approach such as oral presentations, role-playing, defining words are the most anxiety producing ones.

Huang (2004) investigated speaking anxiety among EFL non-English university students in Taiwan, and found that students experience a high level of speaking anxiety. In their large scale research study that is carried out on 547 Chinese EFL students, Liu and Jackson (2008) concluded that students experience anxiety in speaking and foreign language anxiety is a powerful predictor for unwillingness to communicate in foreign language classes. In addition, in their qualitative study Tsiprakides and Keramida (2009) analyzed fifteen third-grade Greek students who ranged in age between from 13 to 14. They found that six students experience English language speaking anxiety due to the fear of negative evaluation from their peers and perception of low ability compared to their peers.

In her study, Dalkılıç (2001) investigated the correlation between students' foreign language anxiety levels and their achievement in speaking courses. She conducted her study on 126 Turkish freshman EFL learners and benefited from both qualitative and quantitative data. The findings of the study revealed that there was a significant relationship between the students' anxiety levels and their success in speaking classes. In addition, Ay (2010) found that students reported anxiety in an advanced level in productive skills. The participants of the study reported that their anxiety occurs most when they are required to speak without being prepared in advance. Moreover, in his study which focuses on the relationship between proficiency level and degree of foreign language speaking anxiety in a Turkish EFL context, Balemir (2009) revealed that Turkish EFL university students experience a moderate level of speaking anxiety in their language classes. Furthermore, Saltan (2003) investigated the EFL speaking anxiety in terms of both students' and teachers' perspectives. The findings of her study indicated that students experience a certain degree of EFL speaking anxiety, but the intensity of it is not disturbingly high.

As stated above, though there are a substantial number of studies in literature carried out to reveal the level of EFL speaking anxiety experienced by learners, few of them provides an insight on the unique nature of it, and a deep understanding of this phenomena is missing in the literature. For that reason, the present study aims to present a broad understanding of EFL speaking anxiety. In the light of this theoretical background and the objectives, the current study was guided by the following research questions:

1. Do the Turkish university students in English preparatory program experience EFL speaking anxiety in language classrooms? If so, what is the level of it?
2. How do the students perceive EFL speaking anxiety and what are the major causes of it?

3. Methodology

3.1. Design and setting of the study

This study examines foreign language speaking anxiety in a Turkish EFL context. In this study, both qualitative and quantitative data were utilized by the researchers because they believe that having data which have been collected through different methods provide more reliable results and reduce potential biases. Qualitative data were gathered through face to face interviews, and quantitative data were collected by a questionnaire.

This study was conducted at an English preparatory program which is a compulsory one aiming to develop the English skills of students for their academic programs. There are 28 instructors working in this program and 650-700 students on average every year. Students have 25 hours of English every week. English is taught integratively in English preparatory program. They study 15 hours main course and 10 hours of writing and reading skills with a different instructor. Speaking activities are generally conducted in main course based on the guidance of the course book used in classes.

3.2. Participants

The participants of the study included 383 pre-intermediate students, 225 female and 158 male, of an English preparatory program at a state university. Their ages ranged between 17 and 22, and they were in their first year at university. Although they were all learning English in the preparatory program of the university, the students were from different departments such as business administration, economics, tourism management, chemistry, physics and biology.

3.3. Data collection instruments

3.3.1. Foreign language speaking anxiety questionnaire

Foreign language speaking anxiety questionnaire was designed by selecting 18 items from 33 items of FLCAS developed by Horwitz et al. (1986). After a detailed review of literature, these 18 items were decided to be directly related to foreign language speaking anxiety. This relationship was also proved by the study conducted by Saltan (2003). For that reason, these items written in foreign language speaking anxiety questionnaire (see Appendix) were used to investigate whether students experienced speaking anxiety and the degree of it.

In order to prevent any misunderstanding of the statements, translated version of the items were administered to the participants. The version translated by Saltan (2003) through back translation was also examined by the researchers and a research assistant having his PhD in translation. In the current

study, the internal consistency of foreign language speaking anxiety questionnaire (FLSAQ) was found as .91, which shows that the instrument has a high reliability coefficient.

3.3.2. Interview questions

After a detailed examination of literature, the researchers prepared an interview protocol in order to get in-depth data about EFL speaking anxiety experienced by the learners in language classrooms. The interview protocol consisted of five open-ended questions which were supposed to provide valuable information for this study in the sense that the questions gave an opportunity to students to express themselves freely. In addition to this, the researchers believed that these interview questions would provide qualitative support for the statistical analyses. The interviews were semi-structured and some prompts were prepared and asked to participants in order to encourage them to elaborate on their ideas. The questions were piloted with three students and their feedback was taken to make the questions more clear and understandable for the interviewees. Finally, the interviews were conducted in their mother tongue in order to prevent any bias and help students express themselves better.

3.4. Data analysis

In this study, a 5-graded Likert scale was used to collect quantitative data. The quantitative data were compiled and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 17.0 was used to analyze these data through descriptive statistics.

The qualitative data were gathered through semi-structured interviews carried out with 19 students to get in-depth data and have a broad understanding about their potential EFL speaking anxiety. After the interviews were transcribed by the researchers and translated with the help of an expert on translation, the data were analyzed through content analysis. The common and significant points, themes and patterns were found in the data. The themes were cross-checked and coded by the researchers to ensure inter-rater reliability. Then, these coherent patterns were categorized, and the frequencies were presented for each question.

4. Findings and discussion

4.1. The level of EFL speaking anxiety

The first research question of the study investigated the level of EFL speaking anxiety that the students experience. To measure the level of speaking anxiety, a questionnaire having 18 items was used. Since the questionnaire is a 5-graded Likert scale, the total score ranged from 18 to 90. A total score of more than 72 demonstrated a high level of speaking anxiety; a total score ranged from 54 to 72 presented a moderate level of speaking anxiety, and participants who had a total score less than 54 showed a low level of foreign language speaking anxiety.

To determine the level of foreign language speaking anxiety of the participants, the mean scores were computed through descriptive statistics. The statistical results presented in Table 1 and 2 reveal that the students at the program generally experience a low level of EFL speaking anxiety.

Table 1. The level of foreign language speaking anxiety

Foreign language Speaking Anxiety	
Mean	51.19

Table 2. Percentages and frequencies of participants' foreign language speaking anxiety

	Percentages	Frequencies
Low level of speaking anxiety	58	222
Moderate level of speaking anxiety	30.3	116
High level of speaking anxiety	11.7	45
Total	100	383

The reason behind this low level of speaking anxiety may be the awareness of the fact that being able to speak English in Turkey is a distinct advantage in most of the areas. For this reason, they try to improve their speaking ability eagerly in their language classes and so, experience a low level of anxiety.

4.2. Students' perceptions of EFL speaking anxiety

Question 1: Do you think speaking English is an anxiety provoking factor in language learning process?

The first question examined the students' perception of speaking English in terms of anxiety. The students were asked, during the interviews, whether speaking English was an anxiety provoking factor for them in this language learning process.

Table 3. Students' perception of speaking in terms of anxiety

	Frequency
An anxiety provoking factor	15
Not an anxiety provoking factor	4

On the contrary to the quantitative results which showed that students got anxious in a low level while speaking English, more than a third of students being interviewed reported that speaking English is an anxiety provoking factor in language classrooms. Interviewee 18, who regarded speaking as an anxiety provoking factor, stated that:

"In my opinion, definitely yes. Whenever I want to speak in the lesson, my heart starts to beat very fast and I feel as if I am going to faint. Because of this, I can't finish my sentences most of the time and I sit down."

Another student, Interviewee 15, told that:

"I think speaking is the most anxiety provoking activity in the lessons. While I am speaking, I get anxious and make a lot of mistakes. As I make mistakes, I lose my enthusiasm and do not want speak again."

As the sentences uttered by the students illustrate, speaking is perceived as an anxiety provoking factor by most of the students in language learning process. This finding shows parallelism with several studies which reveal that speaking is a source of anxiety. In her study investigating the students' perspectives on speaking and anxiety, Young (1990) maintains that activities requiring speaking performances are the most anxiety provoking ones for students. Moreover, Price (1991) revealed that speaking in front of their peers in the class is anxiety provoking factor for students because they are afraid of making mistakes or being laughed at. Moreover, in their study, Horwitz et. al. (1986) who studied foreign language anxiety as a separate phenomenon found that speaking was perceived by students as the most threatening aspect of language learning. Regarding the findings of these studies which are supported by the finding of this study, it can be said that speaking English is an anxiety provoking factor in this learning process for the Turkish university students.

On the other hand, four students reported that speaking is not an anxiety provoking factor in language learning process. Among these students, Interviewee 1 stated that:

“I do not think that speaking is an anxiety provoking factor but it may affect the motivation. I mean, if you get anxious while speaking, your motivational level may decrease.”

The sentences uttered by this student may serve as an illustration of the negative correlation between speaking anxiety and motivation demonstrated by the findings of this study. It can also be concluded that some students may be aware of this negative correlation between these two affective variables.

Another sentence uttered by one of the students who thought that speaking is not an anxiety provoking factor illustrates another aspect of speaking anxiety:

“I am not sure whether it is anxiety or not, but what I feel makes me more careful while I am speaking. I speak more carefully to make correct sentences. In a short time, as much as I speak, this feeling begins to decrease.”

The feeling that the student is talking about may be a proof of facilitating anxiety. Facilitating anxiety influences the learner in a positive, motivating way. It may also help students do better than they might and it might keep the students poised and alert. For this reason, it can be concluded that speaking anxiety may have a facilitating effect on students which make them more careful and alert while speaking English.

Question 2: What kinds of situations cause stress or anxiety on you while speaking English?

This question aimed to identify the situations in which students experience stress and anxiety while speaking English. Several situations and reasons were uttered by the students and most of the students reported more than one situation and reason that cause stress and anxiety while they are speaking English. The situations reported by the students are: forgetting or not remembering appropriate words, not being prepared in advance for speaking, pronouncing the words incorrectly, being exposed to immediate questions, speaking in front of the class, knowing the turn is coming, not managing to make sentences. The frequencies of these situations are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Situations causing anxiety for students while they are speaking English

Codes	Frequency
When I forget or cannot remember appropriate words	7
When I am not prepared in advance for speaking	9
When I cannot pronounce the words correctly	6
When I am exposed to immediate questions	7
When I have to speak in front of the class	4
When I cannot make sentences	5
When I know that my turn is coming	5

The results revealed that there are several situations that cause anxiety on students while they are speaking. The close frequency of the reported situations by the students being interviewed demonstrates that all the reasons have a significant influence on students' speaking anxiety. When the answers to this question are examined in detail, it can be seen that the codes “When I am not prepared in advance for speaking” and “When I am exposed to immediate questions” have the highest frequencies. Interviewee 6, who is one of the owners of this answer, state that:

“I get very anxious when I am not prepared to speak. For example, our teacher sometimes asks questions immediately such as “Yes, (Interviewee 6). What do you think about....?”. At this moment, I get incredibly anxious and do not know what and how to say. It is a very bad situation for me.”

Depending on this result, it can be concluded that not being prepared for speaking is a significant cause of their speaking anxiety for students at English preparatory program. In addition to this, both of the items above reveal that students are not happy with immediately asked questions which force them to speak without preparation. Instead, it can be concluded that students feel more comfortable and relaxed to speak English if they are given some time to get prepared for speaking or arrange what to say.

Another important point of this interview question is put forward by the codes “When I forget or cannot remember appropriate words” and “When I cannot pronounce the words correctly” and their high frequencies. These items and their high frequencies reveal that causes of foreign language speaking anxiety experienced by the students may have word knowledge origins. In other words, it can be concluded that trying to find the appropriate vocabulary items and pronounce them correctly at the same time cause anxiety on students while they are speaking English. Their focus on this struggle rather than the speaking itself may create an anxiety provoking mood.

The last point that should be discussed for this question is the code “When I have to speak in front of the class” which has the least frequency among other codes. Although there are several studies in the literature (Price, 1991; Koch & Terrel, 1991; Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009; Young, 1990) which demonstrated “speaking in front of the class or peers” as a primary cause for speaking anxiety, the result of this interview question reveals that Turkish students do not regard this cause as a major one for their EFL speaking anxiety. This may be originated from the fact that students are concerned with the other causes of speaking anxiety mentioned above and the reactions of their friends are of secondary importance for them.

Question 3: For you, what are the reasons for this anxiety?

The third question of the interviews asked students the reasons for the anxiety they experience while speaking English. The students reported several points that they regarded as the reasons for speaking anxiety. These reasons were grouped in three categories and presented in Table 5.

Table 5. The reasons for foreign language speaking anxiety

	Codes	Frequency
Educational	I do not have enough practice of speaking	2
	I did not have a good English education	1
Individual	Being afraid of making mistakes	3
	I am learning a language that I am not familiar with	7
	Lack of self-confidence for speaking English	3
	I do not know how to say what I think	5
Environmental	Classroom atmosphere	2
	To speak in front of others	2
	Potential reaction of the other students on my speaking performance	3

According to the students' answers, it can be seen that there are several basic reasons for speaking anxiety and these reasons can be classified under three headings as educational, individual and environmental.

Depending on the results of this question, it is understood that the reasons for foreign language speaking anxiety mainly result from individual factors. Among these individual factors, the code "I am learning a language that I am not familiar with" has the highest frequency. That means Turkish students perceive English as a phenomena that they are unfamiliar with and trying to express themselves via this unfamiliarity forms a basic reason for speaking anxiety. On this issue, Interviewee 6 stated that:

"Actually we are learning a language that we do not know. I mean, we are foreign to that language and it is very difficult to express yourself in this language. We are trying to learn it and we have never heard this language before. For this reason, I get anxious when I speak and I think that is quite normal."

Furthermore, the code "I do not know how to say what I think" is seen as a remarkable reason for speaking anxiety with its high frequency. This code reveals two perspectives. The first one is that students, individually, make an effort for how to say what they think while they are speaking. If they experience a failure in this effort and cannot say what they think, this failure creates an anxiety for the next time. Secondly, it can be said that students get anxious while speaking English when they are not proficient enough to speak English or they are not equipped with the necessary structures and word knowledge. For this reason, students should not be forced to express themselves in the target language unless they are proficient enough to do so or they are equipped with the necessary structures and word knowledge of the current topic being covered in the classroom. In addition to this, it is found out that "being afraid of making mistakes" and "lack of self-confidence" are other individual factors which are regarded by students as basic reasons for speaking anxiety.

Other factors that are reported to be the basic reasons for speaking anxiety are in environmental group. This group of factors revealed that environmental reasons which are reported to be the reasons for students' EFL speaking anxiety are mainly related to other students in class. Speaking in front of other students and their potential reactions to the speaking performance of an individual constitute some basic reasons for speaking anxiety. With this result, the importance of having a sincere atmosphere in class, in which students help each other and do not look down on other students because of their speaking performance, comes into light.

The last group of factors which has the lowest frequency is the educational factors. Some students reported that "not having enough practice of speaking" and "not having a good English education" are basic factors for their speaking anxiety. It is seen that some Turkish students in EFL classrooms question their language learning background and the ones who think that their background was not beneficial enough for them, regard it as a basic reason for speaking anxiety.

Question 4: Do you worry about making mistakes while speaking?

The worry of making mistakes while speaking is one of the reasons that cause anxiety for students. This interview question aimed to investigate whether the participants worried about making mistakes while speaking. The results related to this question were presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Students' worry about making mistakes while speaking

		Frequency
Yes, I worry about making mistakes	Pronunciation	7
	vocabulary	3
No, I do not worry about making mistakes		5
I sometimes worry about making mistakes		4

The results of this question revealed that slightly more than fifty percent of the students worry about making mistakes while speaking English. Seventy percent of these students reported that they worry about making pronunciation mistakes most while thirty percent of them worry about making vocabulary mistakes. Depending on this, it can be concluded that pronouncing the vocabulary items correctly can be a source of EFL speaking anxiety for language learners in classrooms. While speaking in the classroom atmosphere, students try to pronounce the words correctly and they are aware of the fact that it is quiet probable to mispronounce a vocabulary item. This awareness may lead to a fear of making pronunciation mistake and it may result in anxiety for speaking. For this reason, language instructors should dictate their students that mispronouncing the vocabulary items is a quiet normal mistake in this learning process and these mistakes should be regarded as a learning step for better speaking skill rather than a source for speaking anxiety.

On the other hand, thirty percent of the students being interviewed reported that they do not worry about making mistakes while speaking English. On this issue, interviewee 2 stated that:

“No, I don't. I don't mind making mistakes because we are learning a foreign language and I think it is a very normal thing.”

It can be seen that some students do not worry about making mistakes while speaking English. They regard the mistakes as a normal part of this learning process. Language instructors can benefit from these students. Integrating this kind of students with the ones who worry about making mistakes and get anxious may be a good example of peer collaboration. This integration may help anxious students in changing their perception of making mistakes and overcoming their anxiety.

Finally, the results revealed that twenty percent of students sometimes worry about making mistakes while speaking English. The common point that these students reported is that the atmosphere of the classroom is influential on the level of their worry. The situation is clear in the sentences of Interviewee 13:

“Sometimes. (prompt). I mean it is related to the class atmosphere. When everybody tries to do something and participates in the lesson, I don't worry but when the atmosphere is funny and my friends make jokes with the speaking performance of others, I worry about making mistakes.”

According to this, it can be concluded that the atmosphere of the classrooms may have a negative or positive effect on the level of students' worry about making mistakes. As a result, the importance of the class atmosphere comes into light because, as it is seen, it may even affect students' perception of mistakes in this learning process.

Question 5: Do you worry about the evaluation and reaction of your friends on your speaking performance?

One of the factors causing speaking anxiety is the reaction or evaluation of other students. The fifth question aimed to investigate whether students worried about the reactions or evaluation of their friends while speaking English. The results depending on the answers of students to this question are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Students' worry about the reactions of their friends while speaking

	Frequency
Yes, I worry about the reactions of my friends	9
No, I do not worry about the reactions of my friends	6
I sometimes worry about the reactions of my friends	4

The results demonstrated that nearly thirty percent of the students do not worry about the reactions of their friends. They reported that they do not care what their friends do or say and they just focus on speaking. Some of these students, as Interviewee 1, told that they felt as if there is only him/her in the classroom.

“When I begin to speak, I feel there is only me and my teacher in the class. I just try to say what I want to say, finish my sentence and sit down. I don't care what my friends are doing or saying on my speaking or pronunciation.”

On the other hand, about fifty percent reported that they worry about the reactions of their friends. Some of them told that they were very afraid to be laughed at or to be a comic figure in front of the class and they sometimes did not want to speak because of this. The common point of these students is that this worry affects their speaking performance and result in a kind of anxiety provoking situation. Interviewee 18 stated on this issue that:

“Unfortunately, I am quiet worried about what my friends do or say on my speaking. I am always afraid of being laughed at by them if I pronounce a word incorrectly. I hate them laughing at me. For this reason, I sometimes do not want to answer a question even if I know the answer.”

As it is seen in the results of this interview question, the reaction of other students or peers may affect some students and cause anxiety provoking situations, and this negative effect should be minimized in classroom atmosphere. In addition to this, further research studies just focusing on the effect of other students on anxiety should be carried out to reach better results.

4.3. Overall discussion of the interviews

Five interview questions were prepared to obtain data regarding foreign language speaking anxiety. Thanks to these questions, several themes regarding speaking anxiety have emerged. In this part, these emerging themes are discussed.

4.3.1. EFL speaking anxiety as a separate phenomenon

The interviews revealed that speaking skill makes students feel anxious in the classroom atmosphere. That means, speaking English is perceived as an anxiety provoking factor by the learners on its own. On this point, Interviewee 7 stated that:

“We do a lot of things in the class but in my opinion, speaking is the most anxiety provoking one. (prompt). I don't know why but whenever I want to speak, I feel something bad that I cannot describe. I

cannot be sure what I am saying due to this feeling. I just say something correct or incorrect and sit down at the end. The problem is that I will feel the same thing for the next time.”

As the sentences demonstrate, EFL speaking anxiety is a separate phenomenon affecting the feelings and performances of learners. In addition to this, answers of the students to the other questions of the interviews revealed that speaking anxiety has several aspects, reasons, variables and results which are unique and specific to the nature of this phenomenon. For this reason, it can be concluded that EFL speaking anxiety should be focused on and studied separately in future research studies.

4.3.2. Spontaneous speaking: A primary situation causing speaking anxiety on learners

One of the interview questions revealed that speaking spontaneously is the most common situation in which students get anxious. In other words, students being interviewed reported that they experience anxiety most when they have to speak without being prepared in advance and when they are exposed to instant questions by their teachers. The sentences above illustrate the issue:

“I get very anxious when I am not prepared to speak. For example, our teacher sometimes asks questions immediately such as “Yes, (Interviewee 6). What do you think about.....?”. At this moment, I get incredibly anxious and do not know what and how to say. It is a very bad situation for me.” (Interviewee 6)

“When our teacher asks questions and waits for the answer, I get incredibly anxious. I think it would be better if she gave us a little time to think.” (Interviewee 11)

As the thoughts of students demonstrate, being unprepared for speaking, or spontaneous speaking causes anxiety on learners. When the students are asked instant questions or required to speak without any preparation, they get more anxious. For this reason, it can be understood that students feel more comfortable and become less anxious for speaking when they are given some time to arrange their ideas, think and get prepared for speaking. Therefore, language instructors should take this into consideration and integrate it to their oral activities.

4.3.3. Sources of foreign language speaking anxiety

After the analysis of student interviews, the obtained results revealed that foreign language speaking anxiety arises from three major factors. These are fear of making mistakes, a perfectionist attitude and reactions of other students.

The fear of making mistakes

Answers of students to the during the interviews demonstrated that most of the students in language classrooms are afraid of making mistakes while speaking English and this fear makes them feel anxious. On this issue, interviewee 10 stated that:

“Yes, I worry about making mistakes. (prompt). Especially, I am afraid of making pronunciation mistakes, and sometimes, I don’t want to speak when I’m not sure about the correct pronunciations.

As it is seen, fear of making mistakes is a significant factor that causes EFL speaking anxiety on learners. It may discourage students to speak in the classroom atmosphere. It can be concluded that overcoming this fear may decrease the level of speaking anxiety that students experience while speaking. For this reason, language instructors should teach their students that making mistakes is quite normal in a learning process and change students’ perspective for mistakes. Thanks to that, students will be aware of the fact that making mistakes is not a weakness but a learning step and that will help them overcome the anxiety they have for speaking.

The perfectionist attitude

One of the interview questions brought a significant theme into light regarding students' speaking performance. It was found that students had a perfectionist attitude which can be defined as their tendency to reach the correct result. In the answers of the students being interviewed, it is seen that students experience speaking anxiety due to this perfectionist attitude. They get anxious when they cannot pronounce the words correctly or when they cannot make correct sentences. The sentences of Interviewee 9 illustrate this issue:

“... I also get anxious when I cannot make correct sentences. I want to express myself with correct sentences. Besides, I want to pronounce the words correctly, but I cannot achieve this most of the time. I suppose trying to make everything correctly makes me nervous and anxious.”

The sentences above provide a good example of the perfectionist attitude. It is seen that students tend to produce grammatically correct sentences with contextually appropriate and correctly pronounced vocabulary items. Since achieving all these variables correctly, in other words producing perfect sentences, is a challenging performance, students feel anxious while speaking. They fully concentrate on producing correct words and sentences, and a probable mistake or a disappointment makes them anxious for the next speaking performance. Since it is clear that this perfectionist attitude may result in anxiety and have negative effects on students, it should be decreased or prevented by consultations and advices of language teachers.

Peer effect: Reactions of other students

Research (Ay, 2010; Horwitz et al., 1986; Noormohamadi, 2009; Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009) in the literature revealed that fear of negative evaluation by others is one of the major sources of speaking anxiety. Qualitative data showed parallelism with those studies. Answers of the students demonstrated that reactions of other students to the speaking performance of a student play a remarkable role on EFL speaking anxiety he/she experiences. At this point, the statements of some students provide a clear illustration:

“Unfortunately, I am quiet worried about what my friends do or say on my speaking. I am always afraid of being laughed at by them if I pronounce a word incorrectly. I hate them laughing at me. For this reason, I sometimes do not want to answer a question even if I know the answer.” (Interviewee 18)

“I would feel comfortable and participate in speaking activities in a class in which other students do not laugh when we make a mistake or interrupt us when we are speaking.” (Interviewee 4)

As it is seen in the sentences of students, reactions of other students, namely peer effect, play a remarkable role on the anxiety students experience while speaking. Students are afraid of being laughed, negatively evaluated or interrupted by their friends in the classroom atmosphere. For these reasons, they get anxious to speak the target language in the classroom atmosphere. Depending on this, it can be concluded that minimizing this peer effect in language classrooms may help students get less anxious for speaking and accordingly they would be more eager and willing to participate in oral activities.

5. Conclusions

The present study examined EFL speaking anxiety through the perspectives of Turkish university students in an intensive language learning context. The level of EFL speaking anxiety experienced by the students was identified via a questionnaire and 19 students were also interviewed for a deeper analysis of this anxiety. The results of the quantitative data revealed that students of this study generally experienced a low level of EFL speaking anxiety in their classrooms. On the other hand, the

qualitative data demonstrated significant points regarding EFL speaking anxiety, and these points are taught to provide a guiding way for teachers to understand their students' anxiety in the speaking activities. Finally, in addition to putting forward that EFL speaking anxiety may be a separate phenomenon other than general foreign language anxiety and it should also be investigated in other contexts, the current study presents the following points as a conclusion for the analysis of that anxiety:

- speaking skill is perceived as an anxiety-provoking factor by most of the students,
- EFL speaking anxiety may have a facilitative effect which makes students more careful while speaking,
- students get more anxious when they speak without being prepared in advance and when they are exposed to immediate questions,
- EFL speaking anxiety may cause lack of self confidence and giving up speaking in classroom atmosphere,
- Factors causing EFL speaking anxiety can be grouped under three headings as individual, environmental and educational. Individual reasons such as not being familiar with the target language, lack of self-confidence and being afraid of making mistakes are more dominant than the others
- Most of the students worry about making pronunciation and vocabulary mistakes while speaking English in the classroom. This worry results in anxiety and the mood of the classroom has an influential role on this worry.
- Potential reactions and evaluation of other students in class can be a dominant factor on the anxiety that students experience while speaking.

These conclusions provide a pathway for teachers to follow when dealing with anxiety. It is clearly seen that they should give their students some time to get prepared for speaking rather than asking them immediate questions and waiting for the answer. Besides, the teachers should have more information about their learners' individual and educational background in order to get better precautions for anxiety. In the classroom atmosphere, students should be informed that making mistakes are quite natural while speaking and these mistakes should be seen as learning steps. In addition to this, the evaluation and negative reactions of other students in the classroom should be minimized by the teacher in order to have a more sincere atmosphere. To conclude, through these practical ideas suggested by this study, teachers may have a more sincere classroom atmosphere in which their students speak English more comfortably.

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Appendix A. Foreign language speaking anxiety questionnaire

<p>Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Questionnaire - English Version</p> <p>This questionnaire is prepared to collect information about your level of English language speaking anxiety that you experience in classroom atmosphere. After reading each statement, please circle the number which appeals to you most. There are no right or wrong answers for the items in this questionnaire. Thanks for your contribution.</p> <p style="text-align: center;"> '1' : Strongly disagree. '2' : Disagree. '3' : Not sure. '4' : Agree. '5' : Strongly agree. </p>

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I am never quite sure of myself when I am speaking in English.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am afraid of making mistakes in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I tremble when I know that I am going to be called on in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I get frightened when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English	1	2	3	4	5
5. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English classes	1	2	3	4	5
6. I get embarrassed to volunteer answers in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel nervous while speaking English with native speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I don't feel confident when I speak English in classes.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students	1	2	3	4	5
14. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I get nervous when I don't understand every word my English teacher says.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	1	2	3	4	5

İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin konuşma kaygısı: Devlet üniversitesinde bir durum çalışması

Öz

Bu çalışma yabancı dil konuşma kaygısının seviyesini, ana sebeplerini, belirleyici faktörlerini ve öğrencilerin algılarını araştırmaktadır. Çalışmaya Türkiye'deki bir devlet üniversitesinin İngilizce hazırlık programında okuyan 383 ön-orta seviyede öğrenci katılmıştır. Öğrencilerin kaygı seviyesini ölçmek için anket yöntemi kullanılmış, daha sonra yaşadıkları kaygı ile ilgili daha detaylı veri toplamak için rastgele seçilmiş 19 öğrenciyle görüşme yapılmıştır. Nicel veriler tanımlayıcı istatistiklerle analiz edilmiş, nitel verilerin analizinde ise içerik analizi kullanılmıştır. Nicel veriler öğrencilerin düşük seviyede konuşma kaygısı yaşadığını gösterse de, nitel veriler konuşma becerisinin öğrencilerin çoğu için kaygı yaratıcı bir faktör olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, İngilizce telaffuz, ani sorular, hata yapma korkusu ve olumsuz değerlendirmeler konuşma kaygısının temel sebepleri olarak bulunmuştur. Son olarak, bu çalışmanın sonuçları yabancı dil konuşma kaygısının kendine özgü sebepleri, değişkenleri ve sonuçlarıyla ayrı bir olgu olduğunu göstermektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: yabancı dil olarak İngilizce; İngilizce konuşma kaygısı; Türk öğrenciler

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Assessing ESL students' pronunciation in the Pakistani context

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Abstract

The present study is an investigation of ESL secondary school students' pronunciation. A sample of 440 ESL students of grade 10 was randomly selected from the Southern Punjab, Pakistan. A test was developed to assess the ESL students' pronunciation. The test consisted of monosyllabic, disyllabic, trisyllabic, quadrisyllabic, and multisyllabic words, diphthongs, triphthongs, stress and intonation, tongue twisters, voiced and unvoiced sounds, and interrogative, declarative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences. The students' overall performance in pronunciation was computed using appropriate statistical analysis. The mean scores of male and female students, urban and rural students and public and private school students were compared through t-values. It was concluded, based on the findings, that ESL students' pronunciation was good in articulating monosyllabic, disyllabic, trisyllabic, and quadrisyllabic words, stress and intonation, tongue twisters, voiced sounds, and imperative and exclamatory sentences. On the other hand, the participants poorly pronounced multisyllabic words, diphthongs, triphthongs, unvoiced sounds, interrogative sentences, and declarative sentences. Calculated t-values indicated that there was no significant difference in mean scores of male and female students, urban and rural students, and public and private school students. Some recommendations were made to improve the ESL students' pronunciation.

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Keywords: ESL students; pronunciation; sounds; words; phrases; sentences; assessment

1. Introduction

Second/foreign language (L2) learning is more complicated as compared to learning L1. It is also observed that the learning of receptive skills is easier than the productive skills. The students cannot get the mastery over these skills like native speakers in spite of learning it for many years. This problem is experienced severely in learning English as a foreign language (EFL) as the learners have difficulty in getting natural exposure to the target language. Furthermore, ESL learners cannot learn the native accent perfectly in spoken English (Richards, & Schmidt (2010).

Mastery over learning the pronunciation of target language has become a crucial prerequisite while learning EFL. The communicative approaches have revolutionized the field of the English language teaching. Therefore, extraordinary efforts have been made to learn pronunciation since 1980s (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996; Pennington, 1996).

Good and standard pronunciation increases the rate of understanding as well as the quality of communication. Therefore, the development of standard pronunciation must be emphasized at the very early stage of learning English. Accuracy plays a vital role for developing standard pronunciation too.

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Received Pronunciation (RP) is known as the standard accent of Standard English in England. Generally, acquisition of pronunciation is due to an exposure and interaction in the target language learning oriented environment. The pronunciation of ESL students can be improved by providing the instructions through native speakers of English and their standard recordings and using phonetic symbols simultaneously. Teacher and peer interaction and exercising accurate pronunciation are very significant as well (Larsen-Freeman, Long, & Jiang, 1991).

2. Literature review

According to the Concise Oxford English Dictionary (2004), “...the accent of English spoken in the south of England and heard from the native speakers throughout England and Wales is known as standard accent”. Bauer and Trudgill’s (1998) research revealed that 3% of people in Britain were RP speakers.

Jone (1917) stated that “the male members of the families of Southern England, who were educated from the great public boarding schools, were considered comparatively better in their pronunciation as compared to their female counterparts”. The persons belonging to the South of England used this pronunciation even though they did not get education from these schools. Furthermore, a considerable number of people, hailing from areas other than the South of England adopted their pronunciation. Jone (1917) further said, therefore, it is supposed that this pronunciation or relatively similar to this pronunciation was used by the members of London society who had university education. In the beginning, this pronunciation was called Public School Pronunciation (PSP) and this pronunciation was labelled as Received Pronunciation in 1926 (Ellis, 1869; Hickey, 1998; Upton, 2004).

Generally, children learn to pronounce through world-renowned principles of imitation and mimicry. In the beginning, they start to articulate those speech sounds that they hear in their surroundings especially from their parents and later on from schoolteachers. This articulation is known as auditory-cum-acoustic representation. Gradually, the strategy of the articulation of speech sounds moves to dividing the longer words into different syllables for the purpose of ease and access (Guenther, Ghosh, & Tourville, 2006). Hence, to learn the pronunciation of a word like ‘*Superficial*’, the speaker will analyze the word and then reproduce the word shape as four speech sounds (quadrisyllabic word) such as ‘*Su*’ ‘*per*’ ‘*fi*’ and ‘*cial*’. It can be transcribed as /su-pər-’fi-ʃəl/. It is assumed that children copy the sound quality by imitating the sounds produced by others in this process (Kuhl, 1987), but sometime they are unable to imitate the vowel sounds entirely as compared to the consonant sounds (Howell, Cross, & West, 1985).

As regards the present study, both the segmental phonology and supra-segmental phonology are considered. The sound system of the English language, in linguistics, is studied under these two aspects (Gimson, & Ramsaran, 1970). Individual vowels and consonants are studied under the former aspect whereas rhythm, intonation and pitch are discussed in the latter aspect of the English language sound system (Jones, 1966). The salient features of the sound system of the English language are discussed briefly here:

2.1. Consonants and vowels

They are known as individual sounds in the phonetic distinctions. According to the International Phonetic Association (IPA), there are 44 sounds in the British English language sound system, out of which 24 are consonant and, 12 (7 short and 5 long) are vowels (Roach, 1983). The detail of consonant sounds including voiced and voiceless is given in table 1.

Table1. English Consonants (Roach, 1983)

		Place of Articulation						
Manner of Articulation		Bilabial	Labial dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stops	Voiceless	p (<u>p</u> at)			t (<u>t</u> ack)		k (<u>k</u> at)	
	Voiced	b (<u>b</u> at)			d (<u>d</u> ig)		g (<u>g</u> et)	
Fricatives	Voiceless		f (<u>f</u> at)	θ (<u>th</u> in)	s (<u>s</u> at)	ʃ (<u>f</u> ish)		h (<u>h</u> at)
	Voiced		v (<u>v</u> at)	ð (<u>th</u> en)	z (<u>z</u> ap)	ʒ (<u>a</u> zure)		
Affricates	Voiceless					tʃ (<u>ch</u> urch)		
	Voiced					dʒ (<u>j</u> udge)		
Nasals		m (<u>m</u> at)			n (<u>n</u> at)		ŋ (<u>s</u> ing)	
Liquids					l (<u>l</u> ate)	r (<u>r</u> ate)		
Glides		w (<u>w</u> in)				j (<u>y</u> et)		

2.2. Vowels

Richards, & Schmidt (2010) defined vowel in the Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics as:

“...a speech sound produced without significant restriction of the air flowing through the mouth. In the English language, all vowels are voiced (except when whispering), but some languages, such as Japanese, have voiceless vowels as well”.

There are 12 (7 short and 5 long) vowel sounds in the British English language sound system as shown in figure 1. Four sounds are produced from the front part of the mouth, whereas three from the middle part and four from the back part of the mouth are articulated.

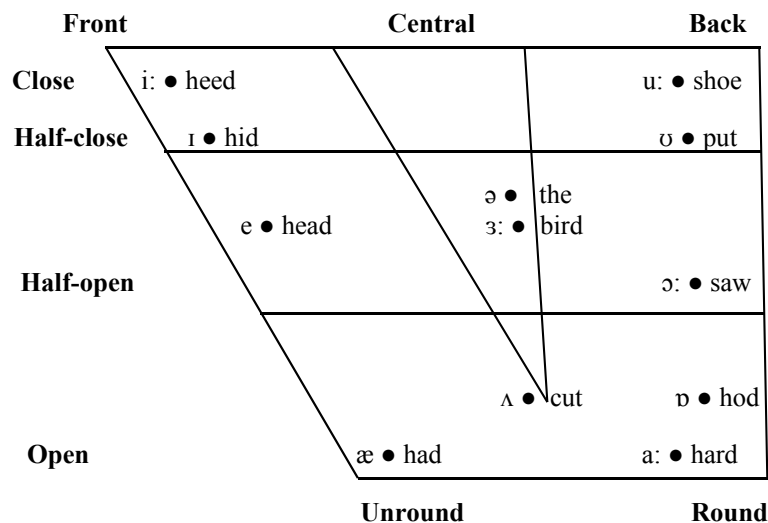


Figure 1: Diagram of English vowels (Roach, 1983)

2.3. Diphthongs

The combination of two vowel sounds rapidly gliding from one sound to another is called a diphthong. There are 8 (3 centering and 5 closing) diphthongs in the British English language sound system. Three sounds such as *ɪə* (hear), *eə* (wear), and *ʊə* (tour) are called centering diphthongs ending at /ə/ (schwa sound). Three sounds ending at /ɪ/ such as *eɪ* (day), *aɪ* (my), *ɔɪ* (boy) are known as closing diphthongs and lastly two sounds that culminate at /ʊ/ such as *əʊ* (go), *aʊ* (how) are also called closing diphthongs. The detail of diphthongs is given in figure 2.

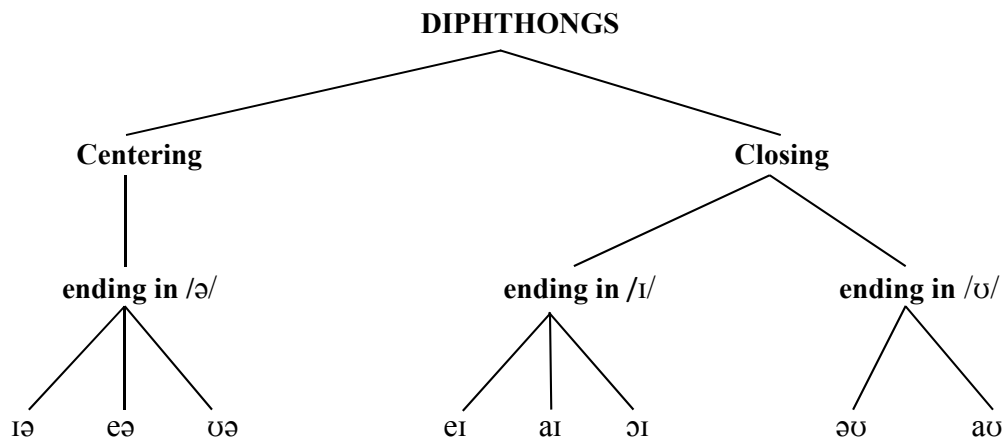


Figure 2: Diagram of English Diphthongs (Roach, 1983)

2.4. Triphthongs

A compound vowel sound that results by combining three different vowel sounds such as /aɪə/ as in the word fire /faɪə^r/ (Richards, & Schmidt (2010).

2.5. Syllables

ESL students generally learn to produce words after learning all the consonants, vowels and diphthongs individually. They break the longer words into different syllables to articulate them easily. The students have to face different types of words such as monosyllabic (single syllable), disyllabic (two syllables), trisyllabic (three syllables), quadrisyllabic (four syllables) and multisyllabic (more than four syllables) during pronouncing words.

2.6. Stress and Intonation

A syllable in a word pronounced forcefully by putting extra muscular force to make it prominent, and the listener hears that syllable in a very high and louder pitch, whereas an intonation is a rise and fall of pitch in a supra-segmental part of a language (Hooper, 1976). The high or low emphasized stress denotes and highlights the meaning of any syllable or a part of a sentence to distinguish it from other parts (Kramer, 1974). The meaning changes as the position of intonation varies as shown in the following sentence.

He gave me only one book. = (**HE** not she)
He gave me only one book. = (**GAVE** not taken)

He gave me only one book. = (**ME** not you or any other person)

He gave me only one book. = (**ONE** not more than one)

He gave me only one book. = (**BOOK** not any other thing)

ESL students' stress and intonation can be evaluated in different types of expressions such as tongue twisters, and voiced and unvoiced sounds. Furthermore, sentence stress that denotes stressed or unstressed part of a sentence is used to assess the students' stress and intonation patterns. As regards the present study, different types of words with different syllables were used along with a few expressions such as tongue twisters and interrogative, declarative, imperative and exclamatory sentences as well to evaluate the ESL students' pronunciation at secondary school level in Pakistan.

As regards the situation of English language in Pakistan, it is taught as a second language (L2) and is used as lingua franca for communication besides Urdu (national language) and many other dialects (Baumgardner, 1993; Haque, 1982). The ESL students in Pakistan begin to learn English as they start schooling. It is a fact that the students, especially hailing from rural areas, are unable to speak English despite studying English at school or college level for 10-12 years (Shamim, 2008). A few studies have been carried out in Pakistan regarding the ESL students' assessment in pronunciation (Shamim, 2008; Haque, 1982). Therefore, the present study is an attempt to fill the gap existing in the ESL field.

6. Method

6.1 Purpose of the study

The major purpose of the present study is to evaluate the ESL students' performance in articulation of different sounds. Secondly, to make comparison between the mean scores of male and female students, urban and rural students and public and private school students at secondary school level was the second objective of the study.

6.2 Research questions (RQ)

In connection with the purpose of the study, the following research questions were formulated.

RQ1. What was ESL students' performance in articulation of different sounds?

RQ2. What was the difference between the performance of male and female students in pronouncing different sounds?

RQ3. What was the difference between the performance of urban and rural students in articulating different sounds?

RQ4. What was the difference between the performance of public and private students in articulating different sounds?

6.3 Hypotheses

In pursuance of the research question 1, ESL students' overall performance was calculated, whereas to find the deference between the performance of male and female, urban and rural, and public and private students, the following hypotheses were made accordingly.

- 1- H₀: There was no significant difference between the mean scores of male and female students in pronunciation.
H₁: There was a significant difference between the mean scores of male and female students in pronunciation.
- 2 H₀: There was no significant difference between the mean scores of urban and rural students in pronunciation.
H₁: There was a significant difference between the mean scores of urban and rural students in pronunciation.
- 3 H₀: There was no significant difference between the mean scores of public and private students in pronunciation.
H₁: There was a significant difference between the mean scores of public and private students in pronunciation.

6.4 Participants

The ESL students of secondary school participated in the present study. A sample consisting of 440 students was chosen through random sampling technique from secondary schools of the Southern Punjab, Pakistan. Two hundred and ninety-five (67%) of the respondents were male students whereas one hundred and forty-five (33%) respondents were female students in the sample. Unlike the proportion of male and female respondents, the ratio of urban and rural students was equal. The respondents were selected from both the public and private secondary schools consisting of science and arts streams. The ratio of science stream and arts stream was 87% and 13% respectively. The age of the participants ranged between 14-17 years with a mean of 15.7 years.

6.5 Instrument

As mentioned earlier, the purpose of the present study was to assess the ESL students' assessment in pronunciation. Therefore, keeping in mind the objectives of the study, a test comprising of 30 items was developed. Different types of words, phrases and sentences such as monosyllabic, disyllabic, trisyllabic, quadrisyllabic, and multisyllabic words, diphthongs, triphthongs, stress and intonation, tongue twisters, voiced sounds, unvoiced sounds, along with interrogative, declarative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences were carefully included in the test. Each type of item consisted of 2 scores, therefore the total scores of the test were 30. The difficulty level of the test was set by using the Flesch Reading Ease Readability Formula. The Cronbach Alpha value was calculated to determine the internal consistency of the instrument. The calculated Cronbach Alpha value (0.812) indicated high reliability of the tool.

6.6 Data collection and analysis

The present study was exclusively concerned with the assessment of ESL students' pronunciation. Therefore, significant efforts were put in the collection of data. The correct pronunciation of the words, phrases and sentences including different sounds were established according to the Received Pronunciation (RP) that is considered the standard accent of Standard English (SE). The transcription of all the items were made by consulting the Concise Oxford English Dictionary (COED) edition 2011 prior to the administration of the tool. Moreover, a tape recorder was used to record the pronunciation of the respondents.

The data were gathered by using the developed test. The students were asked turn by turn to pronounce all the words, phrases and sentences listed in the test. During this procedure, the sounds pronounced by the respondents were recorded in a tape recorder that were analyzed one by one later on to evaluate whether the sounds are correctly pronounced.

The data were analyzed, later on, after listening keenly the recorded pronunciation of the ESL students. Mark 1 was awarded to the correct pronunciation and mark zero was given to the incorrect pronunciation. As the test consisted of 30 items (2 marks for each segment), each respondent could obtain mark(s) ranging from 0 to 60. The SPSS version XX was used for statistical analysis. The mean score and standard deviation were calculated for each item. T-values were also computed to explore the significant difference at $p < 0.05$ for male and female students, urban and rural students and public and private school students. Grading Formula (80% (A) = Excellent, 60% and above but below 70% (B) = Very Good, 50% and above but below 60% (C) = Good, 40% and above but below 50% (D) = Fair, below 40% but above 33% (E) = Satisfactory and below 33% (F) = Fail) used by all Board of Intermediate and Secondary Schools in Pakistan (Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education Bahawalpur, 2013) for grade 10 was followed.

7. Results

According to figure 3, the ESL students' overall performance in pronunciation was good in articulating monosyllabic, disyllabic, trisyllabic, and quadrisyllabic words, stress and intonation, tongue twisters, voiced sounds, and imperative and exclamatory sentences. Contrary to this, the students had poor pronunciation of multisyllabic words, diphthongs, triphthongs, unvoiced sounds, and interrogative and declarative sentences. According to the mean scores, the ESL students' maximum score was 1.73 out of 2 in pronouncing the monosyllabic words whereas their minimum mean score in articulating unvoiced sounds was 0.36. Their performance was also very poor in pronouncing diphthongs, triphthongs, and interrogative sentences. Their mean scores were 0.52, 0.53 and 0.40 in pronouncing diphthongs, triphthongs, and interrogative sentences respectively.

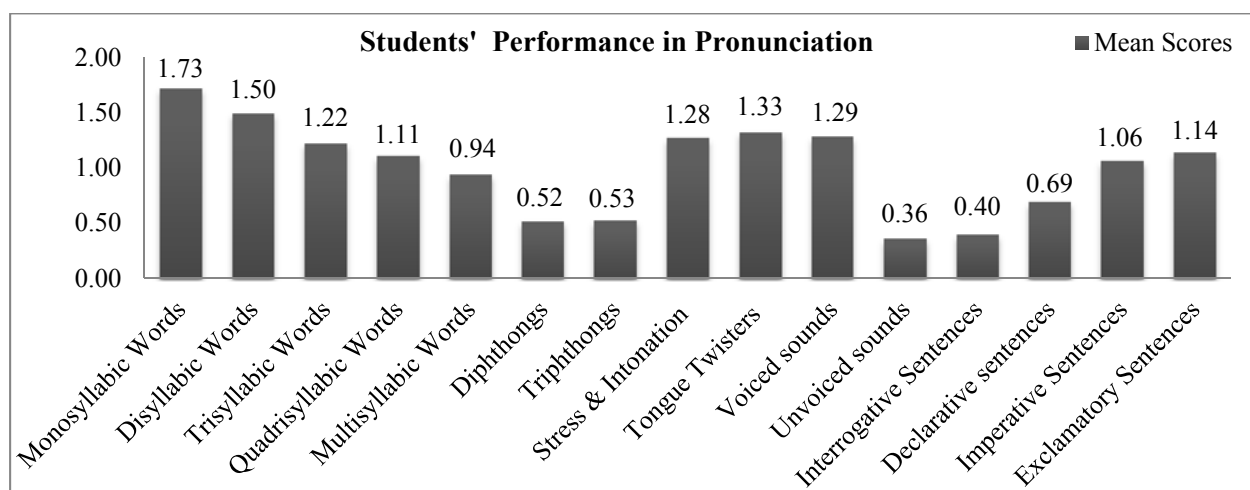


Figure 3: Students' mean scores in pronunciation

Table 2 revealed the performance of male and female students in pronunciation. The data presented in table 2 indicated that the performance of both the male and female students was 'exceptional' (as per grading formula) in pronouncing monosyllabic, and trisyllabic words. Their scores in monosyllabic and trisyllabic words ranged from 85 % to 97% that fall in the category of 'exceptional'. Their performance

was ‘very good’ in articulating disyllabic words, triphthongs, and stress and intonation. Their scores in these items ranged from 63% to 69 % that fall in the category of ‘very good’ according to the grading formula. Similarly, both the genders showed ‘good’ performance in quadrisyllabic words and interrogative sentences. The range of the obtained scores was from 53% to 58% of these items. Contrary to this, they stood fail in articulating diphthongs, tongue twisters, imperative sentences and exclamatory sentences. Their scores ranged from 7% to 27% that fall in the category of ‘fail’. The performance in other items remained fair and satisfactory because the range of the scores in the rest items ranged from 33% to 45% (see Table 2).

To compare the performance on gender basis was one of the objectives. Therefore, two types of hypotheses were made to compare the mean scores of male and female students’ scores.

The calculated t-value (0.090) at $p < 0.05$ level of significance demonstrated that alternate hypothesis ($1-H_0$) was accepted. Therefore, the results showed that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of male and female students. Table 2 reflects the standard deviation values also.

Table 2. Comparison of male and female students’ performance in pronunciation

Sr. No	Pronunciation category	Scores per category	Male students			Female students			t-value
			Mean score	%	Std. deviation	Mean score	%	Std. deviation	
1	Monosyllabic Words	2	1.76	88.00	.32	1.79	89.50	.36	0.090*
2	Disyllabic Words	2	1.39	69.50	.46	1.30	65.00	.47	
3	Trisyllabic Words	2	1.74	87.00	.33	1.70	85.00	.35	
4	Quadrisyllabic Words	2	1.06	53.00	.50	1.15	57.50	.49	
5	Multisyllabic Words	2	0.68	34.00	.47	0.77	38.50	.48	
6	Diphthongs	2	0.52	26.00	.44	0.54	27.00	.44	
7	Triphthongs	2	1.28	64.00	.48	1.27	63.50	.48	
8	Stress and Intonation	2	1.30	65.00	.47	1.35	67.50	.46	
9	Tongue Twisters	2	0.20	10.00	.38	0.30	15.00	.36	
10	Voiced sounds	2	0.70	35.00	.47	0.66	33.00	.47	
11	Unvoiced sounds	2	0.91	45.50	.19	0.89	44.50	.22	
12	Interrogative Sentences	2	1.12	56.00	.49	1.16	58.00	.49	
13	Declarative sentences	2	1.95	97.50	.21	1.92	96.00	.18	
14	Imperative Sentences	2	0.26	13.00	.44	0.47	23.50	.42	
15	Exclamatory Sentences	2	0.14	07.00	.35	0.41	20.50	.40	

* $P < 0.05$

According to table 3, the urban and rural school students showed ‘excellent’ performance in articulating monosyllabic, disyllabic, and trisyllabic words, unvoiced sounds and declarative sentences. Their scores ranged from 81% to 96.50% in these items. Furthermore, the urban students’ performance was ‘very good’ in pronouncing quadrisyllabic words, triphthongs and interrogative sentences whereas rural students showed the same performance in articulating quadrisyllabic words, triphthongs and stress and intonation. They got scores ranged from 60.50% to 66%. On the other hand, urban students failed in pronouncing tongue twisters, and imperative and exclamatory sentences whereas rural students also failed in the same items along with multisyllabic words, diphthongs and voiced sounds. According to grading formula, they got less than 33% scores in these items.

The present study also intended to make comparison between the mean scores of urban and rural students also. Therefore, two hypotheses such as null (2- H_0) and alternate (2- H_1) were made to compare the mean scores of urban and rural students.

The calculated t-value (0.296) at $p < 0.05$ level of significance revealed that null hypothesis (2- H_0) was accepted. Therefore, the results showed that there was no significant difference amongst the mean scores of urban and rural students.

Table 3. Comparison of urban and rural students' performance in pronunciation

Sr. No	Pronunciation category	Scores per category	Urban students			Rural students			t-value
			Mean score	%	Std. deviation	Mean score	%	Std. deviation	
1	Monosyllabic Words	2	1.81	90.50	.30	1.74	87.00	.37	
2	Disyllabic Words	2	1.73	86.50	.45	1.68	84.00	.48	
3	Trisyllabic Words	2	1.67	83.50	.28	1.62	81.00	.39	
4	Quadrisyllabic Words	2	1.29	64.50	.47	1.21	60.50	.49	
5	Multisyllabic Words	2	0.91	45.50	.49	0.54	27.00	.44	
6	Diphthongs	2	0.68	34.00	.47	0.31	15.50	.39	
7	Triphthongs	2	1.32	66.00	.47	1.22	61.00	.48	
8	Stress and Intonation	2	1.46	73.00	.44	1.25	62.50	.49	0.296*
9	Tongue Twisters	2	0.41	20.50	.40	0.10	05.00	.21	
10	Voiced sounds	2	0.85	42.50	.49	0.51	25.50	.43	
11	Unvoiced sounds	2	1.93	96.50	.17	1.87	93.50	.24	
12	Interrogative Sentences	2	1.28	64.00	.47	1.10	55.00	.50	
13	Declarative sentences	2	1.92	96.00	.18	1.90	95.00	.21	
14	Imperative Sentences	2	0.64	32.00	.46	0.36	18.00	.38	
15	Exclamatory Sentences	2	0.42	21.00	.41	0.27	13.50	.34	

* $P < 0.05$

According to the data presented in table 4, the public and private school students' scores ranged from 82.50 to 98% in monosyllabic and disyllabic words, unvoiced sounds, and declarative sentences. Therefore, their performance was 'exceptional' in these items. Their performance was 'very good' in different items such as trisyllabic words, triphthongs, stress and intonation, and interrogative sentences. They obtained scores in these items ranged from 60% to 69.50%. The students felt difficulty in pronouncing some items such as multisyllabic words, diphthongs, tongue twisters, and imperative and exclamatory sentences. They failed to get pass marks in these items. Their scores were less than 33% in these items. To make a comparison between the mean scores of public and private school students was one of the key objectives of the present study. Therefore, null (3- H_0) and alternative hypotheses (3- H_1) were made to compare the mean scores of the students of public and private school students.

The calculated t-value (0.078) at $p < 0.05$ level of significance indicated that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of public and private school students. The standard deviation values are also added in table 4 along with the mean scores and percentage.

Table 4. Comparison of public and private students' performance in pronunciation

Sr. No	Pronunciation category	Scores per category	Public students			Private students			t-value
			Mean score	%	Std. deviation	Mean score	%	Std. deviation	
1	Monosyllabic Words	2	1.79	89.50	.30	1.65	82.50	.37	
2	Disyllabic Words	2	1.74	87.00	.45	1.70	85.00	.47	
3	Trisyllabic Words	2	1.39	69.50	.33	1.29	64.50	.35	
4	Quadrisyllabic Words	2	1.03	51.50	.50	1.18	59.00	.49	
5	Multisyllabic Words	2	0.65	32.50	.47	0.61	30.50	.49	
6	Diphthongs	2	0.52	26.00	.43	0.55	27.50	.44	
7	Triphthongs	2	1.23	61.50	.48	1.31	65.50	.47	
8	Stress and Intonation	2	1.31	65.50	.47	1.33	66.50	.47	0.078*
9	Tongue Twisters	2	0.15	07.50	.26	0.35	17.50	.38	
10	Voiced sounds	2	0.70	35.00	.47	0.67	33.50	.47	
11	Unvoiced sounds	2	1.90	95.00	.20	1.90	95.00	.21	
12	Interrogative Sentences	2	1.22	61.00	.49	1.20	60.00	.49	
13	Declarative sentences	2	1.96	98.00	.13	1.86	93.00	.25	
14	Imperative Sentences	2	0.42	21.00	.40	0.59	29.50	.45	
15	Exclamatory Sentences	2	0.27	13.50	.34	0.42	21.00	.41	

* $P < 0.05$

8. Discussion, conclusion and recommendations

The pronunciation matters a lot in learning English as a foreign and a second language. The correct pronunciation is considered a milestone for ESL students especially for effective communication. The standard pronunciation and correct accent provide foundations for learning the English language. The ESL students' competency is subject to the accent they have in the classroom, outside the classroom and at any other public platform. Furthermore, good pronunciation facilitates the listeners in their understanding and comprehension.

With regard to the present study, the ESL students of grade 10 were evaluated in pronunciation. According to the findings of the study, ESL students could pronounce monosyllabic, disyllabic, trisyllabic, and quadrisyllabic words easily. They articulated the phrases related to stress and intonation, tongue twisters, voiced sounds, along with the imperative and exclamatory sentences. On the other hand, they felt difficulty in pronouncing the multisyllabic words, diphthongs, triphthongs, unvoiced sounds, and interrogative and declarative sentences. These results are rather similar to the findings of the research conducted by Kim (2009).

Regarding the performance of male and female students, both the male and female students pronounced monosyllabic, and trisyllabic words easily. Their performance was also well in articulating disyllabic words, triphthongs, and stress and intonation. Likewise, both the genders articulated quadrisyllabic words and interrogative sentences effortlessly. Contrarily, their performance in articulating diphthongs, tongue twisters, and imperative and exclamatory sentences was very poor. In other words, they failed in these items according to the grading formula (see again table 2). Furthermore, the calculated t-value revealed that there was a no significant difference between their mean scores. The results of the present study are inconsistent with the previous studies (e.g. Brown, 1995; Fayer, & Krasinski, 1987).

As regards the urban and rural school students' level of articulating different sounds, they could easily articulate monosyllabic, disyllabic, and trisyllabic words as compared to the articulation of quadrisyllabic words, triphthongs and interrogative sentences. Both the urban and rural school students felt difficulty in pronouncing tongue twisters, and imperative and exclamatory sentences. No significant difference, based on the t-value, was found between the mean scores of urban and rural school students. Similarly, the mean scores of public and private school students were almost the same. Their performance was also similar to the performance of urban and rural school students.

The ESL students, based on the findings of the study, were recommended to improve their pronunciation in multisyllabic words, diphthongs, triphthongs, unvoiced sounds, and interrogative and declarative sentences. Similarly male and female students also should try to enhance their performance in pronouncing diphthongs, tongue twisters, and imperative and exclamatory sentences.

As regards the urban and rural school students, they need to pay full attention to make their pronunciation correct in tongue twisters, and imperative and exclamatory sentences whereas rural school students are required some further efforts to improve their pronunciation of multisyllabic words, diphthongs and voiced sounds as well. The students of public and private schools should make their pronunciation better in multisyllabic words, diphthongs, tongue twisters, and imperative and exclamatory sentences. Not only the ESL students but also ESL teachers should pay their meticulous efforts to enhance the pronunciation as the standard pronunciation matters a lot in learning the English language. The importance of standard accent in the English language is significant. Therefore, similar research should be conducted to evaluate the students' pronunciation of vowels and consonants, phonological rules at elementary and primary levels.

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İkinci Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğrenenlerin Telaffuzlarının Değerlendirilmesi: Pakistan Örneği

Öz

Mevcut çalışma İkinci dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen Pakistanlı ortaokul öğrencilerinin telaffuzları üzerinedir. Pakistan'ın Güney Pencap eyaletinden rastgele seçilen 440 adet 10. sınıf öğrencisi örneklemini oluşturmaktadır. Öğrencilerin telaffuzlarını değerlendirmek için bir test geliştirilmiştir. Test tek heceli, iki heceli, üç heceli, dört heceli, çok heceli kelimeleri, iki sesli ve üç sesli bileşenleri, vurguyu, tonlamayı, tekerlemeleri, ötümlü ve ötümsüz sesleri, soru, bildirim, emir ve ünlem cümlelerini içermektedir. Öğrencilerin genel performansı bilgisayar yolu ile istatistiksel analize tabi tutulmuştur. Erkek, kadın; şehirli; köylü, devlet okul öğrencisi; özel okul öğrencisi olarak katılımcıların ortalama skorları t test yoluyla kıyaslandı. Bulgulara dayanılarak, öğrencilerin tek heceli, iki heceli, üç heceli, dört heceli kelimelerde, vurgu ve tonlamada, tekerlemelerde, ötümlü seslerde, emir ve ünlem cümlelerinde başarılı oldukları görüldü. Fakat katılımcılar çok heceli kelimeleri, iki sesli ve üç sesli bileşenleri, ötümsüz sesleri, soru ve bildirim cümlelerini iyi telaffuz edemediler. Hesaplanan t değerleri ise erkek, kadın; şehirli, köylü; özel ve devlet okul öğrencileri arasında manidar bir fark olmadığını gösterdi. Öğrencilerin telaffuz performansını arttırmak için bazı önerilerde de bulunuldu.

Anahtar kelimeler: İngilizceyi ikinci dil olarak öğrenenler, telaffuz, sesler, kelimeler, sözcük öbekleri, cümleler, değerlendirme

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Code-switching in EFL classrooms and the perceptions of the students and teachers

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Abstract

This study aimed to investigate the amount of code-switching in terms of sentential levels and initiation patterns, the discourse functions of code-switching, and the perceptions of the switchers. Accordingly, 43 students at elementary level and four of their instructors in two EFL classrooms took part in the study. These participants were chosen through random sampling. Data were collected through observations, questionnaires to students and teachers, and interviews with a selected sample. The results of the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the triangulated data showed that students' use of code-switching was rather high. Teachers' code-switching was even higher than expected. In terms of initiation patterns, student-initiated code-switching was quite high whereas in terms of sentential levels, inter-sentential level was observed a little more than intra-sentential level. The analysis of discourse functions revealed that both the students and the teachers employed code-switching mostly for meta-language, which is a function used to talk about grammar or language tasks. The perceptions of all participants on code-switching overlapped in that they believed that it was a tool that fostered learning in beginner levels and could be used to attract attention or for jokes, yet should be abolished as the proficiency level increases.

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Keywords: Code-switching; discourse functions; perceptions.

1. Introduction

As the need to communicate in English increases, so does the number of bilinguals. Some of the studies on bilingualism (Auer, 1984, 1998) stem from the fact that in bilingual classes it is quite natural to encounter with mixed language use in the learning process. That is, learners tend to utter combinations of two or more linguistic varieties in bilingual classrooms, leading us to code-switching (Eldgridge, 1996).

Code-switching (CS) is regarded as the seemingly random alternation of two languages between and within sentences (Poplack, 1980). It refers to the combination of several languages or dialects in the same conversation or sentence by bilingual people (Gardner-Chloros, 2009, p. 4). It is a non-systematic process of bilinguals who mix two languages during conversation (Cantone, 2007). All in all, defining CS as “the alternative use of two or more languages in the same conversation by bilinguals” is a common consensus (Milroy & Muysken, 1995, p. 7).

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Due to the presence of the mother tongue (L1) within in a code-switched communication, some teachers and researchers allege that it shows incompetence and lack of credibility (Hughes, Shaunes, and Brice, 2006; Labov, 1971). However, from a socio-cultural perspective, it in fact encourages creative language use and capability of using both languages effectively (Dahl, Rice, Steffensen, Amundsen, 2010). Therefore, it is quite important to understand the nature of CS to interpret such occurrences correctly.

Although there are various studies on the amount of CS by the learners and teachers, fewer have been supported by post-observation interviews and questionnaires. Presumably due to the concerns of teachers, there are few studies on teacher-initiated CS. Moreover, although there are studies referring to the sentential levels, not many of them investigated the amount of these levels with their implications on language learning. Most importantly, only few studies on CS have been strengthened with the perceptions of code-switchers who may provide different aspects. There is, hence, a need to understand how code-switchers see and explain their CS. Thus, this study focuses not only on discourse functions, but also on initiation patterns, sentential levels, and the perceptions of code-switchers.

1.1. Literature review

CS has been widely studied from a pedagogical aspect to a neurolinguistics aspect (Macizo, Bajo, & Paolieri, 2012; Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005; Reyes, 2004).

CS has been studied based on different functional approaches such as discourse-related (Myers-Scotton, 1989), socio-linguistic (Gumperz, 1982; Boztepe, 2005), conversational (Auer, 1984, 1998), and other approaches. In terms of discourse functions by teachers, Hobbs, Matsuo, and Payne (2010) focused on three language teachers' CS: one British and two Japanese. Depending on the findings, they formed twelve categories based on teachers' CS: opening, warm-up, instructions, explanation, checking comprehension, translation, timekeeping, praise, elicitation, answering students' questions, correction. These are too specific categories which were covered in the more comprehensive categories presented in this paper.

Framing their own conceptualization of discourse functions, Ariffin and Rafik Galea (2009) defined eleven categories: signaling social relationships and language preferences, obviating difficulties, framing discourse, contrasting personalization and objectification, conveying cultural - expressive message, dramatizing key words, lowering language barriers, maintaining appropriateness of context, showing membership and affiliation with others and reiterating messages. Their study revealed that CS behavior is not random nor a sign of linguistic deficiency, it is rather a negotiation between the language use and communicative preferences.

Aiming to find the circumstances that CS was employed with its advantages, disadvantages and the characteristics as well as its relationship with exposure, Huang (2008) conducted a study on three classes of different levels. The results revealed eight functions of student CS: a linguistic gap, repeating the same pattern, tattle telling, translating, attracting attention, expressing emotions, avoiding punishment, and turning to the L1 in the existence of native teachers. Furthermore, she found that CS decreased when the exposure to the target language (L2) increased and that the advantages of using CS in a language classroom outweighed the disadvantages.

As inferred in the abovementioned studies, of the specific functions of CS, discourse functions have held a shared focus since CS is seen as a discourse phenomenon in which speakers rely on merging different language systems to convey the message (Gumperz, 1982). The discourse functions defined by Gumperz (1982) are quotations, addressee specification, interjections, reiteration, message

qualification, and personalization versus objectivization. Overlapping with those of Gumperz (1982), eight different functions of CS proposed by Saville-Troike (1982) are softening or strengthening of a request or command intensification/elimination of ambiguity (repetition), humorous effect, direct quotation and repetition, ideological statement, lexical need, exclusion of other people within hearing, avoidance strategy, and repair strategy. However, the categories suggested by Eldridge (1996), namely equivalence, floor holding, meta-language, reiteration, group membership, conflict control, and alignment and misalignment were adopted as the basic taxonomy for the purposes of this study and expanded in the results.

The amount of CS by students and teachers has received a lot of interest so far. A recent study (Ataş, 2012), for instance, investigated the amount of CS cases by students and teachers in a Turkish school along with their discourse functions and found that the amount of CS by students was more than that of the teachers, but both teachers and students employed a lot of discourse markers which were used for overall discipline; usually for clarification by teachers and for displaying understanding and jokes by students. What's more, he didn't find a significant difference between different proficiency levels of learners.

Dahl, et al. (2010) investigated CS on one child who left Norway to the USA. Analyzing the recordings, they saw that the child mostly used Norwegian with 58% although it was the dominant language neither at home nor at school. The code-switched utterances held the 21% of the all utterances. He mostly used CS to clarify things and to fill in the gaps in his lexicon. The researchers interpreted that his language learning patterns were like NNS, rather than a bilingual.

CS cases are also examined in terms of sentential levels in which inter-sentential level refers to the CS across sentences whereas intra-sentential level refers to the CS in a sentence (Saville-Troike, 1982; Milroy and Muysken, 1995). These levels were also referred as inter-phrasal for those between two sentences and intra-phrasal for those in the middle of a single sentence (Ariffin & Rafik Galea, 2009; Gabusi, 2009). The results of the study by Cal and Turnbull (2007) based on two Spanish-English bilinguals sisters' daily conversations showed that their CS were primarily on inter-sentential levels which were employed to accomplish more than one function such as to quote, signal changes, increase the illocutionary force of a command, show misalignments, or insert a proper name.

In terms of initiation patterns, Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005) differentiated teacher-induced CS that is used to provide a prompt for L2 use from teacher-initiated CS which is used for twelve functions: dealing with procedural trouble, dealing with classroom discipline, expressing social identity, giving an L1 equivalent, translating into the L1, dealing with a lack of response in the L2, providing a prompt for L2 use, eliciting an L1 translation, giving feedback, checking comprehension, providing meta-language information, giving encouragement to participate.

Hobbs, et al (2010) interviewed one NS and two NNS participants and found out that although the target language is desirable; NNS teachers believe that it is sometimes impossible and also unnecessary to insist on because of time and classroom management concerns. Bridging the gap between the culture of learning and the teacher beliefs, such evidence is important both for second language acquisition and for teacher education.

One of the studies that make a connection between teachers' CS and student learning is Polio and Duff' investigation (1994) on when and for what functions language teachers use L1. Their observations revealed that teachers used CS to attract attention and to refer to the cultural words when they couldn't find the equivalence. Through interviews with the teachers, Polio and Duff found out that the teachers were reluctant to use the target language to teach grammar.

Rather than how code-switchers themselves see the phenomenon of CS, so far researchers have focused more on its pedagogical implications. Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005) in this sense observed code-switched utterances of Turkish students in relation to both pause length for answering a question in L2 and encouraging students to turn back to L2 through teacher-induced and teacher-initiated CS. They concluded that learners' language choice was related to their degree of alignment or disalignment with the teacher's pedagogy. They asserted that learners tended to code-switch when engaged in interaction, which differs from the teacher's intended focus at that stage of the lesson, such as when learners need to deal with procedural issues.

In the same vein, similar switches can trigger different interactions in class and can help bridge the gap in a discourse of a negotiation (Moore, 2002). Addressing the roles and functions of L1 in L2 classes, Moore (2002) highlights the use of L1 for attention-raising which is important in language classrooms in that the amount of attention paid to the language data at specific time of exposure plays a critical role in language learning. Furthermore, based on the CS signs in the conversation, researchers suggest that an increased meta-linguistic awareness be also shown in the data (Moore, 2002; Reyes, 2004).

To sum up, the analysis of CS is critical in two terms: linguistically and methodologically. Numerous research studies have focused on the question of how much code-switching occurs in classrooms based on different methodological aspects such as level, gender, purposes and needs, classroom roles of teachers or students and on some linguistic aspects such as discourse functions, sentential levels, neuro-linguistics aspects, perceptions of the code-switchers, pedagogical aspects, and so on. However, this study is necessary in that it investigates the use of CS in EFL classrooms from student and teacher perspectives in two critical terms mentioned above. That is, this present study aimed to contribute to the field with a combination of some of these aspects such as discourse functions, initiation patterns, CS levels, student and teacher uses, and perceptions of the speakers.

1.2. Research questions

With the aforementioned rationale in its background, this study aims to answer the following questions:

1. What is the amount of CS by students of elementary level and their teachers in a preparatory school of a public university in terms of:
 - a. Inter-sentential and intra-sentential levels of CS?
 - b. Student-initiated and teacher-initiated CS?
2. What are the discourse functions of CS used by students and teachers?
3. How do students and teachers themselves see the phenomenon of CS?

Based on personal experiences and earlier observations, it is hypothesized that students will code-switch mostly to fill in the gaps for vocabulary items while teachers will code-switch to facilitate understanding and to attract attention. Student-initiated CS is expected to be a lot with inter-sentential level. Furthermore, students are expected to feel that CS is a lack of competence with negative interpretations while teachers are expected to see it as way to assist students' understanding.

It should be emphasized that this study has code-switching on focus rather than L1 use in class. As a limitation, participant size was small for the feasibility of analysis, yet as a case study, it was not a concern for generalizability. Further study can be designed as a longitudinal study on a wider scale to examine the functions and beliefs of the switchers better.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

This study was conducted on two classes consisting of 43 students and on four of their teachers at a preparatory school of a public university. Each teacher was observed twice and each class was observed four times. All teachers were observed in the fourth lesson in the afternoons in order to stable the conditions for all participants.

The teachers were all female beginning teachers between the ages of 26 and 28. Their teaching experience in total varies from 4 to 6 years. Only two of them have been abroad for almost a year. However, they were graduates of ELT departments and were very competent in the field of teaching. The teachers were not informed in detail that the study focused on CS so as not to put an effect on their natural flow of speaking, yet instead were briefly informed that the observations were on discourse analysis in general.

Student participants, on the other hand, included 18 females and 25 males aged between 17 and 22 who have been learning English for an average of 7.8 years. Most of them are graduates of Anatolian high schools which are known for their language education, yet they had poor language skills. They were at elementary level. Therefore, their motivation to learn a foreign language was low since they believed they could not learn it after so many years. In addition, their exposure to language was extremely limited to the classroom talk. They used to do neither readings nor listening in the target language. Only three students have been abroad but not more than 3 months, which was with their families or friends, rather than being alone to improve their language skills.

The participants were basically chosen through simple random sampling. All the participants were given an informed consent form with a demographic form which was orally translated to the students to avoid any misunderstanding. The names of the participants were coded in numbers in the analysis.

2.2. Instruments

This study is a triangulation of classroom observations, questionnaires, and interviews.

First of all, both classes were observed four times. The observations were structured (Flick, 1998, as cited in Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007), direct, overt, and non-participant (Cooper and Schindler, 2001, as cited in Cohen, et al., 2007). The observations were audio-recorded and transcribed after each lesson; and the recordings were supported by the researcher's notes. An observation scheme called CS Observation Scheme (COS) involving criteria for discourse functions of CS by the students and the teachers was developed by the researcher for non-real time coding. The new scheme was inspired from Spada and Fröhlich's (1985) COLT (as cited in Dörnyei, 2007) and Eldridge's (1996) discourse functions of CS.

Secondly, different questionnaires were administered to teachers and students following the end of the observations. The questionnaires were adopted from Momenian and Samar (2011) and modified by the researcher for the purposes of this study. They developed the questionnaires based on the earlier research on CS and their questionnaire for students included 11 items while that of teachers had 10 items. For the questionnaires used in the present study, these modified questionnaires were used in Turkish. Expert opinion was received basically for content validity and some points were altered accordingly. The expert was an academician in the field of ELT focusing on research techniques in applied linguistics. The questionnaires were then piloted with a smaller group for validity and reliability ($r=0.71$) and some items were dropped or modified. The final versions of both questionnaires were administered to students and teachers. Accordingly, like the adopted

questionnaires, the questionnaire for the students consisted of 11 items while that of the teachers had 10 items, most of which were parallel. The questionnaires were formed as a likert scale with five options from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”.

Finally, all the teachers and only eight students who revealed the most and the least evidence of CS were interviewed to gather better insight of their perceptions. Interviews were used to obtain research-relevant data to understand and interpret the life-worlds of the participants and to use natural data to elicit descriptions (Cohen, et.al, 2007). The framing of the interview questions were shaped for a semi-structured interview in which the prompts were predetermined and some probes were also included to elaborate the answers (Cohen, et.al., 2007). Delayed interviews were preferred so as to avoid the risk that the participants would be influenced by the points discussed in the interview and would not behave naturally in the ongoing observations. The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

2.3. Procedure

All the participants were first given an informed consent form and a demographic form. The content of the form was orally translated to the students to avoid any misunderstanding. The names of the participants were coded with numbers in order not to reveal any personal information. The data gathered from the demographic forms were entered in SPSS 16 to describe the characteristics of the participants.

The observations were scheduled with the teachers in advance. All observations were arranged for the 4th lesson in the afternoons in order to stable the conditions for both classes and the teachers whose concerns and wishes were taken into consideration, as well. They were assured that their teaching skills or any other methodological issue was not the focus of the observation. Eight observations in two classroom lasted for five consequent weeks. The audio-recordings and the researcher notes were transcribed after each lesson.

The participants were not informed about the specific topic of the study until the observations were completed in order not to influence their L1 and L2 use in class, except from a short line in the informed consent form. After the administration of the questionnaires, both the students and the teachers were informed in detail. Participants were assisted with examples for each item in the questionnaire while they were completing the questionnaire.

Based on the amount of the code-switching cases in the transcribed data, 2 students providing the biggest amount of code-switching from each class and 2 students providing the least amount of code-switching evidence were interviewed to strengthen the data on their perceptions of why they code-switch. Therefore, the interviews had to be delayed interviews due to the structure of the analysis. In total 8 students and all of the four teachers were interviewed with the guided questions. The interviews, about 5 minutes each, were also audio-recorded.

2.4. Data analysis

The present study is a case study and a mixed method research design combining the qualitative and quantitative analysis was employed (Dörnyei, 2007) to find the amount of CS and to interpret the reasons why participants code-switched.

The transcribed data were filled into the COS for tally marking. The initial computation of the tallies was devoted to the discovery of the amount of CS. Following computations were to find the initiation patterns and sentential levels. The final examination was devoted to finding the discourse functions. Thus, the transcriptions of the observations were used both qualitatively and quantitatively.

In the quantitative part, the tally marking on COS was turned into frequencies and the quantitative part was compared to the findings of the interviews.

As the data were examined, there appeared a need to expand the categories of discourse functions defined by Eldridge (1996) and the final version of the categories is as follows:

1. **Equivalence:** when participants don't know English meaning. (applies for students)
2. **Floor holding:** to keep interaction on (applies for both)
3. **Meta-language:** to talk about the task, comment, evaluate + for grammar explanation (applies for both)
4. **Reiteration:** repeating to clarify, emphasize, and reinforce meaning. (applies for both)
5. **Group membership:** to show group identity. (applies for both)
6. **Conflict control:** to create ambiguity while blaming, criticizing, etc. because it is easier in another language. (applies for both)
7. **Alignment/disalignment:** to change the order by starting in Turkish, turning to English, and turn back to Turkish to adopt and leave a social role. (applies for both)
Newly-added categories:
8. **Classroom routine (or procedural talk):** to talk about the classroom routines, generally in the beginning and in the end of the lesson. (applies for both)
T: Yarım writing kitabını getiriyorsunuz. (*Literary Translation: Tomorrow bring your writing books.*)
9. **Attract attention:** to make a difference in class, to attract the attention of the students (applies for teachers), or to attract the attention of only the teacher or everybody in class, to hold the attention on oneself. (applies for students)
T: Peki bu what is that here? (*LT: Then, what is that here?*)
10. **Checking, clarifying and confirming:** to check (*değil mi?/right?*), to clarify (*yani it is../I mean it is..*), to reinforce (to make sure other part understands: *yazarmış/She said he was a writer.*), to confirm (*tamam, yani evet/ OK, yes.*) (applies for both)
St: Teacher ilk bebe misin diyor. (*LT: Teacher asks 'Are you the first born child?'*)
11. **Explanation:** when the *topic* itself is difficult such as scientific issues or when explaining abstract vocabulary. (applies for both)
T: Do you know culture-specific? Only Muslim culture can understand this yani biri sorduğunda açıklaman lazım. For example... (*LT: I mean, when someone asks, you need to explain.*)
12. **Sense of humor:** to make jokes, wordplays, for exact expression of what you want to say without losing its taste, meaning, and wisdom in it.) (applies for both)
St: She has own house, but a rent.
T: Thanks God a rent. Çünkü I have a rent, not my own house. (*LT:because*)
13. **Cultural issues:** like “kuma, sarma” and **proper names** such as the poem “Ben Sana Mecburum” (applies for both)
St: It's kuma hocam. (*LT: It's co-wife, teacher.*)
14. **Classroom management:** to keeping students silent, to turn their attention to the lesson, to deal with interaction patters or instruction giving. (applies for teachers)
T: Yes, yoksa naparım? [With an angry voice] (*LT: Otherwise what will I do?*)

In addition, the questionnaires were entered in SPSS to be examined quantitatively for the frequencies of the reasons why participants thought they used CS and qualitatively in line with the critical analysis of interviews for which the answers of each interviewee were classified with regard to the overlapping point to be matched with the questionnaire results. Thus the qualitative analysis of the questionnaires and interviews through a categorization based on the discourse functions and observation results were more critical to the study.

3. Results

The results gathered from the quantitative analysis of the transcriptions of the observations through frequency analysis of tally marking showed that there was a huge amount of CS in a total of eight observations. The percentages of the CS cases were represented in Table 1.

Table 1. The amount of code-switching in total

CS	Amount of all the CS observed	% of all CS observed
Students (n=43)	365	67.4
Teachers (n=4)	177	32.6
Total (n=47)	542	100

The table shows that the percentage of CS occurrences is quite high. When the size of student and teacher participants was compared, it is clearly seen that the amount of CS by the teachers was also quite high for four participants.

Another finding was that students initiated more CS occurrences. However, rather than a focus on who initiated CS, the focus was to observe whether participants switched according to the linguistic code they encounter. That is, whether they changed the language they used according to the counter part in the conversation was observed. However, the data provided few examples of such occurrences.

Table 2. The percentages of student-initiated and teacher-initiated code-switching

CS	Amount of initiation patterns	% of initiation patterns
Students (n=43)	358	66.05
Teachers (n=4)	184	33.95
Total (n=47)	542	100

- 1 T: Evet, so write five sentences for her. (*Literal Translation (LT):Yes*)
 ST 40: Bunları buraya mı yazacaktık? Yanlış anladım.
 (*Were we supposed to write them here? I got it wrong*)
 T: Sorun değil. (*No problem.*)
 ST 40: Hocam, what is this? (*Teacher*)
 T: It is a drawer.

Excerpt 1 indicates that the teacher starts an intra-sentential level CS, probably to attract the attention on the task, whereas the student makes an inter-sentential level purely in Turkish. Probably because the students talks about a problem, the teacher continues in the same language. Despite the fact that teacher replies in Turkish, the student interestingly turns back to English in the fourth line, which shows that when the student needs something to be clarified, he probably wants to make sure that he understands correctly. Hence, he uses the native language. However, at other times, he is willing to practice the target language. In the last line, the teacher again replies in the switched code, namely in English.

Table 3. The amount of inter-sentential and intra-sentential level code-switching

CS	Amount of CS	CS %
Intra-sentential	267	49.27
Inter-sentential	275	50.73
Total (n=47)	542	100

As expected, the amount of inter-sentential CS was higher according to the quantitative analysis of the observations; however, in contrast to what was expected, there was just a little difference between the amount of inter-sentential and intra-sentential levels of CS.

It was also expected that the teachers would use CS to attract attention and to facilitate understanding while students would switch codes mostly to fill in the gaps for vocabulary items. However, it is found that the function of “meta-language” held the highest amount with a percentage of 24.53% by the students and 6.64% by the teachers.

Table 4: Discourse functions employed by the students and teachers

CS	Students	% Students	Teachers	%Teachers
Meta-language	133	24.53	36	6.64
Equivalence	68	12.54	0	0
Classroom routines (procedural talk)	39	7.19	19	3.5
Sense of humor/ exact expression	28	5.16	19	3.5
Floor holding	25	4.61	5	0.92
Checking, clarifying, confirming	23	4.24	28	5.16
Reiteration	14	2.58	13	2.39
Attract attention	11	2.02	22	4.05
Culture/proper names	7	1.29	8	1.47
Explanation	6	1.1	11	2.02
Group membership	5	0.92	0	0
Alignment/disalignment	4	0.73	5	0.92
Conflict control	2	0.36	1	0.18
Classroom management	0	0	10	1.8
Total %100 (n=542)	365	67.4	177	32.6

Students’ need to fill in the gap in their vocabulary knowledge followed with 12.54% in the second rank. For teachers, on the other hand, facilitating understanding by clarifying, checking understanding, and confirming turned out to be second by 5.16% and attracting attention was the third by 4.05%. That is, these functions were also quite high and the teachers would like to make sure of understanding by adding some native language in between.

Although 12 out of 14 functions apply for both students and teachers, “equivalence” only applies for students whereas “classroom language” only applies for teachers. As expected, no contrary results were found in these categories for both participants.

Furthermore, teachers made no use of the function called “group membership” and made only a small amount of use of the functions “alignment/disalignment”, “conflict control”, and “floor-holding”. These are almost in line with the results of the students who also made just a little use of “alignment/disalignment”, “conflict control”, and “group membership”. Yet, they showed a significant amount of “floor-holding” function.

In terms of perceptions, students believed that they use CS for meta-language very frequently with 60.4% according to the questionnaires. Therefore, the results of their perception analysis in the questionnaires is in line with the results of the observations in class, just like it is for the function of equivalence which holds the 53,5% of the students. The qualitative analysis of the interviews also

revealed that all the students pointed to their lack of competence in vocabulary knowledge as a reason for their use of CS.

In addition, questionnaires showed that 53.5% of students believe they switch languages to express what they really want to say, which was very high for this function. Another function that is in line with the observation results is that 41.9% of the students think they use CS for floor-holding to keep on the interaction. Most of the students (51.2%) believe they often use CS for the sense of humor which held a fair amount of the all cases. Based on the qualitative analysis of the interviews, it was revealed that they think CS makes speaking and learning easier.

Furthermore, it was seen in the questionnaires that they mostly believed that they do not use CS to attract attention or to reiterate for emphasis as 34.9% for the former and 34.9% for the latter said never for these functions. Interestingly, 39.5% believed that they code-switch to showed group identity, however, in the observations only few cases were noted. In terms of the teachers' use of CS they had a strict stance that teachers should speak only English according to the qualitative analysis of the interviews.

The teachers, on the other hand, were expected that they would assert that they used it just to assist students' understanding or to attract attention. The quantitative analysis of the questionnaires showed that most of the teachers (75%) sometimes use CS for classroom management, but only rarely for giving instructions. The qualitative analysis of the interviews supported these perceptions.

Most of the teachers said they 'sometimes' used CS in vocabulary teaching; however, for grammar teaching they said they 'rarely or a little more than rarely' used it according to the questionnaires. The qualitative analysis of the interviews revealed they all believed this was only valid for the beginner levels, yet should be avoided in the upper levels. One teacher even believed that CS was helpful to create sympathy in the first weeks. Some teachers stated that they usually used it for the sense of humor. Most used it for clarification, but rarely for explanation. When they needed to emphasize or clarify something, most of them used it for reiteration; however, almost none of them used it due to their loyalty to L1.

In terms of the impacts of CS on learning gathered from the findings of the interviews, teachers all believed that it was to some extent negative for students, but still depending on the level. Therefore, they all believed students should not be encouraged for the use of Turkish because for them it did not show advanced skills and did not ease learning. Only one teacher clarified that not the use of Turkish but the use of intra-sentential CS could be of help for their improvement.

All in all, CS was perceived positively by the students and teachers due to some merits; however, they believed that it also had some disadvantages as well.

4. Discussion

The results indicate that the amount of CS is fairly high in EFL classes and the overall impact is that students are prone to use L1 in class very frequently. This may be caused by their decreased motivation to use practice the target language in class owing to the fact that they neither have pre-set goals nor see any benefits of learning a foreign language. Their presence in class is due to their responsibility towards their families to go to school. What's more important for them to have no motivation is that they have no native speakers around in the school and no financial opportunities to travel abroad in the close future. Due to all these and many other concerns that the students bear in mind, they find no rationale to employ the target language in class and use a great deal of only L1 or a mixture of L1 and L2, namely CS. Similarly, the amount of CS by teachers is also probably due to the

aforementioned reasons caused by the students as well as the ease to conduct lessons with a mixture of two languages, rather than the target language only.

Student-initiated code switching is almost quite as much as expected due to the prior experiences that students do not try to practice English, rather they try to speak Turkish and keep on so unless the teacher turns back to English. Teacher-initiated CS was high for the small number of participants.

Students are prone to use CS in inter-sentential level. In other words, they would not only like to switch words but like to switch the whole sentence in an L2 conversation. This type of CS requires less effort and ability since it includes a block of native language utterances. In this way, they even try to make the teacher speak Turkish, as well.

In contrast to our hypothesis, both the students and the teachers mostly employed CS for meta-language to comment on the task and the grammar points. It means that both sides feel needed to talk about the task, to evaluate the task, or to discuss the grammar points within the task in Turkish although they would like to do and check the task in English. In fact, teachers believe that they do not and should not code-switch for grammar teacher; however, the results showed that they and the students did so. It is understandable that teachers do not want to seem traditional in their way of teaching stating that they do use L1 in grammar lessons.

Students believed that lack of vocabulary knowledge is the primary cause of their CS use. As hypothesized, the function of equivalence was quite high as in the study of Ariffin and Rafik Galea (2009). However, they do not see this as a weakness since they are beginner level learners. Just like the teachers, however, they do not approve it in the upper levels. In other words, both the students and the teachers believe that the occurrences of CS are acceptable in lower levels, yet it should be decreased as the level gets higher. It makes sense in that when students have no idea of the target language, it is easier for them to comprehend the target language using cognates, the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) (Brown, 2007), or other comparisons of the two languages so that they would also feel interested and, hence, motivated.

Since the level of the students is low, teachers may feel needed to employ a lot of code-switching to facilitate understanding and attract attention. Furthermore, when the low classroom motivation and crowded classes are considered, teachers need to attract their attention to the lesson through L1 and L2 at oftentimes. As in line with the hypotheses, these functions appeared high for teachers. These results gathered from the observations were quite parallel to the perceptions of the teachers who believed in using CS for attracting attention and checking/clarifying. However, it was preceded by their use of meta-language which was thought not to be a frequent function in their eyes.

It was interesting to note that the function that only applies for students ranked second out of 14 categories while the one for teachers ranked eighth. This function for students concerns the equivalence of vocabulary items as in the “lexical needs” function of Saville-Troike (1982). That of teachers was classroom management. It indicates that the students mostly make use of the function that characterizes the students although teachers do not.

When it comes to their claim that CS facilitates their expression of ideas in the way they want, students mean that when their level does not allow them to give the exact meaning without losing its influence, they include a bit of L1 so that they become pleased that they achieve communication and are understood though it is a sort of destroying the language, as they stated. According to the interviews, they believe using CS in this sense is useful and improves their survival skills in communication in L2.

Students in fact made clear explanations on why they used CS. For instance, they claimed that they mostly used it for floor-holding, sense of humor, or making learning easier. This is crucial in that they

are aware that just as they have communicative strategies in their L1, they develop certain strategies in L2 to be paid attention while being listened to and to keep the conversation on even if their strategy includes the use of their native language. Since they employ the function successfully, they believe they learn and improve L2 speaking skills easily. As Ariffin and Rafik Galea (2009) also found, CS is a language preference for communicative purposes. Nevertheless, they do not think that it is an advanced skill probably they believe they already do the same in their L1 and thus they do not think that they put in something from themselves.

On the other hand, students preferred their teacher to speak English mostly. It is interesting that students appreciate teachers' using L2 most of the time but also complain that they do not understand it when they speak 'only' English.

In terms of the affective side of CS, teachers believed it helps to improve their communication with students. Since this language school lasts for one year which is full of English and nothing else, it creates boredom among students from time to time. Therefore, teachers have right on their side that they need to build strong relations to the students and need to be on good terms with the students. As a result, they do use CS to serve such an affective function, which is named in different ways but also exist in the categorizations of Ariffin and Rafik Galea (2009) and Huang (2008).

The statement of one teacher that only intra-sentential level CS was useful appears to be interesting to be addressed. The rationale behind this belief was that within an intra-sentential level CS is the use of two languages. Therefore, according to some teachers, if a student can make use of two languages within a single statement correctly and can achieve communication, then it is of help to improve language skills. On the contrary, inter-sentential level is already in the native language mostly and does not help the students a lot.

Last but not the least, both the students and teachers mentioned the advantageous sides of using CS in their EFL classrooms, along with some restrictions though. The positive perceptions were in line with the study of Huang (2008).

5. Conclusions

CS includes the use of two languages alternatively in a single conversation (Poplack, 1980) and hence should be considered from two ways in learning: Does it ease learning since it includes the native language and helps to decrease the affective filter (Krashen, 1987), or does it inhibit learning the target language due to the interference of the L1?

This study focused on the CS use of the students and teachers in EFL classes. The analysis of the amount of the CS use, CS level, their initiation patterns, the discourse functions of CS they used, and their perceptions revealed significant implications in second language acquisition. It seems that CS is employed a lot and it serves to a number of functions consciously or unconsciously. The users of CS, on the other hand, sometimes believe different things than they do.

The use of L2 in class is inevitably desired; however, since we cannot guarantee the use of L2 out of the class as Eldridge (1996) reminds, it should be promoted more. However, in order for the teachers to attract attention, to check comprehension, to facilitate classroom management, and for other purposes, it is and can be employed in EFL classrooms because teachers' use of CS is for the development of the students in the learning process and should not be taken for granted. Overall, it does not show their competence or lack of competence in L2. CS should rather be seen and used as a tool that serves to several functions that facilitate both learning and teaching.

In addition, students should also be encouraged to use L2 more since its positive sides outweigh. However, their switches to L1 for meta-language (comment on the task or talking on grammar), confirming, floor-holding, sense of humor apparently help their learning in various ways. Therefore, to foster effective learning in beginning levels, CS can be seen and even be taught as a communicative strategy. CS is not necessarily related to learners' proficiency level but it may imply a communicative classroom function to discuss classroom routines, or share their concerns, or repeat for confirmation. Therefore, there should not be a strict approach towards abandoning the use of CS at all in EFL classrooms.

Further study can be conducted as a longitudinal study in a larger scale with a larger sampling. As Boztepe (2005) suggests, ethnographic studies of bilingual classroom interaction should also be done as it may only then be possible to understand the role of CS as a discourse strategy. Therefore, further analysis of both observations and perception gathering can reveal more insight on language acquisition.

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Yabancı dil sınıflarında dil değişimi ve öğrencilerle öğretmenlerin algıları

Öz

Bu çalışma, cümlesel seviyeler, başlatma şekilleri, söylem fonksiyonları ve konuşmacıların algıları açılarından dil değişimi miktarlarını bulmayı amaçlamaktadır. Buna göre, İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği sınıflardan 43 öğrenci ve 4 okutman gözlemlere, anketlere ve görüşmelere katılmıştır. Üçlü verinin nicel ve nitel analiz sonuçları göstermiştir ki öğrencilerin dil değişimi yapması ve başlatması oldukça sıktır. Cümleler arası dil değişimi biraz daha fazladır. Söylem fonksiyonları açısından, öğrenciler de öğretmenler de dil ve gramer üstüne konuşma fonksiyonu için çok sayıda dil değişimi yapmıştır. Bu iki grubun da algıları, dil değişiminin başlangıç seviyesinde öğrenmeyi kolaylaştıran bir araç olarak görülmesi yönünden ve dil değişiminin dikkat çekme ya da şakalarda kullanılabileceğine inanmaları açısından örtüşmektedir. Ancak, dil seviyesi arttıkça dil değişimi de bırakılmalıdır.

Anahtar sözcükler: dil değişimi; söylem fonksiyonları; algılar.

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Dereceli karşıt anlamlılarda belirtisizlik ve ölçek yapısı

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Öz

Belirtisizlik, ikili dilsel karşıtlıklarda karşıtlığın terimlerinden birinin bu ilişkinin tümünü adlandıracak biçimde kullanılmasıdır. Anlam düzleminde ise belirtisizlik, ikili karşıtlık ilişkisi içinde bulunan terimlerden birinin anlam bakımından yansızlaşması ve bu karşıtlık ilişkisini adlandırır hâle gelmesidir. Sözcükler arasındaki anlamsal karşıtlık ya da karşıt anlamlılık ilişkilerinde anlamsal belirtisizlik örnekleri görülmektedir. Karşıt çiftlerin belirtisiz üyesi belirtili üyeye göre bağlamsal dağılımı ve sıklığı daha yüksek, soru tümcelerinde bütünüyle yansız anlamsal içerikle kullanılan sözcüktür. Ayrıca karşıt anlamlılık özelliği gösteren sıfatlardan birinin adlanmış biçimi de bu karşıtlık ekseninin adı olarak belirtisiz üye olabilmektedir. Özellikle dereceli karşıtlıklarda dikkat çekici görünüşleri olan belirtisizlik; kimi karşıt çiftlerde belirgin bir kullanım özelliği olarak görülürken, bazı çiftlerde ise belirtisiz üye bulunmamaktadır. Örneğin *uzun: kısa* karşıtlığı için *uzun* sıfatının adlanmış biçimi olan *uzunluk* belirtisiz üye iken *eski: yeni* karşıtlığında böyle bir kullanım özelliği görülmemektedir. Bu çalışmada, dereceli karşıtlıkların temel özelliği olan aşamalı ölçek yapısının belirtisizlik üzerindeki etkisi söz konusu edilmektedir. Gönderimsel özelliklere bağlı olarak tek ve çift ölçekli olabilen dereceli karşıtlıklarda tek ölçekli olanların belirtisiz üyeye sahip olduğu, buna karşın çift ölçeklilik özelliği gösterenlerde her iki üyenin de belirtili üye olarak kullanıldığı görülmüştür.

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Anahtar sözcükler: Belirtisizlik, Belirtlilik, Karşıtlık, Dereceli Karşıt Anlamlılık, Ölçek Yapısı

1. Giriş

Geleneksel çalışmalarda dereceli ve derecesiz olmak üzere iki tür karşıtlığın genel adı olarak kullanılan karşıt anlamlılık, son zamanlardaki çalışmalarda ise genellikle dereceli anlam karşıtlıkları için kullanılmaktadır (Cruse, 1986, 2003, 2006; Lehrer & Lehrer, 1982; Lyons, 1983; Palmer, 2001; Saeed, 2003). Tüm bu çalışmalarda karşıt anlamlılık (İng. antonymy) ile dereceli karşıt anlamlılık (İng. gradable antonymy) terimleri aynı olgu için kullanılmakta ve bunlar bütünüyle karşıtlık, evrişiklik, yönelimsel karşıtlık, bağdaşmazlık gibi diğer karşıtlık türlerinden ayrılmaktadır.

Dereceli karşıt anlamlılık, bu ilişkiyi oluşturan sıfatların anlamsal derecelenme özelliğine dayanmaktadır. Kenedy ve McNally (2005) derecelenmenin sadece sıfat türü sözcüklere özgü bir özellik olmadığını belirtse de dereceli karşıt anlamlılık oluşturan sözcüklerin genellikle sıfat oldukları görülmektedir. Dereceli karşıt anlamlılık en genel biçimde bir nitelik ekseninin iki ucu arasında aşamalanmanın ya da orta terimin olduğu karşıtlık ilişkisidir. Söz konusu aşamalanmanın doğal sonucu olarak dereceli karşıtlıklarda, çiftlerden birinin olumsuzlanması diğerinin olumlulanması anlamına gelmez (Saeed, 2003, s. 67). Bütünüyle karşıtlardan farklı olarak dereceli karşıtlık oluşturan sıfatlar *çok*, *az*, *daha çok*, *daha az*, *en* gibi dereceli niteleyicilerini alabilirler. Paradis'e (2001) göre dereceli sıfatların üç türü vardır. Ölçekli (scalar) sıfatlar *büyük*, *soğuk*, *şişman* gibi ölçülebilir bir niteliği adlandırılır ve bunların önemli bir bölümü için belirgin bir sınır değeri yoktur. Sınır sıfatları

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ise adlandırdıkları niteliğe ilişkin bir sınır değerini de anlamsal olarak içerirler. Örneğin *doğru*, *aynı* gibi sıfatlar bu türdendir. *Berbat*, *mükemmel* gibi sıfatlar ise bir niteliğe ilişkin en uç değeri ifade eden sıfatlardır.

Dereceli sıfatlarla oluşan karşıt anlamlı çiftlerin en önemli özelliklerinden biri de çifti oluşturan sıfatlardan birinin söz konusu nitelik ekseninin adı olarak kullanılabilmesidir. Bu olgu dilbilim terimcesinde dilin ses, biçim ve anlam düzlemlerinde görülen ve belirtililik /belirtisizlik olarak adlandırılan ayırımının karşıt anlamlılık durumundaki örneğidir. Cruse (2006) özellikle yapısal dilbilimde önemli bir kavram olan belirtililiğin, bir karşıtlığın terimleri arasında birinin belirtili diğersinin belirtisiz olduğu bir asimetri için kullanıldığını ve üç türünün olduğunu belirtir. Biçimsel belirtililikte belirtili terim biçimbilimsel olarak imlenmiştir. Örneğin *başarı* belirtisiz, *başarılı* belirtilidir. İkinci tür olan dağılımsal belirtililikte belirtisiz terim, belirtili terime oranla daha geniş bağlamlarda yer alır. Örneğin,

- (1) a. Anne-babanız hayatta mı?
b. Anne-babanız öldü mü?

sorularının her ikisi de “evet” yanıtını vermek için uygundur. Ancak (1a) açık uçlu bir soru sormak için daha uygundur ve bu nedenle kullanımı daha yaygındır. Bu nedenle *hayatta* ya da *canlı* sözcükleri belirtisizdir. Bu çalışmanın da konusu olan anlamsal belirtisizlikte ise belirtisiz terim ile karşıt anlamlılık ilişkisi içinde olduğu belirtili terim arasındaki kontrast ilişkisi ortadan kalkar. Belirtisiz terim bu açıdan yansız bir anlama sahip olur. *Uzun: kısa* karşıtlığında *uzun* belirtisizdir, çünkü bu sıfatlarla iki ucu adlandırılan nitelik ekseninin genel adı olarak da kullanılır. Belirtisiz sıfatlar bu özelliklerinden ötürü en çok, söz konusu niteliğe ilişkin bir ölçü ya da derecenin sorulduğu soru tümcelerinde görülür. Belirtili terimin ise böyle bir kullanımı yoktur:

- (2) a. Bu yolun uzunluğu ne kadar?
b. *Bu yolun kısalığı ne kadar?

2(a)'da yolun kaç metre ya da kilometre olduğu sorulurken, 2(b)'de yolun kısa olduğu varsayımı söz konusu olduğundan yansızlık ortadan kalkmaktadır. Belirtisiz ögenin soru tümcelerinde kullanımı, onun, adlaştırılmış sıfat biçimi ile mümkündür. Cruse'ün (2006) dağılımsal belirtisizlik olarak ayrı bir tür kabul ettiği özellik, karşıt anlamlı sıfatlardan hangisinin belirtisiz olduğunu belirlemede kullanılan ölçütlerden biridir. Belirtisiz terimin daha geniş bağlamlarda daha yüksek bir kullanım sıklığı vardır. Lehrer (1985) oran belirtilirken ve karşılaştırma yapılırken de belirtisiz terimin kullanıldığını belirtse de Türkçede belirtisiz terimi belirlemek için bu ölçüt elverişli değildir.

3. (a) Bu ev eskisi kadar geniş.
(b) Bu ev eskisi kadar dar.

tümcelerinin her ikisinde de yanlı bir kullanım olduğu görülmektedir. Lehrer'in (1985) belirtisiz üyeyi belirlemek için önerdiği bir diğer ölçüt de belirtisiz üyenin değerlendirici (İng. evaluative) ya da çağrışımsal anlamının (İng. connotation) pozitif olmasıdır. Ancak sıfatların çağrışımsal ya da

değerlendirici anlamı kullanıldıkları bağlama göre değişkenlik gösterir. Örneğin çay için *sıcak* olmak pozitif bir değer ifade ederken, havanın *sıcak* olması en azından yansızdır.

Karşıt anlamlılıkta belirtisiz üye, sıfatlardan birinin adlaşması ile oluşur. Türkçede bu adlaşma {-IIk} biçimbirimi ile yapılmaktadır. *Geniş-lik*, *uzun-luk*, *sıcak-lık* gibi adlaşmış biçimler *geniş:dar*, *uzun:kısa*, *sıcak:soğuk* karşıtlıklarının belirtisiz üyesi olarak ilgili nitelik ekseninin tümünün adı durumundadır. Ancak bu biçimbirimin Türkçedeki işlevlerinden biri de eklendiği sıfatı bir durum adı haline getirmesidir. Yani *genişlik* sözcüğü *geniş:dar* karşıtlığının belirtisiz üyesi olabileceği gibi “geniş olma durumu” anlamında da kullanılabilir. Bunu ayırt etmenin tek yolu bu sözcüklerin içinde yer aldığı bağlamların incelenmesidir.

Bu çalışmada dereceli karşıtlık oluşturan sıfatların {-IIk} biçimbirimi ile adlaşmış biçimlerinin bağlam içi kullanımları derlem tabanlı olarak incelenmiş ve bunlar içinde belirtisiz kullanım özelliği gösteren ve göstermeyen çiftler belirlenmiştir. Sonraki aşamada, incelenen karşıt sıfatların ölçek yapıları yorumlanmış ve belirtisizliğin ölçek yapısı ile yakından ilişkili olduğu gösterilmiştir.

1.1. Alanyazın Taraması

Dereceli karşıtlıklar ve belirtisizlik üzerine yapılan çalışmalar içinde (Lehrer, 1985), bu iki dilbilimsel kavram arasındaki ilişkiyi doğrudan ele alması bakımından öne çıkmaktadır. Çalışmanın odağında karşıt anlamlı çiftlerin belirtisiz üyesinin belirlenme ölçütleri bulunmaktadır. Lehrer’e (1985) göre en temel ölçütler sorularda ve adlaştırmalarda belirtisiz üyenin yansızlaştırılmasıdır. Belirtisiz üyenin bağlamsal dağılımın daha çeşitli ve sıklığının daha yüksek olduğunun vurgulandığı çalışmada diğer ölçütlerin yanında soru ve karşılaştırma tümceleri temel ölçüt olarak kabul edilmiş ve betimleme bu örnekler üzerinden yürütülmüştür. Belirtisiz kullanımın nedenlerinden çok sonuçları üzerinde durulan çalışmada incelenen dil İngilizcedir ve örnekten hareketle varılan sonuçların bazıları Türkçe için uygun değildir. Giriş bölümünde de örneklendiği gibi özellikle karşılaştırma yapılan tümcelerde Türkçenin belirtisizliğe ilişkin yeterli veri sağlamadığı görülmektedir.

Belirtisizlik yerine “yansızlık” teriminin kullanıldığı (Cruse, 1986)’da yansızlık, güçlü ve güçsüz olmak üzere ikiye ayrılır. Buna göre güçlü yansızlık sadece dereceli karşıt anlamlılarla bağlantılı olarak görülür ve çiftin üyeleri tarafından gönderimde bulunan değişken özelliğin tüm olası değerlerini kapsayan bir ölçekle birlikte yer alır. Yansızlığın güçsüz olduğu durumlarda karşıtlığın üyelerinden biri sadece evet/hayır sorularında görülür. Tıpkı (Lehrer, 1985)’te olduğu gibi Türkçe açısından farklı görünümleri olan bu ayırım, belirtililik ve belirtisizlik ayırımının derecelendirilebileceğini göstermesi bakımından önemlidir.

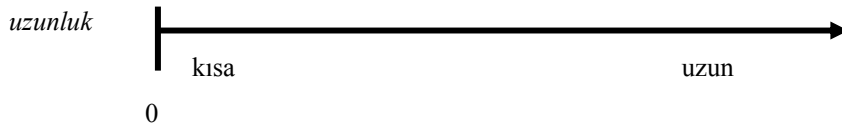
(Givón, 1970)’te belirtisiz kullanım ya da nitelik adının olduğu sıfatların, her ne kadar farklı yönde olsalar da temel bir nitelikte ortak oldukları belirtilir. Bu saptamada “temel nitelik” olarak adlandırılan şey ilgili sıfatların oluşturduğu ölçek yapısıdır ve bu açıdan çalışmamızda savunulan görüşü desteklemektedir. Kennedy ve McNally (2005) ise “boyut” olarak adlandırdıkları ölçeğin, sıfatların sözlüksel kütüğünde yer alması gereken bir değiştirgen olduğunu vurgular. Konuyu ölçekli sıfatlar kuramı açısından ele alan Rotstain ve Winter’e (2004) göre bu kuramın temel varsayımı *uzun: kısa*, *ağır: hafif* gibi sıfatların uzunluk, ağırlık gibi derecelere denk düşen ölçek alt kümeleri ile ilişkili olduğudur.

Karşıt anlamlılık ve ölçek yapısı arasındaki ilişkileri ele alan Kennedy ve McNally (1999), dereceli sıfatların temel özelliğinin bağlam duyarlılığı olduğu belirtmektedirler. Söz gelimi “Ahmet uzundur” tümcesinde boy için bir standart varsayılır ve Ahmet’in bu standardın üzerinde olduğu söylenmiş olur. Bununla birlikte, dereceli oldukları halde bazı sıfatların bağlam duyarlı olmadığı belirtilir ve örnek olarak da *uyanık* (uykuda olmama durumu) sıfatı verilir. Yazarlar buradan hareketle yaptıkları

betimlemede bağlam duyarlılığı olan sıfatların ölçeklerinin açık uçlu, diğerlerinin kapalı uçlu olduğu sonucuna varırlar.

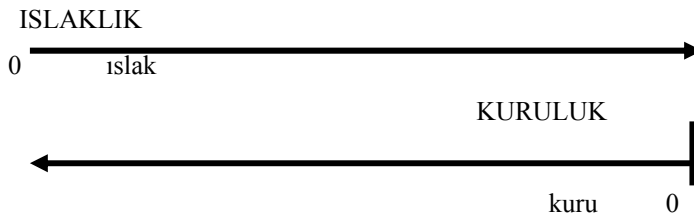
Hay'e (1998) göre dereceli sıfatlarla ilgili en temel çözümlene yolu ölçeklerdir. Bu sıfatlar nesnelere, kendi bilgi alanlarına ait bir ölçek üzerindeki derecelere göre konumlandırılır. "X büyüktür" gibi bir ifadenin doğruluğunu değerlendirebilmek için, X'in büyük olma derecesini bağlamsal olarak uygun olan karşılaştırma sınıfı içinde karşılaştırmak gerekir. Her ölçek, her bir noktanın tek bir derecelenebilir özelliğın farklı bir ölçüsünü temsil ettiği sıralanmış noktalar kümesinin soyut bir temsili olarak görülebilir. Söz gelimi soğuk sıfatı, nesnelere (buzluk, Erzurum gibi) soyut ısı ölçeğinin alt noktalarına yerleştirir. Hay'in (1998) bu çalışması dereceli ölçek yapılarına ilişkin saptamaları açısından önemlidir. Ancak belirtisizlik ve ölçek yapısı arasındaki ilişkiye dair bir çıkarımda bulunulmamıştır.

Çalışmamızın kuramsal temelini oluşturması bakımından Croft ve Cruse'un (2003) yaptıkları karşıt anlamlılık sınıflaması önemlidir. Bu sınıflama karşıt çiftlerin belirtisiz üyesi olan ve olmayanları nedenleri ile birlikte belirleme olanağı vermektedir. Bu sınıflamada karşıt çiftler tek ölçekli (İng.monoscalar) ve çift ölçekli (İng. biscalar) olmak üzere ikiye ayrılır. Tek ölçekli karşıtlıklarda bu ölçek tek bir özelliği ya da niteliği gösterir. Ölçeğın bir sıfır noktası vardır ve diğer ucu belirsiz bir biçimde ilerler. (Croft ve Cruse,2003: 170). Aşağıda bu tanıma uyan *uzun:kısa* karşıtlığının ölçek sistemi görülmektedir:



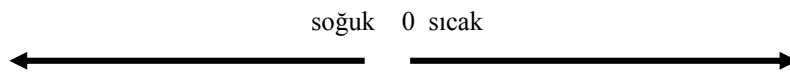
Şekil 1. Tek ölçekli sistemler

Burada ölçeğın gösterdiği özellik "uzunluk"tur ve karşıtlığın terimlerinden biri bu özelliğın daha yüksek bir değerini, diğeri ise daha düşük bir değeri ifade eder. Ancak aşağıda tartışılacağı gibi tek ölçekli sistemlerin tümünde belirgin bir sıfır noktası bulunmaz ya da karşıtlığın uygulandığı bağlama göre değişen sıfır noktası söz konusu olabilir. Çift ölçekli sistemlerde ise karşıtlığın her iki tarafı için birer ölçek söz konusudur. Genellikle her iki ölçek için de bir sıfır noktası bulunur ve bu iki sıfır noktası bütünüyle ters yönlere yer alır. *Islak:kuru* karşıtlığının bu tanıma uyduğu görülmektedir:



Şekil 2. Çift ölçekli sistemler(1)

Çift ölçekli sistemlerin bir diğeri türünde ise ortada bir sıfır noktası yer almakta ve ölçekler bu sıfır noktasının tersi yönlere ilerlemektedir. Cruse ve Croft(2003) bunun için *sıcak:soğuk* karşıtlığını örnek olarak vermiştir:



Şekil 3. Çift ölçekli sistemler(2)

Cruse ve Croft'un (2003), ölçek yapısının tekli ya da ikili olmasına dayanan bu sınıflamasından hareketle, ister tek ister çift ölçekli olsun, ölçekliliğin aynı zamanda karşıt anlamlılığın da oluşumunu açıklayan bir özellik olduğu vurgulanmalıdır. İki sözcüğün karşıt anlamlı olabilmesi için bu iki sözcük arasında en az bir ölçeğin bulunması gerekir. Ölçeğin iki ucu arasında ara değerlerin olup olmamasına bağlı olarak derecelilik ya da derecesizlik ayrımı yapılır. Örneğin *sandalye* sözcüğünün karşıt anlamlısı yoktur; pek çok açıdan sandalyeye benzeyen masa, tabure gibi olası karşıt anlamlılar düşünülebilir, ancak bunlar gerçek karşıt anlamlılar değildir. Çünkü bu terimlerin karşıt değerlere sahip olduğu tek ve net bir boyut yoktur. Tabure, sandalyeden ayak sayısı bakımından farklı olsa da bu değerler (tabure için üç ayaklılık, sandalye için dört ayaklılık) sıcak ve soğuktaki "ısı" gibi bir karşıtlık oluşturmaz. Ayrıca sandalye ve tabure, bu ölçütün dışında başka açılardan da farklıdır, bu nedenle sandalye ve tabure gerçek karşıt anlamlı değildir. Bu, genel olarak adlar için tipik bir durumdur. (Murphy, 1993).

1.2. Araştırma Soruları

Bu çalışmada yanıtı aranan soru, dereceli karşıt anlamlıların neden sadece bir bölümünün belirtisiz üyeye sahip olduğudur. Bu çerçevede karşıt anlamlıların ölçek yapısı ile belirtisizlik arasındaki ilişki sorgulanmıştır. Bu soru çerçevesinde, örneklem içindeki karşıt anlamlıların ölçek yapısının nasıl olduğu, bu ölçek yapısının hangi bağlamsal bulgulara dayandığı gibi alt sorular da çalışmanın temelini oluşturmaktadır.

2. Yöntem

Dereceli karşıt anlamlıların hangilerinin ve neden belirtisiz üyeye sahip olduklarını gözlemleyebilmek için Türkçede yaygın olarak kullanılan karşıt çiftler içinden *aç:tok; ağır:hafif, büyük:küçük, dar:geniş, derin:sığ, eski:yeni, genç:yaşlı, hızlı:yavaş, ince:kalın, ıslak:kuru, sert:yumuşak, sıcak:soğuk, uzak:yakın, uzun:kısa, ucuz:pahalı, yüksek:alçak ve zor:kolay* üzere 17 tanesi seçilmiştir. Murphy'nin (2003) "kanonik" adını verdiği ve belli bir kültürde birlikte kullanım sıklığı yüksek olan, ayrıca bilişsel olarak da birlikte bulunan bu karşıt anlamlıların bağlam içi kullanımalarını gözlemek için Türkçe Ulusal Derlem (TUD) kullanılmıştır. TUD 50 milyon sözcükten oluşan, 20 yıllık bir dönemi (1990- 2009) kapsayan, günümüz Türkçesinin çok sayıda farklı alan ve türlerden yazılı ve sözlü örneklerini içeren, geniş kapsamlı, dengeli ve temsil yeterliliğine sahip, genel amaçlı bir referans derlemidir (Aksan vd., 2012). Derlemin şu an için tanıtım sürümü kullanıcıya açıktır ve bu sürümde sadece ilk 2500 sonuç gösterilmektedir.

Derlem sorgulaması karşıt anlamlı çiftleri oluşturan sıfatların her biri için tüm sözcükbiçimler dikkate alınarak yapılmış, ilgili sıfatın geçtiği tümce ve gerekli olduğunda paragrafın tümü değerlendirilmiştir. Sıfatların sadece birinci ya da temel anlamlı kullanımları dikkate alınmıştır. Çifti oluşturan sıfatların yanlı ve yansız kullanımları birbirinden ayırt edilmiş, ölçü öbekleri içinde yer alıp yer almadıkları sorgulanmış, böylelikle belirtisiz üyenin olup olmadığı belirlenmeye çalışılmıştır. Türkçedeki belirtisiz üyenin temel imleyicisi, karşıtlığı oluşturan sıfatlardan birinin {-İlk} biçim birimini alarak adlaşmasıdır. Bu nedenle derlem sorgulaması bu adlanmış sıfatlar üzerinden yapılmıştır. Ancak Türkçede bu biçim birimle adlaşan sıfatlar, içinde yer aldıkları karşıtlık ilişkisinin belirtisiz üyesi olmanın dışında ve bir durum adı olarak da kullanılır. Örneğin *genişlik* sözcüğü, *geniş:dar* karşıtlığının belirtisiz üyesi olabileceği gibi "geniş olma durumu" anlamında da olabilir. Bu ayırım adlanmış sıfatın geçtiği tümce bağlamına göre yapılabilir. Bunun yanı sıra bazı karşıtlıklarda belirtisiz terim karşıtlığı oluşturan sıfatların dışında bir üst anlamlı sözcük olabilmektedir. Bu nedenle

incelenen karşıtlıklarda yansız olarak kullanılan bir üst anlamlı terimin de olabileceği dikkate alınmıştır. Aşağıda görüleceği gibi bazen tümce bağlamı belirtililik/belirtisizlik ayrımını yapabilmek için yeterli olmamaktadır; böyle durumlarda derlemin izin verdiği ölçüde daha geniş metin kesitlerine bakılarak bu ayrım yapılmıştır. İncelenen karşıt anlamlılar tek ve çift ölçeklilik bakımından sınıflandırılmış, sınıflama içinde yer alan tüm karşıtlıklar için belirtililik/belirtisizlik durumu derlem tanıklarıyla birlikte tartışılmıştır. Verilen kullanım örneklerinin tümü derlem sorgu sonuçlarıdır.

3. Bulgular

Bu çalışmada örnek olarak seçilen 17 tane dereceli karşıt anlamlı çiftinin derlem sorgulaması yapıldığında 12 tanesinin belirtisiz kullanım özelliği gösterdiği görülmüş ve bunlar (+), belirtisiz üyesi olmayanlar ise (-) imi ile aşağıdaki tabloda gösterilmiştir:

Tablo 1. Belirtisiz Üyesi Olan Karşıt Anlamlılar

Karşıt anlamlılar	Belirtisiz üye
aç: tok	-
ağır: hafif	+
büyük: küçük	+
geniş: dar	+
derin: sığ	+
eski: yeni	-
genç: yaşlı	-
hızlı: yavaş	+
ince: kalın	+
ıslak: kuru	-
sert: yumuşak	+
sıcak: soğuk	+
uzak: yakın	+
uzun: kısa	+
ucuz: pahalı	+
yüksek: alçak	+
zor: kolay	-

Bu tabloda belirtisiz kullanım özelliği olan karşıt anlamlıların tümü bu üyenin niteliği ve kullanımı açısından özdeş bir görünüm sergilememektedir. Bunlar, ölçülebilirlik ve ölçüm aracının ya da biriminin sabit olup olmaması, belirtisiz üyenin çifti oluşturan sıfatlardan biri ya da bir üst anlamlı sözcük olması ve her iki üyenin birden belirtisiz kullanımının olması gibi farklı özelliklere sahiptir. Aşağıda bu özelliklere göre belirtisiz kullanım özelliği olan karşıt anlamlılar değerlendirilmiştir.

Öncelikle, belirtisiz üyesi olan karşıt anlamlılardan bir bölümü ölçülebilir bir değeri, bir başka deyişle bir niceliği ifade etmektedir. Ancak bu ölçülebilirlik bu karşıtlıkların tümü için aynı görünümde değildir. Örneğin *ağır: hafif*, *derin: sığ*, *ince: kalın*; *sıcak: soğuk*, *uzun: kısa*; *yüksek:*

alçak karşıtlıkları her durumda aynı ölçekle ya da aynı ölçü birimi ile ifade edilir. Burada değişen, aynı ölçü biriminin büyüklüğe göre değişen adıdır. Bunlara “sabit ölçü birimli karşıtlıklar” adı verilebilir.

Tablo 2. Sabit Ölçü Birimli Karşıtlıklar

karşıtlık	Ölçü Birimi
ağır: hafif	kg.-gr.-ton
derin: sığ	metre
ince : kalın	Metre - cm.
sıcak: soğuk	derece
uzun: kısa	m.-cm.-km.
yüksek: alçak	metre
ucuz: pahalı	TL-USD vd.

Buna karşın *büyük:küçük*, *dar:deniz*, *hızlı: yavaş*, *uzak:yakın çiftleri* için bağlama göre değişebilen ölçü birimlerinden söz edilebilir. Örneğin *büyük: küçük* karşıtlığı bir ev için kullanıldığında ölçü birimi metrekare, bir bina için kullanıldığında metre olacaktır. Ayrıca, örneğin *büyük çiçek* nitelemesinde belirgin bir ölçü birimi de bulunmamaktadır. Aynı şekilde bir arabanın hızlı olduğu söylendiğinde *kilometre/saat* ölçüsü söz konusuysen bir kişinin bir işi yaparken hızlı hareket etmesi için zaman ölçü birimleri söz konusu olabilir. *Uzak: yakın* karşıtlığı uzamdaki bir mesafeyi bildirdiğinde ölçü birimi metre ya da kilometredir; ancak bağlamın değiştiği, karşıt sözcük birimlerin değişmediği *uzak akraba*, *yakın ihtimal* gibi nitelemelerde ölçü birimi değişecektir. *Dar* ve *geniş* bir evin ölçüsü olduğunda metrekare, bir elbise için kullanıldığında beden ölçüleri geçerli olacaktır. Bunlar için “ölçü birimi değişken karşıtlıklar” denilebilir. Bunların dışında kalan *eski: yeni*, *zor:kolay*, *genç:yaşlı* karşıtlıkları sabit ya da değişken bir ölçü birimi olmayan, nitel değerler ifade eden karşıtlıklardır.

Belirtisiz kullanım özelliği gösteren karşıtlıklara ilişkin bir başka özellik de çifti oluşturan sıfatlardan farklı bir sözlük birimin, söz konusu karşıtlığın belirtisiz adı olabilmesidir. Bu örneklerde belirtisiz ya da yansız kullanım sıfatlardan birine ait olmakla birlikte, farklı bir sözlükbirimin de anlambilimsel olarak belirtisiz kullanımı söz konusudur. Bu sözlükbirimle karşıtlığı oluşturan sıfatlar arasında alt anlamlılık ilişkisi vardır. Ancak buradaki alt anlamlılıkta, içerilen öğeler arasında bağdaşmazlık ilişkisi bulunmamaktadır. Örneğin *kuş* kavramının alt anlamlıları olan *güvercin* ve *serçe* arasında böyle bir bağdaşmazlık varken, *mesafe* kavramının alt anlamlıları olan *uzak* ve *yakın* sözcükleri arasında bağdaşmazlık ilişkisi söz konusu değildir. Belirtisiz üyenin çifti oluşturan sıfatlardan farklı bir sözcük olduğu örneklerden biri de *ucuz: pahalı* çiftidir. *uzak: yakın* çiftinden farklı olarak burada çiftin iki üyesinin de belirtisiz kullanımı söz konusu değildir. *Fiyat* sözcüğü *ucuz: pahalı* karşıtlığı için kullanılan yansız terimdir. Bu olgu, çifti oluşturan sözcüklerin anlambilimsel bir özelliğinden değil, bütünüyle sözcüğünün tarihsel gelişiminden kaynaklanmaktadır. Belirtisiz kullanım özelliğinin çifti oluşturan sözcüklerden farklı bir sözlükbirime ait olmaması aynı zamanda bir dil içi sözlük boşluk örneğidir. Bu boşluklar, çifti oluşturan sıfatlardan birinin adlaşmış biçimine yansız kullanım özelliği yüklenerek doldurulmaktadır. Aşağıdaki tabloda tüm belirtisiz üyesi olan karşıtlıklar içinde bu özelliğe sahip olanlar ve ilgili sözlükbirim gösterilmektedir:

Tablo 3. Üst Anlamlı Belirtisiz Adlandırması Olan Karşıtlıklar

Karşıtlık	Üst Anlamlı Belirtisiz Sözlükbirim
Aç: tok	-
ağır: hafif	-
büyük: küçük	boyut/ebat
dar: geniş	en
derin: sığ	-
eski: yeni	-
genç: yaşlı	*yaş
hızlı: yavaş	Hız, sürat
ıslak: kuru	-
ince: kalın	-
sert: yumuşak	-
sıcak: soğuk	ısı
uzak: yakın	mesafe
uzun: kısa	boy
ucuz: pahalı	fiyat
yüksek: alçak	-
zor: kolay	-

Bu tabloda yer alan *genç: yaşlı* karşıtlığı için “yaş” sözcüğü üst anlamlı belirtisiz sözlükbirim olarak değerlendirilebilse de bu sıfatların gönderimsel özellikleri bakımından, üst anlamlı sözlükbirimle olan ilişkileri farklı bir özelliğe sahiptir. Bu noktaya tartışma bölümünde ayrıca değinilecektir.

Karşıtlık sıfatların {-lik} biçimbirimini alarak adlaşmış biçimlerinin bağlam içi kullanımları sorgulandığında bunların, biri yanlı durum adı diğeri de yansız ya da belirtisiz ölçek adı olmak üzere iki kullanımının olduğu görülmektedir. Bu iki tür kullanımdan hangisinin geçerli olduğu, ilgili adın içinde yer aldığı tümce bağlamına dayalı bir yorumla belirlenebilmektedir. Bunlar içinde belirtisiz kullanımın en açık olduğu bağlamlar ölçü öbekleridir. Ölçü öbeklerinde adlaşmış sıfat bir sayısal değerle ifade edilir ve bu durumda karşıtlığı oluşturan sıfatlardan hiç birine vurgu yapılmaz. (4)'te belirtisiz üyesi olan karşıtlıklar için ölçü öbeği örnekleri yer almaktadır:

- (4) a. 85 gram *ağırlığı* ile en küçük ceplere bile...
 b. en çok yaklaşık 0.5 mm. *büyükükte* iyi gelişmiş kristallere sahip olan...
 c. yeni ve 30 m. *genişliğinde* ve devlet yolu niteliğinde yapımına...
 d. 90 cm.den daha az *derinlikte* olduğu yerlerde...
 e. Büyüme *hızı* yüksek olan ülkelerdeki hisse senedi...
 f. bunu izleyen günlerde toprak *sıcaklığı* 15 derece...
 g. ...göl kıyısına yaklaşık 300 m. *uzaklıktadır*.

Belirtisizlik özelliği gösteren karşıtlıklar içinde *genç: yaşlı*, *hızlı: yavaş* ve *ince: kalın* çiftlerinin ölçü öbeği ve dolayısıyla yansız kullanım bakımından bağlamsal davranışları diğerlerinden farklıdır. *Hızlı* ve *yaşlı* sıfatları addan {-lik} biçimbirimi ile türemiş sıfatlardır ve bu nedenle yeniden {-lik} biçimbirimi ile adlaştırılmış bir biçimin belirtisiz kullanım özelliği bulunmamakta, bu işlev *hız* ve *yaş* sözcükleri ile yerine getirilmektedir. *Kalın: ince* karşıtlığında ise hem *kalın* hem de *ince* sıfatının ölçü öbeklerinde ve belirtisiz kullanımının olduğu görülmüştür.

- (5) a. Manyetik hatta giden Maglev'in *hızı* saatte 581 kilometre.
 b. bu kadar genç *yaşta* mutsuz...
 c. ...aynı işi yapacak bunun yarısı *incelikte* maraging çeliği kullanarak...

d. ..makine ile üzerine 3.5 cm *kalınlığında* örtü toprağı serilir...

Her iki sıfatın da belirtisiz kullanımına rastlanan bir diğer karşıtlık da *sert: yumuşak*’tır. Ancak bu örnekte de yumuşaklık sözcüğünün belirtisiz kullanım sıklığı sertlik sözcüğüne oranla çok düşüktür:

- (6) a. Ülkemiz sularının *sertlik* derecelerinin değerlendirilmesinde...
 b. Orta *sertlikte* bir mukavvanın üstüne...
 c. alınan 61 örneğin *sertlik* dereceleri 89-1002 ppm...
 d. aldığı kadar un ile orta *yumuşaklıkta* bir hamur yoğuralım.

(6d)’de geçen orta sözcüğü *sert: yumuşak* karşıtlığı için genel bir derece değildir. Bu bağlamda, hakkında yumuşaklık /sertlik bakımından bilgi verilen “hamur” için belli olan bir standart vardır ve söz konusu belirtisizlik bu standart için geçerlidir. Ayrıca *sertlik* sözcüğü (6c)’deki gibi sadece sınırlı bazı bağlamlarda ölçülebilir bir nicel değer ifade eder.

{-İlk} biçimbirimi ile adlaşan sıfat aynı zamanda ait olduğu karşıtlığın da adı durumundadır. Aynı karşıtlık ekseninde yer alan terimlerden biri, karşıtlık oluşturan değer nicel olarak fazla olduğunu diğeri ise az olduğunu ya da hiç olmadığını belirtir. Bu durumda karşıt çiftlerden biri pozitif diğeri negatif bir nicel değer ifade eder. Pozitif ya da negatif değer, belirtisiz olarak kullanılan üyeye göre belirlenir. Örneğin *sıcak: soğuk* karşıtlığında belirtisiz üye *sıcak* sözcüğüdür ve *sıcaklık* buradaki nicel değer adıdır. Buna bağlı olarak sıcaklık değerinin fazla olduğu sıcak pozitif, az olduğu soğuk ise negatif üye durumundadır. *Kalın: ince* ve *sert: yumuşak* karşıtlıklarında ise her iki üyenin adlaşmış biçiminin de belirtisiz kullanım özelliğinin olması nedeniyle pozitif ve negatif üye, kullanılan belirtisiz ada göre değişir. Örneğin belirtisiz kullanım incelik ise bu değer az olduğu *kalın* negatif üye, *ince* ise pozitif üye olacaktır. Belirtisiz adın kalınlık olduğu durumda ise tam tersi geçerli olacaktır. Yukarıda da belirtildiği gibi bazı karşıtlıklarda ise belirtisiz terim bir üst anlamlı sözlükbirimdir; aşağıdaki tabloda bu karşıtlıkların belirtisiz üye dağılımı görülmektedir.

Tablo 3. Belirtisiz Üye Dağılımı

Karşıtlık	Pozitif terim Belirtisiz	Negatif terim Belirtisiz	Üst anlamlı belirtisiz terim
ağır: hafif	ağırlık		
büyük: küçük	büyüklik		boyut/ebat
geniş: dar	genişlik		en
derin: sığ	derinlik		
ucuz: pahalı			fiyat
genç: yaşlı			*yaş
hızlı: yavaş			hız, sürat
kalın: ince	*kalınlık	*incelik	
sert: yumuşak	*sertlik	*yumuşaklık	
sıcak: soğuk	sıcaklık		
uzak: yakın	uzaklık		mesafe
uzun: kısa	uzunluk		boy
yüksek: alçak	yükseklik		
zor: kolay	zorluk		

Belirtisiz kullanım bakımından bazı bağlamlarda ara durumlar söz konusu olabilmektedir. Tümünde belirtisiz kullanımın olduğu bu karşıtlıkların bağlam içindeki yorumu kimi zaman bağlamın sadece bir parçasına bağlı olarak yapılabilen, ancak bağlamın diğer bir parçasına dayanarak karşı yorum üretilebilmektedir. Örneğin (7)'de derinlik sözcüğünün üç farklı kullanımı görülmektedir:

- (7) a. Boru değişik derinliklere daldırılarak...
 b. ...150 metreyi geçen derinliklere kadar inşa edilmişlerdir.
 c. ...denizin derinliklerinden geldiği için midir bilinmez ama...

(7a)'da *derinlik* sözcüğünün tamamen yansız kullanıldığı “değişik derinliklere” ifadesinden anlaşılmaktadır. Burada “sığ” ve “derin” arasındaki nicel derecelenmenin herhangi bir noktaya gönderim yapılmaktadır. Buna karşın (7b)'de 150 metreyi geçen derinliklere kadar ifadesinin aynı derecelenme üzerinde *derin* için ilgili bağlamdaki en üst dereceye yakın bir noktaya gönderim yapıldığı anlaşılmaktadır. Bir başka deyişle (7a)'da yansız bir adlandırma yapılırken (7b)'de sözü edilen noktanın “derin” olduğuna vurgu yapılmaktadır. (7c)'de ise denizin derin noktasına gönderimde bulunulduğu açıkça bellidir. Cruse (1986:244)'da “güçlü” ve “zayıf” yansızlık olarak adlandırılan bu üç farklı kullanım belirtilik ve belirtisizlik arasında (7b)'deki gibi orta ya da ara yorumların da yapılabileceğini göstermektedir.

Belirtisiz üyenin kullanımının ilginç örneklerinden biri, pozitif terim olan bazı belirtisiz üyelerin, kimi zaman negatif yönde sifira en yakın nokta için dahi kullanılabilenleridir. (8)'de ilgili bağlamda çok *yakın* olma durumuna gönderim yapılırken belirtisiz üye olan *uzaklık* kullanılmıştır:

- (8) İstedğim yere sadece bir istasyon uzaklıktaydım.

Ancak belirtisiz terimlerin yansızlığı her zaman bu kadar belirgin değildir. Bu durum belirtisizliğin de kendi içinde bir derecelenme oluşturduğunu, belirtilik/belirtisizlik ayrımının da dereceli bir karşıtlık olduğunu göstermektedir.

Çifti oluşturan sıfatlardan birinin yanı sıra başka bir üst anlamlı sözlükbirimin de belirtisiz üye olduğu çiftlerde (uzak: yakın, uzun: kısa, dar:geniş, genç:yaşlı, ucuz:pahalı, hızlı:yavaş) bu üst anlamlı sözlükbirimin bağlamsal davranışı, işlev olarak çiftin belirtisiz sıfatından farklı olmamakla birlikte, üst anlamlı sözlükbirimin yansızlığı doğal olarak diğerinden daha belirgin ve tartışmasızdır.

- (9) a. evladım zaten iki saatlik bir mesafe ve akşam olmadan geri geliriz.
 b. başparmakla işaret parmağı arasındaki mesafe kadar...
 c. Uzun mesafeli haberleşme için uygun değildi.
 d. Sonsuz bir kısa mesafeler labirentiydi.

Özellikle (9c-d)'de bu belirginlik görülmektedir. Bu örneklerde görülen uzun mesafeli ve kısa mesafe sıfat öbeklerinde mesafe sözcüğünün yerine uzaklık sözcüğü gelemmez. Bunun yerine uzaklığın miktarını belirten sıfat tümcecisi kurulabilir:

- (10) a. *uzun uzaklıklı
 b. *kısa uzaklıklı
 c. Uzunluğu çok [olan]...
 d. Uzunluğu az [olan]

Belirtisiz üst anlamlı sözlükbirimin anlam kümesi ve eş dizimlilik ilişkilerinin belirtisiz sıfattan farklı olmasının temel nedeni, örneğin *uzaklık* sözcüğünün sıfattan türemiş bir ad olması ve bu türetimin dilbilgiselliğini koruması, buna karşın mesafe sözcüğünün anlamının bütünüyle sözlüksel olmasıdır. Bu durumun en açık örneği (10)'da görülmektedir:

- (11) a. ...yakın mesafeler için inanılmaz bir ulaşım aracıdır.
 b. ...siyasal açıdan enikonu mesafe katetmiş...
 c. ...refahın artırılması yönünde yeterli mesafe alınamamıştır.
 d. ...1520 m. mesafede bir uzaklık kalıyordu.
 e.bulutla yeryüzü arasındaki en kısa mesafeyi oluşturan dağ...
 f. Bu kez tam mesafesinde start alıyor.

Uzun: *kısa* karşıtlığının üst anlamlı belirtisiz terimi olan *boy* da *uzunluk* sözcüğü ile anlam ve kullanım açısından farklılık göstermektedir. (12)'de *uzun*: *kısa* çiftinin belirtisiz üst anlamlısı olarak *boy* sözcüğünün, (13)'te ise *uzunluk* sözcüğünün kullanımına ilişkin örnekler yer almaktadır.

- (12) a. Vücut boyu 30 cm. kadardır.
 b. Boyu kasaya bile zor yetişen...
 c. ... Birbiri üzerinden kaymasıyla kas lifi boyu kısalmakta...
 d. ... kiminin boyu benden uzun, kiminin aklı kısa...
 e. ... ucu serbest olarak örülmüş duvarların boyu (10n-1) olur.
 f. ... Gölün çevresi yaklaşık 120 km., boyu 45 km., genişliği ise...
- (13) a. Selimiye medresesinin uzunluğu bir mil, eni yarım mildir.
 b. 400 m. uzunluğundaki pizza Guinness rekorlar kitabına girdi.
 c. göz üzerinden yapılacak olan orta uzunluktaki budamalar ile.....
 d. Dört ya da beş ayak uzunluğunda bir kamış alın ve ortasından...
 e. 1.5 mm. uzunluğundaki zıpkınlardan biri ağız vazifesini gören...
 f. saçlarının uzunluğuna veya kulaklarındaki küpelere göre...

Örneklerde görüleceği üzere *boy* ve *uzunluk* sözcüklerinin kullanımı arasında eş dizimliliğe dayanan farklar bulunmaktadır. (12b-d)'de *boy* sözcüğünün yerine *uzunluk* sözcüğünün kullanımı Türkçe için uygun değildir. (12a) ve (12f)'de ise bu iki sözcük yer değiştirebilir. Yer değiştirmenin mümkün olduğu örneklerde sayısal değer bildirildiği görülmektedir. Diğerlerinde ise açık ya da gizli bir karşılaştırma yapılmaktadır. Aynı durum (13)'te de görülmektedir. (13a), (12b), (13d) ve (13e) birer ölçü öbeğidir ve bu öbeklerdeki *boy* sözcüğünün yerine *uzunluk* kullanılabilir. Buna karşın (13b), (13c) ve (13f)'de görelî bir ölçü bildirilmektedir. Bu örnekler, iki farklı belirtisiz üyesi olan karşıtlıklarda, üst anlamlı belirtisiz üyenin diğerine göre daha yansız bir kullanımının olduğunu göstermektedir. Aynı zamanda uzlaşım ölçü birimlerinin kullanılması, belirtisizlik üzerinde etkili olmaktadır (Cruse, 2004: 185).

Belirtisiz üyesi *zorluk* olan *zor*: *kolay* karşıtlığında ise zorluk sözcüğünün sadece *derece* sözcüğü ile birlikte kullanıldığı görülmektedir. Ancak bu örneklerde zorluk sözcüğünün bağlama göre yanlış yorumlara da açık olduğu görülmektedir. (14a)'da belirtisiz kullanım (14b)'de ise belirtili kullanım yorumu yapılabilir:

- (14) a. Günlük faaliyetlerin zorluk derecesine göre doku ve organların...
b. O sporlarda da zorluk derecesi çok yüksektir.

Belirtili ve belirtisiz kullanım arasında ayırım yapmak için bağlamın yeterli olmadığı örnekler de vardır:

- (15) Basketbolda yüzeyin sertliği pek bir önem taşımasa da...

Basketbol oynanan zemin göreceli olarak, örneğin futbol oynanan zemine göre serttir; bu durumda (15)'deki kullanımın sert olma durumu anlamında belirtili kullanım olduğu söylenebilir. Bununla birlikte tümcede geçen *önem taşımasa da* ifadesi, sertliğin bir ölçek ya da derece adı olarak da kullanılmış olabileceği yorumuna izin vermektedir.

Tek ölçekli karşıtlıklar içinde *ince*: *kalın* çiftinde görülen, her iki üyenin de belirtisiz kullanım özelliği *sert*: *yumuşak* karşıtlığı için de geçerlidir. Çok sık olmamakla birlikte yumuşaklık sözcüğünün de belirtisiz kullanımları bulunmaktadır:

- (16) Unu ilave edip kulak memesi yumuşaklığında bir hamur yoğuralım.

Yukarıdaki karşıt anlamlılar dışında kalan *aç*: *tok*, *eski*: *yeni* ve *ıslak*: *kuru* çiftlerinde ise sıfatların adlaşmış biçiminin yansız kullanımı ve karşıtlığı adlandıran üst anlamlı bir sözlükbirim bulunmamaktadır. Bunların herhangi bir ölçüm aracı ile ölçülebilen bir değeri değil, nitel bir değeri ifade ettikleri görülmektedir. Derlemde açlık, tokluk, eskilik, yenilik, ıslaklık, kuruluk sıfatlarının yansız ya da belirtisiz kullanımına rastlanmamıştır.

- (16) a. Oysa ben tokluğumun üstüne tatlı söylemişim.
b. ...şu anda bile insanlığın yarısının açlık ve kötü beslenme sorunuyla...
c. Taşdıkları ağırlıktan ve eskilikten bazıları sağa, bazıları sola doğru...
d. yanağımda bir ıslaklık duyarak uyanıyorum.

Belirtisizliğin ölçütlerinden biri olan soru tümceleri incelendiğinde de çift ölçekli karşıtlıklar için soru tümcelerinde belirtisizlik olmadığı görülmektedir. Bir başka deyişle çiftin her iki üyesi de soru tümcelerinde kullanılmaktadır:

- (17) a. Peki siz tok musunuz?
b. Karnın aç mı bakayım?

Buna karşın soru tümcelerinde karşıtlığın her iki üyesi birden kullanılarak yansız soru sorulabilmektedir:

(18) şuna bir bakayım, aç mı tok mu sorayım.

Karşıt çiftlerden her ikisinin de soru tümcelerinde kullanılmasının nedeni üyelerden herhangi birinin yansız kullanım özelliği taşımasıdır.

4. Tartışma

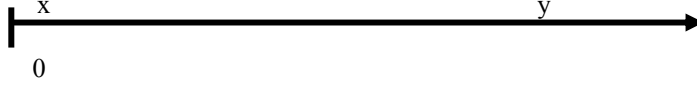
Karşıt anlamlılığın kuramsal temelinde, sanılanın aksine iki sözcük arasındaki küçük bir anlam farkı ya da anlamsal bileşenlerden çoğu kez birinin farklı olması yatmaktadır (Murphy, 1994,s.39). Bu küçük farkın dışında karşıt anlamlı sözcükler anlamca birbirine çok yakındırlar. Örneğin “anne” ve “baba” sözcüklerinin her ikisinde de [+yetişkin], [+insan], [çocuk sahibi] gibi temel anlamsal özellikler bakımından ortaklık varken sadece cinsiyet bakımından [+erkek/ - erkek] farklılık bulunmaktadır. Bu iki sözcük karşıt anlamlıdır ve bunun nedeni ortak bir eksen paylaşmalarına karşın aralarında bir ayırt edici özelliğın olmasıdır. Bu örnekten farklı olarak karşıt anlamlılığın tipik örnekleri olan sıfatlar nicel ya da nitel bir değere, bir özelliğe gönderimde bulunurlar. Söz konusu değeri, negatif ve pozitif yönde uzanan bir eksen oluşturur. Eksenin iki ucu arasında orta ya da ara değerlerin olup olmamasına bağlı olarak dereceli ve derecesiz karşıtlık ayrımı yapılır. Anlambilimde bu eksene ölçek (scale) adı verilmekte ve karşıt anlamlı sıfatların ölçeğın iki karşıt ucunda yer aldıkları kabul edilmektedir. Ölçek aynı zamanda dereceli bir özellik sergileyen bir nesnenin bu özelliğine ilişkin dereceler kümesi olarak da tanımlanabilir. Dereceli karşıtların ölçek yapısı, karşıtlığın anlambilimsel görünümünü belirlemek için önemli bir araçtır. Karşıtlığı oluşturan sıfatların mutlak ya da göreceli olduklarını ölçek yapısını belirler. Göreceli sıfatların ölçek üzerindeki değerleri büyük ölçüde niteledikleri ada bağlıdır. Örneğin *ucuz: pahalı* karşıtlığını oluşturan sıfatlar görecelidir. Çünkü ucuz bir araba, pahalı bir yemekten çok daha pahalıdır. Buna karşın mutlak sıfatların ölçek üzerindeki yerleri sabittir. Temiz ve kirli sıfatları niteledikleri addan bağımsız bir ölçek yapısı oluştururlar.

Mutlak sıfatlara ilişkin bir özellik de maksimum ve minimum standart sıfatların olmasıdır. Ölçek üzerindeki maksimum değerleriyle yorumlanan sıfatlara “maksimum standart sıfatı” adı verilir. Bunun örneği “temiz” sıfatıdır. Bir şeyin temiz olması demek, hiç bir şekilde kirle alakasının olmaması, kirden tamamen bağımsız olması demektir. Ancak, örneğin kirli sıfatı farklıdır. Bir şey, kirliliğın sıfır olmayan bir miktarına sahipse, yani çok az da olsa kire sahipse, kirlidir. Bunlara da “minimum standart sıfatı” denir. (Fraizer vd., 2008). Göreceliliğın ya da bağlam duyarlılığın dereceli sıfatların temel özelliğini olduğunu belirten Kennedy ve McNally (1999) uyanık sıfatını örnek vererek dereceli olduğu halde bağlama duyarlı olmayan, ölçek yapısı mutlak olan sıfatların varlığından söz etmiştir.

Ölçek yapısı dereceli karşıtlıklara ilişkin çözümlenmenin temel aracıdır. Her ölçek, her bir noktanın tek bir derecelenebilir özelliğın farklı bir ölçüsünü temsil ettiği sıralanmış noktalar kümesinin soyut bir temsili olarak görülebilir. Söz gelimi soğuk sıfatı, nesnelere (buzluk, Erzurum gibi) soyut ısı (heat) ölçeğının alt noktalarına yerleştirir. (Hay, 1998)

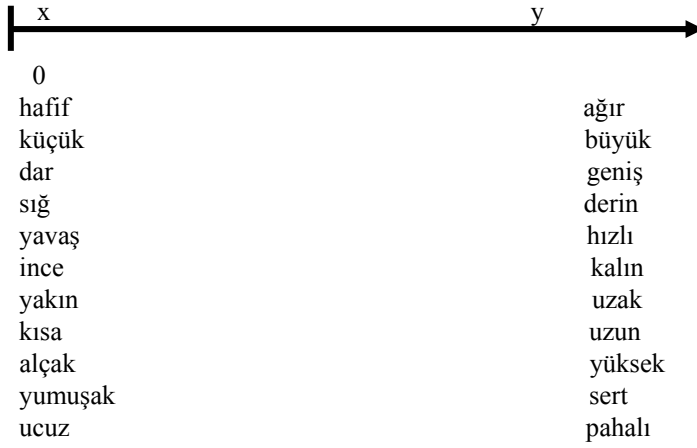
Croft ve Cruse (2004) karşıt anlamlıların ölçek yapılarını incelemiş ve bunları tek ve çift ölçekli karşıtlıklar olarak ikiye ayırmışlardır. Bu ayrıma göre, tek ölçekli karşıtlıklarda karşıtlığı oluşturan sıfatların her ikisi de tek bir nitelik ya da nicelik ekseninin iki karşıt ucunda yer alır. Bu tür karşıtlığı oluşturan sıfatlar her ne kadar söz konusu ekseninde farklı yönlerde olsalar da temel bir nitelik ya da nicelikte ortaklırlar. Bir başka deyişle tek ölçekli sistemlerde karşıt sıfatlardan birinin olumlu olduğu nitelik ya da nicelik, diğeri olumsuz olduğu nitelik ya da nicelikte aynıdır. Buna karşın çift ölçekli sistemler, her iki sıfatın da ayrı bir ölçek oluşturduğu karşıtlık ilişkileridir. Her ölçeğın kendine ait derecelenmesi vardır. Ölçeklerin yapısı, sıfatların gönderimsel özelliklerine bağlı olarak değişkenlik

gösterir. Tek ölçekli karşıtlıkların çoğunda bir “0” noktası bulunur ve ölçek pozitif yönde belirsiz bir şekilde ilerler. $x: y$ gibi bir karşıtlıkta x değerinin nerede bittiği, y değerinin nerede başladığı bütünüyle görelidir. Ölçeğin “0” noktası x değerine aittir, ama bu noktada y değeri bulunmamaktadır. Y değeri x değerinin ölçeğin pozitif yönüne doğru belirsiz ya da görel bir noktadan itibaren başlar. Bu ölçeğin görünümü aşağıdaki gibidir:



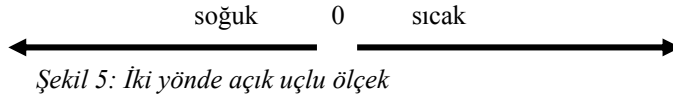
Şekil 4. Tek ölçekli karşıtlık

İncelenen karşıtlıklar içinde *ağır: hafif, büyük: küçük, dar: geniş, derin: sığ, hızlı: yavaş, ince: kalın, uzak: yakın, uzun: kısa, ucuz: pahalı, yumuşak:sert, yüksek: alçak* çiftlerinin ölçek yapısı bu modele uymaktadır. Şekil 1’deki ölçek yapısı $x:y$ karşıtlığını göstermektedir ve x karşıtlığın negatif tarafında yer alır. Ancak bu model gerçek karşıt anlamlılar açısından düşünüldüğünde karşıtlığın birinci terimi genellikle ölçeğin pozitif yönünde, yani y konumunda yer almaktadır:



Bu modele uyan karşıtlıkların derlem sorgularında belirtisiz kullanım özelliklerinin olduğu bulgular bölümünde gösterilmiştir. Buna göre belirtisiz terimleri başka bir sözlükbirim olan *hızlı: yavaş* ve *ucuz: pahalı* çifti dışında kalanlar için, ölçeğin pozitif yönünde yer alan sıfatın {-IIk} biçimbirimi ile adlaşmış biçimi aynı zamanda bu ölçeğin adı durumundadır. Ölçekteki “0” noktası ise bu adlaşmış sıfatın ifade ettiği değer hiç bulunmadığını gösterir. Ölçeklerin kapalı ya da açık olmasının, sıfatların mutlak ya da göreceli olmasına bağlı olduğunu belirten Kennedy ve McNally (1999) açık ölçekli sıfatların bağlam duyarlı, kapalı ölçekli sıfatlarınsa bağlama duyarsız olduklarını, yani açık ölçekli sıfatlarda alt ve üst sınır noktasının bulunmadığını belirtir. Buradaki hareket noktası, “0” noktasına ulaşıldığında ilgili sıfatın göndergesinin geçersiz olduğunun kabul edilmesidir. Örneğin *hafif: ağır* karşıtlığının “0” noktası ağırlığın, *uzak: yakın* karşıtlığının “0” noktası ise uzaklığın hiç olmadığı derecelere gönderimde bulunur. Ancak bu “0” noktasının dikkat çekici bir özelliği vardır. Karşıtlıkların bazılarında gerçek “0” değeri mantık ve doğa kanunları açısından mümkün değildir. Herhangi bir nesnenin ağırlığının “0” olması düşünülemez. Aynı şey büyüklük, uzunluk, derinlik, kalınlık, yükseklik ve genişlik için de geçerlidir. Bunlar boyut ifade eden değerlerdir ve somut varlığı olan her nesne, gözle görünmeyecek kadar da olsa bir boyuta sahiptir. Bu değerlerin “0” olması söz konusu nesnenin yokluğu anlamına gelir. Bu nedenle bu örneklerdeki “0” noktası bütünüyle varsayımsaldır. Bu konuya vurgu yapan Lehrer (1985), bu tür sıfır noktalarının “prototipik” olmadığını belirtir. Diğerlerinde ise gerçek bir “0” noktasından söz edilebilir ve “0” noktası, nitelenen

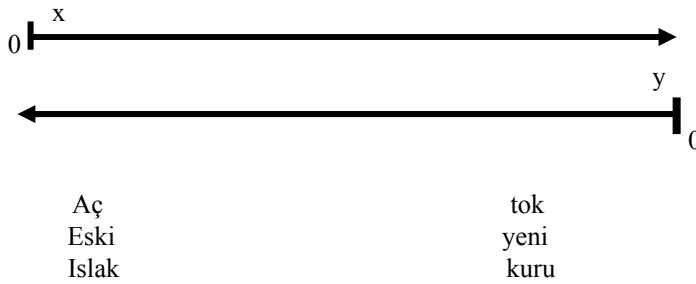
nesnenin yokluğu değil, ilgili değer o nesne için geçerli olmadığı anlamına gelir. Bir nesnenin hızının “0” olması onun durduğu, uzaklığının “0” olması konuşucu ile aynı noktada bulunduğu, fiyatının “0” olması ise bedava olduğu anlamına gelir. Ancak varsayımsal ya da protopik sıfır noktasının, bu tür karşıtlıkları, ölçeğin her iki yönde belirsiz bir şekilde uzadığı karşıtlıklardan ayırt edebilmek için ölçek üzerinde konumlandırılması gerekmektedir. Örneğin bazı tek ölçekli karşıtlıklarda “0” noktası ölçeğin tam ortasında yer alır ve ölçek bu noktanın iki karşıt yönünde açık bir şekilde ilerler. Böyle bir ölçek yapısı sıfırın altında da dereceleri olan karşıtlıklar için mümkün olabilir ve bunun en tipik örneği *sıcak: soğuk* karşıtlığıdır:



Şekil 5: İki yönde açık uçlu ölçek

Cruse ve Croft (2003, 170) tarafından çift ölçekli olarak değerlendirilen ve şekli yukarıdaki gibi gösterilen *sıcak: soğuk* karşıtlığının İngilizcede sıcaklık (hotness) ya da soğukluk (coldness) biçiminde belirtisiz üyesi bulunmamaktadır. Buna karşın, Türkçede *sıcaklık* sözcüğü karşıtlığın tümünü adlandıran belirtisiz bir üyedir. Türkçede belirtisiz anlamdaki *sıcaklık* ya da *ısı* sözcüğünün İngilizcedeki olası karşılıkları *heat* ya da *temperature* sözcüğüdür; ancak *heat* sözcüğü bu dilde “sıcak” anlamına da gelmektedir. Bu durumda diller arasındaki anlam düzlemine ilişkin yapısal farklılıkların, karşıt anlamlıların ölçek yapısı üzerinde de etkili olduğu görülmektedir. Bu ölçekte yer alan sıfır noktası, solundaki ya da sağındaki değer kesin başlangıç noktasını ifade etmez, bu sadece termometredeki bir ölçüm değeridir. Ölçeğin adı “sıcaklık”tır ve bu ad “0” noktasının her iki yönü için de geçerlidir. Ölçek üzerindeki hangi noktanın sıcak hangi noktanın soğuk olarak değerlendirileceği bağlamla belirlenir. Yukarıdaki çizimde “0” noktasının sağ tarafında sıcak, sol tarafında soğuk olmasına karşın, örneğin +10 derecenin soğuk, -5 derecenin göreceli olarak ılık kabul edilebileceği bağlamlar söz konusu olabilir.

Çift ölçekli karşıtlıklarda her sıfat için yukarıda gösterilen ölçeklerden birer tane bulunur. Her ölçek, karşıtlık oluşturan sıfatlardan birine ait “0” noktasını içerir ve bu nokta aynı zamanda diğer sıfatın ölçekteki en üst derecesine denk gelir. Bunlar için ölçek yapısındaki değişkenlik iki ölçek arasındaki ilişkiye bağlı olarak belirlenir. Çift ölçekli karşıtlıklarda genellikle iki ölçek arasında ters yönde simetrik bir ilişki vardır. *x* değerinin “0” noktası, *y* değerinin en üst noktasına denk gelir. Aşağıda bu ölçeğin yapısı ve incelenen karşıtlar içinde bu yapıya uygun olanlar gösterilmiştir:



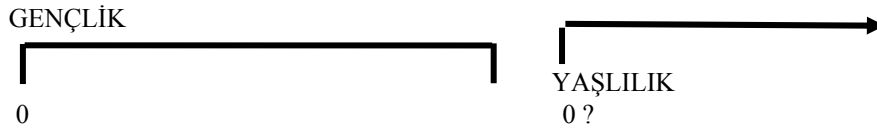
Şekil 6. Çift ölçekli karşıtlıklar(1)

Yukarıda da belirtildiği gibi bunlar, ölçülebilir bir değer ifade etmemektedirler. Dereceli olarak kabul edilmelerinin nedeni, sıfatların derece niteleyicileri ile birlikte kullanılmasıdır. Ölçek yapıları aynı olmakla birlikte bu üç karşıt anlamlı çiftinin ölçek üzerindeki göndergesel özellikleri birbirinden farklıdır.

Ölçülebilir bir değer ifade etmedikleri için çift ölçekli karşıtlıkların yorumu, uygulandıkları bağlama değil kullanıcılara göre belirlenmektedir. Bu durum en açık *aç: tok* karşıtlığında görülebilir. Açlık ve tokluğun birer duygu olması ve bir ölçüde kişinin algısına bağlı olması tokluğun “0” olduğu, yani açlığın en üstte olduğu nokta ve bunun tam tersi olan noktayı belirsiz hale getirir. Bu nedenle çift ölçekli karşıtlıkların bazılarında görelî “0” noktasından söz etmek gerekir.

Buna karşın mutlak “0” noktası olanlar da vardır. “Eski” olmanın “0” noktası, aynı zamanda “yeni” olmanın en üst derecesini ifade eder. Eski olmak için “0” noktası, ilgili nesnenin üretim zamanı ile bu nesneye “yeni” niteliğinin yüklendiği konuşma zamanının eşit olduğu noktadır. Ancak yeni olmak için belirgin bir sıfır noktasından söz edilemez. *Kuru* sıfatı, ilgili nesnedeki sıvı karışımının “0” olması iken, *ıslak* için bir en nokta, söz konusu nesnenin tamamen sıvı olması olabilir.

Çift ölçekli karşıtlıklar içinde *genç: yaşlı* ve *zor: kolay* karşıtlıklarının ölçek yapısı diğerlerinden farklıdır. Genç olmanın, görelî olsa da sıfır noktası ve en üst derecesi vardır. Yaşlı olmak içinse görelî bir sıfır noktası konumlandırılabilir, fakat en üst dereceden söz edilemez. Çünkü yaşlı sıfatının adlandırdığı niteleme eksenini belirsiz bir şekilde uzar. Genç olmanın en üst derecesinden sonra çocuk kavramı söz konusuysen yaşlı olmaktan sonra gelen ve yaş aşamasını belirten başka bir sözcük bulunmamaktadır. Gençlik ve yaşlılığın her ikisinin de kendilerine ait görelî “0” noktalarının bulunması nedeniyle çift ölçeklilik söz konusudur. Bu durumda *genç: yaşlı* karşıtlığının ölçek görünümü aşağıdaki gibidir:



Şekil 6. Çift ölçekli karşıtlıklar (2)

Genç: yaşlı çifti için *yaş* sözcüğünün belirtisiz bir üst anlamlı terim olarak kullanımı, bu çifti, çift ölçekli olmasına karşın belirtisiz üyesinin olduğu bir karşı örnek gibi göstermektedir. Oysa, *ucuz: pahalı* dışında, üst anlamlı belirtisiz terimin olduğu diğer örneklerde çifti oluşturan sözcüklerden birinin de belirtisiz kullanımı vardır. Bu örnekte ise hem gençlik ya da yaşlılık sözcüklerinin ad olarak kullanımı hem de *genç* ve *yaşlı* sözcüklerinin yüklemcil sıfat olduğu tümcelerde yansızlık bulunmamaktadır.

(19) Kaç yaşında?

sorusuna verilecek olan yanıt, söz konusu kişinin gençliği ya da yaşlılığı biçiminde yorumlanabilir. Bununla birlikte bu soru,

(19) Kaç metre?

sorusundan farklıdır. (19)'daki soru “uzunluğu ne kadar?” biçiminde değiştirilebilse de (18) için böyle bir değişiklik söz konusu olamaz:

(19) a. *Yaşlılığı ne kadar?

b. *Gençliği ne kadar?

Ayrıca *yaş* sözcüğü gençlik öncesi çocukluk ve hatta bebeklik dönemleri için de kullanılabilir. Bir başka deyişle *yaş* sözcüğü *genç*: *yaşlı* dışında başka karşıtlıklara ait ölçekleri de adlandıran çok daha genel bir terimdir. Dolayısıyla bu sözcüğün, söz konusu çiftin belirtisiz terimi olarak yorumlanması doğru görünmemektedir. *Ucuz*: *pahalı* çiftinin üst anlamlı belirtisiz terimi olan *fiyat* sözcüğü ise sadece *ucuz* ve *pahalı* arasındaki ölçek için kullanılmaktadır.

Zor: *kolay* karşıtlığı ise iki kapalı-çift ölçekli karşıtlıklara bir örnektir. Bir şeyin hem zor olmasının hem de kolay olmasının bir son noktası vardır. Zorluk için sınır derecesi imkânsızlıktır, kolaylık içinse hiçbir engelin olmamasıdır. Yani bu karşıtlığın oluşturduğu ölçek yapısında pozitif ve negatif yönde belirsiz bir ilerleme söz konusu değildir, ölçeğin her iki ucu da kapalıdır. *Zor*: *kolay* karşıtlığının bağlam duyarlı olması, bu tür sıfatların da kapalı ölçekli olabileceğini göstermektedir.



Şekil 7: İki yönde kapalı ölçek

Derlem bulguları içinde *kolaylık* sözcüğünün belirtili kullanıldığı, zorluk sözcüğünün ise kimi örneklerde belirtisiz olarak değerlendirilebilecek bir kullanımının olduğu görülmüştür:

- (20) a. O sporlarda da zorluk derecesi çok yüksektir.
 b. Eğitim aşamasında kullanılan problemin zorluk düzeyi...
 c. Günlük faaliyetlerin zorluk derecesine göre doku ve organların...
 d. Yıllar boyunca bir meslekte veya zorluk derecesi aynı işte çalışanların...
 e. Zorluk derecesi ÖSS sınavı kadar olan...

Örneklerde görüleceği üzere *zorluk* sözcüğü, diğer karşıtlıklardan farklı olarak tek başına kullanılmamakta, *derece*, *düzey* gibi sözcüklerle birlikte kullanılmaktadır. *Zorluk* sözcüğü ancak bu bileşikler içinde belirtisiz bir anlam taşımaktadır. Belirtisiz kullanımın tek ölçekli karşıtlıklara özgü olmasına karşın, çift ölçekli bir karşıtlık olan *zor*: *kolay* çiftinin de belirtisiz kullanımının olması bir karşı örnek oluşturmaktadır. Ancak bunun eş dizimsel bir koşulla sınırlı olması bu karşı örneği zayıflatmaktadır.

5. Sonuç

Bu çalışmada örneklem olarak seçilen dereceli karşıtlıkların belirtisiz üye ve ölçek yapıları incelenmiş ve bu ikisi arasında bir ilişki olduğu görülmüştür. Buna göre tek ölçekli karşıtlıklarda çifti oluşturan sıfatlardan birinin adlaştırmış biçimi bu karşıtlığın belirtisiz üyesi durumundadır. Buna karşın çift ölçekli karşıtlıklarda sıfatların belirtisiz ya da yansız kullanımı görülmemektedir. Tek karşı örnek durumundaki *zor*: *kolay* karşıtlığında ise tek başına kullanılan bir belirtisiz üye bulunmamakta, *zorluk derecesi*, *zorluk düzeyi* gibi ad bileşikleriyle belirtisiz kullanım görülmektedir.

Tablo 4. Ölçek Yapısı ve Belirtisizlik İlişkisi

Karşıtlık	Ölçek Yapısı	Belirtisiz Kullanım Özelliği
Aç: tok	Çift ölçekli	-
Ağır: hafif	Tek ölçekli	+
Büyük: küçük	Tek ölçekli	+
Geniş: dar	Tek ölçekli	+
Derin: sığ	Tek ölçekli	+
Eski: yeni	Çift ölçekli	-
Genç: yaşlı	Çift ölçekli	-
Hızlı: yavaş	Tek ölçekli	+
İnce: kalın	Tek ölçekli	+
Islak: kuru	Çift ölçekli	-
Sert: yumuşak	Tek ölçekli	+
Sıcak: soğuk	Tek ölçekli	+
Uzak: yakın	Tek ölçekli	+
Uzun: kısa	Tek ölçekli	+
Ucuz: pahalı	Tek ölçekli	+
Yüksek: alçak	Tek ölçekli	+
*Zor: kolay	Çift ölçekli	+ / -

Bu durumda belirtisiz kullanımın nedeni ve dayanağı, ait olduğu karşıtlığın tek ölçekli olmasıdır. Çift ölçekli karşıtlıklarda karşıtlığı oluşturan üyelerden birinin adlaştığı biçiminin ölçek adı olarak kullanılması olanaksızdır; çünkü ortada adlandırılması gereken iki tane ölçek vardır. *Zor: kolay* karşıtlığı için kullanılan ad bileşiklerinin sadece *zor* sıfatına ait ölçeği adlandırdığı söylenebilir. Çünkü *zorluk derecesi* ifadesi, yoruma açık olmakla birlikte söz konusu göndergenin zor olduğuna ilişkin bir sezdirim içermektedir.

Belirtisiz kullanımı olan karşıtlıkların bir diğer ortak özelliği de bunların ölçülebilir, nicel bir değeri ifade etmeleridir. Göndergesel özelliklerinden ötürü her biri farklı yorumlara açık olan bu karşıt anlamlılar arasında belirtisiz üyeye sahip olma ölçütü üzerinde ölçek yapısının tekli ya da ikili olması belirleyici bir etkidir.

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Unmarkedness and Scale Structure in Gradable Antonyms

Abstract

Unmarkedness is the usage of one of the terms of antonym in binary linguistic opposition in the way it explains the whole relationship. But unmarkedness in meaning level is the neutralization of one of the terms in binary antonym relationship in terms of meaning and its transformation to the nominalization of that antonym relationship. In antonym or semantic opposition relationships among words, there are examples of semantic unmarkedness. The unmarked member of antonym pairs is the word that has higher contextual distribution and frequency rather than marked member, and is used in interrogative sentences with completely neutral semantic content. Also, the nominalized form of one of adjectives with semantic antonym properties can be the unmarked member. While unmarkedness with attention-grabbing usages in especially gradable antonyms is seen as an explicit usage in some of antonym pairs, there is no unmarked member in some other pairs. For example, while uzunluk (length), the noun form of uzun (long) for long/short antonymy, is an unmarked member, there is not such a usage characteristic in eski/yeni (old/new) pair of antonymy. The present study discusses the effects of the gradable scale structure as the basic characteristic of gradable antonyms on unmarkedness. In gradable antonyms which may be mono- or biscalar depending on referential features, it has been seen that monoscalar ones have had unmarked members, but on the other hand, both of two members have been used as marked members in those with biscalar features.

Keywords: unmarkedness; markedness; opposition; gradable antonymy; scale structure

YAZAR

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Soner Akşehirli, Ege Üniversitesi Türkçe Eğitimi Bölümü'nde öğretim üyesi olarak görev yapmaktadır. İlgilendiği alanlar dilbilimsel anlambilim çerçevesinde sözcükler arası anlam ilişkileri, sözcükbilim, sözlükbilim ve derlem dilbilimidir.



Similar and unique in the family: How to raise children (Using examples of Turkish and Georgian proverbs relating to children)

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Abstract

The paper explores semantic models of proverbs which denote the status of children in the family as well as issues connected to the process of child-raising in Turkish and Georgian languages and cultures. The data relevant to the study were identified, collected and analysed on the basis of the pragma-semantic model of the proverb suggested by Rusieshvili (2005) who looks at the proverb as a synthesis of three interdependent and intertwined layers playing a decisive role in the creation of the overall meaning of the proverb. The first layer of the proverb reveals its metaphoric form whereas the second layer reveals its general and contextual parameters. The upper layer of the model, a level of the background cultural knowledge, reveals the part of the model of the world corresponding to the metaphoric image of the proverb. On the basis of the study, partial and full equivalents in one or both of the target languages and cultures involved in the study were identified. The proverbs which contain a relevant word “child, daughter, mother, father, family” as well as those items, which metaphorically refer to these concepts, were identified and grouped into corresponding semantic models. At the next stage of the study the semantic models were interpreted, compared and the morals of the proverbs were identified. The study revealed cultural similarities and differences regarding the attitude of both nations and cultures to children and their upbringing.

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Keywords: Proverbs; culture; children; equivalent; cross-language

1. Introduction

Proverbs are simple phrases, popularly known and repeated. Their use may become a reflex response to situations encountered. They may pass on a kind of wisdom through a combination of accuracy, poignancy, usefulness or humour making them easily remembered, and often repeated.(Gözpinar, 2011)

As is known, proverbs store information about specific cultural traditions, stereotypes and customs of a nation which reflects the nation’s socio-cultural development. On the other hand, in spite of religious and cultural differences, nations still reveal similarities regarding everyday life situations which, among many others, include family life and child-rearing as well as the values to which a family should adhere while raising their children as valued members of society.

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- This study explores the proverbs dedicated to children and the process of child-raising in Turkish and Georgian cultures. Although Turkish and Georgian languages belong to different cultural and religious cultures, they both share collectivist values which, among other characteristics, include strong family ties and accepted family codes. (Tsuladze, 2006; Görmüş & Aydın, 2008)

Rusieshvili and Lortkipanidze (2010) state that in spite of religious and cultural differences, proverbs belonging to different cultural and religious environment (for instance Georgian and Azeri proverbs) display a number of similarities regarding pragma-cultural markers, such as ethnonyms, folklore, and cultural realia.

The aim of this article is to expand the previous research by Rusieshvili and Lortkipanidze (2010) over Turkish and Georgian proverbs paying special attention to the issues these cultures stress while reflecting family values generally, and, specifically, concerning the status of the children in a family and the process of child-raising.

1.1. Literature review

As is known, the proverb is a verbal form which has been studied extensively within the frames of linguistics, folklore, ethnography, didactics, etc. This multilayered nature of the proverb initiates different approaches to this interesting genre and gives rise to a considerable number of classifications. For instance Aarno-Thomson (Taylor, 1962) explored proverbs by means of syntagmatic model adopted to investigate fairy tales, whilst Levi-Strauss relied on paradigmatic models of a myth (Levi-Strauss, 1968).

Clearly, both approaches classed the proverb to be a part of folklore. The authors of this paper consider the proverb to be a part of the thesaurus and rely on the definition of the proverb as suggested by Rusieshvili (2005), according to whom “The proverb is a verbal form well-known to the language community, which laconically (as a rule, within the boundaries of a sentence) and metaphorically expresses a deep, well-known archetypal knowledge accumulated by the nation and mankind in the process of exploring the universe and reality around us”.

The pragma-semantic model of the proverb suggested by Rusieshvili (2005) presents the pragma-semantic structure of the proverb as an intertwined and intermingled unity of three interdependent layers each having its function and weight on the creation of an overall meaning of the proverb. According to this model, the first layer is that of an explicit, metaphoric form of the proverb. It is obvious that this layer actualizes a metaphoric form of the proverb. The second layer is a layer of generalized meaning of the proverb which, at the same time, expresses context-bound associations whereas the third layer is classed as a layer of the background cultural knowledge actualized in a particular proverb. For instance, on the first layer of the proverb “A woman without children is a tree without fruit” we can see a metaphoric sentence which clearly needs decoding and adjustment to the context; on the second layer of the proverb its general and context-bound parameters are actualized whereas the third layer of the pragma-semantic structure of this proverb refers to the experience that a tree is valued by its fruit.

1.2. Purpose of the study

The ultimate goal of the article is to identify, select, study and compare pragma-semantic characteristics of proverbs related to children in the Turkish and Georgian languages, to identify relevant semantic models of proverbs in both languages and compare and contrast them with the view

to identifying similar and unique features and stating full and partial equivalents on a single language or cross-language planes.

2. Method

The data for the paper were gathered from dictionaries of the proverbs in the Georgian and Turkish languages. The criterion for the selection was the identification of an indicator lexeme (lexemes) denoting the concepts of *father, mother, son, daughter, children* and *family* in the proverbs shared by the communities speaking Turkish and Georgian. Next, the proverbs with such identifications were selected, grouped into semantic models based on their general meaning expressed on the middle layer of the proverb and, in the final stage of the research, the accumulated proverbs were compared cross-linguistically and cross-culturally and full and partial equivalent proverbs were identified.

The process of identification of relevant proverbs, their grouping and later comparison of semantic models in both languages separately as well as their cross-cultural comparison was based on the criterion of equivalence as suggested by Rusieshvili (2005) who enables us to single out two types of equivalents, full and partial. Fully equivalent proverbs coincide on all three levels of the model and partially equivalent proverbs coincide on the second level of the model on which the generalized as well the context-bound meaning of the proverb is actualized.

3. Findings and discussion

Altogether, forty-seven (47) relevant proverbs were identified in Turkish and thirty-seven (37) in Georgian which were grouped in nine semantic models. The most important models are discussed in the paper.

3.1. Semantic model 1: *Children are essential for the family*

While talking about the meaning of the children for the family, the proverbs of both cultures emphasize that children are crucial for the proper functioning of the family. Several subgroups were singled out from this model.

3.1.1. *Children are essential for the functioning of the family*

All the proverbs included in this subgroup make up partial equivalents as they coincide with the general meaning fixed on the second layer of the semantic model and possess different images. However, the Georgian proverb (3) is closer to the first, explicit layer of the Turkish proverb (2), as both of them compare the ominous silence associated with the graveyard, or with a dead premise to the state of the house without the children's noise. In addition, several proverbs belonging to this group stress the importance of children for a parent. Interestingly, all the proverbs compare a parent (mother or father) to a tree. Specifically, (5, 6) are also of interest as they include identical images though concerning different parents. As well as this, (4) also seems interesting as it compares a mother and children to a plane tree noisy with crows and on the other hand to a hen with chickens. Clearly, both images rely on our experience which reveals that crows make the tree, in which they live, very noisy. On the other hand, the image of a mother hen fussing around their chicks also emerges and helps us to decode the meaning of the proverb successfully.

1. Evlatsız yurt, odunsuz ocağa benzer. (A childless house is like a fireplace without the wood.)
2. Çocuklu ev pazar, çocuksuz ev mezar. (A house with children is like a marketplace and a house without children is like a graveyard.)

3. უბავშვო სახლი მკვდარიაო. Ubavshvosakhlimkvдаряio (A house without children is dead.)
4. Çocuklu kadın kargalı çınar, civcivli tavuk. (A woman with children is like a plane tree with crows or a hen with chicks.)
5. Çocuksuz baba meyvesiz ağaca benzer. (A father without children is like a fruitless tree.)
6. უშვილო ქალი უნაყოფო ხეაო. Ushvilo kali unakopkheao (A woman without a child is a fruitless tree.)
7. უშვილოკაციჯირკია. Ushvilokatsidjirkia. (A childless man is like a log)
8. Ağaç dalıyla gürler. (The tree roars with its branches.)

3.2. *Semantic model 2: Parents are not objective while assessing their children*

This model seems interesting because the partial equivalents from both cultures select the crow (and its child) as an example for ugliness. However, the proverbs differ in naming the objects little crows are compared to. For instance, in (9) overwhelmed and blinded by the emotions toward her young, the parent crow compares a little crow to a falcon (a handsome bird of prey) whereas in (10) the parent believes that the crow is pure white. Both proverbs stress the fact that parents tend to ascribe to their children properties that they lack. As for the Georgian proverb (11) while stating the fact, it does not stress reason for the emotion.

9. Kargaya yavrusu şahin görünür. (To a crow her own young bird seems a falcon.)
10. Karga yavrusuna bakmış, “benim akpak evladım” demiş. (The crow looked at her young and said, “O my pure white young.”)
11. ყვავსაცთავისბახალამოსწონს. Kvavsatstavisbakhalamostsons. (A crow also likes its child.)

3.3. *Semantic model 3: Children are made by their parents*

As it has been revealed by the data, this model is one of the most numerous ones and includes several subgroups which, in turn, are made up by partial equivalents.

3.3.1. *Both parents’ input is important in the process of raising a child:*

All the proverbs included in this subgroup express a similar idea but in different ways. Specifically, (12) stresses the function of both parents in watching closely what the child is doing. The Georgian proverbs falling under this group (13, 14, 15) emphasize the fact that mother and father raise the children and thus, they are responsible for them. The proverbs of both cultures comprising this subgroup made up by partial equivalents which reveal similarity in meaning and thus coincide on the middle level of their pragma-semantic structure.

12. Dört göz bir evlat içindir. (Four eyes are for one child.)
13. ინდიშვილი, მინდიშვილი, რაცდედ-მამა - იგიშვილი. Indishvili, mindishvili, rats ded-mama, igishvili (How are the mother and father, so the children.)
14. დედანახე, მამანახეშვილისეგამონახე. Dedanakhe, mama nakhe, shviliisegamonakhe. (Look at mother and father and decide about the child.)
15. სამოსელს ნაწიბური გაუსინჯე და შვილს დედ-მამაო. Samoselsnatsiburigausindje da shvilsded-mamao. (When you buy clothes look at the seams, when you look at the child ask for her/his mother and father.)

3.3.2. Characteristic features inherited from parents become evident in their children:

This group is made up of fully equivalent proverbs (18, 19) as well as partial equivalents and while showing the similarity between the parents and their children, they stress different images. However, inherited similarity is compared to fruit and vegetables (16, 17, 21, 22), and animals (18, 19, 20).

16. Karpuz kökeninde büyür. (The watermelon grows from its stem.)
17. Armut dibine düşer. (The pear does not fall far from the tree.)
18. Kurdun oğlu kuzu olmaz. (Son of the wolf will not become a lamb.)
19. Kurdun yavrusu kurt olur. (The child of the wolf becomes the wolf.)
20. მეძებრის შვილს დაგეშვა არ უნდაო. Medzebrishvilsdageshvaarundao. (The puppy of the setter does not need additional training.)
21. ვაშლის ხიდან ისევ ვაშლი ჩამოვარდებაო. Vashliskhidanisevvashlichamovardebao. (Apple falls from the apple tree.)
22. Çocuk evin meyvesidir. (A child is the fruit of a home.)

3.3.3. Mother is the most important person in the process of raising the children:

As expected, the fact that mother is likely to have a greater influence than the father on the child in both cultures has been revealed by the data. The partially equivalent proverbs making up this subgroup stress four factors: (a) mother is the best friend and understands her child's problems best of all (proverbs 23 to 25), (b) mother is the right person to raise the children (26 to 30), (c) the child obeys mum more often than dad (31) and (d) having such an influence on the child's development, the child must be judged by the qualities their mother displays (32, 33).

23. Yavru kuşun dilinden anası anlar. (Only its mother understands the young bird's song.)
24. Çocuğun dilinden anası anlar. (Mother would understand the language of the chick.)
25. Ana gibi yârolmaz, Bağdat gibi diyar olmaz. (No friend like a mother, no country like Baghdad.)
26. Analı kuzu kınalı kuzu. (A lamb with a mother is a lamb with henna - A child whose mother is living is clean and well cared for.)
27. Anadan olur daya, hamurdan olur maya. (The best nurse maid is the mother, just as the best yeast comes from quality dough.)
28. Ananın bastığı yavru incinmez. (A mother's tread does not harm her young.)
29. ბავშვს დედის კალთაში რომ სძინავს ერთი მარცვლისოდენი ემატებაო. Bavshvsdediskaltashi rom sdzinavs, ertimartsvlisodeniematebao (When a child sleeps in his mother's lap, he grows quickly.)
30. Meyve ağaç dalında, çocuk anakucağında yaşar. (Fruit in a tree, a child at the hands of his mother lives.)
31. Horoz ne kadar öterse ötsün, civciv tavuğun dıkdıkına bakar. (Doesn't matter how much the cock crows, the chick looks for the cackle of the mother hen.)
32. კვიცი იყიდე დედა იკითხე Kviciikide, dedaikitkhe. (When you buy a foal, ask for its mother.)
33. Anasına bak kızını al, kenarına bak bezini al. (Look at the mother before marrying the daughter just as you examine the selvage before you buy the cloth.)

3.3.4. *Father is the most important person in the process of raising the children:*

This sub-group contains 3 partially equivalent proverbs stressing the importance of father in the process of raising children.

34. შვილი თუ სტყუა, მამაც სტყუა. Shvilitustkua, mamatsstkua. (If the child is bad, the father is bad as well.).
35. ხემ გამოისხა ხილიო, რაც მამა ისა შვილიო. Khemgamoiskhakhilio, rac mama isashvilio. (The fruit ripens in the tree, the child is like his/his/her father.).
36. კვიცი გვარზე ხტისო. Kvitsigvarzekhtiso. Kvicigvarzextiso. (The foal follows his father's behaviour.).

3.3.5. *Fathers groom sons while daughters are raised by their mothers:*

In Turkish and Georgian cultures, the boys are expected to learn things from their fathers while the girls are trained by their mothers. Interestingly, this trait is testified only in Turkish proverbs. However, in a Georgian proverb “გოგოს ნაკეთი სამხარი, ბიჭის ნამკალი ყანაო” Gogosnaketisamkhari, bitchisnamkalikanao (The girl should take care of the dinner, the boy harvest the crop) the functions between genders are delimited, the source from whom the boy and girl learn how to perform their duties is not indicated.

37. Oğlan babaya kız anaya yarar. (The son is a friend to the father, and the daughter to the mother.).
38. Ananın çıktığı dala kız sallangaç (salıncak) kurar. (The daughter makes a hammock on the branch that the mother has climbed.).
39. Oğul babanın huyunu gütmek gerektir. (A son ought to keep /observe his father's tradition.).
40. Kız anasından görmeyince sofrayı kaldırmaz. (Unless a daughter has learnt from her mother, she doesn't clear the table after a meal).
41. Oğlan atadan/babadan öğrenir sofrayı kurmayı, kız anadan öğrenir bıçkı biçmeyi. (A son learns from his father to earn a living, and a daughter learns from her mother how to cut out clothes).

3.4. *Semantic model 4: Children should obey their mother*

This semantic model stresses the fact that children should obey their mother or their life may be put in danger. Interestingly, this group is made up by Georgian full equivalents which display identical images the difference being in the expression plane. Specifically, (42) is presented in the form of a rhythmic rhyme whereas (43) retains an ordinary order of words. (44) includes two threats: a wolf as well as a wolf like dog.

42. უსათუოდმგელი შეჭამს, დედის წინ რომ წავა კვიცი. Usatuodmgelishetchams, dedistsin rom tsavakvici (The foal which disobeys his mother, is eaten by the wolf.).
43. კვიცი რომ დედის წინ წავა მგელი შეჭამსო. Kvici rom dedistsintsava, mgelishetchamso. (The foal which disobeys his mother is eaten by the wolf.).
44. ურჩკვიცს ან მგელი შეჭამს ან მგლისფერი ძაღლიო. Urchkvitss an mgelishetchams, an mglisferidzaghliao (A naughty foal is eaten by a wolf, or by a dog which looks like a wolf.).

3.5. *Semantic model 5: Children should not be spoiled by pampering*

This model includes both full cross-language equivalent proverbs (45 and 48) as well as partial equivalents in both languages though different factors in the process of children's upbringing are emphasized. For instance, in the following partial equivalents (45 to 48) it is stressed that pampering a child leads to bad results whereas in the examples 50, 51 the fact that children often take their parents for granted is revealed. It is worth noting that several proverbs (51 to 55) emphasize the necessity of strictness while bringing up children. However, Georgian proverbs (54, 55) only state this trait and call for strictness while Turkish proverbs specify the method of corporal punishment by also indicating that it is necessary to beat children for the parents not to suffer in their old age.

45. Çocuğu şımartma, başına çıkar. (Do not spoil the child or he will sit on your neck.).
46. ბავშვს რომ გაუცინებ, მუშტს გიჩვენებსო. Bavshvs rom gautsineb, mushtsgichvenebso. (If you smile to the child, he/she will show you a fist.).
47. მაღლა ბავშვი ავწიე და თავში ჩამკრაო. Maghlabavshvavtsie da tavshichamkrao. (I held the child up and he hit me in my head.).
48. ბავშვს რომ გაუცინებ თავზე დაგაჯდებაო. Bavshvs rom gautsineb, tavzedagadjdebaო (When you smile at the child, he will sit on your head.).
49. Çocuk ekmeği dolapta bitiyor/yetişiyor sanır. (A child thinks bread grows in the cupboard.)
50. შვილს დედ-მამა ხაზინა ჰგონიაო. Shvilsded-mama khazinahgoniao. (A child thinks their parents are their bank.).
51. Çocuğun yediği helal, giydiği haramdır. (What a child eats is a benefit for life, what he wears is not for long.).
52. Kızını/Evladını dövmeyen dizini döver. (He who doesn't beat his daughter will beat his knees.).
53. Evladını dövmeyen dizini döver. (He who does not thrash his children will pound his knees.).
54. შვილი მტრულად გაზარდე, მოყვრად გამოგადგებაო. Shvilimtruladgazarde, mokvradgamogadgebaო. (Raise the child up strictly, he/she will be your friend when he/she is an adult.)
55. შენი ჭირიმეთი შვილი არ გაიზრდებაო. Shenitchirimetishviliargaizrdebaო. (The child will not grow up with only caresses.).

3.6. *Semantic model 6: It is difficult to raise a child properly*

This semantic model reveals that it is hard to raise children properly by comparing the process to hard work employing partial cross-language equivalents (56, 57) and by stating that parents should be ready for expected hardships (58 to 62).

56. Çocuk büyütme taş kemirmek. (Raising children is like gnawing at stones.).
57. ერთი ყმაწვილის გაზრდას, ერთი ბათმანი ფეტვის ახეკა სჯობიაო. Ertikmatsvilisgazrdas,ertibatmanifetvisakhekasdjobiao. (It is better to collect one sack of barley rather than bringing up one child.).
58. Çocuk isteyen belasını da istemesi gerek. (He who desires to have children must be willing to endure their hardships.).
59. Her kimin evladı var, başında büyük derdi var. (If you have children you have trouble.).
60. Eşeğe “Sıpan oldu demişler, “Sırtımdan yükümü atacak değil ya, önümden yemimi alacak demiş”. (They told the donkey: You have had a foal. He said: He is not going to relieve some of the burden of my back, he will share some of my fodder.)

61. At at oluncaya kadar sahibi mat olur. (Until the pony becomes the horse, the owner will be checkmated.).
62. Evladın varsa bin derdin var, evladın yoksa bir derdin var. (If you have children you will have a thousand worries, if you have no children you will have one worry.).

3.7. *Semantic model 7: A Child should be groomed when he is young*

This semantic model emphasizes several factors in the process of raising up a child. For instance, full cross-language equivalents (63 to 65) stress the fact that children should be trained when young, otherwise they won't yield to training. The similar concept is expressed by (66) although the image relies on the background knowledge of the fact that it is more difficult to train a grown up dog than a puppy. However, although the proverbs 67 and 68 contextually may refer to the semantics of the model and thus share their meaning with other members of the model, they can be used as part of the semantic model "Work should be done on time".

63. Ağaç yaş iken eğilir. (A tree should be bent when young.).
64. ხე როცა ნედლია, მაშინ უნდა მოღუნო. Kherotsanedlia, mashinundamoghuno. (A tree should be bent when tender.).
65. სანამ წნელი პატარა, მანამ უნდა მოიგრიხოს, გაიზრდება ვეღარ მოგრეხო. Sanamtsnelipataraa, manamundamoigrikhos, gaizrdebavegharmogrekho. (The twig of the tree must be bent when it is green. It won't bend when old.).
66. ძალი ლეკვობისას გამოიზრდება. Dzaghililekvobisasgamoizrdeba. (It is easier to raise the puppy than the dog.).
67. რკინა როცა ცხელია მაშინ უნდა გამოჭედო. Rkinarotsatskhelia, mashinundagamotchedo (Iron should be processed when hot.).
68. თონე როცა ხურს, პური მაშინ უნდა დააცხო. Tone rocakhurs, purimashinundadaatskho (Bread should be baked when the oven is hot.).

3.8. *Semantic model 8: Children can make their parents happy as well as unhappy*

In both cultures family ties are strong which obliges children to respect and help parents in their old age. Consequently, when children do not do so, they are considered ungrateful. This model consists of partial equivalents sharing the second, general meaning layer of the pragma-semantic model. It is interesting to note that this model includes fully equivalent inter-language proverbs (72, 73), which coincide on all the layers of the model: they coincide in the form, express similar meaning and actualize identical parts of the linguistic world model. The characteristic traits emphasized are (a) good children are friends and parents are proud of them whereas badly-behaved children make their parents suffer as well (70, 71, 74); (b) the sorrow inflicted by the bad behavior of the children is overwhelming (69, 72, 73). It is interesting that (75) declares that it is better to have no children than have bad ones whereas (69) emphasizes that parents are usually made unhappy by their young.

69. Yılanın yavrusu düşman olur. (A snake's enemy is his young.).
70. Çocuk kısmı hem dost, hem düşmandır. (Children are both friends and enemies.).
71. İyi evlat (anayı) babayı vezir eder, kötü evlat rezil eder. (A good child makes his parents proud, a bad one makes them ashamed of him.).
72. Babası oğluna bir bağ vermiş, oğlu babasına bir salkım üzüm vermemiş. (The father gave his son a vineyard, but the son did not give him a bunch of grapes.).

73. მამამ შვილს ვენახი აჩუქა და შვილმა მტევანიც არ მიაწოდა. Mamamshvilsvenakhichuka da shvilmamtevanitsarmiatsoda (Father gave a vineyard to his child and the child did not offer a bunch of grapes.).
74. კარგი შვილი დედის გულის ვარდიაო. ავი შვილი დედის გულის დარდიაო. Kargishvilidedisgulisvardiao. Avishvilidedisgulisdardiao. (A good child is a rose of his/her mother's heart, a bad child is the sorrow of his/her mother's heart.).
75. უშვილოდა სჯობს სიკვდილი უკეთური შვილის ყოლასა. Ushvilodasdjjobssikvdiliuketurishviliskolasa. (It is better to have no children than to have a bad child.).
76. ავი შვილი დედ-მამის მაგინებელია. Avishvilided-mamismaginebelia. (Parents of a bad child are talked about with contempt.).
77. ბოროტი შვილის დედასა რა მოაშორებს სევდასა. Borotishvilisedasaramoashorebssevda. (Mother of an evil child is always in sorrow.).

3.9. Semantic model 9: *One is equally indebted to one's parents*

In Turkish and Georgian tradition, it is believed that the greatest gift a child can inherit from his father is good breeding. Thus, having been brought up well, it is the children's obligation to express gratitude for the parents' devotion and care and repay with the same. The model dedicated to this notion in both cultures reveals several ideas why people should feel obliged to treat their parents with great respect. It includes partial equivalents out of which (81) is the most impressive metaphorically.

78. Ana borcu ödenmez. (One's debts to one's mother are never to be repaid.).
79. Ana baba bedduası alan onmaz. (He who is cursed by his parents will never prosper.).
80. Atanın duası tutar, ananın ahı. (The father's blessing takes effect, and a mother's sigh.).
81. შვილმა რომ დედის გულისათვის ხელის გულზე ერბო-კვერცხი მოიწვას, მის ამაგს მაინც ვერ გადაიხდისო. Shvilma rom dedisgulisatviskhelisgulzeerbo-kvertskhimoitsvas, misamagsmainsvergadaixdiso. (Whatever the child does, even if he/she makes scrambled eggs on the palm of his/her hand, he/she cannot pay to his/her Mum for her care.).
82. შვილი მომდურე დედისა, ურჩია თავის თავისა. Shvili, momdurededisa, urchiatavistavisa (The child who is ungrateful to their mum, is contrary to oneself.).

The data revealed full cross-language equivalent proverbs which stress that parents and grandparents should be particularly cautious while following the code of honesty as children will be affected by their ancestors' sins.

83. Babası ekşi elma yer, oğlunun dişi kamaşır. (Sour plum (Koruk) eaten by the father sets the children's teeth on edge - effected the children.).
84. პაპისნაჭამმატყემალმაშვილიშვისმოსკრაკბილიო. Papisnatchammatkemalmashvilishvilismostchrakbilio. (Tkemali (sour plum) eaten by grandfather sets the children's teeth on edge).

4. Conclusions

The paper dealt with the study of Turkish and Georgian proverbs related to the status of the children in the family as well as the issues connected to the upbringing of the children as reflected in the proverbs of both cultures.

As seen from the data, from the cultural point of view, the proverbs from both cultures highlighted similar issues; for instance, the status of children in the family, the status of parents in the life of the children and values connected to the family concept in both cultures which, in spite of geo-political closeness and contacts, differ from cultural and religious points of view. The similarity can be explained by the fact that both cultures belong to the in-group, close-knit communities with strong family ties. It is also worth noting that, as revealed by the study, the majority of relevant proverbs in both languages belonged to partial equivalents which, according to the model suggested by Rusieshvili (2005), shared the middle layer on which both, general meaning of the proverb as well as its contextual parameters are fixed.

Clearly, the study of the semantic models of proverbs presents interesting material for the exploration of similarities and differences between the cultures on certain issues as well as the most important factors they emphasize while investigating the universe around them.

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Ailede benzer ve tek: Çocuk eğitimi (Türk ve Gürcü çocuklar hakkındaki atasözleri)

Öz

Bu çalışma Türk ve Gürcü diline, kültürüne göre ailede çocuğun yeri ve yetiştirilmesi süreci ile ilgili atasözleri üzerine anlamsal açıdan karşılaştırılmalı “semantic” bir araştırmayı içermektedir. İlgili veriler Rusieshvili(2005) tarafından önerilen, atasözlerinin anlamının üç tane birbirine bağlı ve iç içe geçmiş içeriklerden oluştuğuna dair yapılan “ atasözlerine yönelik pragma-semantik” yaklaşım prensibine göre belirlendi ve incelendi. Birinci yüzey atasözlerinin “mecazi” şeklini ortaya çıkarmakta, ikincisi ise genel içerik ile ilgili değişkenliği ifade etmekte, üçüncüsü ise kültürel bilgi düzeyinde bu “mecazi” yaklaşıma uyan modeli ortaya koymaktadır. Üzerinde çalışılan her iki dilde, birbiri ile kısmen ya da tam eş anlamlı olan atasözleri “pragma-semantik” olarak da benzerlik teşkil eden atasözleri belirlendi. Türk ve Gürcü atasözleri çocuklar ve eğitim, onların aile içindeki önemi ve işlevi açısından incelenmiştir. Bu amaçla, “çocuk, kız, anne, baba, aile” gibi ilgili kelimeleri ve mecazi olarak bu içerikleri içeren atasözleri tespit edilmiş ve ilgili anlamsal modellere göre gruplandırılmıştır. Çalışmanın bir sonraki aşamasında anlamsal modeller yorumlandı, karşılaştırıldı ve atasözlerinin içerikleri belirlendi. Araştırma çocuklara ve onların yetiştirilmesinde bu iki milletin ve kültürün yaklaşım olarak benzerliklerini ortaya koymaktadır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Atasözü; kültür; çocuklar; eş anlam; çok dilli

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The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Insights for language testing

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Abstract

The *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment* (Council of Europe, 2001) which aims to bring about harmonisation and transparency within Europe and promote the idea of European citizenship is a project that provides the stakeholders with a reference document that could be utilised not only for developing language curriculum and syllabus, preparing course books but also for evaluating the learning outcomes. In terms of language testing, the major claim of the CEFR is its potential to be used as a reference point to design of new language tests and make a comparison among the existing language tests by setting standards. Council of Europe (2001) also makes clear that the CEFR could be used for the specification of the content of the test and exams, setting the criteria of assessment and describing the levels of proficiency in tests. Though the CEFR has a great potential for playing a crucial role in language testing, the issues of developing and aligning tests to the CEFR need to be considered with a critical eye. Hence, the present study is an attempt to examine the practical considerations and potential problems related to the CEFR in terms of language testing and to discuss some practical implications for language testers and language teachers in terms of test generation and alignment.

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Keywords: CEFR; language testing; test development; test alignment

1. Introduction

As noted by Figueras et al. (2005), The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (Council of Europe, 2001) (henceforth, the CEFR) has been one of the most influential and powerful developments in the domains of language teaching and testing in the last decade. The CEFR is a project of Council of Europe, which fosters harmonisation and transparency among cross-national institutions and promotes European citizenship (Fulcher, 2004). Examined from the dimension of foreign language testing, it is alleged that the CEFR enables language testers to generate tests with common principles that are in accordance with the values of the Council and the idea of European citizenship. According to North (2007), in that vein, the CEFR aims to create a shared meta-language that could be used to talk about aims and assessment, to stimulate

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practitioners to think about their practices by considering their context, and to reach a consensus on common reference points. Council of Europe (2001) states that the main goal of the CEFR is to foster reflection, communication, discussion among the practitioners in the domains of language teaching and assessment. Besides, it was intended that the CEFR would create a basis for mutual recognition of practices in language teaching and assessment all round the Europe. This claim, regarding the use of the CEFR in language testing made by Council of Europe, is defined clearly in the following uses:

- 1) for the specification of the content of tests and examinations;
- 2) for stating the criteria to determine the attainment of a learning objective;
- 3) for describing the levels of proficiency in existing tests and examinations thus enabling comparisons to be made across different systems of qualifications. (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 178)

Fulcher (2004) discusses the role of the CEFR in language testing and explains the emergence of the CEFR with two broad reasons; the introduction of the European Language Portfolio which fosters goal setting and self-assessment in foreign language learning and the need to provide stakeholders with a means to compare existing tests that could enjoy recognition all round the Europe. Similarly, Bechger, Kuijper and Maris (2009) suggest that providing a descriptive system of language activities involving different levels of proficiency could be used for existing tests and examinations that are being developed. This is the point where the CEFR comes into play. The CEFR includes descriptive scales, the most general one being the global scale of common references, which labels learners as basic user (Level A), independent user (Level B) and proficient user (Level C). A further distinction is made between these levels as A1, A2, B1, B2, and C1, C2. Can-do statements, the illustrative descriptors are provided for each sub-level across different language skills namely listening, reading, spoken interaction, spoken production, and writing. Apart from behavioural aspects, the CEFR is claimed to provide stakeholders with the qualitative aspects of spoken language such as range, accuracy, fluency and interaction (Council of Europe, 2001) and to pay attention to elements such as sociolinguistic appropriateness, flexibility, turn taking, coherence and cohesion.

The CEFR has been embraced by practitioners, institutions at national and international levels so enthusiastically that curricula based on the CEFR have been developed and course books intended to help realise the goals of the CEFR have been written. Moreover, when it comes to the domain of language testing, claims about tests measuring language ability at a level intended on the CEFR have been made. Though it is stated by Council of Europe (2001) that the CEFR could be used as a reference point in both comparing existing tests and developing new tests, scholars in the domain of language testing seem to take a stance against the use of the CEFR in language testing and question prevailing practices for this aim. This paper aims to review the existing notions and discussions in language testing related to the use of the CEFR in the processes of alignment and development of language tests and proposes a model that could be used for above mentioned purposes

2. The CEFR and its use in language testing

As noted above, for the aim of using the CEFR in language testing, several steps have been taken by Council of Europe (2003; 2009) the most notable example being the manual prepared by Figueras et al. (2005). In spite of these efforts, increasing criticism has been targeted at the use of the CEFR in language testing. These criticisms come from two fronts, attacking the theoretical basis of the CEFR, specifically questioning the notion of validity and practical issues such as test content, context, rating process and so forth.

Related to the arguments about its theoretical aspects, Fulcher (2004) describes the CEFR as purely descriptive and claims that the distinction between Waystage and Threshold is not drawn by basing on

any empirical evidence, but merely on the intuition of the developers. He further attracts attention to the issue that although the CEFR includes situations, competencies, functions and abilities, it is not clear at what stage a learner would perform in above mentioned elements and what is needed to be an individual at the Threshold level. Fulcher (2004) concludes that this situation may be the result of the development process of the CEFR, as described in North (2000a) in detail.

The development of the CEFR was comprised of four phases, which were intuitive, qualitative, quantitative analyses and replication phases. Fulcher (2004) argues that it was the teachers' perception, not the learner competency that was incorporated into the scales. As North (2000, p. 573) himself puts it "what is being scaled is not necessarily learner proficiency, but teacher/raters' perception of that proficiency—their common framework". This perception, as criticised by Fulcher (2004), may be deemed as the perception of European teachers and testers and the term common refers to the agreement among them. Alderson (2007) also cautiously warns that this perception, offered by language teachers who are not trained to be testers, may not produce satisfactory results.

Another criticism directed at the CEFR is about its nature, related to the question of whether the CEFR is a framework or not. From the viewpoint of several scholars (e.g., Milanovic, 2002; Fulcher, 2004), the CEFR is regarded as operating at an abstract level like a model, rather than a true framework where content and test specifications are clearly defined. To be more specific, the CEFR is seen as a model reflecting the theories of communicative language testing as proposed by Bachman (1990). A true framework, according to Weir (2005), should help stakeholders to discover both processing and contextual elements and the relationships between them at different proficiency levels. The fact that several researchers (Huhta et al., 2002; Jones, 2002; Alderson et al., 2004; Morrow, 2004) have had difficulties in aligning tests to the CEFR, in Weir's view, can be linked to the CEFR's deficiencies at both fronts.

A different view related to the nature of the CEFR has been proposed by Alderson et al. (2004; 2009) in which the CEFR has been described as a theory of language development since it is predominantly involved in describing language use. However, Alderson et al. (2004; 2009) cautiously add that can-do statements are largely related with behaviours rather than reflecting a theory of development. Moreover, they question whether can-do statements may be converted to the items exemplifying different proficiency levels specified in the CEFR. Fulcher (2004) draws attention to the danger of the belief that the scales presented in the CEFR reflect a theory of language development, and warns that this belief may be held by the teachers. Fulcher (2004) further argues that, at the institution level, this belief even may pose greater problems since many testing agencies and test developers may claim links between the scores and the CEFR levels for the sake of getting international recognition. Apart from the issue that the CEFR cannot be regarded as a theory of development, the obscurity of constructs and their definitions may lead to a chaos in aligning studies.

Alderson (2007) commenting on the problems likely to be encountered during alignment studies states that his team had difficulties while working on DIALANG project (applying the CEFR to diagnostic testing in 14 languages) in terms of terminology and the theory of language development. Alderson (2007) seems very cautious about the methodology of the development of the CEFR and adds that although the CEFR assumes that a communicative activity requires a certain proficiency level in any language, this assumption has not been validated by empirical research. Further, he questions whether the development of the CEFR is based on second language acquisition (SLA) research. Considering the fact that majority of the research conducted within the domain of SLA focus on English, the empirical studies dealing with other languages seem to be necessary. While developing the Dutch CEFR Construct Project, Alderson et al. (2006) examined whether the CEFR was used to generate reading and listening tests and concluded that the CEFR displayed problems in terms of

clarity of definitions, overlaps and consistency. Besides, Alderson et al. (2006) argued that scales do not represent a clear theory of language development not only to diagnose, but also to test the language skills. Hence, Alderson (2007), by taking above mentioned issues into consideration, calls our attention to the fact that testers', publishers', book writers' and teachers' pure faith in the CEFR might have negative effects since these claims are not validated by empirical research. He further alleges that politicians and civil servants with no expertise in language learning and teaching also attempt to set standards, which could be harmful.

Another prominent figure in language testing, Weir (2005) also criticises the theoretical and practical foundations of the CEFR by putting forward several arguments. Though the CEFR has been described as being comprehensive, coherent or transparent for uncritical use in language testing (Council of Europe, 2001), Weir (2005) claims that the scales are based on contextual variables-performance conditions that are not complete. Weir (2005) proposes a notion of internal validity that is comprised of three units as context validity, theory based validity and scoring validity. Weir (2005) uses the term 'context validity' to refer to the social features of a task such as the setting and linguistic and social requirements. Taking different proficiency levels of the CEFR into consideration, it could be said that the participants will have to deal with various contextual conditions while carrying out a task and test developers need to pay specific attention to the constructs and contextual variables that influence test performance. These contextual variables include purpose, response format and time constraints and demands of the task.

The second criticism raised by Weir (2005) aiming at the CEFR is related with the issue labelled as 'theory based validity' that is related with the cognitive processing that examinees carry out while dealing with the tasks. However, it is alleged that the CEFR does not equip language educators with necessary views on cognitive processing at any level. Thus, it could be deduced that the scales in the CEFR do not represent an acquisitional hierarchy; an issue that has been addressed by several scholars as well (Fulcher, 2004; Alderson, 2007). The third dimension of validity in view of Weir (2005) is 'scoring validity', which is assumed to be related with the quality of performance. Weir (2005) contends that knowing how successfully an examinee should perform on a task at a specified level is necessary and this knowledge should be elaborated in terms of context based and theory based dimensions of the construct in question. Apart from scoring criteria, qualities of test raters and rating process should be taken into consideration. According to Weir (2005) scoring validity is the issue on which the CEFR has almost nothing to offer.

Apart from the theoretical considerations, several criticisms have been made regarding the practical issue in utilising the CEFR for test development and alignment issues. For instance, choices related with content choice are left to the test developers. Draft developed by Council of Europe (2003) does not elaborate on decisions about the content. Another significant problem raised in the relevant literature is about the wording of the can-do statements, which act as specifications while devising, and aligning tests (Weir, 2005; Jones, 2002; Alderson et al., 2004). Difficulties were experienced in aligning studies when the researchers recognised that there were cases in which statements were not distinguished from the levels below. This problem may have to do with the specification of context in which a task is carried out. Weir (2005) and Alderson et al. (2004) propose that the purposes for which we utilise language at different levels and context are crucial. To illustrate, it could be said that the type of reading activity that would be carried out will be based on the purpose of reading. Hence, as suggested by these scholars if we again take reading comprehension as an example, the subskills of comprehension that make up reading comprehension construct and types of reading should be taken into account while designing test task. It could be said that defining the specifications of a construct cannot be regarded as less significant than proving its statistical rigour. Alderson et al. (2004) for

instance, while working on the Dutch CEFR Construct project encountered several problems related with the test specification in terms of expressions used in can-do statements. To illustrate, they identified that eight different verbs referred to comprehension and these verbs were scan, monitor, understand, select, obtain, evaluate, locate and identify in B2 level. Alderson et al. (2004) were curious about whether this situation was related with stylistic synonyms or reflected differences in terms of cognitive processing. To overcome this problem, they decided to resort to theories of comprehension. Weir (2005) proposes that this may have to do with the issue that the CEFR has a clear sociolinguistic focus but on the other hand, it attaches little attention to the psycholinguistic issues. He further advocates that to ensure a theory based validity, underlying mechanisms should be understood and should be paid specific attention.

There are several practical issues related with the CEFR mentioned in the relevant literature, mainly on test method. Weir (2005), for instance, touches upon the response format since The CEFR does not include much detailed account on test method. However, it should be noted that test format has considerable effects on the context and processing. At this point, it could be said that a reading test utilising multiple-choice questions and another reading test using open-ended comprehension questions differ a lot in their nature and also the processes they invoke. Another issue related to test method is time limit to be set. Test developers should arrange a time limit by taking the amount of time needed to carry out a specific task into account. If not, this could result in construct underrepresentation. The third issue related to test method is related with genre, discourse types and their suitability across different language levels. Weir (2005) and Huhta et al. (2002) conclude that the CEFR does not provide sufficient guidance on this point. As Alderson et al. (2004) points out, length of a test is an issue that is left vague in the CEFR as well. Topic choice also receives criticism. The CEFR neither specifies test topics nor associates topics to different proficiency levels. Since test takers general background may have an effect on their test performance, this situation should receive specific attention.

3. Aligning language tests with the CEFR

Harsch and Rupp (2011) attract our attention to the difficulty and lack of consensus on the issue of alignment and state that although the CEFR has been acting as a framework for developing language tests, in reality, it is not a manual to be used for these purposes. As a consequence, complications may arise at the point of generating tests in alignment with the CEFR. Besides, linking practices which should be taken seriously, do not entail reliability analysis, they lack theoretical background and are conducted largely on intuition. Harsch and Rupp (2011) also state that language testers are not sure about how to align tests with the CEFR in terms of both practice and theory.

As a solution, North (2000b) proposes the notion of 'social moderation' in which a shared understanding of standards are determined by a group of raters through discussions and training and this process is seen as a way to link tests to the CEFR. Figueras et al. (2005) also prepared a manual for linking examinations to the CEFR in which they divided linking process into four phases as familiarization, specification, standardization, empirical validation. Familiarization refers to the activities that ensure the participants in the linking process are familiar with the CEFR. If it is detected that the participants do not have a sufficient knowledge about the CEFR, the quality of the linking process is suspected. In the second phase, specification, there is a matching procedure between categories of the CEFR and content and task types presented in the exams. If it is revealed that examinations cannot be described in terms of the CEFR categories then the alignment process becomes susceptible. The third phase is standardization in which benchmarks for a test are determined by a group of experts in accordance with the constructs described in the CEFR. The last phase is the

phase of empirical validation to ensure that both the exam and the alignment to the CEFR is well-grounded. The evidence is gathered through analysis of test data and ratings from the assessment.

4. An informed approach for language testing practices

It could be stated that the CEFR affects ongoing practices both in language teaching and language testing and it is highly likely that it would continue doing so in the future. Though it is apparent that the CEFR has several shortcomings when examined from the angle of language testing, it would be unfair to say that it has no benefits to offer. Indeed, if planned carefully from the very start by taking above mentioned issues into consideration and enriching the test design and construction process through feedback from the stakeholders, our testing practices may prove useful. The CEFR, at this point, can be a good starting point. Moreover, taking the fact that curriculum and course books are designed on the basis of the CEFR's tenets, it would not be surprising that testing would be aligned with the CEFR somehow. Below (see Figure 1.), a model incorporating the phases of testing practices and reflecting the relationships between these phases has been presented.

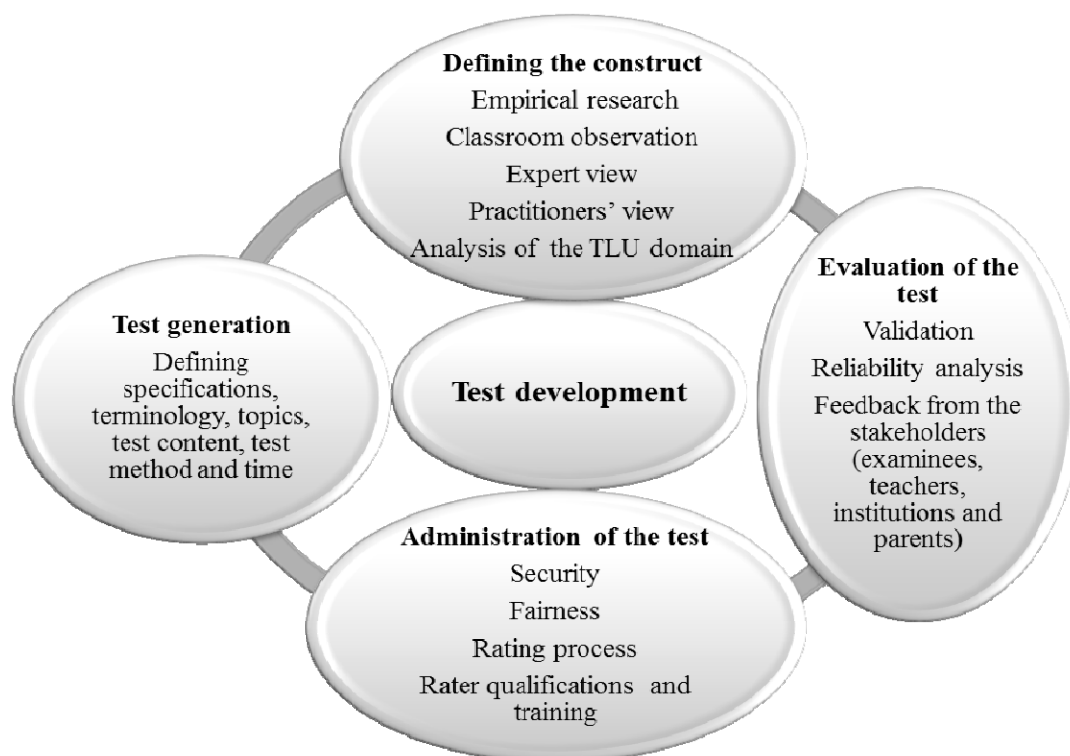


Figure 1. A model reflecting the phases of testing practices and the relationships among these phases

As can be seen in Figure 1, test development is comprised of four steps reflecting a cyclical nature. Test development is seen as a continuous process in which a step feeds the following step. In the first step, which is 'defining the construct' test developers define the construct that they intend to measure in detail and examine its properties. It could be stated that, this step is the most crucial step since test development cannot be built on ill-defined constructs. The knowledge necessary to define the construct comes from several sources such as the relevant literature, the views of experts, field observations, the views of teachers and the analysis of target language domain. Target language use

domain may be deemed of being utmost importance since each context has its unique conditions, necessities and requirements. For instance, the kind of reading activities carried out in a classroom where English is taught for academic purposes and the students are trained to be professionals would be quite different from the classroom in which English is taught for general purposes. For no doubt, this situation would affect our choices in testing practices. We could expect that addressing above mentioned issues would help us deal with the shortcomings of the CEFR in terms of the theory of language development and ‘theory based validity’.

After the construct has been defined and elaborated, the test generation phase, the phase in which the test specifications constituting the basis of the tests are formed. This is the phase where test developers engage in test construction work and design the architecture of the test. During test generation, issues apart from the specifications, such as the use of terminology, topic selection, test content, task type and duration are also dealt with. Since each of these factors may shape the performance of the test takers, careful analysis, detailed planning and informed approach are needed before we make our choices. Given that the CEFR does not say much about the test method and for no doubt an elaboration on this issue is needed, precise decisions we make regarding the test construction and application would help us overcome the shortcomings of the CEFR in terms of ‘context and scoring validity’.

In the third phase, the test is administered by taking several points into consideration; and these topics would be secure and fair application of the test, rating process and the qualifications of the raters assessing the performance of the examinees. Since test scores are used to make decisions about the educational and professional lives of the test takers, and therefore are highly likely to affect their lives to a great extent, the fair and secure administration of the tests should be of utmost importance so that undesirable outcomes would not occur. Assuring that the test is applied fairly and securely would not be enough on its own since rating process and qualifications of the people carrying out rating task are also vital. It must be ensured that the raters possess an informed approach and be equipped with the necessary knowledge about both the domain and the skills that they are assessing, and also the tenets of evaluation practices. At this point, it would be very essential that the raters should be trained beforehand to cope with these issues.

The last phase, the evaluation phase is the step in which the interpretations arising from test scores are validated, reliability analyses are conducted and feedback from the stakeholders are received. Evaluation phase is of utmost importance since a comprehensive evaluation both the test and its consequences are examined. Insights gained from this step are crucial since they may be used to better our understanding of the constructs, test design and application. At this point, apart from proving the statistical rigour of the test, the evidence that would shed light on and strengthen the interpretations of the scores obtained in the test is needed to ensure the notion of validity. Moreover, since test scores affect the lives and decisions of many parties such as examinees, teachers, school boards, institutions and parents their feedback should also be obtained to be used both to evaluate and design our testing.

With clearly defined specifications, an informed approach about the domain we are testing, views obtained from all the stakeholders, carefully selected test content and test method and qualified people involved in the language testing process the use of the CEFR as a reference point would be likely to yield favourable results. Especially considering the fact that language curricula, course books and instructional activities are designed in accordance with the CEFR, it could be stated that making the most of the CEFR by paying attention to its several drawbacks in terms of theory based, context based and scoring based validity and finding solutions for these drawbacks would be, in a way, building a bridge between our teaching and testing practices.

5. Conclusions

Weir (2005) contends that since the CEFR was not designed specifically for language testing, it takes laborious research, reflective test development practices to make use of it. He acknowledges that the earlier work (Threshold Level, Waystage and Vantage studies) and North's (2002) endeavours to calibre functions on a common scale the emphasis on functional competence are the strengths of the CEFR. The CEFR can be used to determine the objectives for teaching and assessment but inadequacies also prevail. Weir (2005) sees the CEFR as heuristic rather than prescriptive in nature and by taking the deficiencies in terms of validity into account, he proposes that making comparisons based only on the scales may be somehow misleading. He further alleges that the CEFR, at present, does not help us develop comparable tests let alone helping us to decide if these tests are comparable. Fulcher (2004) also argues that the CEFR may be of use in language testing as a user-oriented scale which serves as understandable, practical reporting instrument for stakeholders. Though problems have been encountered while implementing the CEFR to language testing, using the CEFR scales for reporting what a learner can do with a score in specific domain may be useful. To fight these shortcomings, a test development model which would help and guide us in defining the constructs, generating the test, administrating and evaluating it by taking our context into consideration would have clear and practical implications.

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Avrupa Dilleri Öğretimi Ortak Çerçeve Programı ve yabancı dil öğretiminde ölçmeye dair görüşler

Öz

Avrupa ülkeleri arasında uyumu ve şeffaflığı sağlamayı ve Avrupa vatandaşlığı kavramını desteklemeyi amaçlayan Avrupa Dilleri Öğretimi Ortak Çerçeve Programı (Avrupa Konseyi, 2001) paydaşlara dil öğretim programı ve müfredat hazırlama, ders kitabı yazma gibi konuların yanı sıra öğrenme çıktılarını değerlendirmeye yönelik de olanaklar sağlayan bir projedir. Dilde ölçme değerlendirme açısından bakıldığında, başvuru metninin yeni sınavlar hazırlamada ve standartlar belirleyerek mevcut sınavları karşılaştırmada bir dayanak noktası olarak kullanılabileceği iddiası söz konusudur. Avrupa Konseyi (2001) de başvuru metninin sınav içeriğinin belirlenmesi, değerlendirme ölçütlerinin ortaya konulması ve sınavlardaki yeterlilik derecelerinin belirlenmesi için kullanılabileceğini açıkta belirtmektedir. Başvuru metninin dilde ölçme değerlendirme alanında oynayabileceği rolün önemi yadsınamazken, başvuru metnine göre hazırlanan yeni sınavlar ve bünyesinde düzenlemeler yapılan hâlihazırdaki sınavlara eleştirel bir gözle bakmak gereklidir. Bu açıdan, mevcut çalışma, dilde ölçme ve değerlendirme alanına yönelik olarak başvuru metninin sahip olduğu potansiyel problemleri ve uygulamaya dönük unsurları incelemeyi amaçlamakta, dilde ölçme alanında çalışan paydaşlar ve dil öğretmenleri için uygulamaya dönük çıkarımları tartışmaktadır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Avrupa Dilleri Öğretimi Ortak Çerçeve Programı; yabancı dil öğretiminde ölçme ve değerlendirme; test geliştirme; uyarlama

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Yabancılara Türkçe kelime öğretiminde market broşürlerinden yararlanma¹

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Öz

Son yıllarda hem yurt içinde hem de yurt dışında Türkçe öğrenmek isteyen yabancıların sayısı artmaktadır. Bu durum söz konusu alandaki çalışmaların da çoğalmasını sağlamıştır. Dil öğretiminde üzerinde durulan konuların başında “kelime öğretimi” gelmektedir. Sahip olunan söz varlığı hedef dildeki anlama ve anlatma becerilerini etkili bir şekilde kullanmayı doğrudan etkilemektedir. Bu yüzden yabancılara Türkçe öğretirken kelime konusu üzerinde hassasiyetle durmak gerekir. Bir dile ait kelimeler hedef kitleye öğretilirken çeşitli materyaller kullanılabilir. Bu kapsamda yararlanılabilecek materyallerden biri de market broşürleridir. Bu materyaller, günlük hayatın içinden alınmış, gerçek örnekler olduğu için öğrencinin dikkat ve motivasyonunu artırmaktadır. Market broşürleri, özellikle temel seviyedeki (A1 ve A2) öğrencilere, günlük temel ihtiyaçlarını giderme konusunda uygulama imkânı da sunmaktadır. Bu çalışmada dil öğretiminde kelime kazanımının önemi üzerinde durulmuş ve bu kapsamda market broşürlerinden nasıl yararlanılabileceği ele alınmıştır. Öğretmene ve öğrencilere sunduğu imkânlar göz önüne alındığında market broşürlerinin, yabancılara Türkçe öğretirken derslerde kullanılan materyaller arasında yer alması gerektiği düşünülmektedir.

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Anahtar Sözcükler: yabancılara Türkçe öğretimi; kelime öğretimi; otantik materyal; market broşürleri

1. Giriş

İnsanlar arasında iletişimi sağlayan en temel araç olan dil, temel dil becerileri olarak adlandırılan dinleme, konuşma, okuma ve yazma becerilerinden oluşur. Kişinin bu becerileri kullanma düzeyi, sahip olduğu söz varlığı ile doğrudan ilişkilidir. Söz varlığını oluşturan unsurlar arasında kelime, deyim, kalıp söz gibi yapılar bulunmakla birlikte (Aksan, 1982) bunlardan kelime, en temel unsur olarak karşımıza çıkar. Bununla birlikte deyim ve kalıp sözler de çeşitli anlam bağları kuran kelimelerin bir araya gelmesinden oluşmaktadır.

Kelimeler bir dilin yapı taşlarıdır. En basit bir istekten karmaşık yapıdaki duygu ve düşünceler kelimeler yardımıyla anlatılır. Bu yüzden kelime öğretimi, dil öğretiminin temeli sayılır.

Hem ana dili hem de yabancı dil öğretiminde kelime hazinesini geliştirmeye yönelik çalışmalar düzenli olarak ele alınır. Bu husus öğretim programlarında da üzerinde özellikle durulan konulardan biridir. Türkçe Dersi Öğretim Programı'nda “Öğrencilerin okuduğu, dinlediği ve izlediğinden

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hareketle, söz varlığını zenginleştirerek dil zevki ve bilincine ulaşmaları; duygu, düşünce ve hayal dünyalarını geliştirmeleri amaçlanmaktadır.” (MEB, 2006, s. 4) denilmektedir. Diller İçin Avrupa Ortak Başvuru Metni'nin “Genel Dil Düzeyleri” başlığı altında yer alan ifadeler şunlar örnek olarak verilebilir:

“Kişisel ayrıntılar ve somut gereksinimlerle ilgili çok basit bir temel ifade dizisine sahiptir.” (A1 Seviyesi),

“Günlük rutin, istek ve gereksinimleri gidermek için kısa, günlük ifadeler üretebilir.” (A2 Seviyesi)

Aynı Metnin “Sözcük Düzeyleri” başlığı altında da “Belirli somut durumlar için tek sözcük ve söz öbeklerinden oluşan temel sözcük bilgisine sahiptir.”, “Basit günlük gereksinimler için yeterli sözcük dağarcığına sahiptir.” ifadeleri yer almaktadır (MEB, 2009, s. 112, 114). Bütün bu hususlar dil öğretiminde kelime konusunun, çalışmaların başından itibaren göz önünde bulundurulması önemli başlıklardan biri olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır.

Diğer taraftan Türkiye’de ve dünyada Türkçe öğrenmek isteyen yabancıların sayısı gittikçe artmaktadır. 2005’te, yurt içinde ve dışında Türkçe öğreten merkez sayısı 57 ülkede 223 olarak tespit edilmişken (Dolunay, 2005, s. 267), son yıllarda dünyanın çeşitli ülkelerinde açılan Türk Kültür Merkezleri ile üniversitelerimiz bünyesinde kurulan Türkçe Öğretim Merkezleri dikkate alındığında bu sayının çok üstüne çıktığı söylenebilir. Bu durum, yabancılara Türkçe öğretimiyle ilgili çalışmaların artmasını sağlamıştır. Yapılan çalışmalarda materyal konusunun da farklı açılardan ele alındığı görülmektedir. Bu çalışmada yabancılara Türkçe kelime öğretiminde kullanılacak farklı bir araç olarak değerlendirilen market broşürleri üzerinde durulmuştur.

2. Yöntem

Derleme niteliğinde olan bu çalışmada öncelikle, dil öğretiminde kelime konusu ele alınmış, kelime öğretiminde göz önünde bulundurulması gereken hususlar üzerinde durulmuştur. Ardından yabancılara Türkçe kelime öğretiminde, otantik bir materyal olarak değerlendirilebilecek market broşürlerinin hangi amaçlar doğrultusunda kullanılabilirliğiyle ilgili örnekler verilmiştir. Çalışma kapsamında ele alınan broşürler, market zincirine sahip yedi büyük market tarafından 10-15 günlük periyotlar hâlinde yayımlanan broşürlerden oluşmaktadır. Söz konusu broşürlerdeki ürünler sınıflandırılmış, özellikle A1 ve A2 seviyesindeki yabancı öğrencilere, broşürlerden hareketle hangi kelimelerin nasıl öğretilbileceği belirtilmiş ve yapılabilecek çalışmalar örneklendirilmiştir.

3. Kelime öğretimi

Konu ne olursa olsun öğretim çalışmaları sırasında farklı duyu organlarına hitap etmenin öğrencilerin ilgisini ve dolayısıyla da başarıyı artırdığı bilinen bir gerçektir. Bu yüzden eğitim-öğretim faaliyetlerinde görsellerden yararlanmak ihmal edilmemesi gereken bir konudur. Konuya kelime öğretimi açısından bakıldığında, çalışmalar sırasında öğrencilere resim veya fotoğrafların gösterilmesi; kelimenin sadece yazılması ve düz anlatım yoluyla üzerinde durulması şeklinde yapılan anlatıma göre çok daha etkilidir. Görsellerden yararlanma aynı zamanda bir somutlaştırma çalışması anlamına da gelir ki bu husus dil öğretiminin her basamağında, özellikle başlangıç (A1, A2) seviyesinde göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır. Karakaş ve Karaca (2011) da öğretmenlerin dil öğretimini görsel açıdan desteklemek için çeşitli nesnelere ihtiyaç duyduklarını ve resimlerin dil öğretiminde en çok kullanılan materyaller arasında yer aldığını ifade etmektedirler.

Yeni öğretilen kelimelerin kalıcı olması, onların önce kısa süreli belleğe ardından da uzun süreli belleğe kaydedilmesiyle mümkündür. Bu süreçlerin oluşabilmesi için de bilginin dikkat çekici bir şekilde sunulması, günlük hayatla ilişkili ve yeterince yinelenmiş olması gerekir (Apaydın, 2007, s. 2).

Bundan dolayı, kelime öğretiminde göz önünde bulundurulması gereken hususların başında “dikkat çekicilik, günlük hayatla ilişkili olma, tekrar” gelmektedir.

“Kelime öğretimi ve kelime hazinesini geliştirme olayı yalnızca sözlüğe bakıp kelimelerin anlamlarını alıp cümleler yazma olayı değil”dir (Akyol, 1997, s. 46). Yabancılara Türkçe kelime öğretilirken özellikle ilk seviyelerde, öğrencilerin günlük hayattaki iletişim becerilerini kolaylaştırma ve geliştirmeye yönelik uygulamalar yapıldığında daha verimli sonuçlar alınacaktır.

Diğer taraftan kelime öğretiminde çeşitli, anlamlı ve etkileşimli öğrenme ortamları oluşturmak gerekir (Akyol, 2008). Bu şekilde yapılan çalışmalarda öğrencilerin dikkatlerinin daha canlı, gerçekleşen öğrenmenin daha kalıcı olacağı söylenebilir.

Kelime öğretiminde gerçek nesnelere hareket etmek de yapılabilecek uygulamalar arasında yer alır (Uçgun, 2006, s. 224). Bu uygulama nesnelere fotoğraflarını göstermek şeklinde hayata geçirilebilir. Bu çalışmada nesnelere, ürünlerin çeşitli özellikleri (renk, şekil, fiyat vb.) üzerinde durulabilir.

Bir dili öğrenenlerin hedef dili öğrenme amaçları çeşitlilik arz etse de her öğrencinin, öğrendiği dile, temel düzeyde iletişim kurabilecek kadar hâkim olması gerekir. Diğer bir ifadeyle hedef dilde dinleyerek ve okuyarak anlama, konuşarak ve yazarak da anlatma becerilerini kullanmak ve insanlarla temel düzeyde iletişim kurmak, bir dili öğrenen herkesin en temel amacı olmalıdır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda yeni öğrenilen kelimelerin de kullanıldığı kısa metinlerin, günlük hayatın içinden diyalogların oluşturulması ve bunlar üzerinde durulması kelime edinimi açısından gereklidir. İşte bunun için “Bir dili doğru konuşmak, doğru yazmak ve dinlediğini ya da okuduğunu doğru anlamak için, o dilin sözcüklerinin etkin bir kullanıcısı olmak önemli”dir (Altıkulaçoğlu, 2010, s. 39). Belirtilen nedenlerden dolayı dil öğretimi derslerinde kelime öğretimi, üzerinde önemle durulması gereken konuların başında gelir.

4. Kelime öğretimi ve bağlam

Dil öğretiminin temel kavramları arasında bağlam da yer alır. Vardar’a (2002) göre bağlam “bir dil birimini çevreleyen, ondan önce ya da sonra gelen birçok durumda söz konusu birimi etkileyen, onun anlamını, değerini belirleyen birim ya da birimler bütünü”dür. Dolayısıyla bağlam, anlam kurma sürecinde etkili olan bir unsurdur. Anlam kurma ise dil öğretimindeki başarıyı doğrudan etkiler. Bu yüzden yeni öğretilen kelimeler asla tek başına verilmemeli, bir bağlama, başlangıçta kısa bir cümleye yerleştirilmelidir. Böyle yapılmazsa kelimeler, yalıtılmış olur; yalıtılmış kelimeler de bir ses ya da sesler topluluğundan başka bir şey ifade etmez (Hameau, 1988, s. 302). Ayrıca “sürekli olarak bağlamsız belleme işlemlerine başvuran öğrenci, doyumluğa ulaşan belleği yüzünden başarısızlığa uğramaktadır” (Demircan, 1983, s. 148). Bu yüzden “Bir öğrenme konusunun anlamsal ağ ve bağlantılarla öğrenene sunulmasının onun kolayca anlamlı hale getirilebilmesinde etkili bir yol” (Budak, 2000, s. 23) olduğu bilinmektedir.

Yeni bir dil öğrenen öğrencilerin pek çoğu; yeni öğrendikleri kelimeler, kurallar vb. hakkında kendi geliştirdikleri, anlam ağ ve bağlantıları kurmayı içermeyen çeşitli çalışma şekilleri içerisine girer. Bu öğrenciler çoğu zaman istedikleri düzeyde başarılı olamazlar. Kelime veya kuralla ilgili bazı bilgiler zihinlerinde canlanır; ancak bu görüntü çoğu zaman bulanıktır. Bulanık, tam olarak hatırlanamayan bilgilerin sağlıklı bir şekilde kullanılması ise mümkün değildir. Bu bulanıklığı ortadan kaldırıp görüntüyü netleştirmenin en temel yolu öğrenilen konuyla ilgili anlam ağları kurmaktır. Bir dil öğretmeni, söz konusu anlamsal ağ ve bağlantıları kurma konusunda, vereceği örnekler ve yaptıracığı uygulamalarla öğrencilerine örnek olmalıdır. Görüldüğü gibi her öğrenmede olduğu gibi

kelime öğrenmede de “bağlam”, çalışmaları planlamada ve yararlanılacak kaynakları belirlemede önemli bir kavram olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır.

5. İletişim temelli dil öğretimi

Günümüzde dil öğretimi ve öğreniminde üzerinde ağırlıklı olarak durulan konulardan biri de iletişimsel boyuttur. Çünkü iletişimsel yetenek, dille yakın ilişki içindedir (MEB, 2009, s. 110). Bir kişinin, öğrenmekte olduğu dille ilgili çeşitli bilgileri, çevresindeki insanlarla iletişim kurarken kullanması durumunda, o bilgiler daha kısa sürede öğrenilmiş ve söz konusu bilgilerin kalıcılığı sağlanmış olacaktır.

Yabancılara Türkçe öğretimiyle ilgili eğitim içeriği hazırlanırken ele alınacak başlıklar arasında “iletişime yönelik işlevci kalıplar, topluma hizmet veren toplu ve farklı iş yerleri ve kurumlarda karşılaşılan dil” de yer almalıdır. Bu kapsamda “süpermarket, lokanta, pastane vb.” ortamlar oluşturularak farklı, gerçek yaşam sahneleri planlanabilir. Bunlara ek olarak öğretim ilkelerinden “yararlılık” kapsamında “günlük alınan gıda adları: ekmek, peynir, zeytin, çay, kahve, süt, tereyağ vb. gibi öğrencilerin kendileri ve yakın çevreleriyle ilgili olarak kullanabilecekleri sözcükler” iletişim amaçlı olarak kullanmaları için öğrencilere öncelikli olarak öğretilmelidir (Tosun, 2005, s. 24-26). Söz konusu kelimelerin öğretiminde yararlanılacak araçların seçimi ve kullanımı önem arz etmektedir.

Kelimelerin, sosyal kullanımlarına ve iletişim durumlarına uygun olarak ele alınması, hedef dilde kelime öğretirken önemlidir. Öğretilecek kelimeler öğrencilerin ihtiyaçlarına göre düzenlenmeli, yani ilgilerini çekmeli; kelimelerin yaygın ve sık olarak kullanılabilir olmasına özen gösterilmelidir. Kelimelerin kullanılabilir olması, gerçek yaşam ortamında kullanılmaları anlamına gelir (Figen, 2004, s. 122, 124). Bunu sağlamak için kelime ve bu kelimeleri öğretirken kullanılacak materyal seçiminde günlük hayatın içinden örnekler sınıfa getirilmelidir.

Öğrenmeyle ilgili kuramlardan olan bilgiyi işleme kuramına göre öğrenme bireysel olup bireyin yeni bir bilgiyi öğrenebilmesi için, öğrenme işine etkin olarak katılması, yani kendisine sunulan uyarıcıları seçmesi, bunları kendisi için anlamlı hâle getirmesi ve en uygun tepkiyi vermesi gerekir (Görgeç, 1999, s. 57). Öğrenci bunları yaptığında dili iletişime yönelik olarak kullanmış olacaktır. Bu da onun hedef dili işlevsel olarak öğrenmeye başladığının işaretidir. Netice itibarıyla dil öğrenmede iletişim boyutu önemlidir. Dilin temel yapı taşı olan kelimelerin öğretiminde de bu husus gözden uzak tutulmamalıdır.

6. Kelime öğretiminde farklı bir araç olarak market broşürleri

Ana dil öğretiminde olduğu gibi yabancılara Türkçe öğretiminde de kelime öğretimi ve edinimi önemli konuların başında gelmektedir. Çünkü anlama ve anlatma becerilerini kullanabilmenin temelinde öğrenilen kelimeler yatmaktadır.

Kelime öğretimi çalışmalarında çeşitli uygulamalar yapılmakta, farklı materyallerden yararlanılmaktadır. Demirel (1990, s. 126) kelime öğretiminde “dergi, mecmua, gazete ve duvar resimleri, poster, afiş” gibi görsel araçlardan yararlanılabileceğini belirtir. Sınıf ortamında alfabe, mevsimler, aylar, sayılar, saatler vb. ile ilgili poster ya da afişlerin olması dil öğretiminde işlevsellik adına önemlidir (Büyükkız ve Hasırcı, 2013, s. 150). Ayrıca kelimeleri görsel olarak anlatan şekil, kroki, resimler; kelimenin doğru ve kolay kavranmasını sağlayıp çabuk unutulmasını engeller (Arslan ve Gürdal, 2012, s. 265). Sağladığı yararlar göz önüne alındığında, yabancılara Türkçe kelime öğretirken çeşitli ürünleri farklı özellikleriyle (renk, şekil, fiyat vb.) görebileceğimiz materyallerden yararlanılması gerekir.

Yeni bir dil öğrenirken sahip olunan kelime sayısının sınırlı olduğu ve cümle kurmada zorlanıldığı durumlarda kelime hazinesinin ne denli önemli olduğu net bir şekilde görülebilir. Bu yüzden yabancılara Türkçe öğretiminde de farklı uygulama ve materyallerle kelime öğretimi üzerinde durmak ve öğrencilerin kelime hazinelerini kısa sürede zenginleştirmek gerekir. Yeni öğrenilen her kelime, hedef dili öğrenme konusunda öğrencilerin motivasyonunu artıracaktır. Bu kapsamda öğretmenlerin en önemli görevlerinden biri öğrencilerini, farklı uygulamalar yardımıyla yeni kelimelerle karşı karşıya getirmek ve bu kelimeler konusunda tekrar çalışmaları yaptırmaktır. Diğer bir deyişle ders kitabında yer alan kelime öğretimiyle ilgili çalışmaların başka uygulamalar ve materyallerle desteklenmesi gerekir. Söz konusu materyaller arasında ele alınabilecek örneklerden biri de market broşürleridir.

Alışveriş faaliyetleri günlük hayatın vazgeçilmez unsurlarından biridir. Bazen alışveriş sırasında bazen de posta kutumuzda karşımıza çıkan market broşürlerini; yeni çıkan ürünler hakkında bilgi edinmek, indirimde olan ürünleri tespit etmek vb. nedenlerle dikkatli bir şekilde incelediğimiz zamanlar olmuştur. Bu materyallerden yabancılara Türkçe kelime öğretiminde de yararlanılabilir.

Öğrencilere öğretilecek temel söz varlığı belirlenirken doğal dilin esas alınması (Barın, 2003, s. 312) kelime öğretiminde dikkat edilmesi gereken konulardandır. Doğal dil, konuların öğrenciler tarafından daha iyi kavranması ve öğrenilen bilgilerin ders dışında kullanılmasında da etkilidir. Bu çerçevede, yukarıda da belirtildiği gibi, yabancılara Türkçe öğretiminde ihtiyaç duyulan şeylerden biri yardımcı ders materyalleridir (Arslan ve Gürdal, 2012, s. 266). Bu materyallerin niteliği, ele alınan konunun anlatımında ve öğrenciler tarafından anlaşılmasında, yani dersin verimli işlenmesinde önemlidir. Konunun önemi göz önünde bulundurulduğunda market broşürleri öğretmenlere pek çok fırsat sunmaktadır.

Bir dili yeni öğrenmeye başlayanlar için kitap yazarların çoğu renkler, insan gövdesi, giyim kuşam, saat, ev, aile, okul, çarşı, yemekler (yiyecekler) ... ile ilgili dersler planlamışlardır (Hameau, 1988, s. 302). Bu başlıklardan yiyecekler, çarşı, ev, renkler, giyim kuşam vb.leri ele alınırken market broşürleri kullanılabilir.

Market broşürlerinden, kelime öğretim çalışmalarının yanı sıra okuma, konuşma ve yazma becerilerinin geliştirilmesinde de yararlanılabilir. Bu kapsamda öğrencilerden, üzerinde durulan ürünleri kullanarak sözlü ve yazılı kısa diyaloglar oluşturmaları istenebilir. Bu tür uygulamalar canlandırma şeklinde yapılırsa, öğrencileri günlük hayata da hazırlayacağı için daha verimli olacaktır.

Dil öğrenmede hedef dili yaşamak önemlidir. Hedef dili yaşamak demek, dili “amaçlar doğrultusunda yeri geldiğinde doğru örneklerle kullanmak” anlamına gelir (İpekboyayan, 1994, s. 57). Yiyecek içecek isimlerinden evde kullanılan araç gereç isimlerine kadar pek çok kelime market broşürlerinde karşımıza çıkar. Öğretmene sunacağı imkânlar göz önünde bulundurulduğunda market broşürlerinin de “doğru örnekler” arasında sayılması gerekir.

Günlük hayattaki dilin içinden alınarak sınıfa getirilen ve kelime öğretiminde kullanılan market broşürleri, “gerçeklik” özellikleriyle öğrencilerin dikkatlerini çekecek bir nitelik taşır. Hayatın içinden örnekler, yapay bir dil ile oluşturulmuş örneklerden her zaman daha canlıdır ve daha çok ilgi çeker. Öğrenciler, market broşürleri vb. araçların, günlük hayatta da karşılıklarına çıkacağını bildiklerinden öğrencilerin söz konusu materyallere ilgileri daha canlı olacaktır. Derse karşı olan ilginin canlı olması da derslerdeki verimi artıracaktır.

Gerçek hayatın içinden alınmış otantik malzemelerin dil öğretiminde kullanılması son yıllarda dil öğretimiyle ilgili çalışmalarda karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Genel olarak “dil öğretmek amacıyla üretilmemiş, günlük dilde karşımıza çıkan materyaller” şeklinde tanımlanan otantik malzemelerin; öğrencilerin motivasyonunu artırma, öğrencilere hedef dilin kültürüyle ilgili bilgiler sunma,

öğrencileri hedef dilin gerçek kullanımıyla karşı karşıya getirme, öğretme sürecinde daha yaratıcı uygulamalar sağlama gibi pek çok faydası vardır (akt. Kilickaya, 2004). Bu anlamda market broşürleri, özellikle başlangıç seviyesindeki derslerde, öğrencilerin hedef dilin günlük hayattaki kullanımı ve kültürü hakkında bilgiler edinmelerini sağladığı (Yigitoglu, 2007) için dil öğretiminde yararlanılması gereken kaynaklar arasında yer almaktadır.

Türkçe öğrenen yabancıların yiyecek, içecek, giyecek ile ilgili temel ihtiyaç maddelerini karşılayan kelimeleri öncelikli olarak öğrenmeleri gerekmektedir. Özellikle Türkçeyi Türkiye’de öğrenen yabancılar için bu durum çok daha önemlidir. Söz konusu başlıklar altında ele alınacak kelimelerin öğretiminde market broşürleri eşsiz bir materyal olarak karşımıza çıkar. Bu broşürleri öğrenci sayısınca temin etmek oldukça kolaydır. Öğretmenler bu sayede renkli görsellerden yararlanma imkânına sahip olurlar. Her öğrencinin elinde olan bu kaynak sayesinde hayat, derse getirilmiş olur. Böylelikle Türkçe öğrenen yabancıların, günlük ihtiyaçlarını karşılama durumlarıyla ilgili uygulama yapma imkânları da olur.

Öğrencilerin öğrenmeye çalıştıkları kelimeleri düşünüp kavramalarını kolaylaştırmak ve âdeta yaşayarak öğrenmelerini sağlamak için tekrarlar yoluyla pekiştirme ortamı oluşturmak da önemlidir (Aygün, 1999, s. 15; Pehlivan, 2003, s. 91). Market broşürlerinden hareketle öğretilecek kelimelerin tekrarı da hem sınıf içinde hem de sınıf dışında rahatlıkla ve öğrencilerin ilgisini çekecek şekilde gerçekleşecektir. Örneğin, sınıf içinde her öğrencinin elinde olan broşürler yardımıyla, üzerinde durulan kelimelerin de kullanıldığı soru-cevap alıştırmaları, kısa diyaloglar vb. çalışmalar veya öğrencilerin günlük hayatın içindeki alışveriş ortamlarında yapabilecekleri tekrarlar hedef kelimelerin öğrenilmesini kolaylaştıracaktır.

6.1. Market broşürleri kullanılarak yapılabilecek çalışmalar

Market broşürleri, başta kelime öğretimi olmak üzere çok çeşitli alıştırmalar yapmaya müsait öğretim araçlarıdır. Bu araçlar örneğin;

- a) Yiyecek, içecek, giyecek ile ilgili kelimelerin,
- b) Ev eşyalarıyla ilgili kelimelerin,
- c) Renklerin,
- ç) Sayıların ve para tutarlarının,
- d) Ağırlık ölçüleri ve ambalaj şekillerinin,
- e) Kısa alışveriş diyaloglarının,

öğretiminde kullanılabilir. Aşağıda öncelikle market broşürlerinden hareketle öğretilebilecek kelime örnekleri listelenmiş, ardından çeşitli uygulama çalışmalarına yer verilmiştir. Broşürlerde yer alan ve üzerinde durulan ürünler sayesinde öğrencilere hedef dilin yiyecek kültürü, o ülkede yetişen ürünler hakkında bilgi verilmiş de olacaktır.

Yiyecek ve İçecekler

- a. **Kahvaltılık:** zeytin (yeşil zeytin, siyah zeytin), peynir (beyaz peynir, kaşar peyniri), domates, salatalık, biber, bal, yumurta, sucuk, çay, ekmek, ...
- b. **Meyveler:** elma, armut, portakal, çilek, muz, karpuz, kavun, mandalina, kayısı, şeftali, üzüm, erik, kiraz, kivi, ...
- c. **Sebzeler:** domates, biber, patlıcan, kabak, bezelye, fasulye, patates, soğan (kuru soğan, yeşil soğan), ...

- ç. **Tatlılar-Pastalar:** baklava, sütlaç, tulumba tatlısı, kazandibi, şekerpare, yaş pasta, kuru pasta, börek, ...
- d. **İçecekler:** su, ayran, süt, meyve suyu, kahve, ...
- e. **Kuruyemişler:** fındık, fıstık, leblebi (sarı, beyaz), kabak çekirdeği, ay çekirdeği, ...
- f. **Kuru gıdalar:** pirinç, bulgur, mercimek, nohut, makarna, ...
- g. **Et ve et ürünleri:** et, kıyım, köfte, balık, tavuk eti, sucuk, pastırma, salam, sosis, ...
- h. **Giyecekler:** gömlek, pantolon, ceket, kazak, mont, kaban, palto, çorap, terlik, ayakkabı, ...

Ev Eşyaları

- a. **Mutfak eşyaları:** tabak, bardak, tencere, tava, çatal, kaşık, çay kaşığı, bıçak, sürahi, bardak (su bardağı, çay bardağı), tuzluk, biberlik, peçete, bulaşık makinesi, buzdolabı, fırın, yemek masası, sandalye, ...
- b. **Diğer eşyalar:** halı, kilim, koltuk, sehpa, lamba, saat (kol, duvar, masa saati), elektrik süpürgesi, yatak, yorgan, yastık, havlu, bornoz, elbise dolabı, ayna, musluk, sabun, şampuan, perde, ütü, elbise askısı, ...

Renkler:

beyaz, kırmızı, yeşil, siyah, turuncu, mavi, sarı, kahverengi, mor, pembe, ...

Sayılar ve Para Tutarları:

Ürünlerin sayıları, kaçta satıldığıyla ilgili uygulamalarda bu bilgiler üzerinde durulabilir.

Ağırlık Ölçüleri ve Ambalaj Şekilleri:

Kilogram (kilo), gram; paket, kutu, demet, deste, ...

Kısa Alışveriş Diyalogları:

Öğrencilerden biri satıcı, diğeri müşteri rolünde kısa alışveriş diyalogları oluşturulabilir. İlk uygulamalarda diyaloglar öğretmen tarafından yazılır, sonraki uygulamalarda öğrenciler kendilerine göre diyalog metinleri yazarlar ve bu uygulama aynı zamanda yazma çalışması olarak düşünülebilir. Ardından bu diyaloglar sınıf karşısında öğrenciler tarafından canlandırılır.



Şekil 1. Market Broşürlerinden Alınmış Ürün Örnekleri

6.2. Diğer uygulamalar

a. Karşılaştırma Yapma: İki farklı marketin broşürleri öğrencilere dağıtılır. Öğrencilerden ellerindeki broşürlerde ortak olan ürünleri belirlemeleri ve ardından bu ürünlerin fiyatlarıyla ilgili bir karşılaştırma yapmaları istenir. Bu çalışma sırasında öğrencilerin “daha ucuz, daha pahalı”, “daha çok, daha az” vb. ifadeleri kullanmalarına dikkat edilir.

b. Alışveriş Listesi Hazırlatma: Öğrencilere, kimsenin yaşamadığı bir evde üç gün kalacakları söylenir. Evde bütün ev eşyaları vardır; ancak yiyecek ve içecek hiçbir şey bulunmamaktadır. Öğrencilerden, bu üç gün için ellerindeki market broşüründen hareketle bir alışveriş listesi hazırlamaları istenir. Sonrasında öğrenciler, hazırladıkları alışveriş listeleri hakkında konuşturulur. Uygulama sırasında öğretmen ve diğer öğrenciler, konuşan öğrenciye listesiyle ilgili çeşitli sorular sorabilir. Ayrıca öğrencilerin listelerindeki ortak ve farklı ürünler üzerinde de durulabilir.

c. Resimli Sözlük Hazırlatma: Öğrencilere, market broşürlerindeki ürünlerden hareketle resimli sözlük hazırlattırılabilir. Öğrencilerden, sözlükteki her kelimeyle ilgili cümleler oluşturmaları istenir. Bu sözlükten rastgele seçilen kelimelerle ilgili kısa konuşma alıştırmaları yaptırılabilir.

7. Sonuç

Yabancılara Türkçe öğretimi derslerinde pek çok araç-gereçten yararlanmak mümkündür. Öğrenci motivasyonunu ve başarısını artırmak için kullanılacak materyallerden biri de market broşürleridir. Bu materyallerden özellikle başlangıç seviyesinde (A1 ve A2) kelime öğretimi çalışmalarında yararlanılabilir. Market broşürlerinin kullanılmasıyla; çalışmalar çeşitlendirilmiş, görsel açıdan zengin materyaller kullanılmış, günlük hayatın içinden alınmış materyallerden (otantik materyal) yararlanılmış olur. Bu ise öğrencilerin derse olan ilgisini ve dersteki başarısını artırır.

Derste ele alınan örnekler, günlük hayatta öğrencinin karşısına çıktığında öğretim, ders dışında da devam ediyor demektir. Derste anlatılan, üzerinde durulan konu ve örneklerle ders dışında da karşılaşan öğrenciler, dersle hayat arasında bağlantı kurmuş olacaklardır. İşte bu yüzden market broşürleri vb. araçların yabancılara Türkçe öğretiminde kullanılması gerekir. Bu tür örneklerin, Türkçe öğrenen yabancılarda farklı bakış açılarının oluşmasına ve derslerdeki bilgilerin günlük hayata aktarılmasına katkı sağlayacağı unutulmamalıdır.

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Using marketing brochures in teaching Turkish vocabulary to foreigners

Abstract

In recent years, the number of foreigners who want to learn Turkish has been increasing at home and abroad. This case has also led an increase in the number of the studies in this field. One of the issues in language teaching is vocabulary teaching. Vocabulary directly affects one's understanding and communication in the target language. Accordingly, the subject of vocabulary teaching should be given importance sensitively while teaching Turkish to foreigners. The various materials can be used while teaching vocabulary to the target students. One of the materials that can be used in this field is marketing brochures. Because these materials are authentic, they increase student's attention and motivation. Market brochures, especially for elementary level students (A1 and A2), make it convenient to meet their daily basic needs. In this study, the importance of acquisition of vocabulary in language teaching was emphasized and how to use the advantage of marketing brochures in this field was handled. Because of the opportunities offered to teachers and students, marketing brochures should be one of the materials to be used while teaching Turkish to foreigners.

Keywords: Teaching Turkish to foreigners, vocabulary teaching, authentic material, market brochures.

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Foreign language learners' views on the importance of learning the target language pronunciation

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Abstract

Pronunciation is one of the controversial topics in the field of English language teaching as a second or foreign language. The aim of this study is to understand the attitudes of prep class students at Kastamonu University (state university) in Turkey towards the importance of pronunciation in language learning. Therefore, a pronunciation attitude inventory (PAI) was implemented in order to achieve this goal. 58 students who were from different majors such as business management, forest engineering, tourism and hotel management, etc. attended the research at total, and they were asked to give their opinions about 12 statements by using five-point Likert scale aiming at eliciting the attitudes of the participants from the strongest (always or almost always true of me) to the weakest (never or almost never true of me). The descriptive results of the answers were analyzed by using SPSS 16 program. The responses given to the items in the questionnaire that intended to figure out the attitudes of the participants towards correct pronunciation in learning foreign language prove that pronunciation conveys a significant role in the target language learning, and it needs to be specifically handled by the instructors throughout the teaching process.

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Keywords: Pronunciation; attitudes; adult learners; foreign language learning

1. Introduction

Pronunciation is a field in second language acquisition (SLA) which is studied less than the others due to its nature that is more difficult to conduct researches and many different variables interfere with its process such as gender, motivation, field dependence / independence, etc., (Asher & Garcia, 1969). Because of the mother tongue (L1) and negative transfer, Turkish students may find it difficult to acquire the pronunciation of English (Corder, 1992; Liu, 2011; Ringbom, 2007; Demirezen, 2010). The other reason for not being so efficient in the target language pronunciation lies in the absence of some particular sounds in Turkish sound inventory such as /θ/ and /ð/ (Çelik, 2008). Apart from the inexistence of some particular sounds in some languages, the age of learners also has a great influence on pronouncing the sounds accurately. In this respect, Piske, MacKay & Flege (2001) state that age is the most important predictor in acquiring a foreign language accent. The reason for this case can also be explained through Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH). According to CPH (Lenneberg, 1967), learners have the disadvantages of starting to learn a language at late ages especially after puberty for the first language. On the other hand, proper pronunciation instruction is another issue that needs to be

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dealt with in Turkey (Çakır, 2012; Celik, 2008; Demirezen, 2010; Hismanoglu, 2012; Cagiltay, Saran & Seferoglu, 2009). As many of the English language teaching departments at universities do not cover the course of phonetics appropriately, a great number of the teachers may not feel themselves confident with their own pronunciation levels. Therefore, they either prefer not to teach pronunciation or are unable to integrate it into the course properly, which automatically affects the attitudes of learners towards learning it.

1.1. Review of literature

In foreign language learning learners usually find the target language pronunciation difficult because the new sounds do not always correspond to the ones in their mother tongue. As it is a hard issue to tackle with for many teachers and learners, some people claim that it needs to be presented explicitly. That is to say, intentional teaching of pronunciation would help learners overcome the anxiety in oral communication that mostly derives from the lack of correct pronunciation. In his research, Nakazawa (2012) states that especially university level students feel anxious and they are afraid of making mistakes while pronouncing the words, and they mostly confess that they get embarrassed when speaking because of the possibility of making mistakes in pronunciation. However, one of the key factors in foreign language teaching is creating a “stress-free environment” and lowering learners’ anxiety as much as possible (Krashen, 1982). Furthermore, it is advocated that if the learner is too stressed, s/he cannot learn the language as s/he cannot receive the comprehensible input because of the anxiety, which is characterized as “affective filter” (Krashen, 1982).

We all know that in foreign language learning atmosphere, affective filter plays an important role for producing correct pronunciation; learners cannot improve themselves because of the fear of making mistakes in front of the others. Although it is regarded as an important component of foreign language teaching, it is seen that not too much attention has been paid to this phenomenon adequately. Deng et al., (2009) believe that pronunciation is not an aspect of SLA that takes an academic attention. The research proves that the number of the researches conducted to find out the attitudes of learners is limited (Burgess and Spencer, 2000; Derwing, 2010; Foote, Tracey & Derwing, 2010; Elliott, 1995). Burgess and Spencer (2000) carried out a research about the attitudes of instructors in the UK, the results showed that instructors found pronunciation difficult to teach and stated that learners especially had problems about the sounds that were not existent in their L1. Derwing (2010) found through his study that 53 % of the participants thought that “Canadians would respect them more.” if they are good at pronunciation. Thus, the results prove that articulating the correct pronunciation in target language may show the social status of the people or their educational background. As people do not want to be seen different from the rest of the group, they would like to pronounce in a native-like way as much as they can. Another finding of the study of Foote, Tracey & Derwing (2010) reveals that 75 % of the instructors wished they could be trained, and said “Too many teachers avoid teaching pronunciation because they lack confidence in their own ability to succeed it”.

While presenting and learning the target language, motivation, undoubtedly, needs to be taken into consideration. Dörnyei (1998) shows the importance of motivation and makes it clear by saying “Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long term goals.” (p. 117). That is to say, it becomes incredibly difficult to teach if the learners do not want to learn and they use their mental blocks by doing so. Elliott (1995) found out in his study that learners who are concerned with their pronunciation had better pronunciation skills. The same finding was also obtained in Suter’s (1976) study. As communication is the main goal for many foreign language learners, it is true to state that learners should be careful about their pronunciation; pay

utmost attention to its correct production; and try to improve their overall pronunciation skills. In order to attain all these goals, they need to be encouraged and motivated as required. Brown (2001) defines motivation as two opposing camps: one of these stresses the importance of rewards and reinforcement, and the other states the cognitive process in a deeper sense. Writing in the same context, Gass & Selinker (2008) believe that individuals who are motivated will learn another language faster and to a great degree.

The other factor that has a great influence on the correct pronunciation is age of the learners, which is considered as a predictor of acquiring foreign language pronunciation (Granena & Long, 2012). In this vein, Nunan (1998) states that in human life there is a period during which language can be acquired more easily and after that period it becomes much more difficult which is originally suggested by Lenneberg in his Critical Period Hypothesis, (1967). In Turkish students learning English language context, Demirezen (2010) notes that some sounds are difficult for Turkish learners to articulate as they do not exist in the Turkish sound inventory. Negative language transfer from mother tongue can harm the communication, especially when talking to native speakers of English. While talking to non-native speakers of English, as in many classrooms in Turkey, it may not bring about a problem, because all learners go through the same learning stages. English language teachers whose mother tongue is Turkish should be careful so as to be a good model. Hismanoglu (2009) maintains that non-native teachers of English in Turkey do not have phonological competence to teach pronunciation clearly. Teachers' inability results in failure for their learners' competence, too. Pronunciation reveals the person's background if s/he speaks with a foreign accent. Some linguists favour having a foreign accent as they accept it as a part of their identity, while some others do not, considering the fact that negative foreign accent places speakers in a disadvantaged position (Morley, 1991).

1.2. Purpose of the study

This study aims to find out the attitudes of the foreign language learners studying at prep classes towards the pronunciation. The subject groups were requested to specify their opinions on the importance of correct pronunciation in oral communication in the target language. Thus, randomly selected 58 participants attending the English prep program were required to fill in pronunciation attitude inventory (PAI).

2. Method

2.1. Participants

The study was carried out at English preparatory school of a state university in Turkey. The university offers an optional English prep program to students who are willing to study English for a year. Since the study is conducted at a university prep program, the age of the participants ranges from 18 to 22. 58 participants from various departments voluntarily took part in the research. The distribution of the participants by departments is shown in detail in the Table 1.

Table 1. Distribution of the Participants by Departments

Department	Male	Female	Total
Tourism and Hotel Management	18	20	38
Business Administration	7	8	15
Primary School Education	-	2	2
Education and Religion Ethics	-	1	1
Forest Engineering	1	-	1
Psychology	-	1	1
Total	26	32	58

As is clearly seen in the table above, most of the participants (n 38) study in the department of Tourism and Hotel Management where they professionally need the effective use of the target language. 15 of the participants from the department of Business Administration in this survey also will be in need of the foreign language in their future careers. For that reason, the number of the participants from these two departments outnumbers the others. The distribution of the participants by genders in this randomly selected subject group is displayed in the Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of the Participants by Genders

Gender	f	%
Male	26	44.8
Female	32	55.2

2.2. Data collection procedure

In this study, a survey that was adapted from Pronunciation Attitude Inventory (PAI) (Elliott, 1995) has been administered to 58 participants. This survey includes 12 statements about pronunciation, and it is designed in the form of five-point Likert scale ranging from *always* or *always true of me* to *never* or *almost never true of me*. While adapting the survey instrument PAI, some parts have been evaluated and modified in accordance with the purpose of the research. To get the final version of the research instrument two experts in the field were asked to review it. The survey was administered to the research group without giving any time limitation in order to create a relaxed atmosphere while responding.

2.3. Data analysis

The results were analyzed through SPSS 16 program using descriptive statistics and frequencies. Each item has also been analyzed in terms of mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values.

3. Results and discussion

The figures in the Table 3 below show the statistical results of the items in general. As it is clearly seen, there is no missing value, and participants replied to all statements. When we look at the minimum and maximum values, we see that all statements have the maximum value of five which means “*always or almost always true of me*”, as for the minimum values we have the value of one meaning “*never or almost never true of me*” in ten items and we have two statements that have the value of two meaning “*usually not true of me*”, the statements of these answers are “*I believe I can improve my pronunciation skills in English.*” and “*I’m concerned with my progress in my pronunciation of English.*” It means that there is no student thinking absolutely in a negative way about these two statements. It is conceivable that students are careful about their pronunciation skills and want to improve it. However, there are many other things we can say when we take a look at mean values of the survey statistics. Item ten has the highest mean value of 4.33; and item three has the lowest mean value of 2.28. Item ten says “*I want to improve my accent when speaking English*”, item nine says “*I will never be able to speak English with a good accent.*”. Item ten shows the positive attitudes of the participants towards pronunciation in English. Although their level was not excellent, they want to improve their accent, from which we can infer that they are motivated enough to improve themselves, item three explains us the importance of pronunciation very well. Students believe that they can speak English with a good accent; it again shows us the motivation of the students. They do not ignore pronunciation; on the contrary they place a great importance to it.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of the items.

Item	Mean	St.Dev.	Min.	Max.
1	4.22	1.044	1	5
2	4.17	.976	1	5
3	2.28	1.073	1	5
4	4.07	.856	2	5
5	4.16	1.005	1	5
6	4.02	1.084	1	5
7	3.62	1.152	1	5
8	4.21	.969	1	5
9	2.59	1.463	1	5
10	4.33	.825	1	5
11	3.88	.880	2	5
12	3.90	1.087	1	5

The responses given to the items in the questionnaire that intended to figure out the attitudes of the participants prove that correct pronunciation plays an important role in learners’ motivation towards foreign language learning. In this regard, statements 1, 2, 6, 10 and 12 aimed to display participants’ views on learning the target language pronunciation. These statements also intended to depict to what extent they would like to improve their pronunciation in learning the target language.

Table 4. Numbers and Responses of Responses to the Statements 1, 2, 6, 10, and 12.

Item	Statements	Descriptive Statistics (DS)	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	I'd like to sound as native as possible when speaking English.	f	2	2	8	15	31	58
		%	3.4	3.4	13.8	25.9	53.4	100
2	Acquiring proper pronunciation in English is important to me.	f	1	3	8	19	27	58
		%	1.7	5.2	13.8	32.8	46.6	100
6	One of my personal goals is to acquire proper pronunciation skills and preferably be able to pass as a near-native speaker of the language.	f	2	5	6	22	23	58
		%	3.4	8.6	10.3	37.9	39.7	100
10	I want to improve my accent when speaking English	f	1	1	4	24	28	58
		%	1.7	1.7	6.9	41.4	48.3	100
12	Sounding like a native speaker is very important to me.	f	3	2	13	20	20	58
		%	5.2	3.4	22.4	34.5	34.5	100

As it is depicted in the Table 4, learners to a great extent would like to learn target language and use it fluently and in a native-like accent. In the questionnaire item 1 aimed to portray the importance of correct pronunciation for learners, and the results show that they (53.4% and 25.9 %) would like to sound as native as possible while speaking English. This intention is verified with the results given to item 10 with the percentages of 41.4 and 48.3. Furthermore, the results obtained from the statements 2, and 6 revealed that participants (n=46) intend to acquire proper pronunciation in English is important for them, and they aim to use the target language properly (37.9 % and 39.7 %). Being able to sound like a native speaker (Item 12) is the other expectation that the participants would like to attain in foreign language learning process. Although the expectation of learners from the target language learning pronunciation seems ideal for learners, it is safe to say that it is not possible to achieve this aim as the participant's desire due to certain factors such as age, motivation and course syllabuses offered in English preparatory classes.

Table 5. Numbers and Responses of Responses to the Statements 3, 4, and 5.

Item	Statements	Descriptive Statistics (DS)	1	2	3	4	5	Total
3	I will never be able to speak English with a good accent.	f	18	14	19	6	1	58
		%	31.0	24.1	32.8	10.3	1.7	100
4	I believe I can improve my pronunciation skills in English.	f	0	4	7	28	19	58
		%	0	6.9	12.1	48.2	32.8	100
5	I believe more emphasis should be given to proper pronunciation in class.	f	1	1	16	10	30	58
		%	1.7	1.7	27.6	17.3	51.7	100

In items 3 and 4 participants were required to specify their opinions about the possibility of realizing the correct pronunciation while and after learning English. The data obtained from the statement “*I will never be able to speak English with a good accent*” is one of the negative statements in the survey, and it is seen that this statement has the lowest mean score (2, 28) showing that participants do not agree with this statement and think that they can have a good accent (See Table 3). On the other hand, item 4 reveals that participants have the optimistic attitude towards learning the target language pronunciation (48.2 % and 32.8 %). In order to achieve the intended goal, 17.3% and 51,7 % of the learners believe that in each lesson a certain time should specifically be devoted to pronunciation in English language teaching classes.

Table 6. Numbers and Percentages of Responses to the Statements, 7, 8, 9, and 11.

Item	Statements	Descriptive Statistics (DS)	1	2	3	4	5	Total
7	I try to imitate English speakers as much as possible.	f	5	3	14	23	13	58
		%	8.6	5.2	24.1	39.7	22.4	100
8	Communicating is much more important than sounding like a native speaker of English.	f	1	3	7	19	28	58
		%	1.7	5.2	12.1	32.8	48.3	100
9	Good pronunciation skills in English are not as important as learning vocabulary and grammar.	f	20	10	10	10	8	58
		%	34.5	17.2	17.2	17.2	13.8	100
11	I'm concerned with my progress in my pronunciation of English.	f	0	4	14	25	15	58
		%	0	6.9	24.1	43.1	25.9	100

Item seven says that “*I try to imitate English speakers as much as possible*”. It has the tenth highest mean score, showing that students do not agree with the idea. Although they are motivated enough to improve their pronunciation skills, they want to do that without imitating English speakers. The results for the statement 8 indicate that 47 (81.1%) of the participants stress the real function of language, which is communication. That is to say, respondents are more motivated about pronunciation but they believe that communication has the prior importance. In contrast, as the data obtained from the statement 9 in Table 4 show learners believe the importance of pronunciation and accept it as one of the most important aspects of language such as grammar or vocabulary. 20 (34.5 %) of the respondents have the belief that correct pronunciation in communication is as important as lexical and syntactic knowledge in target language. It is seen that this view is supported with the responses given to the item 11 in that foreign language learners are generally concerned with the progress in their pronunciation of English.

4. Conclusion

This study aimed to explore the views of the students on the importance of pronunciation in foreign language learning. The results obtained from the questionnaire reveal that learners have a great tendency to be able to use the target language not only syntactically but also phonetically. To do this, the participants would like to be offered the target language pronunciation appropriately in a foreign language learning setting. Needless to say, pronunciation plays a crucial role in communication, and it can bring about intelligibility problems. For that reason, it can be stated that foreign language learners should be exposed to the target language not only in written but also orally in order to acquire the sound system correctly. So, the teacher with mispronunciation is the fundamental reason for miscommunication among the learners. In this vein, Thomson (1987) notes that teacher with a strong Turkish accent may damage learners’ potential pronunciation abilities. What is more, current teachers’ phonological awareness should be raised; they should know that pronunciation is not a skill that students can learn on their own, but a special effort needs to be spent on. Although Critical Period Hypothesis (Lenneberg, 1967) strongly advocates that it is virtually impossible for adults to acquire native like pronunciation in a foreign language, it is advisable that foreign language classes should give importance to pronunciation; certain limit of time (such as 10 minutes for each lesson) should be dedicated to pronunciation specially.

As aforementioned, pronunciation is one of the most important aspects of a language. Considering the fact that it is usually neglected and is not appreciated properly, this study intended to present the attitudes of the students towards pronunciation in English. The results of the study prove that students are very motivated and hopeful about their pronunciation skills, and they also believe that they can improve their skills and achieve good foreign accent without imitating the native speakers. The other significant finding of this study indicates that participants to a great extent have a belief in common that pronunciation conveys a great role in establishing a mutual intelligibility, which is an essential component of communication competence (Morley, 1991). What is meant by intelligibility is the degree to which a speaker’s utterance is understood by a listener. Therefore, it is safe to say that teachers should ideally include components of pronunciation in their courses and expect students to do well (Otlowski, 1998). In this respect, what is expected from the foreign language teachers should be to stress on the intelligibility of speech. In other words, mutual intelligibility need to be the modus operandi when considering what should be taught.

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APPENDIX A**The Pronunciation Attitude Inventory (PAI)**

Please answer all items using the following response categories:

5= Always or almost always true of me

4= Usually true of me

3= Somewhat true of me

2= Usually not true of me

1= Never or almost never true of me

1. I'd like to sound as native as possible when speaking English.				
1	2	3	4	5
2. Acquiring proper pronunciation in English is important to me.				
1	2	3	4	5
3. I will never be able to speak English with a good accent.				
1	2	3	4	5
4. I believe I can improve my pronunciation skills in English.				
1	2	3	4	5
5. I believe more emphasis should be given to proper pronunciation in class.				
1	2	3	4	5
6. One of my personal goals is to acquire proper pronunciation skills and preferably be able to pass as a near-native speaker of the language.				
1	2	3	4	5
7. I try to imitate English speakers as much as possible.				
1	2	3	4	5
8. Communicating is much more important than sounding like a native speaker of English.				
1	2	3	4	5
9. Good pronunciation skills in English are not as important as learning vocabulary and grammar.				
1	2	3	4	5
10. I want to improve my accent when speaking English.				
1	2	3	4	5
11. I'm concerned with my progress in my pronunciation of English.				
1	2	3	4	5
12. Sounding like a native speaker is very important to me.				
1	2	3	4	5

(Adapted from Elliott, 1995)

Hedef dili sesletimi öğrenmenin önemi konusunda yabancı dil öğrenenlerin görüşleri

Öz

İngilizcenin yabancı veya ikinci dil olarak öğretiminde sesletim konusu tartışmalı alanlardan birisidir. Bu çalışmanın amacı Kastamonu Üniversitesi İngilizce Hazırlık Programı'na devam eden öğrencilerin sesletim eğitimi konusunda görüşlerini belirlemektir. Bu amaçla, işletme, ormancılık, turizm vb. gibi bölümlere kayıtlı 58 öğrenci bu çalışmaya katılmıştır. Katılımcılardan beşli Likert ölçeğine göre hazırlanmış 12 ayrı konuda görüş bildirmeleri istenmiştir. Tanımlayıcı istatistik uygulanan bu çalışma verileri SPSS 16 programında yorumlanmıştır. Elde edilen sonuçlara göre katılımcılar yabancı dil öğrenirken doğru sesletimin önemli olduğunu belirttiği görülmektedir. Ayrıca sesletim konusunun yabancı dil öğretimi sürecinde ders izlencelerinde yer almasının gerekliliği ve ilgili öğretim elemanının da bu konu üzerinde durması gerektiği vurgulanmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: sesletim, tutum, yetişkin öğrenciler, yabancı dil öğretimi

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Teaching Short Stories to Students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at Tertiary Level

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Abstract

Tertiary English Language teachers often tend to focus on teaching vocational English skills, improving students' grammatical structure, vocabulary and other standard forms of linguistic expression. Unabridged and authentic literary texts are seldom introduced to the language classroom, either because most teachers see literature as difficult or inappropriate for teaching English (Savvidou, 2004), or that foreign students at the tertiary level are not interested in pure academic and literary discussion of English literature, which they feel no direct relation to their everyday experience (Williams, 1983). Yet, the mastery of English language skills means much more than just linguistic accuracy. EFL learners should be given opportunities to develop cultural sensitivity and reading strategies towards various text types, including literary texts. In light of this, the aim of this paper is to suggest ways in which English teachers could integrate literature into a language class. In this paper, I will use "The Snow Child", a two-page fractured fairytale from Angela Carter's *The Bloody Chamber* (1979), as an example to demonstrate how short stories can be taught in an EFL class. I will outline my teaching treatment for the short story, which has been tried out in EFL classes with positive results. The paper will illustrate how Angela Carter's fractured fairy tale can be taught and explored through a reader-centred approach. Follow up writing activities for consolidation will be provided as well.

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Keywords: Angela Carter; fractured fairytale; reader-response approach; teaching literature

1. Introduction

Traditionally, English language and literature are perceived as two distinct subjects. To many, EFL teachers and students included, English language learning is about the mastery of the basic mechanics of everyday, ordinary English speech and writing, whereas literature is a form of high art. It is often viewed as hard, sophisticated, and "has no immediately apparent applicability to anything in the students' experience" (Williams, 1983, p. 327). It was not until recent decades that literature began to gain attention among EFL teachers.

While it is now commonly agreed that "the use of literature in the EFL classroom can provide a powerful pedagogical tool in learners' linguistic development" (Savvidou, 2004), recent research has revealed that teachers do not seem to feel comfortable teaching literature in class. It is found that teachers have a high tendency to employ the mechanistic paraphrastic approach and the information-based

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approach when teaching the literature component in English to students (Huang and Embi, 2007). For example, during literature lessons, the teacher will have the entire literary text read aloud to the whole class again and again. Next, the teacher will paraphrase certain technical or unfamiliar terms with simple words and give plain explanation of the text. Then, to check students' understanding of the literary texts, the teacher will ask students to work on comprehension exercises and elicit responses from students through close-ended questions. Not surprisingly, such traditional, teacher-centred literature lessons mostly end with disappointing results. Teachers are labeled as "dull and less creative" (Huang and Embi, 2007, p. 2), whereas students are seen to be "passive" and are "unable to respond critically" (Huang and Embi, 2007, p. 2).

In fact, learning and teaching literature in the EFL classroom can be both enjoyable and meaningful, so long as the English teacher uses the reader-response approach and design learning activities that are meaning-driven, reader-centred and unthreatening. In this paper, I will use 'The Snow Child', a short fairy tale from Angela Carter's *The Bloody Chamber* (1979), as an example to show how literary texts can be used to develop reading interest, as well as improve EFL students' English language skills in the tertiary EFL classroom setting. I will first briefly introduce the background of Angela Carter, the author, and her work. Next, step-by-step, I will provide a plot synopsis of "The Snow Child", key text features, together with my interpretation and response to the story. When teachers are given hands-on information on how to make meaning with Angela Carter's short story, I will then outline suggested pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities that can help students to maintain a high level of interest throughout the learning process.

2. Background of Angela Carter and her fairy tales

Angela Carter (1940 - 1992) is an established 20th-century British writer of novels, short stories, non-fiction, radio plays, film scripts, poetry, children's fiction and journalism. She was also the winner of the John Llewellyn Rhys Prize in 1967, the Somerset Maugham Award in 1968, and the joint-winner of the James Tait Black Memorial Award in 1984 (Clapp, 2006). Among the many genres she wrote, Carter is particularly well-known for her feminist adaptations of fairy tales. Unwilling to take the fairytale genre as innocent and comforting, in *The Bloody Chamber* (1979), Carter unearths the latent content and reveals the violently sexual nature hidden in traditional stories. Fairy tales such as "Snow White", "The Sleeping Beauty", "Bluebeard", and "The Little Red Riding Hood" are subversively retold – sleeping beauty becomes a vampire, Red Riding Hood transforms herself into a wolf, and Alice is an untamed werewolf. Being hailed as a 'Fairy Godmother' and 'the white witch of English literature' (Cited in Gamble, 2001, p. 110 - 111), Carter has now become one of the most studied modern writers on college and university syllabuses. The criticism of her work can be found in academic disciplines such as literary theory, gender studies, film theory, cultural theory and philosophy (Gamble, 2001). In the following, I will focus on discussing the plot development and text features of one of Carter's most renowned fairy tales, "The Snow Child".

3. Plot synopsis of *The Snow Child*

"The Snow Child" is adapted from the classic fairy tale of "Snow White". At the beginning of the story, a Count and his wife are riding horses in the snow. As the Count sees a raven and some bloodstain on the white snow, he wishes he could have a girl whose skin is as white as snow, mouth as red as blood and hair as black as a raven's feather. Suddenly, his dream girl appears in front of his eyes, all naked. The Count then takes her onto his horse.

Jealous of the snow child, the Countess thinks of different ways to get rid of the girl – she drops her glove and asks the girl to fetch it; she intentionally throws her brooch into the ice-cold pond and orders the girl to dive in and get it. Yet each time as the child is about to obey her order, the Count gets in the way and stops the child from following the Countess's request. What is more, the Countess's boots jump from her feet onto the snow child's legs, leaving the Countess's feet naked, unclothed and cold. Next, they come to a rose bush. The Countess tells the girl to pick a rose for her. As the girl picks the flower, she pricks her finger, it bleeds, she faints and dies.

What happens then is that the Count gets off the horse and rapes the dead child in front of his wife. When he finishes, the corpse melts away like ice, leaving only a raven's feather, a bloodstain on the snow and a rose. The Countess puts the clothing back onto herself, and the Count gives her the rose. Yet as she touches the rose, she drops it instantly because it bites her.

4. Text features

One of the most apparent features manifested in Angela Carter's "The Snow Child" is the narrative structure (namely the introduction, rising action, climax, falling action, and resolution) and motif the text employs. Same as the traditional pattern of fairy tales, "The Snow Child" is a fairy tale told by the third person omniscient narrator. The story has no historical actuality. Definite time, venue and names of the characters are absent. Simple, archetypal characters like the beautiful, innocent maiden as the victim, the Count as the sadistic male, and the jealous, scheming Countess as the stepmother occur in the text. In addition, as in most fairy tales, the repetitive plot, fantasy and illogical scenarios are taken as 'normal' by the characters. Magical transformations such as snow turning into a child and the child melting into ice-water appear in a surrealistic setting. All these features remind readers of the typical fairy tales they have come across beforehand.

What is intriguing is that while the text imitates the narrative style of fairy tales, adult wit is added. The language and content are so explicitly sexual and violent that the story is hardly suitable for children. Like a dark, inverted version of *Snow White*, themes such as child abandonment, rivalry between women, incest, rape, murder are unearthed. The unequal gender relations between men and women are polarized and amplified – the male is in the subject position. He has the power to imagine and create a "child of his desire", "a masculine fantasy" (Bacchilega, 1999, p. 37) which he can deflower anytime and any way he wants. He also has the power to dress and undress his wife, i.e. the Countess as he wishes. The female characters, on the other hand, are portrayed as inferior, pathetic sexual objects that are born to please their male master. For example, when the Count rapes the unconscious child, the powerless Countess sits on the mare, keeps quiet, watches narrowly and does nothing to stop the abuse. Then, once the sexual whim of the Count is fulfilled, the snow child melts and disappears, because she is not valuable to the male any more. Also, in the male-controlled world, the two women cannot co-exist in the story. As rivals, only one of them can win the attention and love of the man. To survive, they must fight against each other, and until one of them dies can the other have peace. That is why the Countess has to try very hard to get rid of the snow child, fearing that the girl might replace her. Apart from sexual politics, Carter's short story is also full of rich, enigmatic symbolism, which can be interpreted in different ways. For instance, the rose that pricks both the snow child and the Countess can be read as a symbol of virginity or femininity, depending on how one looks at it.

5. Understanding and interpretation of *The Snow Child*

Carter's "The Snow Child" is a disruptive adaptation of Brothers Grimm's *Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs* (1937). Reading it from a feminist perspective, one can interpret the short story as a note of caution and resistance against the patriarchal social construct. Through exaggerating the sexist

characteristics in conventional fairy tales, it shows readers the hidden danger of reinforcing the message to children that physical attractiveness is an important asset for women to achieve and maintain. Having said so, because of the pornographic content and highly sexualized language, it may take readers some time to accept Carter's version. Apart from difficult issues such as masculine evil and sadomasochism, the fairy tale is also overwhelmed with ambiguous and intricate imagery. Nonetheless, as Bruhl and Gamer (2001) point out, the discomfort in reading and understanding the literary text does not necessarily have to be negative. Readers are free to construct meaning from their own experience. As long as Carter's short story is used effectively in the classroom, the discomfort can be converted into reading pleasure, which attracts students' attention and raise their awareness towards gender issues. Difficult as it may seem, it can work as "a means of reminding students that they have seen stories like this before" (Bruhl and Gamer, p. 155), that the Disney or the 'Shrek' version gets classified as entertainment, while Carter's less acceptable adaptation gets dismissed as feminist. It will stimulate students to take an active role in learning, reflecting and looking again at how it is that these texts (the Disney version, the 'Shrek' version, Carter's rewriting, as well as Grimm's fairy tales) actually work.

Furthermore, since most students are familiar with the fairytale genre, it is expected that Carter's subversive rewriting will arouse their interest and curiosity. The obscure text will provide a good platform for free interpretation and discussion among students, which thereby facilitates students' personal expression and creates opportunities for practicing linguistic and communicative skills. A short story like "The Snow Child" can be a good start for a student-centred literature class, in which students can develop their own responses and sensitivities towards literary texts, as well as "submit their individual or collective judgments for approval either to their peers or to the teacher" (Carter and Long, 1991, p. 25).

6. Methodological strategies in teaching *The Snow Child*

Considering EFL learners' reading ability as well as the rich and obscure imagery in the tiny tale, in the lesson, it would be more interesting to employ mainly the reader-response approach (Hirvela, 1996). In other words, instead of playing the secondary role to the text in the response process, students will be the ones who bring "forces into play" (Hirvela, 1996, p. 130) when they read the literary text. The personal response and interpretation they share with the class will be "a reflection of themselves as well as the text" (Hirvela, 1996, p. 130).

6.1. Teaching treatment for the pre-reading

To help students gain a better understanding of the crucial elements in fairy tales, before the close reading of "The Snow Child", the teacher can play a short clip extracted from Disney's *Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs* (1937) to refresh their memory about the classic fairy tale. Then, the teacher may ask students to work in pairs, share and jot down the impressions they have of fairy tales – students can be encouraged to discuss:

1. what they think a fairy tale is;
2. whether they like fairy tales or not;
3. their favourite fairy tales and protagonists, if any;
4. whether fairy tales are suitable for children as well as adults in EFL classes;
5. whether the genre reflects experience of what happens in the real world;
6. whether fairy tales represent events which are true to their experience,
7. whether there are any interesting adaptations they have read and watched on TV.

Then, the teacher can put students in groups of four to five. Each group will be asked to discuss one question: What are the common features of fairy tales? After the discussion, the group will then be asked to give a brief account of what they have come up with. It is believed that such pre-reading activities will “draw out what they already know, think or feel about a topic and help [to] relate the text to their personal experiences” (Kennedy, 1999, p. 47).

6.2. *Teaching treatment for the reading*

As Parkinson and Thomas suggest (2000), instead of giving a standard interpretation of the text at the beginning, teaching can start with the story itself. Students can be encouraged to explore what they find significant in the text. First of all, students can be asked to have a close reading of “The Snow Child”, which is only two pages long. After that, students will write a summary of events in the tale in 100 words. If they like, they can also summarize the story in the format of flow chart(s) and/or diagrams. Next, students can work in pairs and compare what they have written in the summary. Note that there should not be a model answer for the summarizing exercise, nor should it be reduced to a test of students’ spelling, grammar and punctuation. Rather, the summarizing exercise should be a channel for students to describe freely what they see and feel as significant and special about Angela Carter’s fairy tale. Then, to motivate students to get more deeply involved with the short story, the teacher can ask students to get into groups of four to five again and discuss with their group-mates these thought-provoking questions:

1. What do you think is the central theme of the fairy tale?
2. What is the author trying to say through the tale?
3. What do you think the rose symbolize?
4. Why did the snow child melt in the end?

After the discussion, the groups can be invited to give a presentation of their interpretation(s) in front of the class. When all groups have finished their oral presentations, the teacher can share with the class his/her viewpoint. A brief account of Angela Carter’s life and work, historical and cultural settings of the tale can then be delivered to the class. The teacher may also guide students how the text can be read from a feminist perspective. If time allows, the teacher can ask students to recall any fairy tales (such as *Snow White* or *Sleeping Beauty*) that they may think of when reading Carter’s text. The teacher can then tell them the gruesome original versions of some classic fairy tales with students, tracing the background of these fairy tales as well as Carter’s “The Snow Child”.

6.3. *Teaching treatment for the post-reading (follow-up)*

After the lesson, EFL students can be given a writing task: first, they can choose a fairy tale that they would like to work on. Then, basing on the traditional narrative pattern and style of the fairy tale genre, students can rewrite the chosen fairy tale creatively in about 500 words. They can then post their creative work onto a discussion board online, so that they can read each other’s creative writing, express their ideas and share their views and comments about one another’s fairy tale.

7. Conclusion

Although teaching literature in the EFL classroom may require more preparation than teaching the straight-forward and conventional mechanics of English language, we cannot deny that the literature component in English, when used effectively, can be a useful resource not just for language learning, but also for cultivating students’ cultural and critical literacies. As Parker (2004) argues, the study

of literature can be justified as a “broad education in the humanities, as a way of teaching students how to think...as something to be enjoyed; as a form of art; as the site of some of humanity’s deepest ethical, political and philosophical questioning” (p. 42). I believe that the English curriculum, especially at the tertiary level, should not be limited to the study of functional aspects of English language, but should encompass life-wide learning and a broader appreciation of literature, so as to develop intellectual pursuits of EFL students.

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İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen üniversite öğrencilerine kısa öykü öğretimi

Öz

Yükseköğretim İngilizce dil öğretmenleri genellikle öğrencilerin gramer yapı, kelime ve dil ifadelerinin diğer standart yapı bilgilerini geliştiren mesleki İngilizce becerilerinin öğretimine yoğunlaşma eğilimi göstermektedirler. Çoğu öğretmenlerin edebiyatı İngilizce öğretimi açısından zor veya uygunsuz bulmaları (Savvidou, 2004) ya da yükseköğretim düzeyinde yabancı öğrencilerin kendi günlük deneyimleriyle birebir bağlantı olmadığını hissettikleri İngiliz edebiyatının edebi ve sade akademik tartışmasına ilgi duymamaları (Williams, 1983) nedeniyle, orijinal ve özgün edebi metinler nadiren dil sınıflarında sunulmaktadır. Buna rağmen İngilizce dil becerilerinde yeterlik sadece dil doğruluğundan çok daha fazlasını gerektirmektedir. İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenenlere kültürel duyarlılık ve edebi metinleri içeren çeşitli metin türlerine yönelik okuma stratejilerini geliştirmeleri için fırsatlar verilmelidir. Bu doğrultuda, bu çalışmanın amacı İngilizce öğretmenlerinin edebiyatı dil sınıfına dâhil etmenin yollarını önermektir. Bu çalışmada, Angela Carter'ın *The Bloody Chamber* (1979) eserinden iki sayfa olarak derlenmiş *The Snow Child* masalını İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği sınıflarda kısa hikâyelerin nasıl öğretileceğini göstermek üzere örnek olarak kullanacağım. Çalışma Angela Carter'ın masalının okuyucu-merkezli yaklaşımla nasıl öğretileceği ve inceleneceğini örnekleyecektir. Tekrar amaçlı tamamlayıcı yazma aktiviteleri de sunulacaktır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Angela Carter; derlenmiş masal; okuyucu-tepki yaklaşımı; edebiyat öğretimi

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A cross-sectional study of Iranian EFL learners' polite and impolite apologies

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Abstract

Successful communication is the joint product of linguistic as well the sociolinguistic competence, with the latter competence denoting appropriateness which is closely associated with politeness. The present study aimed to investigate the politeness strategies employed by Iranian EFL learners in the speech act of apology. Data were collected from 30 EFL learners who responded to a discourse completion task (DCT) which realized the speech act of apology consisted of six situations. Data analysis consisted of three phases. First, to identify the apology strategies and politeness strategies, the study followed Olshtain and Cohen's (1983) taxonomy of apology strategies and Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory, respectively. Second, 90 apology utterances, comprising 50% of the total number of utterances, were assessed by two native speakers of English on a politeness Likert scale of 1=Polite, 2=Partially Polite and 3=Impolite. Finally, drawing on the native speaker assessment of (im)politeness of the apology utterances, the researchers analyzed the utterances qualitatively in terms of appropriacy and inappropriacy. The results indicated that a) Native speakers rated 27 (30%) apology utterances as polite, 40 (44.5%) as partially polite and 23 (25.5%) as impolite.; b) the most frequent apology strategies were an 'expression of regret', 'an explanation or account of the situation', 'expressing self-deficiency' and 'an offer of repair'; c) there was a significant difference between males and females with regard to their use of politeness strategies in apology; and d) the participants relied on negative and positive politeness strategies when apologizing. In conclusion, Iranian EFL learners were only partially sociolinguistically competent in apology.

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Keywords: apology strategies; EFL learners; politeness; pragmatic competence

1. Introduction

Communication inevitably entails individuals committing wrong deeds and impinging on each other. To compensate for such unfortunate events in social life, interlocutors need to verbally mitigate the threat they have posed others to by apologizing in one way or another. To be polite enough in their apologies, language learners are required to apologize appropriately. That is to say, they need to possess pragmatic competence, or to be more precise, sociolinguistic competence, in order to avoid breakdowns and misunderstandings in communication.

An apology is a speech act that is required when the speaker has committed some behavior that has proved 'costly' to the hearer (Ellis, 2012). As an expressive illocutionary act, an apology is defined as "a speech act addressed to V's face-needs to remedy an offence for which A takes responsibility, and

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thus to restore equilibrium between A and V (where A is the apologist, and V is the victim or person offended" (Holmes 1989, as cited in Jebahi, 2011, p. 649). The speaker should admit responsibility for and employ strategies to demonstrate appropriate apologetic behavior. These apology strategies are summarized in Table 1. Apologies are speaker-oriented and while they save the hearer's face, they threaten the speaker's negative face (Ogiermann, 2009). Ellis (2012) argues that compared to requests, there may not be substantial cross-cultural differences in realizing apologies. According to Ogiermann, apologies attend to the hearer's negative face. Holmes (1989) argues that apologies are inherently polite. The taxonomy of apology strategies, adopted from Olshtain and Cohen (1983, as cited in Ellis, 2012, p. 183) is presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Taxonomy of apology strategies

Strategy	Semantic formulas
1 An expression of an apology a expression of regret	I'm sorry.
b an offer of apology	I apologize.
c a request for forgiveness	Excuse me.
2 An explanation or account of the situation	The bus was late.
3 An acknowledgement of responsibility	
a accepting the blame	It's my fault.
b expressing self-deficiency	I wasn't thinking.
c recognizing the other person as deserving apology	You are right.
d expressing lack of intent	I didn't mean to.
4 An offer of repair	I'll pay for the broken vase.
5 A promise of forbearance	It won't happen again.

The study set out to shed light on the strategies used by Iranian EFL learners when apologizing. It also investigated the politeness strategies used by Iranian EFL learners in apology when they are confronted with addressees with higher, lower and equal power status. Finally, the extent of pragmatic competence among Iranian EFL learners in the polite performance of apology was gauged.

1.1. Literature review

1.2. Previous research on apology

The line of research on the speech act of apology has been considerably rich and rigorous. The effort to classify the ways interlocutors apologize and request in different languages and cultures into a set of strategies that were able to account for all situations was initiated by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), who pioneered a study known as the Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Patterns (CCSARP). The study findings resulted in a classification of the apology and request strategies which have been long used by a large number of researchers. For instance, Scher and Darley (1997), drawing on the CCSARP study, examined the effects of four of the five apology strategies identified by Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), concluding that there was a correspondence between different apology strategies and their effects on the hearer. Holmes' (1989) study was an attempt to scrutinize the effect of gender on the realization patterns of apologies among New Zealanders, indicating that there were significant differences in the distribution of apologies with regard to sex. In another study of apologies, Wagner (1999), rejecting the universality of the speech act of apology across cultures

and societies, argued that such factors as the offences that initiate an apology are culture-specific, determined by the norms of the society. Wagner carried out her study using written questionnaires and ethnographic notebook recordings to collect data from two speech communities in Mexico and Spain. The study results revealed differences in the use of apology strategies by males and females. Wagner concluded that the view that the universality of the speech act characterizations of apology is problematic.

The study of 'sorry' as an expression of apology and sympathy in the Pacific community in the creole language of Bislama, which is spoken in Vanuatu, showed that this expression is used more frequently by women than men (Meyerhoof, 1999). Schumann and Ross's (2010) study about the common stereotype that women apologizing more frequently than men lent evidence to this stereotype. Nureddeen (2007) demonstrated that power relationships impacted on the use of a universal trend in utilizing apology strategies. In another study, Alfattah (2010) showed that Yemeni EFL learners assumed that all apologies are required to be accompanied or initiated by a statement of regret. Al-Zumor (2011) stressed the pragmatic transfer in his study of Arab learners' use of apology strategies, observing deviations in the use of apology strategies from those of the native speakers of English. Murad (2012) investigated the way Israeli-Arab EFL students apologized to their university lecturers, finding that the two most frequently used apology strategies were 'expression of apology' and 'acknowledgment of responsibility'. Explicit teaching and its effect on the pragmatic development of EFL learners has also been the focus of attention of some researchers. In another study of 500 apology exchanges occurring in natural settings it was shown that Persian speakers used an expression of apology more frequently than any other strategy (Shariati & Chamani, 2010). In another recent study, the apologetic behavior of 40 undergraduate university students was examined (Tehrani, Rezaei & Dezhara, 2012). The results showed that statement of remorse was the most common strategy and that there were sex differences in the distribution of apologies.

As can be seen from this review of apology research, most studies have focused on the realization patterns of apologies. The ability to apologize in an appropriate way, however, has not been fully investigated.

Apologetic behavior is of obvious significance in social life since avoiding impingement on other individuals' freedom of action is almost impossible, hence the possibility of committing wrong actions towards others and therefore the necessity of mastering polite apologetic behavior. Therefore, EFL learners are required to acquire this aspect of the social life with considerable effort to achieve successful communication.

1.3. Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory

Politeness has been defined as "a property associated with an utterance in which, according to the hearer, the speaker has neither exceeded any rights nor failed to fulfill any obligations" (Fraser, 1975 as cited in Hei, David & Kia, 2013, p. 6). In this regard, Brown and Levinson's (1987) Politeness Theory is believed to be the most influential theory developed ever (Lindblom, 2006). According to this theory, individuals are required to adhere to the politeness conventions by minimizing the threat posed by the face-threatening acts (FTAs), like apology, complaint and so forth, to the addressee's or speaker's face, whether negative or positive. Brown and Levinson postulated that all speech acts face-threatening, either to H's or S's face (Terkourafi, 2004). The weightiness (W) of an FTA is assessed by use of a specific formula proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) involving three essential components: power (P), social distance (D) and the rating of the imposition (Rx) (Harris, 2007):

$$W_x = D(S, H) + P(H, S) + R_x$$

(S = speaker, H = hearer)

In this formula, P refers to the power that the hearer has over the speaker. For instance, necessarily a boss has more power relative to a worker and so does a university professor relative to a student. D relates to the distance that the interlocutors maintain from each other which can range from very high as in two strangers to very low as in two close friends. R_x refers to "the culturally and situationally specified ranking of the imposition entailed by FTAs" (Terkourafi, 2004, p. 119). These factors determine the seriousness or weightiness of an FTA and consequently the level of politeness involved. The more serious an FTA is and the more its weightiness, the higher the level of the linguistic mitigation should be.

Power is one of the three main dimensions that influence the politeness strategy that is chosen by interlocutors. Therefore, it sounds reasonable to maintain that to be pragmatically competent in terms of politeness the EFL learner should possess a full understanding of the dynamics of the power relationships among the interlocutors. Very few studies, Harris added, have attempted to address the relationship between politeness and power. Thus, the present study is motivated by the paucity of research studies in this respect. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), politeness is a universal notion and has underlying universals of usage that can be applied to different cultures. They proposed five politeness strategies for dealing with FTAs as shown in Figure 1 below (Vinagre, 2008, p. 1026):

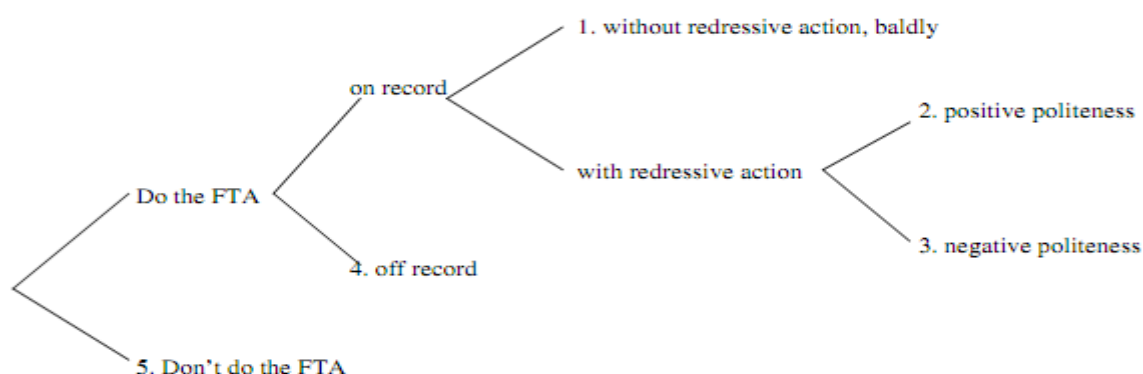


Figure 1. Brown and Levinson's (1987) possible strategies for doing an FTA

It is worth noting that these strategies pose different degrees of risk to S's or H's face as shown in the following figure. (Ogiermann, 2009, p. 12):

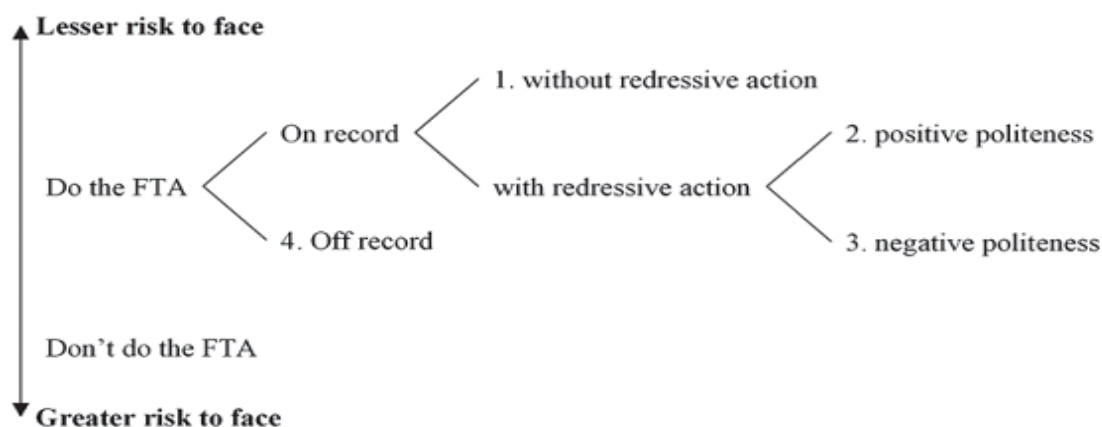


Figure 2. *The degree of risk of politeness strategies*

In a bald on record politeness strategy no mitigating device is used to redress the threat of an FTA and when such redressing devices are used the result is in positive or negative politeness strategies. The former recognizes respect and mutual relation by use of such devices as in-group markers (e. g., honey, darling, etc.) while in the latter type of strategy the speaker admits to the imposition by, say, apologizing (e. g., I'm sorry). Off record politeness utilizes hints, allusions, and so forth, and thus avoids direct FTAs (Hei, David & Kia, 2013). 'Do not do FTA strategy' is when the speaker opts for not doing an FTA altogether because of the face loss involved. In Figure 2 the politeness strategies are numbered according to their amount of face-redress that is necessary for the FTA to sound polite (Ogiermann, 2009). Other things being equal, therefore, the most impolite politeness strategy is bald on record and the most polite is 'Do not do FTA'.

1.4. Research questions

The current study set out to find answers to the following research questions:

1. What are the most frequent apology strategies used by Iranian EFL learners across gender?
2. Is there any significant difference between males and females in their use of apology strategies?
3. What are the politeness strategies used by Iranian EFL learners across interlocutor power?
4. Is there any significant difference between males and females in their use of politeness strategies in apology?
5. How do native English speakers evaluate Iranian EFL learners' apology utterances on the politeness Likert scale?

2. Method

2.1. Participants

The sample of the study consisted of 30 graduate students of English, 15 females and 15 males. The participants all majored in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), either students of MA or holders of MA in TEFL, and their age ranged from 23 to 31. Since MA Examination held in Iran includes various parts like grammar, vocabulary, reading and cloze test and the students pass advanced writing course in both BA and MA tertiary levels, so the participants were supposed to have

attained a high level of academic proficiency. Almost all of them comprised of teachers of English in various language institutes, public or private, with various years of teaching experience from 2 to 10 years. Therefore, they were supposed to have been exposed to the English language, and subsequently to the English culture, fully enough to be able to function in the target culture. It is worth mentioning that almost all of the participants came from the same language background with Persian being their first language. It is worth noting that all the participants had declared that they had not received any explicit instruction as to how to apologize in English till the time this study was conducted and that all their information came from implicit learning in high school or university.

2.2. Instrument

The DCT which is used to elicit data for the speech act of apology in this study was adopted from Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984). In the DCT the interlocutors' relative power are shown in the order of speaker to hearer (addressee). For instance, in 'Low-High', the speaker is of a lower relative power relative to the hearer who is superior, hence the asymmetry of the relationship. Power is shown using +P for a situation in which the hearer is of lower social power, -P when the hearer is of higher social status and =P when the hearer and speaker are of equal power statuses. More information on the situations of the DCT is presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2. The variables underlying the construction of apology situations

No.	Situations	Power
1	Failing to read paper	(+P) High-Low
2	Borrowed book forgotten	(-P) Low-High
3	Late for job interview	(+P) High-Low
4	Classmate offended	(=P) Equals
5	Late for meeting	(=P) Equals
6	Crucial meeting forgotten	(-P) Low-High

2.3. The study

The present study is a cross-sectional one; that is, it investigates “a cross section (sample) of a population at a single point in time” (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010, p. 377). Cross-sectional studies are, therefore, contrasted with longitudinal studies which serve to examine the route of development of a sample of population over time. In the same vein, the current study takes one snapshot of pragmatic competence, or to be more precise, the sociolinguistic competence of Iranian EFL learners and examines it as it is, and not as it has developed. The impetus for choosing the cross-sectional method instead of the longitudinal method, is the fact the former is far easier to carry out than the latter which requires an extended time commitment and observation on the part of the researcher although the latter is more valuable (Ellis, 2012).

2.4. Data analysis

The data were analyzed in four phases. In the first phase, the taxonomy of apology strategies was employed in this study to identify and code the strategies utilized by the participants when apologizing. This taxonomy was first outlined by Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989b). This set of strategies consisted of five main strategies as follows: 1) an expression of an apology, 2) an explanation or account of the situation, 3) an acknowledgement of responsibility, 4) an offer of repair and 5) a promise of forbearance. These strategies also comprise sub-strategies. For instance, the first

strategy, an expression of apology, can be realized through an expressing regret, offering apology or by requesting forgiveness. The second phase included identifying the politeness strategies employed in the data. Next, a sample of 90 apology utterances was presented to two English native speakers who were asked to assess the degree of politeness of the utterances on a scale of 1=Polite, 2=Partially Polite and 3=Impolite. Finally, the apologetic behavior of the participants was qualitatively analyzed and discussed, explicating elements of politeness and impoliteness. Descriptive statistics are commonly used in speech act research and, accordingly, they were utilized in this study. Chi-square analysis was used to explore if there was any significant relationship between males' and females' use of apology strategies and politeness strategies.

3. Results

The current study aimed to scrutinize the apologetic behavior of Iranian EFL learners in terms of appropriacy and politeness. Since politeness is closely associated with power and social status, the study also set out to identify the way that Iranian EFL learners dealt with the interlocutors' relative power when apologizing. Following the presentation of results in statistics, the findings will be exemplified and qualitatively discussed. The results are presented below.

3.1. The most frequently used apology strategies

As the first aim of the study, the most frequent apology strategies used by Iranian EFL learners were identified. The results of the type and frequency of the apology strategies are presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of apology strategies across gender

Apology strategy	Group				Total
	Male		Female		
	No	Percent	No	Percent	
1 An expression of an apology					
a expression of regret	47	47.9	51	52	98 (30%)
b an offer of apology	6	33.3	12	66.6	18 (5.5%)
c a request for forgiveness	13	56.5	10	43.5	23 (7%)
2 An explanation or account of the situation	25	39	39	60.9	64 (19.6%)
3 An acknowledgement of responsibility					
a accepting the blame	0	0	4	100	4 (1.2%)
b expressing self-deficiency	19	44.2	24	55.8	43 (13.1%)
c recognizing the other person as deserving apology	2	40	3	60	5 (1.5%)
d expressing lack of intent	12	44.4	15	55.5	27 (8.2%)
4 An offer of repair	21	55.3	17	44.7	38 (11.6%)
5 A promise of forbearance	2	28.6	5	71.4	7 (2.1%)
Total	147	44.9	180	55	327 (100%)

Table 3 shows that of the total number of 327 apology utterances, the four most frequently used apology strategies include *an expression of regret* (30%), *an explanation or account of the situation* (19.6%), *expressing self-deficiency* (13.1%) and *an offer of repair* (11.6%).

According to Bataineh and Bataineh (2006), a successful apology has some felicity conditions including an acknowledgment that an offence has taken place, taking responsibility for the offence and offering repair or compensation to the victim. As can be seen, of the strategies mentioned by Bataineh and Bataineh, only two have been employed by the participants. Furthermore, the tendency among the participants towards expressing regret and explaining the situation as strategies for apologizing can be attributed to the fact that these are the most immediate and the simplest ways to apologize.

Another point is that since IFID (Illocutionary Force Indicating Device) or "an expression of apology" as referred to by Olshtain and Cohen (1983) is the apology strategy most central in many languages (Al-Zumor, 2011), it is reasonable to assume that the frequent use of this strategy among Iranian EFL learners can be justified on this basis. Regret and explanation of situations do not threaten the apologist's face to such a large extent as accepting the blame does and the extensive use of these two apology strategies can be accounted for on this basis. Regarding the role of gender, females apologized more frequently than males did. In this connection, the major distinction between males and females was noted to be in offering apologies and explaining a situation; in both strategies, females' number of apologies exceeded males'. This finding confirms the common idea that women tend to express apologies more frequently than men do, an idea which was corroborated by Holmes (1989) and was found out to be true. Holmes recognized that unlike men, women were more sensitive to providing apologies which was motivated by social constraints.

As regards the role of gender in the use of apology strategies which was addressed in the second research question, chi-square analysis of the apology strategies showed no significant, a finding that is inconsistent with Holmes' (1989) findings.

Table 4. Chi-square analysis of apology strategies

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-square	9.20	9	.419

$p < .05$ Critical Value: 16.91

3.2. Politeness strategies employed across power status

The study also dealt with the politeness strategies used by Iranian EFL learners in apology in English when confronted with an addressee with higher, lower and equal power status. To this end, the apology utterances, totaling to 180 utterances, were analyzed and coded using the politeness strategies as identified in Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory. The results are summarized in Table 5.

Table 5. Frequency of politeness strategies across power status in apology

Relative power	BOR		PSP		NGP		OFP		Do not do FTA	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
+P (S>H; Sit# 1 & 3)	9	8	11	23	21	20	3	3	0	0
=P (S=H; Sit# 4 & 5)	2	4	8	27	20	23	2	0	0	0
-P (S<H; Sit# 2 & 6)	3	2	8	27	37	42	4	0	0	0
Total	14	14	27	77	78	85	9	3	0	0

Note. Sit: situation; BOR: bald on record; PSP: positive politeness; NGP: negative politeness; OFP: off record politeness

As can be seen from Table 5, the most frequently used politeness strategy is negative politeness. This strategy was particularly opted for by both genders when the speaker was in a lower social status relative to the hearer (Situations 2 and 6). The next politeness strategy is positive politeness while one politeness strategy, ‘Do not do FTA’, was not employed at all. This can suggest that Iranian EFL learners opt more for the performing of an FTA than for opting for the other way round. Table 5 also shows that there are no considerable differences between males and females in their use of politeness strategies except for the case of off record politeness in which males seem to have taken more interest than females. The effect of the speaker's relative power is obvious in the participants' use of bald on record politeness strategy in Situations 1 and 3 where they were in a higher position relative to the hearer. This strategy was, however, used less frequently when the speaker and hearer were equals (Situations 4 and 5) or when the speaker's social status was lower than that of the hearer (situations 2 and 6).

According to Holmes (1995), apologizing substantially more than men, women are more polite and often use positive politeness (Bataineh & Bataineh, 2006). The results above clearly confirm Holmes' findings. The above finding can have roots in the fact that compared to men, women, perhaps because of their social positions, tend to assert more solidarity than power, hence their use of positive politeness. Nevertheless, the lack of considerable differences in the use of politeness strategies as shown in Table 6 may be interpretable in light of the fact that the oft-repeated idea that politeness is a women's concern can turn out to be only a stereotype (Mills, 2003).

As regards the role of gender in the use of politeness strategies, a chi-square analysis was run which showed a significant relationship between gender and the politeness strategies employed.

Table 6. Chi-square analysis of politeness strategies use

	Value	df	Sig.
Chi-square	19.40	3	.000

$p < .05$ Critical Value: 7.81

4. Discussion

4.1. NSs' Assessment

To measure the extent to which Iranian EFL learners have become pragmatically competent in the performance of the speech act of apology, the study procedure included native speaker assessment in which two native speakers of English were asked to assess a sample of 90 speech act utterances in

terms of the degree of politeness on a scale of 1=Polite, 2=Partially Polite and 3=Impolite. The results are presented in Figure 3.

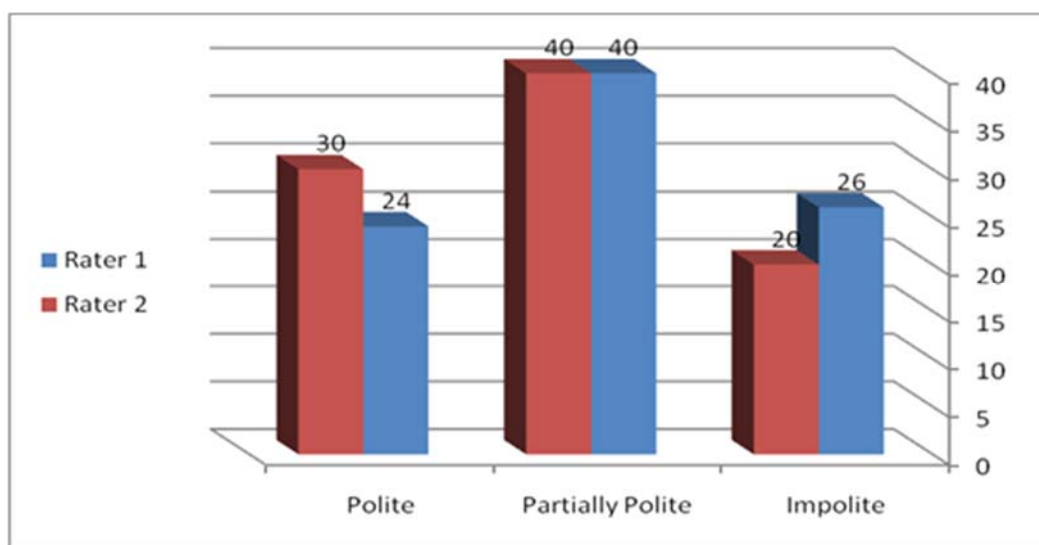


Figure 3. NSs' Assessment of the Degree of Politeness of the Apology Utterances

Figure 3 shows that the raters' average agreement indicated that 27 apology utterances (30%) were rated as 'Polite', 40 utterances (44.4%) as 'Partially Polite' and 23 utterances (25.5%) as 'Impolite'.

4.2. Qualitative analysis of the apology strategies

In this section, drawing on the native speakers' assessment, we discuss the apology utterances qualitatively and focus on the interlocutors' relative power. It is worth mentioning that S and H in this part stand for Speaker (=addresser) and Hearer (=addressee), respectively.

Situation # 1 (+P; Speaker > Hearer)

You are a university professor. You promised to return the student's paper that day but you didn't finish reading it.

Student: "Did you read my paper?"

Polite apologies

The polite responses in this situation included the following:

1. Female speaker: *Oh, sorry! I actually forgot about it. I will return it tomorrow.*
2. Female speaker: *I'm so sorry; I completely forgot it. I will bring it tomorrow.*
3. Male speaker: *Sorry! I hadn't enough time, I'm busy these days but I'll do my best to finish it as soon as possible!*
4. Male speaker: *I'm sorry. I'll do it as soon as possible.*

To sound sincerely apologetic, speakers need to use strategies such as interjections like *oh* to show that they care about what has happened to H (Bataneh & Bataneh, 2006). The speaker has employed one such strategy in example 1 above. An IFID is the most direct strategy for realizing an apology (Alfattah, 2010). The majority of the apologies used by the participants consisted of more than one apology strategy with the IFID as the initiating statement as shown in the above utterances of apology. It seems that the participants perceived 'statement of regret' as the inevitable part of a polite apology.

Impolite apologies

Some responses were deemed impolite in this situation by the native speakers, including the following responses:

1. Female speaker: *No, I was up to something else and couldn't find enough time to.*
2. Female speaker: *Sorry, I didn't make time.*
3. Male speaker: *Not yet, maybe tomorrow.*
4. Male speaker: *No, I will tell you about it next session!*

The common features of the above apologies is that they are short, lack an offer of apology and include the response 'no' which can in all probability result in H's interpretation of it as an offence. Although H, the superior interlocutor, has provided a reason (here lack of time) for not having been able to do what is required from him/her (reading and returning S's paper), this reason is not plausible enough and can lead to S's idea that his/her paper had not been worth reading, hence there is the possibility that this would cause an offence. Besides, these apologies do not include a variety of strategies and most of them are expressed using bald on record politeness strategies, which demonstrate more power than solidarity. As Alfattah's (2010) study of Yemeni EFL learners showed, polite apologies were accompanied by an IFID; therefore, the impoliteness of these utterances is the lack of this strategy which can serve as a mitigator. Fetzer (2007) pointed out that expressing negative politeness through such utterances as 'I'm sorry' shows 'subjectification' and thus the participants, superior in this situation, had felt that they might be belittled if they had apologized. They have stressed their power by not apologizing directly and explicitly. Other studies concur to this statement, too. For instance, in their study, Hei, David and Kia (2013) stipulated that impolite direct directives of the hospital staff were caused by the power they had over their patients.

S# 2 (-P; Speaker < Hearer)

You borrowed your professor's book, which you promised to return that day but forgot to bring it.

Professor: "Did you bring the book?"

Polite apologies

1. Female speaker: *Oh my God! I DO apologize! I was so busy these days, and I forgot to bring it! I'm so sorry!*
2. Female speaker: *Sorry; forgot to bring it. Tomorrow at 7 o'clock it will be in your office.*
3. Female speaker: *I'm truly sorry I forgot to bring it, I promise to bring it next time.*
4. Male speaker: *Oh, no! Sorry! Is it OK to bring it back tomorrow, sir/ma'am?*

In Example 1, the speaker has employed a few strategies: the interjection 'oh' showing the speaker has been shocked by the offence she has committed, an offer of apology accompanied by an emphatic 'do', an explanation or account of the situation and expression of regret intensified by the adverbial 'so'. All of these constitute negative politeness strategies aimed at recognizing H's freedom of action. Also, invoking God's name can be attributed to the transfer of cultural norms from the participants' first culture. In Example 2, the speaker has expressed regret, provided an explanation or account of the situation and promised to avoid the offence. All these strategies have minimized the degree of the offence, hence the appropriacy of the apology. Apology 3 is polite since the strategies used in this situation include an expression of regret intensified by *truly* and an offer of repair. From the review of the literature that was provided earlier, one can conclude that expressing regret or apologizing and requesting for forgiveness in the above apologies have contributed to their appropriacy and politeness.

Impolite apologies

1. Female speaker: *The book is with Mr. X, he should bring it back to you.*
2. Male speaker: *WOW! I forgot! Excuse me!*

In Example 1, the speaker has evaded responsibility for bringing back the professor's book and has therefore excessively threatened his/her face. In Example 2, the speaker has provided too short an explanation or reason which is potential to offend the victim. By doing so, he has weakened the strength of his request for forgiveness that follows (*Excuse me*). Since S has far less power than that of H and an explicit apology is fully expected, the failure to do so will be clearly interpreted as rude (Ige, 2007).

Situation # 4 (=P; Speaker=Hearer)

During a class discussion, you offend one of your classmates. After class, he mentions this fact to you.

Polite apologies

1. Female speaker: *I'm so sorry! I do apologize! I have some problems these days and I'm so nervous! That was out of my control!*
2. Female speaker: *Really sorry. I didn't mean it.*
3. Male speaker: *Oh, I'm really sorry pal. I don't know what happened. Let me make it up to you.*
4. Male speaker: *Please accept my apology. [I] really didn't mean to offend you.*

By applying what Holmes (1990) found about polite apologies, that is, their including an explicit apology, it can be concluded that the above apologies are polite on the basis that they contain an explicit apology. Also, considering length, these apologies are fairly long. The explanations that follow the explicit apologies have added to the redress of the threat of the offence as well.

Impolite apologies

1. Female speaker: *Oh! I didn't really mean that.*
2. Female speaker: *Oh, I think you are right to blame me.*
3. Male speaker: *Really?! Anyway, excuse me.*

4. Male speaker: *Oh really? but that was not what I meant.*

These apologies are impolite on various grounds. On the one hand, they do not include explicit apologies or requests for forgiveness. On the other hand, as apologies 3 and 4 show, the apologists' use of 'really' conveys to the victim that he/she is not sincere in being offended. This threatens H's face to a large degree. Further, these apologies are very short and remind us of their conforming to Grice's maxim of quantity. Therefore the impoliteness of these apology strategies is compounded by the lack of explicit apologies where these are due, and the chances are that the disruption caused in the social relationship continues (Ige, 2007).

4.3 Linguistic devices indicative of politeness and impoliteness

The present study also investigated the elements or factors which made the utterances seem impolite. To sound polite, the participants utilized certain politeness markers, devices, syntactic structures, etc. in the semantic formulas they uttered in apologizing. One major element of impoliteness was the fact that the apology utterances rated as impolite by the native speakers were either too short, abrupt and terse or too long and verbose. By way of example, the following apology strategies are not appropriate on the basis of their length:

- A. *Sorry, I didn't make time.* (Situation # 1; +P; Speaker > Hearer)
- B. *Not yet, maybe tomorrow.* (Situation # 1; +P; Speaker > Hearer)
- C. *Oh! I didn't really mean that.* (Situation # 4; =P; Speaker=Hearer)

What is more, the vast majority of the 'impolite' semantic formulas were lacking in mitigation, redressive action and softening force. For instance, the following apology semantic formulas hardly contain any plausible mitigating force or politeness markers:

- D. *Not yet, maybe tomorrow.* (Situation # 1; +P; Speaker > Hearer)
- E. *Oh really? but that was not what I meant.* (Situation # 4; =P; Speaker=Hearer)
- F. *Oh, I think you are right to blame me.* (Situation # 4; =P; Speaker=Hearer)

Furthermore, lack of variety of apology strategies used showed that the participants relied on only a limited number of ways to realize this speech act. As it was observed, these apology strategies revolved mainly around an expression of regret, an explanation or account of the situation, expressing self-deficiency and an offer of repair which constituted over 74 per cent of the entire number of the strategies used. This lack of variety can be attributed, perhaps, to the participants' limited pragmatic repertoire.

Besides, the qualitative analysis revealed that some essential politeness markers were absent from the participants' impolite utterances as in the following example which lacks any mitigator to soften the FTA:

- G) Student to his/her professor: *The book is with Mr. X, he should bring it back to you.* (S# 2; -P; Speaker < Hearer)

Overall, the causes of impoliteness of these utterances were found to be such factors as the length of utterances lack of use of some politeness markers, and lack of explicit apology as polite apology strategies.

5. Conclusions

The study revealed that for apologies Iranian EFL learners employed an expression of regret, an explanation or account of the situation, expressing self-deficiency and an offer of repair. The results also indicated that, in their attempt to apologize politely and appropriately, they relied on positive and negative politeness strategies. Also, gender was found to have no significant effect on the use of apology strategies. Positive politeness strategies and negative politeness strategies were found to be the politeness strategies most frequently employed by Iranian EFL learners whether in symmetrical or asymmetrical power relations in all the three speech acts in question, with the bald on record and off record coming next. The assessment of the apology utterances by native speakers on the scale of politeness showed that over half of the utterances were rated as 'Partially polite'. Furthermore, the qualitative analysis of the apology utterances demonstrated that in all levels of social status or relative power (P) Iranian EFL learners had difficulty dealing with the concept of the addressee's power, particularly when they are in a position of higher status relative to their addressee. In line with previous studies, the findings of the present study call for explicit instruction in pragmatics as pointed out by Farhadi and Farmanesh, 2008, Lingli and Wannaruk, 2010, Martínez-Flor and Usó-Juan, 2011, Silva, 2003. In conclusion, Iranian EFL learners were found to be only partially sociolinguistically competent in the speech act of apology. Furthermore, the findings have implications for communicative language teaching in which the learners' communicative competence is to be stressed.

In conclusion, both the native speaker politeness assessment and qualitative analysis of the apology utterances indicated a partial, not a full, pragmatic and, to be more precise, sociolinguistic competence in Iranian EFL learners, hence the need for instructional intervention in teaching pragmatics.

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Appendix A. Discourse Completion Task for Apology

Please read the following apology situations and respond to them. You are kindly requested to answer the items of this questionnaire as realistically, carefully and accurately as possible. Rest assured that the information obtained in the course of this study will be kept confidential and used only for the purposes of academic research.

Thank you.

General information:

Gender: Male Female

Your email address (for further contact):

Please respond to these questions as realistically and honestly as possible. Suppose that you are in such situations. You are kindly required to apologize in these situations.

1. You are a university professor. You promised to return the student's paper that day but you didn't finish reading it.

Student: "Did you read my paper?"

You:

2. You borrowed your professor's book, which you promised to return that day but forgot to bring it.

Professor: "Did you bring the book?"

You:

3. You are a manager and you have kept a student waiting for half an hour for a job interview because you were called to an unexpected meeting.

Student: "What happened?"

You:

4. During a class discussion, you offend one of your classmates. After class, he mentions this fact to you.

You:

5. You are an unpunctual student. You are late again for a meeting with a friend with whom you are working on a joint paper.

Friend: "Well, you are late again."

You:

6. You completely forget a crucial meeting at the office with your boss. An hour later you call him to apologize. The problem is that this is the second time you've forgotten such a meeting. Your boss gets on the line and asks:

Boss: "What happened to you?"

You:

İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen İranlı öğrencilerin incelikli olan ve olmayan özürleri üzerine çapraz kesişimli bir çalışma

Öz

Başarılı iletişim dilbilimsel yeti ve incelikle yakından ilişkili olan uygunluğu ifade eden toplumsal dil yetisinin ortak ürünüdür. Bu çalışma İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen İranlı öğrencilerin özür söz eylemini gerçekleştirirken kullandıkları incelik stratejilerini araştırmayı hedeflemiştir. Veri, özür söz eyleminin gerçekleştiği altı durumdan oluşan söylem tamamlama etkinliklerine cevap veren 30 İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerden toplanmıştır. Veri incelemesi üç aşamadan oluşmuştur. İlk olarak, özür ve incelik stratejilerini belirlemek üzere bu çalışma Olshtain ve Cohen'ın (1983) özür stratejileri sınıflamasını ve Brown ve Levinson'ın (1987) incelik teorisini sırasıyla izlemiştir. İkinci aşamada verilen toplam ifade sayısının %50'sini oluşturan 90 özür ifadeleri anadili İngilizce olan iki kişi tarafından incelik Likert ölçeğine göre değerlendirilmiştir: 1=ince, 2=Kısmen ince ve 3= ince değil. Son olarak, anadil olarak İngilizce konuşan kişilerin özür ifadelerini incelik açısından değerlendirmelerine dayanarak, araştırmacılar ifadeleri uygunluk ve uygunsuzluk açısından niteliksel olarak incelemiştir. Ortaya çıkan sonuçlar şöyledir: a) Anadili İngilizce olan kişiler 27 tane (%30) özür ifadesini ince, 40 tanesini (%44.5) kısmen ince ve 23 tanesini (%25.5) ince olmayan şekilde değerlendirmişlerdir; b) en sık kullanılan özür ifadelerinin 'pişmanlık ifadeleri', 'durumu açıklama', 'öz-yetersizlik ifade etme' ve 'düzeltme isteme' olduğu bulunmuştur; c) erkekler ve kadınlar arasında özür dilerken kullanılan incelik stratejileri açısından önemli bir fark olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır ve d) özür dilerken katılımcılar olumlu ve olumsuz incelik stratejilerine bağlı kalmışlardır. Sonuç olarak, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen İranlı öğrencilerin özür dilerken kısmen toplumsal dil yetisine sahip oldukları görülmüştür.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Özür stratejileri; İngilizce öğrencileri, incelik; kibarlık; edimbilimsel yeti

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Investigating the relationship between the washback effect of IELTS test and Iranian IELTS candidates' life skills

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate the relationship between the washback effect of IELTS test and Iranian IELTS candidates' life skills pattern as well as investigating the relationship between constructs underlying IELTS test and Iranian IELTS candidates' communicative skill viewpoints on language proficiency. The correlational research method was employed as the design of the study. The study included 322 Iranian IELTS candidates who completed IELTS preparation courses. To collect data, the researchers developed the researchers-made version of the Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire based upon the 4-H and Targeting Life Skills (TLS) (Norman & Jordan, 2012), models. Likewise, the researchers used the academic module of IELTS test in the study. Study found no significant relationship between the washback effect of IELTS test and Iranian IELTS candidates' life skills pattern. Similarly, the results showed that there was no significant relationship between the constructs underlying IELTS test and Iranian IELTS candidates' communicative skill viewpoints on language proficiency.

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Keywords: Communicative competence; construct validity; language proficiency; life skills; washback

1. Introduction

Several researchers (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007) claim that tests had influenced the teaching and learning practices in societies. By the emergence of standardized testing phenomenon, concerns over what Cheng, Watanabe, and Curtis (2004) called the social consequences of such tests have been evolved. The idea of whether candidates' successfulness in a standardized test guarantees their success in development of life skills required for everyday communication, has been introduced. Since a standardized test such as International English Language Testing System (IELTS) is a test of proficiency, its impact on teaching and learning seems to be interdependent with candidates' life skills needed for social communication. Most of the washback studies (Erfani, 2012; Hawkey, 2006; Rahimi & Nazhand, 2010; Rashidi & Javanmardi, 2011) as mentioned in the study conducted by (Chen, 2011), are treating washback of standardized tests at its preliminary stage by focusing only on learning and teaching domains. This study focuses on the newly adopted approach toward the washback studies of standardized tests based on what Ching Pan (2009) referred to it as beyond classroom effect of washback. Other researchers (Green, 2007) backed this washback study approach by indicating the

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washback of IELTS should be considered in the link between striving for being success on and beyond tests.

1.1. Literature review

1.1.1. Definition and concept of washback

Cheng (2005) elucidated the concept of washback as a notion that “test should drive teaching and hence learning (measurement- driven instruction)” (p. 26), (cited in Rashidi & Javanmardi, 2011). This, according to Razavipour, Riazi, and Rashidi (2011), may lead teaching and learning toward focusing on domains which are likely to appear on the tests. Likewise, some researchers (Ching Pan, 2009) believed that washback may operate at either micro level which focuses on teaching, learning domains or macro level which focuses, according to Ozmen (2011), “on individuals, policies and practices in any given educational system or society” (p. 216). In another study, Green (2007) discussed the washback issue from the aspect of beneficial or harmful washback effects. Green (2007) believed that if a test evolved the learners’ overall abilities, washback would be beneficial; otherwise, washback would be considered as harmful.

1.1.2. Construct validity

Caldwell (2008) illustrated the construct validity as “the extent to which a test measures something that cannot be observed directly but must be inferred from patterns of behaviour. A pattern of behaviour is called construct” (p. 177). Green (2007) related the concept of washback to construct validity through the framework put forward by Messick (1989). Similarly, in another study, Sukyadi and Mardiani (2011) indicated “washback becomes negative washback when there is a mismatch between construct definition and test or content” (p. 99). Meanwhile, Apart from the solid definitions, to Gerhart (2012), construct validity was significant since it was the “correspondence between a theoretical, unobservable construct and an observable measure” (p. 158). Baghaei (2008) took into account the importance of construct validity as “the trustworthiness of score meaning and its interpretation” (p. 1).

1.1.3. Notion of communicative competence

Bhattacharyya (2012) believed that communicative competence was mostly viewed as the extend individual reconcile himself to the available communication environment through utilization of appropriate range of knowledge and skills fit the communication situation. Adegbile and Alabi (2005) related the concept of proficiency to communicative competence from the aspects of formalist and functionalist approaches. Some researchers (Kopriva, 2008) believed that it was appropriate to use communicative competence for the evaluation and assessment of learners’ proficiency to make them proficient in all aspects of communicative competence.

1.1.4. Life skills

Erawan (2010) defined life skills as “a group of psychosocial competencies and interpersonal skills that help people make informed decisions, communicate effectively, and develop coping and self-management skills to lead a healthy and productive life” (p. 171). In another study, Francis (2007) considered life skill education important since “Life skill education helps the individual to improve the decision making skill, ability to take everything in the right sense and also improve their contributions to the society” (p. 1). Furthermore, Postma, Getkate, and Wijik (2004) discussed the importance of knowledge of theoretical facts in attaining the designated criteria specified in the educational curriculum

critical but insufficient in spite of the fact that “these facts are more valuable to students when they are taught in ways that make them relevant to their real lives” (p. 12).

1.2. Research questions and hypotheses

- Q1: Is there any significant relationship between the washback effect of IELTS test and Iranian IELTS candidates' life skills pattern?
- Q2: Do the constructs underlying IELTS test have any significant relationship with the Iranian IELTS candidates' communicative skill viewpoints on language proficiency?
- H01: There is no significant relationship between the washback effect of IELTS test and Iranian IELTS candidates' life skills pattern.
- H02: There is no significant relationship between the constructs underlying IELTS test and the Iranian IELTS candidates' communicative skill viewpoints on language proficiency.

2. Method

The researchers did not only proceed through the following procedures but also employed the following instruments designed for collecting data on the part of the participants.

2.1. Participants

The researchers used the random sampling to sample from the available population of Iranian IELTS candidates in two mega-cities of Mashhad and Tehran in 2013 in Iran. In a pilot study, the researchers estimated the number of language institutes with the IELTS preparation courses in Mashhad and Tehran around 150 institutes. The researchers attended in some of those language institutes in order to gain insight of how many Iranian IELTS candidates have been enrolled, in average, at the final level of IELTS preparation courses in every single language institute. Based on the data the researchers obtained from the language institutes in Mashhad and Tehran, in average; there were 14 IELTS candidates who enrolled at the final level of IELTS preparation courses in every single language institute. Therefore, the researchers estimated the size of population of Iranian IELTS candidates who attended at the final level of IELTS preparation courses in Mashhad and Tehran at the time of conducting this study about 2000 persons. The researchers chose the participants from different language institutes with IELTS preparation courses in two major cities of Iran, Mashhad and Tehran. The researchers selected 322 Iranian IELTS candidates for the sample of the study among both those who completed the final level of IELTS preparation courses and those who were studying at the final level of IELTS preparation courses in language institutes of Mashhad and Tehran. The researchers used the formula developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) in order to determine the sample size of the study. Therefore, 0.05 degree of accuracy with the 95% confidence interval in the sample size of the study was ensured.

Participants who participated in the study were Iranian IELTS candidates who signed up for IELTS preparation courses in both Mashhad and Tehran. All of them have completed the IELTS preparation courses. They were both males and females who were mostly 18 to 40 years old. Since the enrollment in IELTS preparation courses did not require specific academic degree, the participants were coming from different specialties and various fields of studies. Therefore, it would not be strange that the participants would have different backgrounds as well as holding motley beliefs. Some of the participants had studied English language focally while others studied English language peripherally. The language institutes with IELTS preparation courses from which the samples were taken administered a sample of IELTS test as a placement test to assign participants to the appropriate level according to the individuals' level of language proficiency. Therefore, the researchers ensured the

homogeneity of the participants from the aspect of language proficiency. Likewise, since the researchers sampled from those who have completed the IELTS preparation courses the homogeneity of participants under study from the aspect of life skill and communication skill was ensured.

2.2. Instruments

The following instruments have been used in the study for the purpose of data collection.

2.2.1. A sample IELTS placement test (the academic training module)

The sample IELTS placement test (Jakeman & Mcdowell, 2008) was used in this study for achieving the homogeneity on the language proficiency of Iranian IELTS candidates who participated in this study. The IELTS placement test had four language skill components including listening, academic reading, academic writing, and speaking. The listening component contained four subsections and 40 test items. The focus of the first two subsections in the listening was mostly on daily social interactions and the other two subsections dealt with the educational and academic fields. Next, the reading component contained three academic passages that included 40 test items. Participants had 60 minutes to spend on the reading passages. The academic writing component included two writing tasks and participants were to spend only 60 minutes for the completion of the two writing tasks. The speaking component had three parts. Participants had 13 minutes to talk and discuss the proposed subject matters. The amount of time needed for the completion of the sample IELTS placement test was 2 hours and 44 minutes.

2.2.2. A sample of IELTS test (the academic training module)

The researchers employed the academic training module of IELTS test (“IELTS test,” n.d.) in the study. It consisted of four components including Listening, Academic training reading, Academic training writing, and Speaking. The listening component consisted of four sections. Each section in the listening component included 10 test items. In overall, there were 40 test items in the listening component which participants were to answer them in approximately 30 minutes. The focus of the first two sections in the listening component was on the social necessities in which the first section was in the form of a short dialogue between two persons and a short speech was included in the second section. The next other two sections were mostly concentrated on the educational areas. Similar to the first two sections, the third section included a conversation taking place between a number of people, and the fourth section was dedicated to an academic lecture. In the listening component, participants were to answer different question types including multiple choice questions, short- answer questions, sentence completions, matching, forms, and maps, labeling diagrams, tables, flow- chart completion as well as notes.

The next component was Academic Training Reading. This test component consisted of three sections with 40 test items. Participants were given 60 minutes, 20 minutes were to be spend on each section, to provide answer to test items in the reading component. The texts were selected from magazines, books, journals, and newspapers with general ideas and concepts; however, one passage contained detailed logical arguments. The texts contained more complex language and structures which stressed on academic and argumentative issues. In the reading component, participants were to respond to various item types including Multiple choice questions, short- answer questions, sentence completions, matching, Yes/ No/ Not given questions, and labeling diagrams, tables, flow- chart completion as well as notes and True/ False/ Not given questions. The other component was Academic Training Writing which included two tasks. Participants were given 60 minutes on this component, 20 minutes were to be spent on the first task and 40 minutes were devoted to the second writing task. In the

first task, participants should write at least 150 words and in the second task, they were expected to write 250 words on the suggested issues.

The last component was speaking which was to be conducted by a trained examiner. Speaking component had three parts. This component took 11 to 14 minutes to be completed. In the first part, participants were to be greeted and they talked about their families, their jobs, and themselves. This part took 4 to 5 minutes to be completed. In the second part, participants were to talk about particular topic for 1 to 2 minutes. In addition, in the third part, a topic was assigned to participants to be discussed in 4 to 5 minutes. Therefore, the total IELTS test time was about 2 hours and 44 minutes.

2.2.3. Sample of IELTS test answer sheets

The participants were given three separate answer sheets, the (“Listening answer sheet,” n.d.), the (“Reading answer sheet,” n.d.) and the (“Writing answer sheet,” n.d.). In either of the answer sheets, participants were to use pencil to write their names and shade the numbers on the grid to reflect their candidacy number as well as the test date. Meanwhile, the listening and reading answer sheets had 40 blank areas dedicated to every single test item which participants were required to write their responses in the designated boxes. Beside each box, there were two boxes for the scorers to evaluate the participants’ responses by putting check mark on correct or wrong check boxes. The writing answer sheet contained blank spaces dedicated to each writing tasks.

2.2.4. Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire

In order to elicit the Iranian participants’ attitude toward the notions of life skills as well as the communication skills in the Iranian context, the researchers-made version of Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire has been developed. To design Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire, the researchers adopted the widely used models of life skills which were called 4-H and TLS, “Targeting Life Skills (Hendricks, 1998)”, (cited in Norman & Jordan, 2012), models. According to Norman and Jordan (2012), the 4-H model consisted of the following component and competencies: first, ‘Head’ which focused on competencies such as knowledge, reasoning and creativity. Second, ‘Heart’ which evolved around the personal/social competencies. Third, ‘Hand’ which dedicated to vocational and citizenship competencies and finally, ‘Health’ which covered the issues related to health and physical competencies. According to Deen and Bailey (2000), these models mostly covered issues relating to the areas of decision making, wise use of resources, communication, accepting differences, leadership, useful skills, healthy lifestyle choices, and self-responsibility. Additionally, the researchers took advantages of typical life skill and communication skill questionnaires as a sample to elicit insight on the issues which were common and had to be covered in the designated domains. The following works (Barkman & Machtmes, 2002; (“Communication quiz,” n.d.); Hamdona, 2007; (“Life skills pre-test/post-test,” 2009); Pavot & Diener, 1993; Saatchi, Kamkari, & Askarian, 2010; World Health Organization [WHO], 2004; Wright, 2001) have inspired the researchers in development of Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire.

Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire was divided into three parts. The first section allocated to demographic items were devoted to elicitation of the participants’ personal information such as their gender, the highest academic degree they achieved as well as their English language background, duration of IELTS preparation courses they attended, if any, and the IELTS scores they obtained. In this section, participants were to choose only one possibility which best described their actual conditions or simply provide further information where it was necessary. The second part of the Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire was made up of 37 items which were constructed through 1 to 5 points based on the Likert Scale focusing on the domain of life skills issues. The third part was labeled

‘communication skills’ which included 13 items constructed through 1 to 5 points based on the Likert Scale, too. The whole questionnaire covered 50 items related to the domain of Iranian life skill and communication skill. Participants were given the possibility to reflect their attitude on the issues as they actually were by selecting a possibility from the proposed options which were based on the scales ranging from (*Very low*), (*Low*), (*Neutral*), (*High*) to (*Very high*). In addition, the participants’ responses were codified in the Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire in which the scale (*Very low*) corresponded with 1 point and the scale (*Very high*) associated with 5 points.

The items were designed in a way to cover and focus on the crucial aspects in concept of life skills and communication skills related to either the Iranian or universal context. Meanwhile, the designated time for the completion of the questionnaire was about 5 to 10 minutes. It should be noted that before administration of the Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire, the supervisor and the advisor of the study have reviewed the questionnaire in order to ensure the appropriate degree of validity. Likewise, the researchers piloted the questionnaire with 20 Iranian IELTS candidates in Mashhad to ensure the questionnaire achieved appropriate degree of reliability. After piloting the questionnaire, the researchers entered data in the SPSS software (PASW, the 18th edition) to calculate the Cronbach’s Alpha. The SPSS software reported that the Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire achieved the reliability of 0.74 (R= 0.74) based on the data collected from the participants. The Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire is included in Appendix A.

2.3. Data collection and analysis

The researchers had arrangements with language institutes selected for the purpose of data collection before the due date. The researchers selected 322 Iranian IELTS candidates participating in the study among those Iranian IELTS candidates completed the IELTS preparation courses in English language institutes in both Mashhad and Tehran cities. The researchers administered the life skill and communication skill questionnaire to participants a few days before the last session of the IELTS preparation courses. Participants were told that taking part in the study was totally optional and their answers would not affect them in any way. The researchers explained the instructions required for completing the questionnaire to the participants. Next, the researchers distributed the coded questionnaire forms among participants, and they were given 5 to 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. As participants were responding to the questionnaire items, the researchers managed to respond to likely questions participants might have had on some items. Finally, after about 10 minutes, the researchers collected the questionnaire forms. It should be noted that the researchers coded the questionnaire forms before administering them to the participants in order to facilitate the process of matching the questionnaire completed by each participant to the IELTS overall band-score of each participant reported either by the participants or by the English language institutes.

In the due dates, participants in each language institute took a sample of Academic IELTS test. The authorities in language institutes told participants to attend in the examination hall of the language institute to take the sample of IELTS test. In the examination hall which was equipped with audio-visual equipment required for the administration of IELTS test, participants sat on their chairs. They had only a pencil and a rubber with themselves. One of the employees of the language institute who had experiences in administration of sample IELTS test was selected as a proctor. The proctor distributed the test leaflets among participants as well as explaining the rules participants should remember during taking the test.

Next, the proctor instructed participants on how to work on different sections of the test. The participants were told to follow the audio-CD for answering the test items included in the listening component. Likewise, the participants were told that they were to hear the recording only once. The

proctor played the recording and participants started listening and responding. The recording provided further directions on the section participants should work on. At the end of the listening component, proctor allowed 10 minutes to participants to transfer their responses to their answer sheets. Next, the proctor collected the listening answer sheets and distributed the reading answer sheets. Participants were given 60 minutes to work on the test items in the reading component. After 60 minutes, the proctor collected the reading answer sheets, and distributed the writing tasks as well as blank pages among participants. Participants were told to spend 20 minutes on the task 1 and 40 minutes on the task 2. After an hour, the proctor collected the participants' writing tasks. In the next step, the participants were told to stay in the saloon to be interviewed. The proctor interviewed participants according to the directions and instructions required by the IELTS test.

After the language institutes scored the sample of Academic IELTS test taken by the participants, the researchers obtained the participants' IELTS sub-scores on each component of the test as well as their overall band scores from the English language institutes for the purpose of data analysis. Then, the researchers used the SPSS software, the PASW statistics- the 18th edition, in order to compare the elicited data derived through the Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire with the participants' IELTS test results obtained for each participant.

Likewise, the researchers managed to distribute the Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire among individuals who sat an academic IELTS test. In order to ensure that they have attended and completed IELTS preparation courses, specifically at the final level, the researchers asked every individual to confirm if he or she has attended at the final level of IELTS preparation courses. In the case the individuals responded positively and they were willing to take part in the study, a copy of Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire was given to each participant. Besides, since they sat an IELTS test, the researchers asked them to write the sub-score on each component of the test as well as the overall band score they achieved in the IELTS test score report form in the designated fields in the Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire, too.

3. Results

In order to conduct the current study, the researchers considered two objectives for the study to be investigated. The first goal was to inspect the existence of probable significant relationship between the washback effect of IELTS test and the life skills pattern Iranian IELTS candidates possessed. Likewise, the other aim of the study was to investigate the possible significant relationship between the construct underlying IELTS test and the communicative skill viewpoints Iranian IELTS candidates held on language proficiency. To shed light on the research hypotheses of the study, the researchers evolved and used the researchers- made questionnaire that covered the domains related to Iranian life skills and communication skills. After collecting and analysing the required data, the following findings have been found.

3.1. H01: Investigating the Relationship between the Washback Effect of IELTS Test and the Iranian IELTS Candidates' Life Skills Pattern

In order to investigate the relationship between the "Iranian IELTS candidates' life skills pattern" and "the washback effect of IELTS test" in the first null hypothesis, the researchers used the Pearson correlation coefficient test to obtain the degree of correlation between variables. Likewise, to accept or reject the first null hypothesis, the researchers calculated the *p*-value with 95% confidence interval and 0.05 degree of accuracy. The elicited results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1.*Correlation between Participants' Life Skills Pattern and the Scores Participants Achieved in IELTS Test*

Life skills	<i>p</i> -value	Pearson Correlation
Speaking score	.688	-.023
Listening score	.052	-.108
Reading score	.469	.04
Writing score	.817	-.013
Overall band score	.363	-.051

p<0.05

In order to test the first null hypothesis, the researchers calculated the correlation between the results obtained from the participants' responses to the life skills items in the questionnaire and the results elicited from sub-scores and overall band scores participants achieved in the IELTS test. The results in Table 1 indicate that there is no significant relationship between scores participants achieved including "speaking score" ($r = -.023, p < .688$) followed by "listening score" ($r = -.108, p < .052$), "reading score" ($r = .04, p < .469$), and "writing score" ($r = -.013, p < .817$), and "overall band score" ($r = -.051, p < .363$) in the IELTS test and the Iranian IELTS candidates' life skills pattern. Since the amount of *P*-value for all variables is bigger than 0.05; Therefore, the first null hypothesis of the research indicating 'there is no significant relationship between the washback effect of IELTS test and Iranian IELTS candidates' life skills pattern' is approved.

3.2. H02: Investigating the Relationship between the Constructs Underlying IELTS Test and the Iranian IELTS Candidates' Communicative Skill Viewpoints on Language Proficiency

In order to investigate the relationship between "the constructs underlying IELTS test" and "the Iranian IELTS candidates' communicative skill viewpoints on language proficiency" in the second null hypothesis, the researchers used the Pearson correlation coefficient test to measure the degree of correlation between two variables. In addition, to accept or reject the second null hypothesis, the researchers calculated the *p*-value with 95% confidence interval and 0.05 degree of accuracy. The elicited results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2*Correlation between Participants' Communicative Skill Viewpoints on Language Proficiency and the Scores Participants Achieved in IELTS Test*

Communication skills	<i>p</i> -value	Pearson Correlation
Speaking score	.82	.013
Listening score	.066	-.102
Reading score	.074	-.1
Writing score	.054	-.108
Overall band score	.106	-.09

p<0.05

In order to test the second null hypothesis, the researchers calculated the probable correlation between the results elicited from the participants' responses to the communication skill items in the

questionnaire and the results derived from sub-scores and overall band scores participants obtained in the IELTS test. The results in Table 2 indicate that there is no significant relationship between scores participants achieved including speaking score ($r = .013, p < .82$) followed by listening score ($r = -.102, p < .066$), reading score ($r = -.1, p < .074$), and writing score ($r = -.108, p < .054$), and overall band score ($r = -.09, p < .106$) in the IELTS test and the Iranian IELTS candidates' communicative skill viewpoints on language proficiency. Since the amount of *P*-value for all variables is bigger than 0.05; Hence, the second null hypothesis of the research indicating 'there is no significant relationship between the constructs underlying IELTS test and the Iranian IELTS candidates' communicative skill viewpoints on language proficiency' is approved.

4. Discussion

The approval of the first hypothesis indicates that taking IELTS preparation courses regardless of its duration is not significantly related to the life skills pattern Iranian IELTS candidates possess. Although Terry (2003) emphasized on the life skills oriented nature of IELTS test, the findings of this study show the focus of IELTS preparation courses in Iran is not on life skills oriented domains or what Green (2007) called beyond domain consequences. This shows the absence of the multidimensional model of language teaching discussed in the study conducted by Wilkinson and Zegers (2008), in the IELTS preparation courses being held in Iran. The research findings are in agreement with Razavipour et al. (2011) indicating high stakes test direct the teaching and learning to focus on the domains that are most likely to be seen on the test. Accordingly, the research findings shows the focus of IELTS preparation courses in Iran might not be on the life skills domains since these domains might be seen as the least likely domains to appear in IELTS test. The research findings indicate that IELTS preparation courses do not enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges they might encounter in everyday life. Therefore, the outcomes of the study indicate that the IELTS preparation courses in Iran are not designed based on life skill education curriculum.

The acceptance of the second hypothesis shows that the relationship between the constructs underlying IELTS test and the Iranian IELTS candidates' communicative skill viewpoints on language proficiency is flawed due to lack of significant relationship between the two variables. By adopting the Tavakoli and Barati (2011) approach toward the issue of construct validity, the findings of the research indicate that there is a difference between the extent participants viewed their communicative skill viewpoints on language proficiency and the extent the constructs underlying IELTS test measured participants' communicative skill viewpoints on language proficiency.

5. Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, attending in IELTS preparation courses has no significant relationship with the participants' life skills pattern. Therefore, considerations should be taken in order to integrate the materials being covered in Iranian IELTS preparation courses with real-life skills Iranian IELTS candidates needed in their social lives rather than teaching to the test. Otherwise, this might not help Iranian IELTS candidates to use their acquired knowledge of English language effectively and appropriately in the real life context. Therefore, it will be effective to use the multidimensional language-teaching model discussed in the study by Wilkinson and Zegers (2008) in IELTS preparation courses in order to relate the teaching materials to the real life experiences of Iranian IELTS candidates that leads to effective learning.

Based on the findings of the study supporting the second hypothesis, the researchers maintain that if the IELTS preparation courses to be designed based on the (Bachman, 1990) communicative language ability framework as well as (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei & Thurell, 1995) communicative competence

framework discussed in the following studies (Seydow, 2012; Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2008), it will help Iranian IELTS candidates to learn those communicative skills which are considered important not only in constructs underlying IELTS test but also those competences which are needed for social interaction based on Iranian IELTS candidates' understandings and expectations of language proficiency from the communicative skill standpoint.

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Appendix A

Iranian Life Skill and Communication Skill Questionnaire

Name :(Optional)

Age: Under 20 20- 25 25- 30 30- 35 35-40 Over 40

Gender: Male Female

Marital status: Single Married

The highest degree achieved: Diploma Associated degree B.A. M.A. Ph. D.

Field of study:

Prior experience of English language learning: Less than 5 years 5- 10 years More than 10 years

Previous experience of IELTS preparation courses: Yes No

(If YES Please, select one)

Under 50 hrs 50-75 hrs 75-100 hrs 100-125 hrs 125-150 hrs Over 150 hrs

If you sat an IELTS test, Please indicate your sub-scores and overall band score:

Speaking..... Listening..... Reading..... Writing..... Overall band score.....

Languages you are proficient other than Farsi: English German French Arabic

If you are proficient in other languages, please specify:

You consider your language proficiency as: Somehow Competent Proficient

Instructions

For each statement, put check mark in the designated area. Please, reflect your views on each statement as actually, you are (rather than, how you think you should be). It should be noted that all provided information are considered as confidential. There are 50 items which you may reflect your attitude on each one through the 1- 5 scales below.

The five point scale is as follows:

1. Very low
2. Low
3. Neutral
4. High
5. Very high

Life skills

To what extent do you.....?

	Items	Very low	Low	Neutral	High	Very high
1	I am aware of my weakness and strength points.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I am aware of my rights.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I prefer to reflect my values.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I evaluate the quality of my life as satisfactory.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I consider my life meaningful.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I feel secure in my everyday of life.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I have access to joyful activities.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I am satisfied with my abilities in conducting social activities.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I am satisfied with my residency place.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I prefer to use mass transportation services for traveling in my city.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I have enough energy to achieve my daily activities.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I am familiar with appropriate social behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I am able to deal with failure and disastrous occurrence in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I am able to set short-term and long-term goals.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I am able to adapt to unexpected changes taking place in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I am able to use resources and social practices to attain goals.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I prefer to get things done in cooperation.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I prefer to establish intimate relationship with other people.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I have the capacity to tolerate criticisms coming from others.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I listen to music to relieve my stress.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I prefer to do sport to alleviate tensions and problems I encountered in daily life.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I pay attention to my nutrition and diet.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I prefer to wear clothes decently based on social norms.	1	2	3	4	5
24	I am proficient in problem solving.	1	2	3	4	5
25	I understand my roles and others' roles in social engagement.	1	2	3	4	5
26	I tend to use others' views in solving my problems.	1	2	3	4	5
27	I am creative person in doing routines.	1	2	3	4	5
28	I am up to active learning in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
29	I try to break my learning barriers.	1	2	3	4	5
30	I pay attention to every detail in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
31	I am able to distinguish what is right from wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
32	I am responsible to act according to law.	1	2	3	4	5
33	I consider health and cleanliness issues important.	1	2	3	4	5
34	I use E-technologies to handle my routines.	1	2	3	4	5
35	I evaluate my overall sense of well-being.	1	2	3	4	5
36	I enjoy my life.	1	2	3	4	5
37	I set achievable goals for myself.	1	2	3	4	5

Communication skills

To what extent do you.....?

	Items	Very low	Low	Neutral	High	Very high
38	I interrupt others to express my sentiment.	1	2	3	4	5
39	I am capable of conducting effective verbal and non- verbal interaction.	1	2	3	4	5
40	I respect to the ideas posed by others.	1	2	3	4	5
41	I am able to say 'No' to unjustifiable requests.	1	2	3	4	5
42	I understand others' feelings when communicating with them.	1	2	3	4	5
43	I feel relaxed in interacting with others.	1	2	3	4	5
44	I feel free to express my views without worrying about what others might feel.	1	2	3	4	5
45	I use my tone of voice to reinforce what I am trying to say.	1	2	3	4	5
46	I maintain eye contact when talking to someone.	1	2	3	4	5
47	I use body language to reinforce what I am trying to say.	1	2	3	4	5
48	I adapt the way I talk to people based on my relationship with them.	1	2	3	4	5
49	I restate what someone said in different way to make sure I understood Him/ Her.	1	2	3	4	5
50	I think about the effective ways of conveying my message before I communicate.	1	2	3	4	5

Thanks for taking time completing the Iranian life skill and communication skill questionnaire.

IELTS sınavlarının ket vurma etkisi ve İranlı IELTS adaylarının hayat becerileri arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırma

Öz

Bu çalışma IELTS sınavlarının ket vurma etkisi ve İranlı IELTS adaylarının hayat becerileri arasındaki ilişkiyle birlikte IELTS sınavlarını oluşturan yapılar ve İranlı IELTS adaylarının dil yeterliği üzerine iletişimsel beceri görüşleri arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektedir. Bu çalışmanın yöntemi olarak korelasyon araştırma yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Çalışma IELTS hazırlık derslerini tamamlayan 322 İranlı IELTS adayını dahil etmiştir. Veri toplamak için araştırmacılar İranlının hayat ve iletişimsel becerisi anketinin araştırmacı-yapım versiyonunu 4-H ve Hayat Becerilerini Hedefleme (HBH) (Norman & Jordan, 2012) modellerine dayalı olarak geliştirmişlerdir. Aynı şekilde, araştırmacılar çalışmada IELTS sınavının akademik modülünü kullanmışlardır. Çalışma IELTS sınavlarının ket vurma etkisi ve İranlı IELTS adaylarının hayat becerileri arasında önemli bir ilişki bulmamıştır. Benzer şekilde, sonuçlar IELTS sınavlarını oluşturan yapılar ve İranlı IELTS adaylarının dil yeterliği üzerine iletişimsel beceri görüşleri arasında önemli bir ilişki olmadığını göstermiştir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: İletişimsel yeti; kurgusal geçerlilik; dil yeterliği; hayat becerileri; ket vurma etkisi

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Dysprosody in aphasia: An acoustic analysis evidence from Palestinian Arabic

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Abstract

The present study was aimed to present an acoustic analysis of Palestinian prosody based on data obtained from four Palestinian speaking- persons with Broca's aphasia and normal speakers. A number of acoustic measures were examined in this study including tone modulation, F0 range, phrase-final lengthening, word duration and syllable duration. The results indicated that Broca's aphasics were unable to implement phrase-final lengthening compared to the control participants, which suggests underlying deficits in speech planning and timing. Furthermore, Broca's aphasics showed higher F0 range compared to the control subjects. However, they demonstrated relatively spared rising and falling intonation patterns. The findings of the study are in consensus with previous studies on timing and prosodic patterns in persons with Broca's aphasia, in which speech timing deficits and abnormal durational patterns are the significant characteristic in speech of Broca's aphasia. The results of the study contribute to the neurolinguistic research across different languages, specifically where Palestinian Arabic is much less investigated compared to other Arabic dialects and languages.

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Keywords: Dysprosody in Broca's aphasia; Palestinian Arabic; Acoustic analysis

1. Introduction

Prosody, the melody of speech, is considered as a main aspect of communication. Several studies indicated that prosody serves as a facilitator for different aspects of information processing and communicative functions including emotional (affective), pragmatic, and linguistic aspects (Baum et al., 2001). Functionally, the literature distinguishes between two main types of prosody: linguistic prosody and emotional prosody. The emotional prosody conveys emotional states, such as happiness, sadness and anger. For example, in terms of variations in fundamental frequency (F0), researchers found that expressions of happiness are generally characterized by higher and more variable F0 (Viscovich et al., 2003). In contrast, the linguistic prosody conveys linguistic functions such as interrogatives, statements, and imperatives. It has been found, for example, that statements in different languages are distinguished with low F0 peaks, whereas imperatives and interrogatives have higher F0 (Bauer, 1987).

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Several studies also have revealed that prosody may play an important role in assessing the listener detect the boundaries within and between sentences (Blasko & Hall, 1998; Cutler et al., 1997). Since the listeners often depend on prosodic elements to predict and interpret a speaker's communicative intent and attitude, prosody often be called the “emotional component of speech and language” (Viscovich et al., 2003, p. 760).

Prosody has three main physical parameters: fundamental frequency (F0), duration, and amplitude. These physical components are perceived by the listener as pitch, speech rate, and loudness. Many acoustic studies found that variations in (F0), duration and intensity (amplitude) (Gussenhoven & Carlos, 2004, Nespor et al. 1986). The fundamental frequency refers to the number of periodic movements in the vocal folds per second. A number of durational features are involved in the prosodic features of the language system, such as syllable and word duration, phrase final lengthening, pausing, rate, and changing voice quality (Van Lancker, & Daum, 2000; Hird & Kirsner, 2002). Consequently, due to the fact that the prosodic elements may affect more than a phonetic segment, they are considered suprasegmental in nature (Kent & Rosenbek, 1982).

2. Neurolinguistic Background on Prosody and Aphasia

Aphasia is a language disorder caused by damage to anterior regions of the brain, particularly Broca's area (Brookshire, 2003; Bastiaanse, & Van Zonneveld, 2004). It may affect different modalities of language function, such as speaking, writing and, reading. It also affects different levels and components of the language system, including phonology, lexicon, syntax, and, semantics. These components are affected on the word, syllable, and, sound levels based upon the type of language disturbance. Speech of agrammatic speakers with Broca's aphasia is characterized by the omission and substitution of grammatical morphemes (Goodglass, 1976). However, several studies have shown that not all grammatical morphemes are equally affected and agrammatism, therefore, cannot be considered as a pure morphosyntactic deficit. For example, various studies revealed that in speech of English- speaking Broca's aphasics, the *-ing* affix is omitted much less often than past-tense *-ed* or the 3rd singular present-tense (Druks & Carroll, 2005).

Previous studies have reported abnormal durational patterns among Broca's aphasics. Goodglass and Kaplan (1972) found the speech of this clinical population to be laboured, slowed, and dysprosodic. Additionally, it has also been found that Broca's aphasics display impaired melodic modulation and temporal deficits. Ryalls (1982) evidenced that F0 variation in speech of Broca's aphasics is restricted in range for sentence-level stimuli.

Few other studies have suggested that Broca's aphasics usually tend to shorten the obligatory utterance-final lengthening (Danly, de Villiers & Cooper, 1979). Ryalls (1986) found that the word and sentence level were considerably longer for Broca's aphasics than for normal subjects. Kent and Rosenbek (1982) reported from abnormal rhythm and rate among speech of Broca's aphasics. In contrast, results from Danly and Shapiro (1982) indicated that Broca's aphasics demonstrate relative preservation of the F0 variations, but absence of sentence-final lengthening.

Similarly, other studies also reported timing deficits among Broca's aphasics (Baum & Boyczuk, 1999; Shah, Baum, & Dwivedi, 2006). In this account, Baum and Boyczuk (1999) found that Broca's aphasics usually exhibit timing deficits in speech units, particularly in monosyllabic words. In their acoustic study on Italian prosody as produced by a set of Broca's aphasics, Marotta et al. (2008) also reported from speech timing deficits and abnormal lengthening of all syllables.

Seddoh (2008) suggested that in syntactically conditioned speech timing tasks, the agrammatic speakers demonstrated temporal impairments, specifically abnormally long durations in all segmental

measures. In fact, several studies have related the high fundamental frequency F0 average of Broca's aphasics to greater psychological stress (Heeschen, et al., 1988). Similar trend is also exhibited by neurotypical speakers, where they increase their F0 with increase in psychological stress (Geller and Apple, 1977). Thus, in light of the previous discussion we assume that utterances produced by Broca's aphasics may demonstrate high F0 averages, compared to the control speakers and hence this study was carried out to test this assumption.

In fact, several studies have examined morpho-syntactic deficits in Arabic, but with less focus on the prosodic patterns of the agrammatic speakers, including Palestinian Arabic (Friedmann, 2001), Algerian Arabic (Mimouni, & Jarema, 1997), Moroccan Arabic (Diouny, 2010) and Jordanian Arabic (Albustanji, 2013). For example, Al Albustanji (2013) examined the production of morpho-syntactic features in agrammatic Jordanian-Arabic (JA) speaking. The findings revealed that the speakers of JA with agrammatism are showing a dissociation between specific morpho-syntactic features.

Prosody is one aspect which varies across the languages and dialects. There has been very limited attempts in Palestinian Arabic language to investigate the prosodic deficits in person with Broca's aphasia. It is expected that the study will fill up some of the gaps in understanding how the prosodic deficits vary across language which in turn may provide corroborative basis for the existing research. It is also felt that the findings may throw some light on the better assessment and planning strategies to rehabilitate persons with aphasia showing obvious prosodic deficits.

3. Method

3.1. Participants

The goal of the present study was to explore intonational and temporal patterns among Palestinian agrammatic subjects. Four male subjects aged between 49 and 66 from the same region residence participated in the current study who served as the experimental group. All of them had been diagnosed with Broca's aphasia based on adaptation of the BDAE and the Bilingual aphasia Test; Jordanian Arabic version (Paradis, 1987). The sites of lesions were determined by neurologists.

All the participants were predominantly right-handed. They had single left hemisphere lesion for at least six months prior to testing. Hearing was within normal limits with no evidence of dysarthria or visual impairments. All participants demonstrated the classical picture of telegraphic speech features, specifically, effortful, non-fluent, and dysprosodic speech, with well-preserved understating abilities. Four native speakers with no language or speech impairments served as the control group. They were right-handed and roughly matched for age and education to the experimental group.

3.2. Speech samples and acoustic analysis procedure

For this study, the spontaneous speech samples of four Broca's aphasics (experimental group) and four neurotypical controls were elicited. The participants were asked about their hobbies, profession, daily activities, former jobs, and family etc. The spontaneous speech samples of the aphasic subjects were recorded during rehabilitative sessions of speech therapy at Bethlehem Rehabilitation Centre, and those of neurotypical speakers were recorded in a quite well-isolated room at a training centre at Hebron. The speech sample was recorded using a high-quality microphone positioned around 2.5 centimetres from the participants' mouth. The structured part of the study was focused on eliciting the WH-questions in a repetition task. Agrammatic participants were asked to repeat simple 5 Wh-questions as shown in the below example:

Experimenter: Ali drank water.

Ali shirib maj. esh shirib Ali.

Target: what Ali drank?

Each recording session was completed in approximately within 25 minutes. The utterances were recorded directly to a PC computer. In case of recording error and inaccurate articulation, the subjects were asked to repeat the test items and the responses were re-recorded. The acoustic analysis of the speech sample was carried out using the software PRAAT (Boersma & Weenink, 2008) and Phono-Lab (Metoui, 1995). Based on Marotta et.al (2008:84) study, which sought to examine the maintenance of prosodic structures in Italian aphasic speakers by using several acoustic measures, the following parameters were used for the current analysis-•pitch range and pitch values (Hz) at the beginning (onset) and at the end (offset) of the breath-group; and melodic shape of the final syllable, classified according to the following categories: rising, falling, rising-falling, falling-rising, flat.

4. Results and Discussion

Different profiles of prosodic and timing patterns were observed in the two groups of the present study. The following results and discussion are addressed along four domains:

- Duration measures
- Rate
- Melodic shape of the utterance
- Pitch range and values

The acoustic analysis revealed that persons with Broca's aphasia exhibited presence of dysprosodic structures when compared to the sample produced by control subjects. The dysprosodic deficits were quite evident in persons with Broca's aphasia. Due to the obvious prosodic deficits, the overall quality of speech was severely effected as a results the intelligibility of speech was restricted in persons with aphasia. Furthermore, they also exhibited abnormal lengthening of the word and utterance duration, which was not typical to those found among the normal speakers. The increased abnormal lengthening and increased duration resulted in abnormal slow rate of speech; this signifies that if the timing is not maintained, the quality and quantity of speech gets disrupted. Further, this puts constrain on both the speaker and listener. As a result the listener might pay more attention on the manner of speech rather than the content of speech, which in turn hampers the effective communication. Thus, this in turn reflects that the speech chain gets disrupted, results in overt speech deficits in persons with aphasia.

However, one needs to be cautious in interpreting these results, that these deficits signify that such prosodic deficits are secondary in nature. This occurs as a result of obvious paralysis or paresis on the left side of body following stroke. As shown below in figure 1, Broca's aphasics demonstrated a significant increase in word duration as the number of syllables increased. In contrast, the patterns of the healthy speakers exhibited that by increasing the number of syllables, the word duration decreased, especially in the trisyllabic words. These findings further illustrates that the as the number of syllable and their complexity increases persons with aphasia starts showing over prosodic deficits. These findings signify that persons with aphasia may not be able to program their articular as the number of syllables increase. Such poor programming can be direct consequence of neurological insult which in turn influences the overall quality of speech in persons with Broca's aphasia.

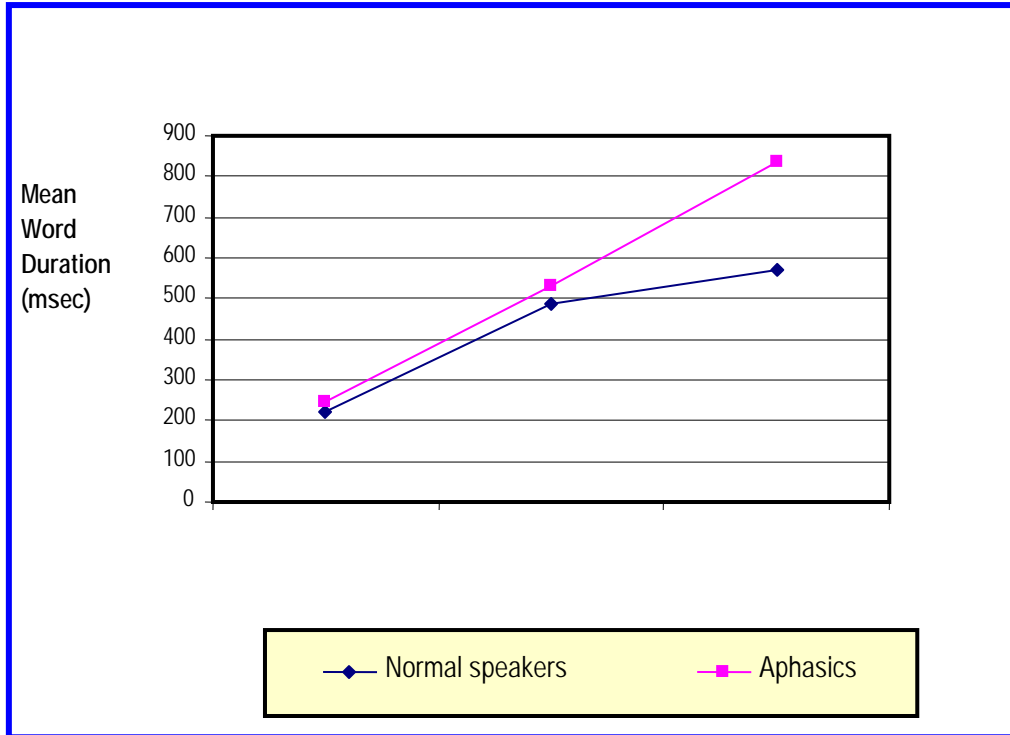


Figure 1: Mean duration values in milliseconds for Mono, Di- and Tri-syllabic words produced by the aphasic subjects and the control group.

Furthermore, timing deficits causes a decrease in speech rate that is related to the number of syllables of the utterance. The slow speech pattern may also be attributed to the frequent pauses that characterize their speech. Furthermore it can also indicate that the accessibility of the linguistic is slowed down in persons with aphasia .Figure 2 clearly shows unusual pauses by one of the aphasic subjects.

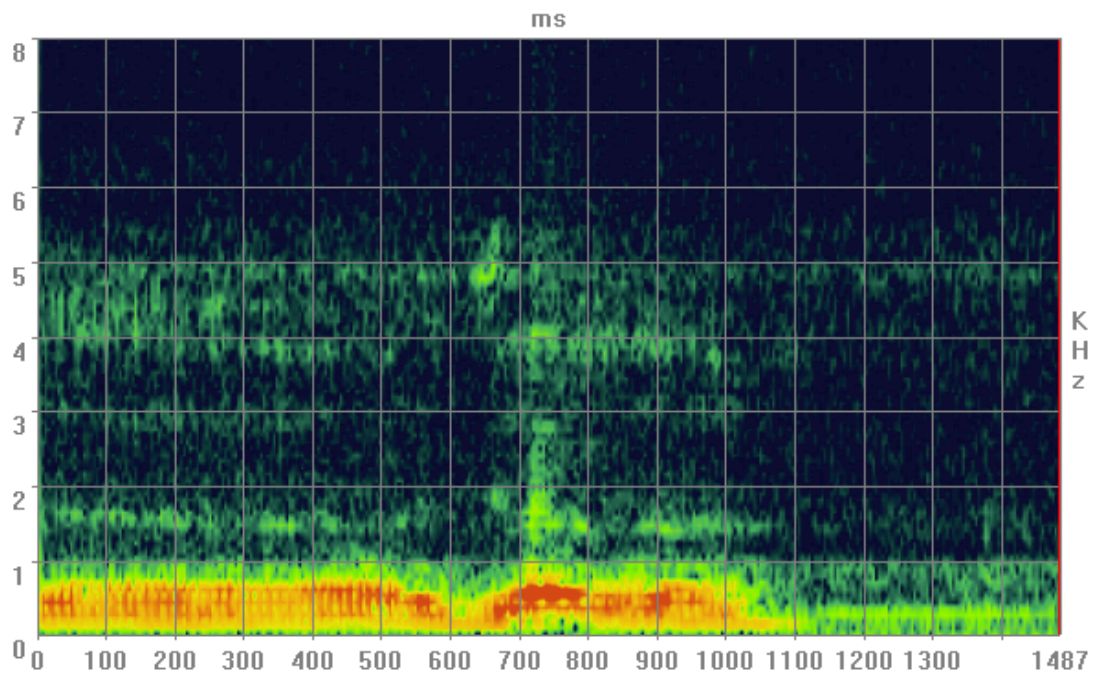


Figure 2: Spectrogram showing unusual pauses as produced by an aphasic subject

Interestingly, results of the study revealed that Broca's aphasics could produce final falling pitch for a WH-question, which was similar to the patterns produced by the control subjects, as can be seen in figure 3. The findings also demonstrated that the energy distribution observed during the production of WH-questions by Broca's aphasics began from a higher value when compared the control subjects. Moreover, in contrast to the normal subjects, the patterns found in the Broca's aphasics were low in amplitude at the end of the utterance. The findings highlight that energy is more distributed to WH questions, where there is possibility that semanticity, frequency of stimuli has played an important role. Further production of final failing pitch may indicate that by the time linguistic stimuli is released persons with aphasia are able to produce better output. This shows that persons with aphasia show intent to articulate the syllables more clearly.

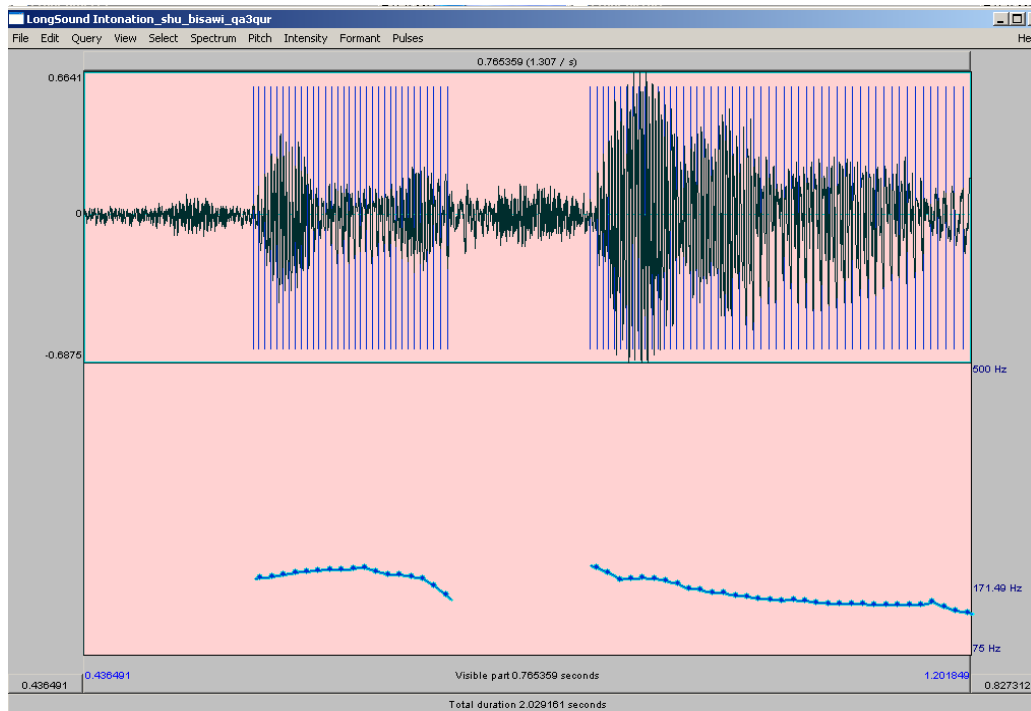


Figure 3: Waveform display, spectrogram, representing final falling pitch for a WH-question sentence repeated by an aphasic subject.

It should, however, be noticed that Broca's aphasics displayed higher F0 values in contrast to the normal speakers, as can be shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Differences in F0 averages between Broca's aphasics and normal speakers

Broca's Aphasics	Normal speakers	Differences
165	120	45

With respect to the F0 declination, the acoustic data revealed that Broca's aphasics retain the ability to demonstrate F0 declination, which can be defined as the tendency for fundamental frequency (F0) to gradually drift downward in the course of an utterance (Ladd, 1984; Lieberman, 1967).

Functionally, declination considered as a structuring device, since a reset in the slope of declination often conveys information about the boundaries of different linguistic units.

Furthermore, it is clear from the data that Broca's aphasics tended to produce sentences characterized by long pauses. This shows that persons with aphasia show intent to produce quality verbal output. This is due the fact that these persons are aware about of their problem and shows strong willingness to improve their overall quality of speech. Furthermore, the acoustic analysis showed that the normal speakers produced the declarative sentences with falling intonation and the interrogative utterance with rising intonation. Interestingly, the aphasic subjects were able to maintain this acoustic –prosodic rule, by exhibiting rising intonation for interrogative sentences and falling intonation for the declarative ones.

5. Conclusion

This paper presents the main acoustic features of Palestinian prosody based on data obtained from four Palestinian- speaking Broca's aphasics and normal speakers. A number of acoustic measures have been examined in this study, including tone modulation, F0 range, phrase-final lengthening, and word duration and syllable duration. Though it was a preliminary attempt, but the results have been quite clear and provides corroborative evidence to the existing research. The acoustic analysis indicated that Broca's aphasics show abnormal prosodic patterns, due to excessive syllable and segmental lengthening, frequent hesitations, slow speaking rate, and pauses. However, the results revealed that Broca's aphasics have the ability to signal the intonational contrast at least in short sentences. The findings of the present study indicate that Broca's aphasics were unable to implement phrase-final lengthening compared to the control subjects, indicating motor speech planning and timing deficits.

Furthermore, the results display that aspects of speech prosody in individuals with Broca's aphasia are not all broken, for example, the ability to distinguish between declarative and interrogative sentences. Similar to previous research, the data also shows that that Broca's aphasics have an overall average increase of F0 compared to the normal speakers (Danly, & Shapiro, 1982).

Overall, these results are consistent with previous studies on speech timing in aphasia which claim that Broca's aphasics demonstrate deficits in some prosodic aspects and their impaired melody of speech is related to timing deficits rather than to intonational abnormalities (Ghosh et al., 2008, Baum et al. 1999). Generally, this acoustic investigation might contribute to the neurolinguistic research across different languages in the effort to better understand the nature and underlying causes of speech and language disorders, specifically in Palestinian Arabic, which is less investigated compared to other Arabic dialects and languages. Furthermore, the persistent and vehement armed conflict in the region and knowing more about this aphasia could help rehabilitate Palestinians better, especially since Arabic is a Semitic language with particular social/emotional cues that hinge on cadence and prosody, arguably much more so than lingua-franca like English where the emphasis is mostly semantic.

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Ahenksiz konuşma: Filistin Arapçasından akustik analiz örneği

Öz

Bu çalışma Broca afazisi olan ve normal Filistin dili konuşan dört kişiden toplanan veri üzerinden Filistin dilinin bürününün akustik incelenmesini sunmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu çalışmada ton modülasyon, F0 aralığı, ifade sonu uzatma, kelime süresi ve hece süresini kapsayan çeşitli akustik ölçüler incelenmiştir. Sonuçlar, Broca afazili kişilerin kontrol grubuna göre ifade sonu uzatmalarını gerçekleştiremediklerini göstermiştir. Bu da konuşma planlaması ve zamanlamasında altta yatan zorlukları ortaya koymaktadır. Ayrıca kontrol grubuna göre Broca afazili kişiler yüksek F0 aralığı göstermiştir. Buna rağmen, kısmen daha düzgün yüksek ve düşük entonasyon modelleri sergilemişlerdir. Bu çalışmanın sonuçları, konuşma zamanlama eksikliklerinin ve anormal süresel modellerin Broca afazili kişilerin konuşmalarının önemli bir özelliği olduğu Broca afazili kişilerde zamanlama ve bürünsel modeller açısından önceki çalışmalarla bağlantılıdır. Bu çalışmanın sonuçları diğer dillerde özellikle diğer Arapça lehçelerine ve dillerine kıyasla daha az araştırılan Filistin Arapçasında yapılan nörolingüistik araştırmalarına katkı sağlamaktadır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Ahenksiz konuşma; Filistin Arapçası; akustik analiz

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Rodos'taki Türkçe-Yunanca ikidilli konuşucuların Türkçesinde Yunancanın etkisi*

Aytaç Çeltek **

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Özet

Bu çalışma Türkçe ile Yunanca arasındaki dil değişiminin Rodos Türkçesi (RT) üzerindeki dilbilgisel etkilerini incelemektedir. RT üzerine yapılan önceki çalışmalarda adada konuşulan Türkçede (RT), Yunanca ile değişim sonucunda Yunancadan *kopyalama* yapıldığı gözlenmiştir. Bu çalışmada bu kopyalamaların dilbilgisel boyutları *dil değişimi* çerçevesinde açıklanmaya çalışılacaktır. 1947 yılından sonra Yunancanın Rodos'ta resmi dil konumuna geçmesiyle birlikte Türkçe alt değişke olarak varlığını sürdürmektedir. Adadaki nüfusun bir parçası olan Türkçe-Yunanca ikidilli halk Türkçeyi anadilleri olarak kullanmaya devam etmektedirler. Rodos'ta Türkçe yaklaşık altı yüz yıldır Yunanca ile yakın bir değişim içindedir. Yunancanın üst değişke konumuna gelmesi ile birlikte Türkçe üzerindeki etkisi artmıştır. Çalışmanın temel savı, Türkçe ve Yunanca arasındaki değişim sonucunda adada konuşulan Türkçenin değişime uğramış olduğudur. Çalışmada, Türkçe ve Yunanca arasındaki dilsel değişimin biçimsözdizimsel ve anlamsal boyutları *sözlüksel değişim* ve *yapısal kopyalama* olguları açısından incelenmektedir. Bu çalışmada kullanılan veriler yaklaşık sekiz yıldır bir grup araştırmacı tarafından sürdürülen budunbilimsel gözlemler sırasında elde edilmiştir. Bu somut çalışmanın diğer verileri ise, budunbilimsel gözlemlerin yanı sıra katılımcı gözlem, not alma ve görüşmeler yoluyla toplanmıştır. Bu çalışma ile Rodos Türkçesinde dil değişimi sonucu bir dil değişmesi olup olmadığının ortaya çıkarılması ve dil değişimi alanında yapılan çalışmalara bir katkı sağlanması amaçlanmaktadır.

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Anahtar sözcükler: Türkçe-Yunanca dil değişimi; sözlüksel değişim, yapısal kopyalama

1. Giriş

Türk dillerinin ve özellikle Türkçenin diğer dillerle olan değişimi konusunda yapılan çalışmalar son yıllarda arttıkça (Boeschoten ve Johanson, 2006; Doğruöz ve Backus, 2009; Johanson, 2000, 2002; Matras, 2009), araştırmalar, dil değişiminin Türkçenin yerel değişkelerinin değişmesinde önemli bir rol oynadığını göstermektedir (Demir ve Johanson, 2006, s. 2). Bu bağlamda, bu çalışma Rodos'ta Yunanca ile Türkçe arasındaki dil değişimi sonucu ortaya çıkan sözlüksel ve yapısal değişiklikler üzerine odaklanmaktadır. Rodos Türkçesinin (bundan sonra RT) özellikleri üzerine daha önce yapılmış çalışmalar RT'de Yunancadan önemli ölçüde kopyalama yapıldığını ortaya çıkarmıştır (Georgalidou, Spyropoulos, Kaili ve Revithiadou, 2012). Bu çalışmada, Yunancanın etkisi ile RT'de hangi sözlüksel

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ve yapısal değişiklikler meydana geldiği ve gelmekte olduğu sorusu ele alınacaktır. Çıkış noktası olarak, çözümlerimizde aşağıdaki varsayımlar temel alınmaktadır:

- RT’de Türkiye Türkçesinden sapma gösteren yapılar¹ (Doğruöz ve Backus, 2009) bulunmaktadır.
- Sapma gösteren bu yapıların bazıları Yunancanın etkisi ile ortaya çıkmıştır.
- Yunancanın RT üzerindeki etkisi sadece sözlüksel değil, aynı zamanda biçimsözdizimsel düzlemede de görülebilir.

2. Toplumsal ve dilsel görünüm

2.1. Değininim durumunun gelişimi

Rodos’taki Türkçe-Yunanca ikidilli konuşucular Türk kökenli Yunan vatandaşları olup adada 1522’den itibaren yaşamaktadırlar. İtalyan işgali süresince adadaki Türkler adanın üç dini topluluğundan biri olarak kabul edilmiştir (1912-1943). 1947’de On iki Ada’nın Yunanistan’a katılmasıyla Rodos’ta yaşayan Müslüman topluluk Yunan vatandaşlığına geçmiştir ve Lozan Antlaşması’na dâhil edilmemiştir. Ancak vakıflarına ve okullarına özel bir statü tanınmıştır. 1972’de okullardaki Türkçe eğitim bilfiil kaldırılmıştır (Tsitselikis ve Mavrommatis, 2003). Adadaki ikidilli nüfus bugün yaklaşık 3000 kişidir. Bugün adadaki toplumdilbilimsel durumda, Türkçe miras dil, Yunanca da nüfus çoğunluğunun dili konumundadır.

2.2. Dilsel repertuar

Topluluğun yaşlı konuşucuları (bugün 80 yaşın üstünde olanlar) yerel Türkçeyi akıcı olarak kullanmakla birlikte (Georgalidou, Spyropoulos ve Kaili, 2004) Türkçeden oldukça fazla girişimin olduğu Rodos Yunancasını da kullanmaktadırlar. Sonraki nesiller, Türkçeyle birlikte, Türkçe girişimin daha az görüldüğü bir Yunanca da konuşmaktadırlar. Bu girişim, daha genç nesillerin Yunancasında giderek azalmakta hatta tamamen kaybolmaktadır. Türkçe-Yunanca ikidilli çocuklar Yunan devlet okullarında öğrenim görmektedir. Türkçe resmi olarak öğretilmemekte, sadece aile içinde ve topluluğun sosyal etkinliklerinde kullanılmaktadır. Bunun sonucunda, son 60 yılda neredeyse tüm topluluğun dili, Türkçe tek dillilikten Türkçe-Yunanca ikidilliliğe dönüşmüştür. Tekdilli devlet okullarında eğitim ve Yunanca okur-yazarlık sonucunda 30 yaş altı genç nesil yalnızca Yunanca kullanma eğilimi göstermektedir. Topluluk üyeleri Türkçeyi farklı yeterlilik düzeylerinde konuşmaktadırlar (Georgalidou ve diğ., 2012). Genç nesil Türkçeyi yalnızca evde edinmekte ve herhangi bir resmi eğitim sürecinden geçmemektedir. Çalışmamız için gözlemlediğimiz tüm çocuklar (18 yaş altı) edilgen Türkçe bilgisine sahip olmakla birlikte, yalnızca Yunancayı kullanma eğilimi göstermektedirler. Sonuç olarak, Türkçe-Yunanca ikidilli topluluk içinde tarihsel, toplumsal ve kişisel etkenlere bağlı olarak her iki dilde de değişken yeterlilik düzeyleri gözlenmektedir (Georgalidou, Kaili ve Çeltek, 2008).

3. Kuramsal çerçeve

3.1. Dil değinimi

Bu çalışma çerçevesinde ele aldığımız *dil değinimi*, en basit anlamıyla, bir dilsel topluluğun iki dili bir arada kullanmasıyla oluşmaktadır (Thomason, 2001, s. 1). Dil değinimi alanında yapılan pek çok çalışmada dillerin değininim durumunda birbirlerini etkiledikleri belirtilmektedir (Weinreich, 1953; Thomason ve Kaufman, 1988; Thomason, 2001; Johanson, 2002; Winford, 2003; Heine ve Kuteva, 2005). Ancak, değininimin sonuçlarının ne olacağı ile ilgili öngörülerde bulunmak bu alanın en zorlu konularından biridir (Siemund, 2008, s. 3).

Değininin sonuçları değil de etkenleri nelerdir diye soracak olursak iki etkenle karşı karşıya kalırız. Bunlardan ilki, dildeki değişimin en önemli nedeni olan toplumsal etkenlerdir. Toplumsal etkenler, değininin uzunluğu ve yoğunluğu; hangi dilin politik ya da demografik olarak baskın olduğu ya da değinin durumundaki iki dilin her ikisini de konuşan bireylerin azınlık olup olmadığı gibi konuları içermektedir (Winford, 2003, s. 2). Bu çalışma çerçevesinde politik ve demografik olarak baskın olan dil *kaynak dil*; baskın olmayan dil ise *alıcı dil* olarak ele alınmaktadır (Winford, 2003, s. 12).

Dilsel etkenlerden en önemlisi ise iki dilin tipolojik olarak benzer olup olmadıklarıdır. (Thomason ve Kaufman, 1988, s. 73; Winford, 2003, s. 2). Tipolojik olarak birbirinden çok farklı olan dillerde yapısal ödünçleme için daha uzun süreli bir değinin gerekmektedir (Thomason, 2001, s. 71). Thomason'un dillerin değinimi ile tetiklenen dilsel işlemleri açıklamak için kullandığı yapısal ödünçleme terimi geleneksel olarak *aktarım*, *girişim*, *taşıma*, *kopyalama*, *vd.* gibi terimlerle de adlandırılmaktadır. Ancak, Johanson'un da (2002, s. 8; 2000, s. 88) belirttiği gibi kaynak dil ödünç alınan ögesini kaybetmez, dolayısıyla ödünçleme bir kopyalama sürecidir ve ödünçleme terimi ile karşılanması uygun olmamaktadır. Bu çalışmada kaynak dilden bir yapının, örneğin sözdiziminin kopyalanması, biçimsözdizimsel, edimbilimsel ya da söylem yapıları gibi, alıcı dilde dilsel topluluk tarafından yaygın bir şekilde kullanılması ile ortaya çıkan süreçler için *yapısal kopyalama* (Johanson, 2006) terimi kullanılmaktadır (1).

- (1) Rodos Türkçesi (RT): Sınıfta çok çocuklar var.
Yunanca (Y): Stin taksi iparhun pola peđja
-DA sınıf.BEL var.ÇĞ çok çocuk.ÇĞ²
'Sınıfta çok çocuk var'
Türkiye Türkçesi (TT): Sınıfta çok çocuk var.

Örnekte görüldüğü gibi, RT'de kopyalanan yapı *çok* sıfatı ile nitelenen bir ad üzerinde çoğul biçimbiriminin kullanılmasıdır. TT'de bu ad tekil durumdadır, oysa Yunancada, tıpkı kopyalandığı gibi çoğul biçimdedir.

Burada tanımlayacağımız ikinci mekanizma olan *sözlüksel değişim*de kaynak dildeki bir sözcük, alıcı dildeki anlamca eşdeğer ifadesine birebir çevrilerek kullanılmaktadır.

- (2) RT: telefon al-mak
Y: perno tilefono
al-1TK telefon-BEL.
'telefon etmek' düz anlamı: telefon almak
TT: telefon et-mek

(2)'de *telefon etmek* eylemi *telefon almak* eylemi ile yer değiştirmiştir. Burada sapma gösteren yapı Yunanca ifadedeki kavramsal yapının RT'de kopyalanmasıdır.

Söz ettiğimiz her iki süreç de alıcı dilde yeni biçimlere yol açmaktadır, dolayısıyla aynı dilin değinininde olmayan değişkesinin konuşucuları -yani bu durumda TT konuşucuları- bu biçimleri sapma olarak algılamaktadırlar (Doğruöz ve Backus, 2009). Bu çalışmanın amacı da RT'de Yunancanın etkisiyle oluşan bu sapsmaları tanımlamaktır.

3.2. Rodos'taki Türkçe Yunanca dil değinimi

Dil değininimini etkileyen toplumsal ve dilsel etkenler olduğunu belirtmiştik. Rodos'taki dil değininiminin dilsel etkenleri, Yunanca ve Türkçe arasındaki tipolojik farklılıklardır. Öncelikle, iki dil farklı dil ailelerine aittir. Yunanca bir Hint-Avrupa dilidir. Tipolojik olarak bükümlü/kaynaşık bir dildir. İlgeç-ön özelliğine sahiptir. Baskın sözcük dizilişi özne-eylem-nesne (ÖEN)'dir. Yantümcelerde çekimli eylem kullanılmakta ve yantümceler sağa dallanmaktadır.

Toplumsal etkenlere gelince, Rodos Türkçesi, Yunanca ile 1522 yılından bu yana bir değinim içindedir. Ancak, Yunancanın politik ve demografik olarak kaynak dil; Türkçenin ise alıcı dil konumuna geçmesi 1948'den sonra olmuştur. Adada konuşulan Türkçe, çok uzun yıllar Türkiye Türkçesinden çok fazla etkilenmeden yaşamıştır. Demir ve Johanson (2006, s. 2) yine bir ada olan Kıbrıs'ta benzer bir durumun yaşandığını belirtmektedir. Ada olmanın da etkisiyle Rodos Türkçesinin yalıtılmış bir biçimde korunarak Türkiye Türkçesinde yaşanan değişikliklerden etkilenmemesi sonucunda eski özellikler korunmuş ve Yunancanın etkisiyle yeni yapılar oluşturulmuştur. Eski özelliklerin korunmasına örnek olarak, bugün ölçünlü Türkçede artık kullanılmayan *billor* (cam bardak), *lobya* (fasulye), *peşkir* (havlu) gibi bazı adların, *dermi* (yuvarlak) gibi bazı sıfatların, *ekseri* (çoğunlukla) gibi bazı belirteçlerin ve *ünlemek* (birine seslenmek), *üleşmek* (paylaşmak) gibi bazı eylemlerin hala etkin bir biçimde kullanılmasını örnek olarak gösterebiliriz. Ayrıca, topluluk Yunancaya kayma konusunda sürekli bir “baskı” altındadır, ancak Türkçeyi *sürdürme* konusunda da bir çaba³ gözlenmektedir. Topluluk üyelerinin günlük iletişimde büyük çoğunlukla düzenek kaydırımı egemendir. (Georgalidou, Kaili ve Çeltek, 2010).

3.3. TT'den sapma gösteren yapılar nasıl oluşmaktadır?

Doğruöz ve Backus'a göre (2009, s. 46-47), kopyalanan dilsel birim ne olursa olsun sapmaya neden olan 4 süreç bulunmaktadır:

- Değiştirme: RT'de bir biçimbirimin yerine başka bir biçimbirimin kullanılması
- Ekleme: RT'de bir yapıya TT'de bulunmayan bir biçimbirimin eklenmesi
- Eksik bırakma: RT'de bir yapıya eklenmesi gereken bir biçimbirimin eklenmemesi
- Anlamsal boşluklar: TT'de hem kavramsal hem de dilsel olarak var olmayan, kültüre özgü kavramların (atasözleri, deyimler, kalıplaşmış ifadeler) ödünç çeviri yoluyla sözlükselleştirilmesi

Doğruöz ve Backus (2009) bu dört süreci, sapma gösteren yapıları açıklamak üzere belirlemişlerdir, ancak alıcı ve kaynak dil aynı yapıya ya da aynı seçeneklere sahip olduğu için sapma gibi görünmeyen yapılarda da kaynak dilin etkisinin bulunabileceğini kabul etmektedirler. Bu çalışmada, Yunancanın etkisiyle ortaya çıkan, fakat, aynı zamanda, TT'de sapma olarak algılanmayan bu tür yapılar da ele alınmaktadır. Sonuç olarak, bu çalışmanın verilerinden yola çıkarak, yukarıda söz edilen dört süreçle birlikte ele alınması gereken beşinci bir süreçten söz edilebilir. Bu beşinci süreçte sapma gösteren yapılar bulunmamakta ancak TT'de belirtisiz olanın ötesine geçen yapılar gözlenmektedir. Bu süreç aşağıdaki gibi tanımlanabilir:

- Tercih: RT'de konuşucular, zaman zaman, her iki dilde de aynı yapısal örüntüyü ortaya koyan belirli bir seçeneği tercih etmektedirler. Örneğin belirli bir yapı için, TT'de A ve B seçenekleri olsun. Yunancada eğer bu seçeneklerden yalnızca B seçeneği bulunuyorsa RT'de B seçeneğinin kullanım/tercih edilme sıklığı artmaktadır.

- (3) RT: sanmasınlar yoğum evde.
 Y: na min nomizun oti den eimai sto spiti
 İST OLMZ san.3ÇĞ TİM OLMZ -imek.ŞİM.1TK -DA ev.BEL
 TT: Evde olmadığımı sanmasınlar.

(3)'te RT örneği TT için hem dilbilgiseldir hem de sapma göstermez, ancak belirtili durumlarda kullanılır. TT'de, belirtisiz yapıda, çekimsiz eylem içeren ad işlevli yan tümce ana tümce eyleminden önce gelmektedir. RT'de ise Yunanca belirtisiz durumda olduğu gibi ad işlevli yan tümce ana tümce

eyleminden hem sonra gelmektedir hem de çekimlidir. RT konuşucuları Yunancanın etkisiyle ad işlevli yan tümcelerde sürekli olarak böyle bir tercih göstermektedirler.

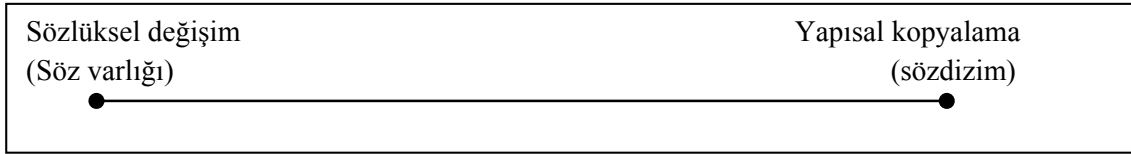
4. Yöntem

4.1. Denekler

Bu çalışmada kullanılan veriler yaklaşık sekiz yıldır bir grup araştırmacı tarafından sürdürülen budunbilimsel gözlemler sırasında elde edilmiştir. Budunbilimsel gözlemler, yakın aile ve arkadaş ilişkisinde olan⁴ topluluk üyelerinin dil davranışlarını incelemeye olanak sağlamaktadır. Bu somut çalışmanın diğer verileri ise, budunbilimsel gözlemlerin yanı sıra, not alma, ses kayıtları ve görüşmeleri içeren katılımcı gözlem yoluyla toplanmıştır. Veri toplama sürecinde yaklaşık 150 ikidilli topluluk üyesi gözlenmiştir. Bu sayı topluluğun toplam nüfusunun %5'ini oluşturmaktadır.

4.2. Veri toplama ve çözümleme

Verilerin sınıflandırılması sürecinde ise, ilk olarak, gözlemlerde alınan notlar ve ses kayıtlarının çeviri yazıya dönüştürülmesi ile elde edilen konuşmalar içinden ikidillilerin kullandıkları RT'de Yunancanın etkisi ile TT'den sapma gösteren yapılar belirlenmiştir. Bu yapıların TT'de sapma olarak algılanıp algılanmadıklarını doğrulamak amacı ile hakem olarak tekdilli 5 TT konuşucusuna başvurulmuştur. Hakemlerden, belirlenen yapılardaki sapmaların olası nedenlerini de belirtmeleri istenmiştir. Hakemlerin yorumları da dikkate alınarak sapmalar, sapmaya neden olan mekanizmaları gösteren 13 başlık altında toplanmıştır. Bu mekanizmalar, Doğruöz ve Backus'un (2009) önerdiği gibi sözlüksel değişimden yapısal kopyalamaya doğru ilerleyen aşamalı bir ölçeğe göre sıralanmıştır.



Çizelge 1. Aşamalı ölçek

Bir sonraki bölümde verilen örneklerde görüleceği gibi, RT'de belirlenen bu mekanizmalarda hem yapıların sapma göstermeyen TT karşılıkları hem de Yunanca eşdeğerleri verilmektedir. Yunanca eşdeğerlerinin verilmesinin nedeni, o yapıda Yunanca etkisi ile oluşan ve sapmaya neden olan mekanizmanın fark edilmesini sağlamaktır.

5. Bulgular: Rodos Türkçesinde Sözlüksel değişim ve Yapısal kopyalama

5.1. Sözlüksel değişim: sözcükte anlam genişlemesi

(4), (5) ve (6)'da görüldüğü gibi, RT'de kullanılan pek çok sözcük, çoğunlukla eylemler, Yunancadaki yan anlamlarından Türkçeye düz anlamları ile aktarılmaktadırlar.

- (4) RT: Ayten beni yapıştırdı, şimdi Ezel'e de bakıyorum.
 Y: Me kolise i Ayten tora vlepō ke to Ezel
 ben.BEL yapış.GEÇ.3TK TNM Ayten şimdi gör.ŞİM.1TK ve BEL Ezel
 TT: Ayten beni alıştırdı, şimdi Ezel'i de izliyorum.

- (5) RT: Ali durdu.
 Y: O Ali stamatise
 TNM Ali dur.GEÇ.3TK
 TT: Ali (kursu) bıraktı.

- (6) RT: Umarım grev onları tutmaz.
 Y: Elpizo na min tus piasi i aperyia
 um.ŞİM.1TK İST OLMZ onlar.BEL tut.1TK TNM grev
 TT: Umarım onlar grevden etkilenmez / grev onları etkilemez.

(4)'te *yapıştırmak* ve *bakmak*; (5)'te *durmak*; (6)'da *tutmak* eylemlerinin Yunancadaki yan okunuşları Rodos Türkçesinde aynen kullanılmıştır, ancak bu eylemler TT'de aynı yan okunuşlarıyla kullanılmamaktadır. Örneğin, TT'de bir kişinin çalıştığı işi ya da gittiği kursu bıraktığını söylemek için *durmak* eylemi kullanılmamaktadır, ancak RT'de aynı durumu anlatmak için *Ayşe işten durdu* ya da (5)'te olduğu gibi, *Ali (kurstan) durdu* biçimleri çok yaygın bir biçimde kullanılmakta, bu da TT'de sapmaya neden olmaktadır.

5.2. Yapı içindeki bir biçimbirimin başka bir biçimbirimle değiştirilmesi (deyim aktarımı)

Bu ulamdaki örneklerde sadece sözlüksel bir değişimden söz edemeyiz. Burada işleyen mekanizma daha çok Yunancada bir ad öbeği ya da eylem öbeği şeklinde ifade edilen bir yapının içinde biçimbirimlerin Türkçeye aktarılırken korunması sonucunda bu yapının TT'den sapmaya neden olmasıdır.

- (7) RT: *Ayaklan* beş dakika
 Y: pende lepta me ta póđja
 beş dakika.ÇĞ ile TNM ayak.ÇĞ.BEL
 TT: Yürüyerek beş dakika.

(7)'de, Yunancada bir ilgeç öbeği yoluyla üretilen bu yapı (yatık yazılmış) Türkçeye aynı biçimde aktarıldığında (*ayakla*) sapmaya neden olmaktadır çünkü TT'de aynı anlamı ifade edebilmek için başka bir yapı (*yürüyerek*) kullanılmaktadır. Bu değişim sapmaya neden olmaktadır.

- (8) RT: Termosifonu koydun mu?
 Y: Evales to termosifono?
 koy.GEÇ.2TK TNM termosifon.BEL
 TT: Termosifonu açtın/yaktın mı?

(8)'de *koymak* eyleminin Yunancadan aynen aktarılarak, TT'de aynı anlamı ifade etmek için kullanılan *açmak/yakmak* eylemleri ile değiştirilmesi sapmaya neden olmaktadır, çünkü TT'de *termosifonu koymak* ifadesi değil, *termosifonu açmak/yakmak* ifadeleri kullanılmaktadır.

5.3. Anlamsal boşluklar

Doğruöz ve Backus'un belirttiği gibi (2009, s. 47), sapma, bazen, tamamen o kültüre özgü bir kavramın/ifadenin diğer dilde sözlüksel olarak karşılığı olmadığı meydana gelmektedir.

- (9) RT: Sanki biz saman yiyoruz
 Y: les ke emis trome (kuto)horto
 de.ŞİM.2TK ve biz ye.ŞİM.1ÇĞ (ahmak)ot.BEL
 TT: Sanki biz aptalız/enayiyiz.

(9)'da görüldüğü gibi, Yunanca bir deyim (*troo kutohorto*: ahmakotu yemek) Türkçe sözcüklerle ifade edildiği durumda tipik bir ödünç çeviri örneği yaşanmaktadır, çünkü Türkçede bu sözcüklerle ifade edilen bir deyim kullanılmamaktadır. Türkçede, bu anlam, *aptal/enayi olmak* biçiminde ifade edilirken, RT konuşucuları Yunancadaki deyim Türkçe sözcükleri kullanarak ifade etmektedirler. Bu ödünç çeviri sonucunda TT'de kullanılmayan bir deyim ortaya çıkmaktadır, bu da sapmaya neden olmaktadır.

5.4. -mİş tanıtısal ekinin yerine -DI ekinin kullanılması

Türkçede tanıtısal ek, eylem ve ad üzerinde –mİş ve –(y)mİş ile belirtilmektedir. Yunancada ise, eylemde ya da adla böyle bir tanıtısal eki bulunmaz. RT’de bazı durumlarda konuşucular, kendilerinin görmediği, yalnızca sonradan duydukları bir olay ya da durumdan söz ederlerken -DI ekini tercih etmektedirler.⁵

- (10) RT: O, geçen hafta Atina’ya geldi (konuşmacı başkasından duyduğu bir bilgiyi aktarıyor)
 Y: Aftos irθe stin Aθina tin perasmeni evðomaða
 O gel.GEÇ.3TK –(y)A Atina TNM geçen.BEL hafta.BEL
 TT: O, geçen hafta Atina’ya gelmiş.

(10)’da KonuşmacıA KonuşmacıB ile konuşuyor. Ona C ile telefonda konuştuğunu ve Cnin birkaç gün önce Atina’ya gelip gittiğini öğrendiğini söylüyor. A olayı kendi görmediği için ve de olay yaşandıktan sonra yalnızca telefonda duyduğu için A’nın sözcesinde –mİş tanıtısal belirticisinin kullanılması gerekirken kullanılmaması sapmaya neden olmaktadır.

5.5. Evet/hayır sorularında mI soru iminin kullanılmaması

Türkçede evet/hayır sorularında soru imi (mI) kullanılırken, Yunancada soru imi yoktur ve evet/hayır soruları yalnızca uygun tonlama yoluyla oluşturulur.⁶

- (11) RT: İyisin?
 Y: Ise kala?
 -imek.ŞİM.2TK iyi
 TT: İyi misin?

(11)’de görüldüğü gibi, RT’de evet/hayır sorularında, bazen, Yunancanın etkisiyle soru imi kullanılmakta, sorular tonlama yoluyla oluşturulmaktadır. Bu da TT’den sapmaya neden olmaktadır.

5.6. Çoğul eki kullanımı

Türkçede bir adın önünde sayı ya da niceleyici bulunduğunda, ad tekil biçimdedir ve eylemle tekillik açısından uyumludur [sayı/niceleyici + ad_{tekil}]. Yunancada ise, bir ad öbeğinde sayı ya da niceleyici varsa ad çoğul biçimdedir [sayı/niceleyici + ad_{çoğul}]. Ayrıca, Türkçede sıfat işlevli yan tümcelerde ortaç ile baş arasında sayı bakımından uyum bulunmamakta, Yunancada ise bulunmaktadır.

- (12) RT: İki adalar da harikaydı.
 Y: Ke ta ðio nisia itan iperoha
 ve TNM iki ada.ÇĞ.BEL -imek.GEÇ.3ÇĞ harika.3ÇĞ
 TT: İki ada da harikaydı.

(12)’de *iki* sayısının kullanıldığı ad öbeğinde ad, Yunancanın etkisiyle çoğul biçimdedir. Bu adın TT’de tekil olması beklendiğinden bu durum sapmaya yol açmaktadır.

- (13) RT: Sözetçeklerimiz çok konular var.
 Y: İparhun polla θemata ta opoia θa kuventiasume
 var.ÇĞ çok konu.ÇĞ TNM İA.ÇĞ GEL konuş.1ÇĞ
 TT: Söz edeceğimiz çok konu var.

(13)’te hem *çok* niceleyicisinden sonra gelen çoğul ad hem de ortaça bulunan çoğul eki (sözetçeklerimiz) TT’den sapmaya neden olmaktadır. RT’de ortaça bulunan bu çoğul eki kullanımı, Yunancadaki ilgi adlı *opoia*’nın çoğul biçimde olmasından kaynaklanmaktadır. Türkçede bu durumda ilgi adlı kullanılmadığından, buradaki çoğulluk ortaç olan eylem üzerinde gösterilmiştir.

5.7. Belirtili tamlalarda 3. tekil iyelik ekinin kullanılmaması

Türkçede belirtili tamlama yapılarında iye (-(n)In) tamlayan eki alırken diğer üye iyelik eki (-(s)I) alarak bir tamlama oluşturulur (Ayşe'nin kedisi). Yunancada ise, iye, tamlayan durumunda iken diğer üye yalın durumdadır (o skilos_{yalın} tu andra_{tamlayan}). Yunancada diğer üyenin yalın durumda olmasından dolayı RT'de belirtili tamlamalar oluşturulurken, diğer üye belli bir bütünün parçası ise ve iye belirtilmiyorsa diğer üyede iyelik ekinin kullanılmadığı gözlenmektedir.

- (14) RT: (Çok köyler gördük.) En güzel Lindos.
 Y: (İdame pola horja.) To pio omorfo ine i Lindos
 gör.GEÇ.1ÇĞ çok köy.ÇĞ.BEL TNM en güzel -imek.ŞİM.3TK TNM Lindos
 TT: Çok köy gördük. (köylerin) En güzeli Lindos.

- (15) RT: - Bugün ayın kaç?
 - On
 Y: -İne ðeka tou mina
 -imek.ŞİM.3TK on TNM ay.TML
 TT: - Bugün ayın kaç?
 -Onu.

(14)'te RT'de sorunun yanıtında iye üyeden söz edilmediği için (köylerin) diğer üyede iyelik eki kullanılmamasının nedeni Yunancada bu üyenin yalın durumda bulunmasıdır. Oysa TT'de iye üye tümcede yer almasa da diğer üyenin iyelik eki korunmaktadır. Bu da TT'den sapmaya yol açmaktadır. (15)'te yine *ayın kaç* tamlamasının yanıtında sayı iyelik eki almalıdır, ancak Yunancada yalın durumda olduğundan RT'de de yalın durumda kullanılmakta, bu da TT'den sapmaya neden olmaktadır.

5.8. Dilbilgisel biçimbirimlerin Yunancadaki eşdeğerleri ile değiştirilmesi

Aşağıdaki örneklerin tümünde TT'deki durum eklerinin RT'de Yunanca eşdeğerleri ile değiştirilmesinden kaynaklanan sapmalar gösterilmektedir. Bazı durumlarda Yunancada ilgeç kullanılırken Türkçede durum eki kullanılabilmektedir. Bu durumda durum ekinin ilgeçle değiştirilmesi söz konusudur. Dolayısıyla, yer değiştiren öğeler her zaman aynı dilbilgisel ulamdan olmamaktadır.

- (16) RT: topu fur
 Y: htipa tin bala
 vur.EMİR.2TK TNM top.BEL
 TT: topa vur
- (17) RT: Orada beni okuldan arkadaşımız Katerina baktı.
 Y: Eki me kitakse i Katerina i fili mas apo to sholio
 orada ben.BEL. bak.GEÇ.3TK TNM Katerina TNM arkadaş biz.TML -DAn TNM okul.BEL
 TT: Orada bana okuldan arkadaşımız Katerina baktı.
- (18) RT: Her hafta erkekler futbol için bahsediyorlar
 Y: Kaθe evðomaða milane ja poðosfero
 her hafta konuş.ŞİM.3ÇĞ için futbol
 TT: Her hafta erkekler futboldan bahsediyorlar.
- (19) RT: Bunu ev için koymuştun.
 Y: Aftin tin ihes vali ja to spiti
 o.BEL TNM BTM.2TK koy.GEÇ için TNM ev.BEL
 TT: Bunu (alıştırmayı) eve vermiştin.

(16) ve (17)'de eylem Yunancada -(y)I belirtme durumu yüklerken TT'de -(y)A yönelme durumu yüklemektedir [-(y)A bak-, -(y)A vur-]. RT'de, Yunancadan etkilenerek, bu eylemlerle -(y)I belirtme durumunun kullanılması sapmaya neden olmaktadır. (18)'de *bahsetmek* eyleminin yüklediği -DAn

ayrılma durumu, (19)'da ise, *vermek* eyleminin yüklediği $-(y)A$ yönelme durumu, Yunancadan etkilenerek *için* ilgeci ile değiştirilmektedir. Bu da TT'den sapmaya neden olmaktadır.

5.9. Sıfat-ad dizilişinde belirsiz tanımlığın konumu

Niteleyici bir sıfat içeren belirsiz bir ad öbeğinde Yunancada belirsiz tanımlık her zaman sıfat öncesi konumdadır [*έναç/μία/ένα*⁷ SIFAT AD]. Ancak, Türkçede, belirsiz tanımlık *bir* sıfat sonrası konumdadır [SIFAT *bir* AD].

- (20) RT: Simi bir güzel ada
 Y: I Simi ine ena omorfo nisi
 TNM Simi -imek.ŞİM.3TK bir güzel ada
 TT: Simi güzel bir ada

(20)'de görüldüğü gibi, RT'deki sapma gösteren yapı Yunancadaki [*έναç/μία/ένα* SIFAT AD] dizilişinin aynen aktarılmasından kaynaklanmaktadır.

5.10. Bazı durumlarda ettirgen ekinin değiştirilmesi ya da eksik bırakılması⁸

Türkçe ettirgenliği temel olarak eylem üzerinde bir ekle ya da $-(y)A$ neden/sebeup olmak] yapısı ile belirtir. Yunanca ise eylem üzerinde ettirgenlik ekine sahip değildir. Yunancada ettirgenliği belirtmenin en üretken yolu *kano* 'yapmak' ve *vazo* 'koymak, $-(y)A$ zorlamak' eylemleri ve emir/istek kipinde bir ana eylem içeren analitik yapılarıdır [*vazo/kano* eylem_{emir/istek kipi}]. Ayrıca, ettirgenlik, belli üye değişimleri, örneğin sıfır değişim, yoluyla belirtilir.⁹

- (21) RT: Öğretmen proje koyuyo öğrencilere yazsınlar
 Y: O ðaskalos vazi tus maθites na γrapsun ekθesi
 TNM öğretmen koy.ŞİM.3TK TNM öğrenci.ÇĞ.BEL İST yaz.3ÇĞ kompozisyon.BEL
 TT: Öğretmen öğrencilere kompozisyon yazdırıyor
- (22) RT: saç-ım-ı kes-ti-m
 Y: Ekopsa ta malia mu
 kes(tir).GEÇ.1TK TNM saç.ÇĞ.BEL ben.TML
 TT: Saçımı kestirdim.

(21)'de eylem üzerinde ettirgen biçim birimi yerine (*yazdırılmak*), Yunancada kullanılan *vazo* 'koymak' eylemi ile birlikte ana eylemin emir kipinde olduğu analitik yapı (*koyuyor yazsınlar*) kullanılmaktadır, bu da TT'den sapmaya neden olmaktadır. (22)'de ise, eylemde ettirgenlik, sıfır değişim yoluyla gösterilmektedir. TT'de ettirgenlik sıfır değişim ile belirtilmediğinden, *saçımı kestirdim* ifadesinin kullanılacağı bir bağlamda aynı anlamı vermek üzere *saçımı kestim* ifadesinin kullanılması sapmaya yol açmaktadır.

5.11. diye ilgecinin için ilgeci ile yer değiştirmesi

Türkçede amaç belirten belirteç işlevli yantümceler iki şekilde oluşturulur: çekimli eylem ve *diye*¹⁰ ilgecinin oluşturduğu ilgeç yantümceleri ile (üşümeyeyim diye sobayı yaktım); ya da çekimsiz eylem ve *için* ilgecinin oluşturduğu ilgeç yantümceleri ile (Erken kalkmak için saatimi kurdum). Yunancada ise, amaç belirten yantümceler *για* ilgeci ile sonrasında gelen ve istek kipinde bulunan çekimli eylem¹¹ ile oluşturulmaktadır (O Kostas etrekse ya na prolavi to leoforio [Kostas otobüse yetişmek için koştu]). RT'de bazı durumlarda amaç belirten yantümceler TT'deki sözcük dizilişine uymasına rağmen *diye* ilgeci yerine *için* ilgeci ile birlikte çekimli eylem kullanılarak oluşturulmaktadır. Bunun nedeni ise Yunancadaki *για na+istek kipi* yapısının kopyalanmasıdır.

- (23) RT: (hastalık) kimseye de bulaşmasın için
 Y: Ja na min metaðoθi se kanenan
 için İST OLMZ bulaş.3TK -(y)A kimse.BEL
 TT: Kimseye de bulaşmasın diye / kimseye de bulaşmaması için

(23)'te çekimli eylemle birlikte *için* ilgecinin kullanılması TT'den sapmaya neden olmaktadır, çünkü TT'de aynı anlam, ya [çekimli eylem + *diye*] yapısı kullanılarak *bulaşmasın diye* ya da [çekimsiz eylem + *için*] yapısı kullanılarak *bulaşmaması için* biçiminde ifade edilmektedir.

5.12. Ad işlevli yantümcelerde çekimsiz eylem yerine çekimli eylemlerin tercih edilmesi

Türkçede ad işlevli yantümcelerin oluşturulmasında hem çekimli hem de çekimsiz eylemler kullanılabilir (Kerslake, 2007). Buna karşılık, Yunancada yalnız çekimli eylemlerle oluşturulan ad işlevli yantümceler bulunur (Holton, Mackridge ve Philippaki-Warburton, 1997; Roussou, 2006). RT konuşucuları ad tümcelerinde çekimsiz eylemleri tercih etmeyip, bunun yerine, Yunanca sözcük dizilişini kullanarak ad işlevli yantümceleri çekimli eylemlerle oluşturmayı tercih etmektedirler^{12, 13}.

- (24) RT: Annemler istemiyo çalış-e-m.
 Y: Í γonis mu ðen ðelun na ðulepso
 TNM ebeveyn.ÇĞ ben.TML OLMZ iste.ŞİM.3ÇĞ İST çalış.1TK
 TT: Annemler çalışmamı istemiyor.

- (25) RT: Öğretmen proje koyuyo öğrencilere yazsınlar
 Y: O ðaskalos vazi tus maθites na γrapsun ekθesi
 TNM öğretmen koy.ŞİM.3TK TNM öğrenci.ÇĞ.BEL İST yaz.3ÇĞ kompozisyon.BEL
 TT: Öğretmen öğrencilere kompozisyon yazdırıyor

(24)-(25)'te görüldüğü gibi, RT konuşucusu Yunanca sözcük dizilişine uyarak ad işlevli yantümce eylemini ana eylemden hem sonra hem de çekimli kullanmayı tercih etmektedir. TT'de bu yapı sapma göstermez çünkü ad işlevli yantümce eylemi hem çekimli hem de çekimsiz olabilir. Ancak, ad işlevli yantümcelerin bu benzer özelliği, Yunancanın etkisini kolaylaştırmakta ve bu yapının RT konuşucuları tarafından tercih edilme sıklığını arttırmaktadır. Bu da, çalışmanın başında belirttiğimiz, sapmaya neden olan 4 sürece bizim eklediğimiz beşinci süreci, yani tercih sürecini, örneklendiren bir kullanımdır.

Bazı durumlarda, ad işlevli tümcede çekimsiz eylem kullanılmasına rağmen Yunancadaki sözcük dizilişine uyulduğu gözlenmektedir.

- (26) RT: istiyon görmeyi
 Y: ðelis na ðis
 iste.ŞİM.2ÇĞ İST gör.2TK
 TT: görmeyi/görmek istiyorsun

(26)'da da yantümcenin eylemi, Yunancadakinin aksine, çekimsizdir ancak ana tümcenin eyleminden sonra kullanıldığı için Yunancadaki sözcük dizilişine uymaktadır.

5.13. Soru sözcüklerinin yantümcelerde tümleyici olarak kullanılması

Yunancada soru sözcükleri ile oluşturulan yantümcelerde soru sözcüğünden sonra çekimli eylem kullanılmaktadır ve tümcenin ana eyleminden sonra gelmektedir. Türkçede ise, soru sözcüğü ile arkasından gelen çekimsiz eylemle kurulan yantümce ana eylemden önce gelmektedir. RT konuşucuları soru sözcüğü ile oluşturulan yantümcelerde Yunancadaki biçimi kopyalayarak çekimli ve ana eylem sonrası konumda yantümceler üretmeyi tercih etmektedirler.

- (27) RT: Anlamadım ne istedi
 Y: ðen katalava ti iθele

- OLMZ anla.GEÇ.1TK ne (TÜM) iste.GEÇ.3TK
 TT: Ne istediğini anlamadım
 (28) RT: İki saat arayıştan sonra neyse ki buldum nereye düşmüş
 Y: meta apo ðio ores vrika pou epese
 sonra -DAn iki saat.ÇĞ bul.GEÇ.1TK nereye düş.GEÇ.3TK
 TT: İki saat arayıştan sonra nereye düştüğünü buldum.

(27-28)'de Yunancada soru sözcüğü ile kurulan yantümcelerdeki eylemler çekimlidir [iðele, epese] ve yantümceler ana eylem sonrası konumdadır. TT'de ise, soru sözcüğü ile oluşturulan yantümce [ne diyeceğimi, ne istediğini, nereye düştüğünü] ana eylem öncesi konumdadır ve yantümce eylemi çekimsizdir. RT'de ise Yunancada olduğu gibi yantümce eylemi çekimlidir ve sözcük dizilişi Yunancadaki gibidir. Rehbein, Herkenrath ve Karakoç (2009, s. 180-183) Hint-Avrupa dili olan Almanca'nın etkisi ile Türkçede yantümcelerde soru sözcüklerinin tümleyici olarak kullanılma eğilimi olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. RT'de de böyle bir eğilim gözlenmektedir.

6. Tartışma-Sonuç

Bu çalışmadaki amacımız RT'de Yunanca'nın etkisiyle sözlüksel değişim ve yapısal kopyalama olup olmadığını araştırmaktır. Yapılan çözümlenmeler sonucunda RT'de Yunanca'nın etkisine bağlı olarak TT'den sapma gösteren yapılar olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Çalışmamızın sonuçları sapma gösteren yapıların çoğunlukla sözlüksel olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Ancak, çalışmamızın başında öngördüğümüz gibi biçimsözdizimsel düzlemde de sapma gösteren yapılar bulunmaktadır. Daha önce de söz ettiğimiz gibi, Thomason'a göre (2001) tipolojik olarak birbirinden çok farklı olan dillerde yapısal kopyalama için daha uzun süreli bir değişim gerekmektedir. Bu çalışmanın bulguları sonucunda Türkçe ile Yunanca arasındaki değişimin yoğunluğu ve uzunluğunun sözdizimsel kopyalamaya da yol açtığını söyleyebiliriz.

Çalışmamızda daha önce de belirttiğimiz gibi, tarihsel, toplumsal ve kişisel etkenlere bağlı olarak tüm RT konuşucuları her iki dilde de değişken yeterlilik düzeyleri sergilemektedir (Georgalidou ve diğ., 2008). Türkçe yeterlilik düzeyi daha düşük olan ikidilli konuşmacılardan elde edilen verilere göre, Yunancadan yapılan kopyalama çok daha fazladır. Winford'a göre (2005, s. 394-395), değişim durumundaki iki dil arasında dilsel baskınlık ilişkisi açısından bir denge yoksa baskın olan dil biçimsözdizimsel çerçeveyi –sözcük dizilişi, işlev biçimbirimler ve çekim- sağlayan dil olacaktır. Yunancaları daha baskın olan RT konuşucuları biçimsözdizimsel çerçevesi tamamen Yunanca ancak yüzey yapıda Türkçe olan sözcükler üretmektedir.

Yunanca'nın etkisiyle RT'de TT'den sapma gösteren yapıları çözümlenerek RT'de Yunancaya doğru yaşanan kaymanın izleri takip edilebilir. Türkçenin diğer dillerle olan değişimi, özellikle Avrupa'nın farklı bölgelerinde göçmen dili olarak pek çok Avrupa dili ile olan değişimi ve de tarihsel olarak Avrasya bölgesindeki diğer dillerle olan değişimi son yıllarda çok fazla araştırmaya konu olmuştur. Ancak, Türkçenin Yunanca ile olan çok uzun süreli değişimi yapısal kopyalama açısından daha önce hiç incelenmemiştir. Bu çalışmanın, Türk dillerinin değişimlerinde yapısal etkenleri sınıflamak konusunda bir katkı sağlayacağına inanıyoruz.

İleride pek çok farklı yönde çalışmalar yapılabilir. Öncelikle sapma gösteren yapıların yeni mi oluştuğunu yoksa çok uzun zamandır mı var olduğunu incelemek amacıyla üç nesil örüntüsünde sapma gösteren yapıların oluşum dağılımlarının incelenmesi ve karşılaştırılması planlanmaktadır. Aynı zamanda, sapma gösteren yapıların RT'de bir dil değişimine yol açıp açmadığını ortaya çıkarabilmek amacıyla bunların kullanım sıklıkları da incelenecektir. İkinci olarak, sapma gösteren yapıların ortaya çıkışlarındaki ruhdilbilimsel nedenlerin tanımlanması amaçlanmaktadır. Üçüncü olarak, dil ölümü olup

olmadığını ve varsa bunun nedeninin Yunancanın etkisinin olup olmadığını görebilmek amacıyla çocuklarının dil kullanımlarının incelenmesi amaçlanmaktadır.

Notlar

¹ *Sapma gösteren yapılar* ile ilgili ayrıntılı bilgi için bakz. Doğruöz ve Backus 2009.

² Metinde şu kısaltmalar kullanılmıştır: BEL: belirtme durumu, BTM: bitmişlik, EMİR: emir kipi, ÇĞ: çoğul, GEÇ: geçmiş zaman, GEL: gelecek zaman, İA: ilgi adı, İST: istek kipi, OLMZ: olumsuz, ŞİM: şimdiki zaman, TK: tekil, TML: tamlayan durumu, TNM: tanımlık, TÜR: tümleyici, ÜD: üstün derece.

³ Deneklerimizin ifadelerine dayanmaktadır.

⁴ bkz. Milroy ve Li Wei 1995.

⁵ Göksel ve Kerslake'e göre (2005: 356), "konuşmacılar başka bir kaynaktan aldıkları yazılı ya da sözlü bir bilgiyi aktarırken sözcelerinde tanıtıcılık belirticisini kullanırlar. Tanıtıcılık belirticisi Türkçede seçimlik değildir."

⁶ bkz. Georgalidou ve diğ. 2012.

⁷ Yunancada 3 tür cinsiyet belirtme olduğundan 3 ayrı biçim bulunmaktadır.

⁸ bkz. Kaili ve diğ. 2009

⁹ Örnekler Kaili ve diğ. 2009'dan alınmıştır

¹⁰ Göksel ve Kerslake'e göre, *diye* ilgeci ile oluşturulan belirteç işlevli yantümceler günlük konuşmada kullanılmaktadır (2005: 462).

¹¹ Yunancanın baş-ön Türkçenin ise baş-son bir dil olduğu unutulmamalıdır.

¹² Johanson'a göre (2002), Türkçede çekimli ve çekimsiz eylem kullanma konusunda alternatiflerin bulunması, "muhtemel bir yabancı etkinin rolünü dışarıda bırakmaz; tersine ilgili benzer öğelerin etkiyi kolaylaştırabileceği göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır."

¹³ bkz. Kaili ve diğ. 2012.

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Ek: Sözlükçe

aktarım: transfer

anlamsal boşluklar: semantic gaps

ahcı dil: recipient language

budunbilimsel gözlem: ethnographic observation

değiştirme: replacement

dil değinimi: language contact

düzenek kaydırımı: codeswitching

ekleme: addition

eksik bırakma: omission

girişim: interference

miras dil: heritage language

katılımcı gözlem: participant observation

kaynak dil: source language

majority language: çoğunluk dili

sapma gösteren yapılar: unconventional structures

sıfır değişim: zero alternation

sözlüksel değişim: lexical change

sözlükselleştirme: lexicalization

sürdürme: (language) maintenance

taşıma: importation

tercih: preference

yapısal kopyalama: structural copying

The influence of Greek on the Turkish variety spoken by the Turkish-Greek bilinguals of Rhodes

Abstract

This study examines the lexical and structural changes that have occurred due to the contact between Turkish and Greek in Rhodes, Greece. Preliminary research on the properties of Rhodian Turkish has revealed substantial copying from Greek. In this study, we will deal with the question of which lexical and structural changes have occurred and are in the process of occurring in RT, under the impact of Greek. After the annexation of the Dodecanese islands to Greece in 1947, Turkish has acquired the status of a minority (heritage) language whereas Greek is the language of the majority of the population. Turkish-Greek bilinguals, which is part of the whole population on the island, continue to use Turkish as their mother tongue. Turkish in Rhodes has been in an intense contact with Greek for about six hundred years. The influence of Greek on Turkish has increased as it became the dominant language. The basic argument of this study is due to the intense contact between Turkish and Greek, Rhodian Turkish has undergone a major change. In this study, we examine morphosyntactic and the semantic aspects of the language contact between Turkish and Greek by the help of two mechanisms: *lexical change* and *structural copying*. The data used for this study were derived from ethnographic observation carried out by a group of researchers, which has been going on for more than eight years. For this study, part of the data was also collected by participant observation, note-taking and interviews. This study is aimed to reveal if there has been occurring language change in Rhodian Turkish due to the language contact and to provide a contribution to the studies on language contact in general.

Keywords: language contact between Turkish and Greek; structural copying, lexical change

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Türkçe yeşil renk adının biçim, anlam ve kavram alanına tarihsel bir bakış¹

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Öz

Bu çalışma, renk adlarını çeşitli yönlerden ele alan bir dizi çalışmanın bir bölümüdür. Burada, yeşil ve onun bilinen ilk biçimi olan *yaşıl* ele alınmıştır. Renk adının kökeni hakkında bir incelemenin ardından renk adının yer aldığı tarihî eserlere örnekler verilmiştir. Günümüz Türk dil ve lehçelerindeki biçimlerine de yer verilerek geçirdiği değişimleri tespit etmek amaçlanmıştır. Sözcüğün biçim, anlam ve kavram alanını saptamaya yönelik olarak yeşil renk adının geçtiği renk ifadeli sözcükler, hayvan ve bitki adları; kimya, tıp ve doğa ile ilgili terimler; ad bilimi kapsamında incelenen yer, kişi, su adları ve özel adlar; deyim, atasözü ve mecazlar tespit edilmiştir. Bu inceleme sonunda 339 kullanım saptanmıştır. Orhon Yazıtlarında bir renk adı olduğunu söylemek mümkün olmasa da günümüz Türkçesinde yeşil renk adının anlam, kavram ve biçim alanını oldukça genişlettiği görülmektedir. Yeşil renk adının pek çok renk ifadeli sözcükte yer alması ve özellikle 75 farklı tona sahip olması da yeşil renk adının artık gök renk adından müstakil bir renk adı olduğunu göstermektedir.

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Anahtar sözcükler: Renk adları; yeşil renk adı; ad bilimi

1. Giriş

Günümüz Türkçesinde renk adları, temelde soyut olan renklere gönderme yapan ve cümle içinde genellikle sıfat olarak kullanılan sözcükler olmakla birlikte, renk adlarının kullanım alanı oldukça geniştir. Sıfat olarak çeşitli adları nitelemelerinin yanında sözcük ve özel ad yapımında da sıklıkla kullanılırlar. Renk adlarıyla yapılmış pek çok hayvan, bitki, eşya, yiyecek, hastalık, tıp ve kimya terimi vardır. Ayrıca dağ, su, yerleşim yeri ve insan adlarında da renk adlarının sıklıkla kullanıldığından ad bilimine de katkı sağladığı görülmektedir. Bu kullanımlar incelendiğinde, renk adlarının anlam alanlarının çok geniş olduğu anlaşılmaktadır. Bunların yanında renklerin atasözü, deyim ve ikilemelerde kullanımı; renk adlarının anlam alanlarına birçok mecaz anlam da katmıştır. Renk adları ayrıca eski Türkçe döneminden bu yana dört yönü de ifade etmektedir.

Sözcükler bir dile farklı yollarla girebilir. Bu yollardan sözcük birleştirme ve yeni sözcük türetme, sıklıkla görülmektedir. Türkçe konuşurları, bu sık kullanılan yollarla sözcük türetirken renk adlarına sıklıkla başvururlar. Türkçenin söz varlığında, renk adlarını içeren sözcüklerin sayısı oldukça geniş bir yer tutmaktadır. Türkiye Türkçesinde renk adları, geniş kullanım yelpazesi, anlam alanları ve türetme, birleştirme gibi işlemler sonucu kazandıkları somutlukla özellikle dikkat çekicidir. Örneğin

¹ Bu makale, 3. *Dünya Dili Türkçe Sempozyumu*'nda (16-18 Aralık 2010 İzmir) sunulmuş bildirinin genişletilmiş biçimidir.

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yavruağzı, gülkurusu, saman sarısı, orman yeşili, güvercinboynu gibi renk adları; en temel özelliği soyutluk olan renk adlarının aksine somutlaşmıştır.

Renk adlarının zenginliğine ve Türkçe söz varlığına katkılarına dair çalışmalar oldukça yenidir. Nevruz ve Renkler Sempozyumu'nda (2001), Türkçe renk adlarıyla ilgili bir dizi bildiri sunulmuş ve bunlar basılmışsa da çalışmaların dil bilimsel değil de daha çok antropolojik bakış açısına sahip olduğu görülmektedir. Türkçedeki renk adlarını dil bilimsel bakış açısıyla ele alan bir çalışma Kaymaz (2000) tarafından yapılmıştır. Kaymaz, renk adlarını Orhon Yazıtlarından başlayarak biçim ve kavram göstergelerine göre sınıflamıştır. Bununla birlikte, çalışma, renk adlarının sözlüksel kapsamlarıyla sınırlandırılmıştır.

Renk adlarının dil bilimsel açıdan değerlendirmesi bir dizi çalışmada Bayraktar (örn. 2004; 2005; 2006a; 2006b; 2009; 2010; 2013; 2014) tarafından ele alınmıştır. Bu çalışmalar, Berlin ve Kay'ın (1969, ss. 2-3) Saphir ve Whorf'un "bütün dillerde renk terimlerinin temel benzerlikleri vardır" ilkesinden yola çıkarak hazırladığı dünya dilleri için renk terimlerinin sınıflandırması göz önünde bulundurularak hazırlanmıştır. Berlin ve Kay'ın (1969, ss. 2-3) renk terimleri hipotezinde temel olarak şu renk adları bulunmaktadır: beyaz, siyah, kırmızı, yeşil, sarı, mavi, kahverengi, mor, pembe, portakal rengi ve gri. Bu renkler, çeşitli niteliklere sahip birçok dilde incelenmiş ve tüm dillerin içerdikleri renk adlarına göre 7 ayrı tipe ayrıldığı tespit edilmiştir. Bu gruplar şöyledir:

1. Bütün dillerde mutlaka beyaz ve siyah renk adları bulunmaktadır.
2. Bir dil 3 renk adı içeriyorsa, ilk gruptaki renkler ve ek olarak kırmızı renk adı vardır.
3. Bir dil 4 renk adı içeriyorsa, ikinci gruptakiler ve ek olarak yeşil veya sarı (ikisi birden değil) renk adı vardır.
4. Bir dil 5 renk adı içeriyorsa, üçüncü gruptakiler ve ek olarak yeşil ve sarı (ikisi birden) renk adı vardır.
5. Bir dil 6 renk adı içeriyorsa, dördüncü gruptakiler ve ek olarak mavi renk adı vardır.
6. Bir dil 7 renk adı içeriyorsa, beşinci gruptakiler ve ek olarak kahverengi renk adı vardır.
7. Bir dil 8 renk adı içeriyorsa, altıncı gruptakiler ve ek olarak mor, pembe, portakal rengi veya gri renk adlarından biri ya da bunların birleşiminden oluşmuş bir renk adı vardır.

Bu tiplerde dillerin gelişimi, renklerin çoğalmasıyla paralellik göstermektedir. Başka bir deyişle, diller geliştikçe renk adları zenginleşmeye başlamaktadır. Türkçe söz konusu olduğunda, *kara*, *ak*, *al*, *sarıg* ve *kök* renklerini barındıran Köktürkçe döneminde bile Türkçe -hiç değilse- dördüncü tipte bulunmaktadır. Karahanlı Türkçesi döneminde ise renk adlarındaki gelişmeyle altıncı belki de yedinci tipe ulaştığı söylenebilir. Bu saptamalar hem Türkçenin ne kadar köklü bir dil olduğunu hem de yüzyıllar boyunca nasıl bir gelişme gösterdiğini ortaya koymaktadır.

Türkçedeki renk adlarının bir başka ilgi çekici yönü de aslen soyut kavramlar olan renklerin doğadaki çeşitli unsurların yardımıyla somutluk kazanmalarıdır. Bu somutluk orman yeşili, buz mavisi, altın sarısı, kahverengi, kavuniçi, vapurdumanı grisi, vişneçürüğü gibi doğadaki renk benzerlerinin aracılığıyla yapıldığı gibi; neftî yeşil, fıstıkî yeşil, demirî, hakî örneklerindeki gibi renk tanımlayıcısına Farsça *î* eki getirilerek de yapılabilmektedir. Ayrıca somut ya da somut ifadeli renk adları açık, koyu, hareli, pırlıtlı, sütlü gibi sıfatlarla daha da somut hâle getirilebilmektedir (Bayraktar, 2010).

Bu çalışmanın konusu olan yeşil renk adı; Türkçenin bilinen en eski yazılı belgeleri olan Orhon Yazıtlarından bu yana Türkçede kullanılmaktadır. Yaşıl > TT yeşil. Yaşıl, Türkçenin her döneminde kullanılmış olmasına rağmen kullanımı sınırlı kalmıştır. Türkçede renk adlarının işlevliliği; bu renk adını içeren sözcüklerin sayısı ile kavram ve anlam alanlarının genişliği ile ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Yeşil renk adının bilinen ilk biçimi *yaşıl*dır. Bu konuda Clauson, “ (? ya:şıl < *yaşıl, ya:ş ‘taze sebzelerin rengi’ +sıl; Osmanlıca (XIV-XVI. yy.) dönemine ait pek çok metinde sözcüğün hâlâ art damaksıl olarak yaşıl biçiminde yaşadığını; çok açık olmamakla birlikte bazen kö:k renk adı gibi “açık mavi” anlamına geldiğini ve günümüz Türk dil ve lehçelerinde de varlığını sürdürdüğünü, Türkçenin Güneydoğu kolundaki dil ve lehçelerde *yeşil/yeşil/yişil* biçimleriyle yaşarken Güneybatı kolunda Azerice (yaşıl) ve Türkmencede (ya:şıl) art damaksıl biçimiyle yaşadığını; ayrıca Güneydoğu kolunda renk adı için yeşil kullanılırken söz konusu bitki ise *kök ot* biçiminde *kök* renk adının devreye girdiğini; Türk dil ve lehçelerinde sözcüğün değerli bir taşın adı olması durumunda *yaşıl* olarak kullanıldığını bunun da “yeşil (veya açık mavi; belki de türkuaz)” anlamına geldiğini (1972, s. 796)” belirtmektedir. Diğer yandan, Tekin, sözcüğün yapısıyla ilgili olarak “yâş “yaş, taze, yeşil ot”+Il (2003, s. 83)” açıklamasını getirmiştir. Bu konuda Gülensoy (2007) ise, yeşil renk adının kökenine dair “*yeşil* < yâş+(ı)l” açıklamasını yaptıktan sonra, renk adının bilinen pek çok türevine *yeşim* ‘açık yeşil ve pembe renkli, kolay işlenen değerli bir taş (*yâş ‘yeşil’+im)’ ve yeşit ‘yeşil, parlak yeşil (yâş ‘yeşillik, sebze’ + it)’ biçimlerini de eklemektedir.

Sözcüğün yaş tabanı Köktürk harfleriyle yazılmış Irk Bitig fal kitabında da üç kez (17, 17 ve 54. fâllar) geçmektedir. Bu renk adının Orhon Türkçesinde renk anlamıyla fazlaca kullanılmaması, büyük olasılıkla içinde “yeşil renk” anlamını da barındıran gök < kök renk adı nedeniyle olmalıdır.

Bu renk adı, Bilge Kağan ve Kül Tigin yazıtlarında aynı cümle içinde geçmektedir. Burada ilgi çekici olan, Yazıtlarda Yeşil Ügüz olarak kullanılmasına karşın anlamlandırmada Sarı Irmak adının tercih edilmesidir. Gabain bu durumu, ırmağın Çinlilere göre merkezde, ancak Türklere göre doğuda olmasıyla açıklamaktadır (1968, s.111). Zaten *ilgerü* ‘doğu’ sözcüğü de bu açıklamayı kanıtlamaktadır. Yeşil sözcüğünün renk ifadesiyle kullanımına Irk Bitig’de 51. faldada rastlanmaktadır. Yazıtlarda renk ifadesi olarak kullanımı yoktur.

(e)ç(i)m k(a)g(a)n : birle : ilg(e)rü : y(a)ş(i)l üg(ü)z : ş(a)ntuñ : y(a)zıka t(e)gi : sül(e)d(i)m(i)z ‘Amcam Hakan ile doğuda Sarı Irmağ(a ve) Şantung ovasına kadar sefer ettik. (KT D-17), (BK D-15)’

Orkun; Toy Yazıtı 27 satırda yaşıl renk adını, renk adı ve anlamıyla kaydetmiştir.

Taşın subı yaşıl bolsa Toy 27 (taşın suyu yeşil olursa ETY 251)

Yeşil sözcüğü, renk anlamıyla Irk Bitig 51’de de kullanılmıştır. Divânü Luğâti’t-Türk’te de yeşil ile ilgili pek çok bilgi bulunmaktadır.

Yâş et: taze et.

Yaş ot III, 4-5yaş yuş : yaş maş, yeşillik III 4-7, 143-15

Yaş ot: taze saman. Bu sözcük söz uzatımıyla yaş yoş [yâş yōş] biçiminde de söylenir.

Yâş yèdim: Yeşillik yedim.

Yâş: (yenilebilen) yeşil yapraklı bitkiler

Yâş: herhangi bir şeyin taze olanı.

Yaş: yaş, taze nesne, zerzevat, sebze, yeşillik; yaş –gözden gelen- ; yaş –insanın yaşadığı-

Yaşardı: ot yaşardı: ot yeşerdi.

Yaşarttı: yağmur otuğ yaşarttı Yağmur bitki örtüsünü yeşertti.

Yaşartur, yaşartmak.

Yaşarūr, yaşārmāk

Yâşıl çüvit: yeşil renk

Yaşıl: herhangi bir şeyin yeşil olanı. “parlak yeşil”e yap yaşıl denir bu sözcük, söz uzatımıyla yaşıl yoşul biçiminde de kullanılır.

Yaşladı: At yaşladı: At [başka bir hayvan da olabilir] baharda biten yeşilliklerle otladı. Kök biçimi yaşladı'dır; ancak –tıpkı buna benzeyen diğer örneklerde olduğu gibi- hafifletme amacıyla elif atılmıştır. Yaşlar, yaşlāmāk

Yapyaşıl: koyu yeşil

Görüldüğü gibi Karahanlı Türkçesinde hem yeşilin artık renk anlamını kazandığına hem de kökenine ilişkin açıklama yapabilecek bilgiler mevcuttur. Kıpçak Türkçesinde de yaşıl ve yeşil hemen her eserde kullanılmıştır.

Tarama Sözlüğü'nde *yaşıl*: yeşil, *yaşılğan*: yemyeşil, *yaşılstan*: yemyeşil ova, yeşillik kaplı yer ve *yaşılılık*: yeşillik maddeleri saptanmıştır.

Lehçelere bakıldığında yeşil renk adının pek çok lehçede kullanıldığı görülmektedir. Azeri *yaşıl*, (yaşıllaş- 'yeşermek'), Başkurt *yäşil* (yāşillān-), Kazak *jasıl* (köger-), Kırgız *caşıl* (kögörü:, bürdö:), Özbek *yäşil* (kökär-), Tatar *yäşil* (yāşillān-), Türkmen *ya:şıl* (gö:ğger-), Uygur *yaşıl* (yaşni-); Altay *cajıl*, Yakut *sahil* (< *yâşıl) vb.

Türkmen, Kazak, Kırgız, Özbek Türkçelerindeki yeşermek anlamındaki kullanımlar, içinde 'yeşil' renk anlamını da barındıran gök renk adı nedeniyle olmuş olmalıdır.

Bu çalışmada; çeşitli sözlüklerden; yeşil renk adını içeren ve renk bildiren adlar, hayvan ve bitki adları, tıp ve kimya terimleri, eşya ve yiyecek adları, doğa ile ilgili ad ve sıfatlar, insan dış görünüşüyle ilgili kullanımlar, mecazlar, ad bilimi kapsamına giren adlar, atasözleri ve deyimler saptanmış ve yeşil renk adının biçim, kavram ve anlam boyutuna ilişkin bir değerlendirme yapmak amaçlanmıştır.

2. Yöntem

Bu çalışma bir kaynak taraması ve yeşil renk adının anlam bilimsel değerlendirilmesi üzerine kurulmuştur. Kaynakçada da görüleceği gibi çeşitli sözlüklerde yeşil renk adı ile yapılmış sözcüklerle ilgili bir tarama yapılmıştır. Bu taramada kullanılan kaynaklar, içinde yeşil renk adının geçtiği sözlüklerle sınırlıdır. Tespit edilen sözcüklerde, yeşil renk adı ilk ya da ikinci sözcük olarak kullanılsa bile bu çalışmaya dâhil edilmiştir. Hem eş zamanlı hem de art zamanlı özellikler gösteren bu çalışmada *yeşil* renk adının eski biçimi olan yaşıl da çalışmaya dâhil edilmiştir.

Yer adları incelenirken parantez içindeki K köyü, B beldeyi, İ ilçeyi, A adayı, Bur. burnu, parantezsiz kullanımlar il merkezlerini; kişi adları incelenirken K adın kız adı olduğunu, E erkek adı olduğunu, K/E hem kız hem de erkek adı olarak kullanıldığını göstermektedir.

Çalışmada geçen KT Kül Tegin Yazıtını, BK Bilge Kagan Yazıtını, ETY Eski Türk Yazıtlarını, D yazıtların doğu yüzünü göstermek üzere kullanılmış kısaltmalardır.

3. Bulgular

Yeşil renk adının biçim, anlam ve kavram alanı

Çeşitli kaynaklardan elde edilen ve aşağıda ayrıntılı olarak da verildiği üzere, yapılan kaynak taraması yeşil renk adı ile toplam 339 farklı sözcüğün türetildiğini göstermektedir. Bu sözcükler sıklıkla özel ad yapımında (98 adet), renk ifadelerinde (95 adet) ve hayvan adlarında (50 adet) kullanılmaktadır. Yeşil renk adıyla türetilen sözcüklerin detaylı dökümü aşağıdaki tabloda görülmektedir.

Tablo 1. Yeşil renk adını içeren sözcüklerin dağılımı

Renk	Hayvan	Bitki	Kimya	Tıp	Doğa	Özel Ad	Renk nedenli	Mecaz	Atasözü deyim	TOPLAM
95	50	28	4	17	3	98	10	19	15	339

Yeşil renk adının biçim, anlam ve kavram alanına ilişkin saptama yapabilmek için bu renk adını içeren renk ifadeli sözcükler, hayvan ve bitki adları, kimya ve tıp terimleri, doğayla ilgili sözcükler, özel adlar, yeşil renk nedeniyle oluşan kullanımlar, mecaz anlamı ifadelerle atasözü ve deyimler listelenmiştir.

Renk ifadeli sözcükler

Taranan sözlüklerde, biri at donu, altısı renk eylemi, altısı derecelendirme sıfatı, üçü sıfat, dördü rengârenklik, yetmiş beşi renk tonu olmak üzere toplam 95 renk anlamlı sözcük saptanmıştır.

At donu: Taranan kaynaklarda 1 at donu saptanmıştır.

Yeşil: (Anadolu ağızlarında) koyu al at donu

Renk eylemi: Taranan kaynaklarda yeşil renk anlamıyla ilgili 6 eylem saptanmıştır.

Yeşer-: yaprak vermek; üstündeki bitkiler yaprak açıp yeşillenmek; (rengi) yeşile dönmek; (mec.) filizlenmek, gelişmeye başlamak

Yeşert-: yeşermesini sağlamak

Yeşil yeşil ol-: iyice yeşil olmak

Yeşile çal-: yeşil renge benzemek

Yeşillen-: yeşil olmak

Yeşillendir-: yeşillenmesini, yeşillikle dolmasını sağlamak.

Derecelendirme: Yeşil renginin çeşitli derecelerini gösteren 6 sözcük saptanmıştır.

Yemyeşil: çok yeşil, her yanı yeşil

Yeşilgelen: yeşilimsi

Yeşilimsi: (yeşil+(i)msi) yeşile çalan, yeşile kaçan.

Yeşilimsirek: (yeşil+(i)msi+rek yeşilimsi

Yeşilimtrak: (yeşil+(i)mtrak) yeşile çalan, yeşilimsi.

Yeşilin yeşili: en yeşil, çok yeşil

Sıfat: Yeşil renkle ilgili 3 sıfat saptanmıştır.

Yeşilli: yeşili olan

Yeşillik: yeşil olma durumu; yeşil bitkileri çok olan yer

Yeşerti: yeşillik

Rengârenklik: Yeşil renk adıyla yapılmasına karşın ifade ettiği doğa olayının sadece bir renginin adıyla renk tayfını gösteren ve ‘gökkuşağı’ anlamına gelen 3 sözcük, biri de rengarenk anlamına gelen sözcük grubuyla birlikte toplamda 4 adet birden fazla rengi ifade eden kullanım tespit edilmiştir.

Yeşilkuşak yeşilbenim yeşilibenim allım yeşillim: rengârenk

Renk Tonu: Taranan sözlüklerde yeşil renk adının çeşitli tonlarını gösteren 75 sözcük saptanmıştır

acı yeşil	gri yeşil	nebatî yeşil	Veronez yeşili
açık yeşil	güvercin boynu	orman yeşili	vessi yeşil
altın yeşili	güvercin göğsü	öd yeşili ördek başı	yağ yeşili
kabuk yeşili	hacı yeşili	Paris yeşili	yaprak yeşili
asit yeşili	hayit yeşili	parlak neftî	yaşıl/yeşi/yeşil/yeşil/yişil
bakır yeşili	iç midye yeşili	pastel yeşil	yeşil çalar gök renk: tirşe
Bursa yeşili	İngiliz yeşili	pembemsi yeşil	yeşile çalar mor
cam yeşili	Kâbe yeşili	safra yeşili	yonca yeşili
camböceği yeşili	kaz boku yeşili	salatalık yeşili	yosun yeşili
camgöbeği yeşili	koyu yeşil	saz rengi	Ankara armudu yeşili
can eriği yeşili	krom yeşili	sinabr yeşili	karpuz kabuğu yeşili
cennet yeşili	kursak yeşili	su yeşili	karanfil yaprağı yeşili
çağla yeşili	küf yeşili	tavus yeşili	zehir yeşili
çam yeşili	limon küfü	tok yeşil	zeytin ağacı yeşili
çimen yeşili	magnezyum yeşili	toprak yeşili	zeytin yeşili
deniz dibi yeşili	marul yeşili	Türk çinisi yeşili	zümrüt gibi
emerot yeşili	mavimsi yeşil	Türk yeşili	zümrüt yeşili
filizî yeşil	mercan yeşili	turkuvaz renkli	
fosfor yeşili	mint yeşili	üzüm yeşili	

Hayvan adları

Çeşitli sözlüklerde yirmi biri kuş, on üçü sürüngen, yedisi böcek, sekizi balık ve su canlısı, biri orman hayvanı olmak üzere toplam 50 adet yeşil renk adını içeren hayvan adı saptanmıştır.

Kuş: Taranan sözlüklerde yeşil renk adını içeren toplan 21 kuş adı saptanmıştır.

Küçük yeşil ağaçkakan: Picidae	Yeşil karga: Coracias garrulus
Yeşil ağaçkakan: Picus viridus	Yeşil söğüt bülbülü: Phylloscopus trochiloides
Yeşil arıkuşu: Merops persicus	Yeşil sülün: Northern Green Pheasant
Yeşil ayaklı su tavuğu: Gallinula chloropus	Yeşil jakamar: Galbula viridis kuş Yeşil ayak su tavuğu: Gall,nula chloropus
Yeşilbaş ördek: erkek ördek	Yeşil gagalı martı: Larus canus
Yeşil baş ördek: Anas platyrhynchos	Yeşil sırtlı incirkuşu: Anthus hodgsoni
Yeşil orman tavuğu: Gallus varius	Yeşil bacak/Yeşil bacaklı düdükçün: Tringa nebularia
Yeşil ötleğen: Phylloscopus trochiloides	Yeşil bülbül: Phylloscopus trochiloides nitidus
Yeşil papağan: Psittacula krameri	Yeşil ispinoz: Carduelis chloris, Chloris chloris
Yeşil düdükçün: Tringa ochropus	

Yeşil genişgaga: *Calyptonema viridis*

Sürüngen: Taranan sözlüklerde toplam 13 yeşil renk adı içeren sürüngen adı saptanmıştır Yeşilgan: kertenkeleye benzer küçük hayvan

Gök yeşil: zehirli yeşil kertenkele	Yeşil keler: green lizard
Yeşilistan: kertenkeleye benzer hayvan	Yeşil kertenkele: <i>Lacerta viridis</i>
Yeşilkalamak: kertenkele benzeri hayvan	Yeşil kurbağa: tree frog
Yeşilten: iri ve yeşil kertenkele	Yeşil kara kurbağası: <i>Bufo viridis</i>
Yeşil ağaç yılanı: <i>Dryophis prasinus</i>	Yeşil su kurbağası: <i>Rana esculenta</i> , <i>Rana viridis</i>
Yeşil bağa: yeşil ve küçük bir kurbağa türü	İri yeşil kertenkele: <i>Lacerta trilineata</i>

Böcek: Yeşil renk adını içeren ve böcek sınıfına giren 7 hayvan saptanmıştır. Yeşil çekirge: *Locusta viridissima*

Yeşil bonelya: <i>Bonelia viridis</i>	Yeşil sinek: <i>Lucilia Caesar</i>
Yeşil şişe sineği: <i>Lucilia, Phaenicia</i> .	Nohut yeşil kurdu: <i>Chloridea dipsacea</i>
Yeşil kalkanböceği: <i>Cassida nobilis</i>	

Balık ve su canlıları: Taranan sözlüklerde yeşil renk adını içeren 8 adet balık ve su canlısı saptanmıştır. Yeşil hidra: *Hydra viridis*

Yeşil sazan: <i>Tinca tinca</i>	Yeşilgöz balığı: <i>Chlorophthalmus agassizi</i>
Yeşil neon: <i>Hemigrammus hyanuary</i>	Yeşil yüzgeçli alaca levrek:
Yeşil barbuz: <i>Barbus semifasciolatus</i>	<i>Cichlosoma nigrofasciatum</i>
Yeşil tekir: <i>Barbus semifasciolatus</i>	Yeşil ışıltılı çiklit/yeşil ışıltı balığı/yeşil ışıltılı levrek: <i>Aequidens tetramerus</i>

Orman hayvanı: Taranan sözlüklerde yeşil renk adını içeren 1 adet orman hayvanı saptanmıştır.

Yeşil maymun: *Cercopithecus callitrichus*

Bitki adları

Taranan kaynaklarda dördü ot, dokuzu sebze, dördü yosun, altısı yem bitkisi, beşi bitkilerle ilgili sözcük olmak üzere toplam 28 adet yeşil renk adını içeren bitki adı saptanmıştır.

Ot: Taranan sözlüklerde 4 adet yeşil renk adını içeren ot adı saptanmıştır.

Yeşil ada çayı: *Salvia staminea*

Yeşillik: yeşil ot

Yeşil sorguç otu: *Festuca octoflora*

Yeşilot: taze, yeşil bitki; yeşil ot

Sebze: Taranan sözlüklerde 9 adet yeşil renk adını içeren sözcük saptanmıştır. Bunlardan üçünde yeşil ‘taze’ anlamını vermiştir.

Yeşilsoğan: taze soğan, *Allium fistulosum*

Yeşilfasulye: taze fasulye, *Phaseolus vulgaris*

Yeşilbiber: *capsicum annum*

Yeşillik: sebze

Yeşillik: hıyar

Yeşillik: sebze bahçesi

Yeşil salata: marul, *Laitues*

Yeşillik: marul, maydanoz, tere, soğan vb.

Yeşilsalata: marul, *Lactuca sativa*

Yosun: Taranan kaynaklarda 4 adet yosunlarla ilgili sözcük saptanmıştır. Bunlardan biri genel takımın adı, biri familyanın adı, biri de yosun hücrelerinin adıdır.

Yeşilsuyosunlar

Yeşilsuyosunugiller

Yeşil yosun hücreleri: Osm. *Cerasim-i mütenâsibe*

Mavi yeşil algler: *cyanophycees*

Yem olarak kullanılan bitkiler: Taranan sözlüklerde yeşil renk adını içeren ve yem bitkisi olarak kullanılan 6 adet bitki adı saptanmıştır.

Ayçiçeği yeşili: Karbonhidrat bakımından zengin proteince fakir, kurak arazilerde yetiştirilebilen, çiçeklenme öncesinde hasat edildiğinde taze veya silajı yapılarak da değerlendirilebilen bir kaba yem.

Yeşil kaba yemler: Biçildikten sonra kurutulmadan doğrudan doğruya veya silajı yapılarak veya otlatılarak hayvanlara yedirilen taze yeşil yem bitkileri, mera otlarıyla bazı bitkilerin taze yaprakları.

Yeşil yem: Otsu yem bitkilerinin henüz gelişimini tamamlamamış, bol yapraklı döneminde sap, yaprak, filiz ve çiçeklerini üzerinde bulunduran, hayvanlara otlatılarak veya biçilerek verilen çayır ve mera otları, hasıllarla kök ve yumru yemlere ait dal ve yapraklar.

Buğdaygil yeşil yemleri: Buğdaygiller familyasından olan, olgunlaşmaları tamamlanmadan biçilerek hayvanlara taze durumda veya silajı yapılarak yedirilen, karbonhidrat ve vitaminlerce zengin öz sulu yemler.

Yer elması yeşili: Yer elmasının toprak üstünde kalan, protein, şeker ve karoten bakımından zengin yeşil sap ve yaprakları.

Baklagil yeşil yemleri: Baklagiller familyasına dâhil olan, olgunlaşmaları tamamlanmadan biçilerek hayvanlara taze durumda veya silajı yapılarak yedirilen proteince, vitamince zengin öz sulu yemler.

Bitkilerle ilgili sözcük: Taranan sözlüklerde 5 adet bitkilerle ilgili olan ve yeşil renk adını içeren sözcük saptanmıştır.

Yeşillenme: yeşillenmek işi

Yeşilçürük: Nemli ortamda depo edilen gürgen, meşe, ceviz vb. ağaçlarda asalak mantarlardan oluşan çürüme.

Yeşilaş: Dgr. grünveredelung bitkilerle ilgili

Yeşil gübre: İng. green manure) Bir arazideki otların bir miktar büyümesinden sonra toprağın sürülerek otların çürümeye terk edilmesi, organik madde bakımından zenginleştirilmesi.

Yeşil gübreleme: Osm. yeşil gübreleme

Kimya terimleri

Taranan sözlüklerde yeşil renk adını içeren 4 adet kimya terimi saptanmıştır.

Bremen yeşili: Bazik maddelerin bakır sülfatla etkileşmesinden veya bakırın havalandırılmasıyla elde edilen yeşil renkli pigment.

Malaşit yeşili: Balıkçılık işletmelerinde genellikle mantara karşı kullanılan, kansere neden olduğu belirlendikten sonra kullanımı yasaklanmış olan boyalı bir madde.

Parlak yeşil: Formülü $C_{27}H_{34}O_4N_2S$, mol kütlesi 482,6 g olan, pH 2'de sarıdan yeşile dönen bir indikatör olup su ve alkolde çözünür.

Yeşil vitriyol: Fr. couperose verte, sulfate ferreux.

Tıp ve hastalık

Taranan sözlüklerde yeşil adını içeren toplam 17 adet tıp ve hastalıkla ilgili terim saptanmıştır

Yeşilimsi balgam: Fr. Érugineux

Kursakçıl aşırı su yeşil eyti: Fr.

Yeşilce benek: Fr. Chloasma

Hyperchlorhydrie

Yeşilce sıskalık: Fr. Chloro-anémie

Kırmızı-yeşil körlüğü: İng. red-green

Yeşil benek olumu: Fr. Hétéroglauçie

blindness

Yeşil bezler: green glands (guddeler)

Kara yeşil: İyi kuruyamamış, beğenilmeyen

Yeşil benekçeli: Fr. Hétéroglauque

tütün yaprağı.

Sarı yeşillenim: Fr. Chlorose-Clorosis

Yeşil sarılık: Fr. Ictère biliphéique, ictère vrai

Sarı yeşillenimsel: Fr. Chlorotique-Clorotieus

Yeşilceli böbrekçe: Fr. Chloro-brightisme

Yeşilsu işlem denemesi: Fr. Bleu de méthylène (épreuve du), épreuve de la glaucurie

Mavi yeşil yosun zehirlenmesi: İng. blue-green algae poisoning veterinerlik

Yeşilli sarılık: Fr. Biliphéique (ictère), ictère biliphéique, ictère vrai

Afrika yeşil maymun böbrek hücresi hattı. İng. African green monkey kidney cell line veterinerlik

Doğa ile ilgili sözcükler

Taranan sözlüklerde yeşil adını içeren 3 adet doğayla ilgili sözcük saptanmıştır.

Yeşilibenim/yeşilbenim/yeşilkuşak/alımyeşilim/allı yeşil/allım yeşillim/alımı yeşil/allım yeşil/alıman yeşili san/allı yeşilli/ebemin yeşil kuşağı: alkım, gökkuşağı.

Yeşil çamur: İng. green mud, karadan gelme, büyük orantıda glokoniyi kapsayan deniz tortusu

Yeşerti: yeşermiş yer

Özel adlar

Taranan kaynaklarda seksen altısı yer adı, ikisi kişi adı ve onu çeşitli özel adlar olmak üzere toplam 98 adet yeşil renk adını içeren özel ad saptanmıştır.

Yer Adı: Yeşil renk adı içeren üçü ilçe, yedisi bucak, yetmiş altısı köy adı olmak üzere toplam 86 yer adı saptanmıştır

Yeşilada	Yeşilçonlu	Yeşilkaraman	Yeşiltaş
Yeşilağaç	Yeşilçukur	Yeşilkavak	Yeşiltekke
Yeşilalan	Yeşilçukurca	Yeşilkaya	Yeşiltepe
Yeşilalıç	Yeşildağ	Yeşilkent	Yeşiltömek
Yeşilbağ	Yeşildal	Yeşilkent (B)	Yeşilüzümlü
Yeşilbağlar	Yeşildalı	Yeşilkonak	Yeşilvadi
Yeşilbahçe	Yeşildam	Yeşilköy	Yeşilvadi (B)
Yeşilbarak	Yeşildemet	Yeşilkuyu	Yeşilyaka
Yeşilbayır	Yeşildere	Yeşiller	Yeşilyalı
Yeşilbelen	Yeşildere (B)	Yeşilli	Yeşilyamaç
Yeşilburç	Yeşildon	Yeşilli (İ)	Yeşilyayla
Yeşilbük	Yeşildurak	Yeşiloba	Yeşilyazı
Yeşilce	Yeşildumlupınar	Yeşilova	Yeşilyazı (B)
Yeşilce (B)	Yeşilgöl	Yeşilova (B)	Yeşilyenice
Yeşilçam	Yeşilgölcük	Yeşilova (İ)	Yeşilyol
Yeşilçat	Yeşilgöz	Yeşilovacık	Yeşilyöre
Yeşilçay	Yeşilgüneycik	Yeşilören	Yeşilyurt
Yeşilçele	Yeşilhisar	Yeşilöz	Yeşilyurt(B)
Yeşilçevre	Yeşilhisar (İ)	Yeşilözen	Yeşilyurt (İ)
Yeşilçiftlik	Yeşilhüyük	Yeşilpınar	Yeşilyuva
Yeşilçimen	Yeşilirmak	Yeşilsırt	
Yeşilçit	Yeşilkale	Yeşilsu	

Kişi Adı: Türk dil Kurumu'nun Kişi Adları Sözlüğü'nde biri söz konusu renk adının eski biçimi biri de yeni biçimi olmak üzere 2 kişi adı saptanmıştır.

Yaşıl K

Yeşil K/E

Diğer Özel Adlar: Çeşitli sözlüklerde 10 adet çeşitli nedenlerle oluşmuş ve yeşil renk adını içeren özel ad saptanmıştır. Bunlardan biri su adıdır.

Yeşil Bayrak: Osm. Tar. Osmanlı süvari birliğinde bir sınıf

Yeşil Deniz: Mekran Denizi

Yeşil Ordu: ilk Türk Cumhuriyetinin kuruluşu sırasında aktif olan sol hareket

Yeşillikçi: Osm. hist. Mutfakla ilgilenen kişi

Yeşilbayrak: Padişah oğullarına özgü bayrak.

Yeşilbayrak bölüğü: Padişah oğullarına özgü bayrağı taşımakla yükümlü bölük.

Yeşildirek: Topkapı sarayında hassa ağalarının toplanma yeri.

Yeşilbaş Tatar: Özbek.

Yeşilirmak: Türkiye'nin en uzun ikinci nehriYeşilay: Hilâl-i Ahdar), 5 Mart 1920'de kurulmuş, sigara, içki ve diğer uyuşturucu maddelerin tüketimini devlet organları ile işbirliği yaparak en aza indirerek sağlıklı bir neslin ve toplumun oluşmasına zemin hazırlamak için kurulmuş sivil toplum kuruluşu.

Yeşil renk nedeniyle kullanımlar

Taranan kaynaklarda yeşil olmaları nedeniyle yeşil renk adını içeren 10 adet örnek saptanmıştır.

Yeşil: Amerikan para birimi, dolar, 1 dolar.

Yeşil: eskiden 100 lira; 50 000 liralık banknot, 10 000 liralık banknot.

Yeşil alan/yeşil saha: şehir içinde park, bahçe vb. yerlere ayrılmış bölüm.

Yeşil dalga: trafikte belirli bir hızda gidilmesi durumunda sürekli olarak yeşil ışığa denk gelme

Yeşil ışık: trafikte yolun geçişi açık olduğunu gösteren ışık

Yeşil kart: hiçbir sosyal güvencesi olmayan yoksul vatandaşlara devletin sağlık hizmetlerinden ücretsiz yararlanmaları için verilen kart.

Yeşil pasaport: dördüncü dereceden itibaren devlet memurlarına, eş ve çocuklarına verilen hususi pasaport.

Yeşil reçete: İng. green prescription, Psikotrop ilaçlar için hazırlanan reçete.

Yeşil salata: küçük küçük doğranan marul, kıvırcık, aysberg, taze soğan, nane, tere ve salatalığa yağ ve limon karışımı eklenerek yapılan salata, yayla salatası.

Yeşil zeytin: zeytinin salamura edilmiş yeşil renkli türü.

Atasözü ve deyim

Taranan sözlüklerde dokuzu deyim ve altısı atasözü olmak üzere toplam 15 atasözü ve deyim saptanmıştır.

Atasözü: Taranan sözlüklerde 6 adet yeşil renk adını içeren atasözü saptanmıştır.

Kadını yeşil yaprak eden de kocası, kara toprak eden de kocası: Bir kadını iyi durumlara ya da kötü durumlara düşüren kocasıdır.

Kadın var kara toprak eder kadın var yeşil yaprak eder: Kocayı iyi yapan da kötü hâllere düşüren de karısıdır.

Yeşil ot vardır şifa, yeşil ot vardır zehir: İnsanları belli sınıflara sokmak doğru değildir, aynı görünümde ya da mevkide kişiler farklı karakterde olabilir.

Bostan yeşil iken pazarlığa oturulmaz: bir şey daha başlangıç aşamasındayken sonucu hakkında hüküm verilmez.

Dünya bir yeşil kuyruktur yiyebilene aşk olsun: dünyada her türlü kazanç yolu vardır, önemli olan yararlanabilmektir.

Yar ansın beni de bir yeşil yaprak ile olsun: İnsanın küçük bir hediyeyle de olsa dostları tarafından hatırlanması çok güzel bir şeydir.

Deyim: Taranan sözlüklerde yeşil renk adını içeren 9 adet deyim saptanmıştır.

Allı yeşilli ol-: gelin olmak

Al yeşil kuşan- : Çok sevinçli olmak; süslü giyinmek.

Bir yeşil yaprak: Küçük ve önemsiz umut.

Dışarıdan yeşil türbe, içine girdim estağfurullah tövbe: Bazen bir şeyin dışarıdan görünüşüne bakıp değerli olduğunu sanırız fakat dikkatle incelediğimizde görüldüğü kadar değerli olmadığını anlarız.

Her boyayı boyadı, bir fıstıki yeşil (mi) kaldı?: Yapılması gereken bir şey varken, önemsiz, zorunlu olmayan şeylerle ilgilenildiğinde söylenen bir söz.

Yeşilden git-: (işler) iyi olmak, olumlu gitmek

Yeşilden ye-: olgunlaşmamış ürünü satmayı vaat edip borç para almak

Yeşil ışık yak-: uygun olabileceğini, izin verilebileceğini göstermek

Yeşillik olsun: çeşit olsun; fazladan, ilave olarak bulunsun

Mecaz

Taranan Sözlüklerde 19 adet yeşil renk adını içeren ve mecaz anlamı olan söz grubu saptanmıştır.

Allı yeşilli kibrit: maytap, fişek.

Alım yeşilim: varım yoğun, malım mülküm.

Allım yeşillim: rengârenk.

Yeşil: eskiden iyi, hoş, olumlu.

Yeşilçam (sineması): Sinema (Türkiye'de) (İstanbul, Beyoğlu'nda yapımevleri ve ortaklıkların çoğunun işyerlerinin topluca bulunduğu sokağın adından alınarak, mecaz olarak) Türk sineması, yerli sinema. 2. (Kötü anlamda) Salt kazanç amacıyla çok kısa sürede, en kestirme yoldan, belirli kalıplara uyularak gerçekleştirilmiş ve izleyiciyi sömürmeye dayanan filmler üreten sinema.

Yeşil devrim: Dünya çapında açlıkla mücadelede, sentetik gübreler, sulama, tohum geliştirme, zararlılarla mücadele gibi yöntemleri kullanarak üretim düşüşlerini önlemeye ve birden çok hasat alma yoluyla tarımsal üretimi artırmaya yönelik 1960'lı yıllardan itibaren uygulanmaya başlanan politikalar.

Yeşil işler: Çevreye zarar vermeyen yeni ve yenilenebilir enerji yatırımlarını yönelik her türlü iş.

Yeşil kuşak: ormanlık ve yeşillik alan.

Yeşillen-: cinsel isteğini davranışlarıyla belirtmek; birine cinsel istek duymak.

Yeşillen-: argo başkasının malında gözü olmak, elde etmeye çalışmak.

Yeşillen-: mec. zevk almak, ferahlık duymak

Yeşillik: gevezelik, boş söz

Yeşillendir- : argo birine karşı duyduğu cinsel isteği kendisine sezdirmek, sarkıntılık etmek.

Yeşillik olsun: “çeşit olsun; fazladan, ilave olarak bulunsun” anlamında bir söz

Yeşilova: Üçüncü sigarası.

Yeşil oy: çekimser kalındığını gösteren oy.

Yeşil paçaroz: Amerikan para birimi, dolar. (para, kâğıt, kayme)

Yeşil saat: Görüşme yapılabilecek zaman dilimi.

Yeşil saha: Futbol oynanan alan

4. Sonuç

Orhon Yazıtlarında henüz renk adı olarak kullanılmayan yeşilin günümüz Türkçesinde 339 ayrı kullanımda yer alması, bu renk adının işlevliğini göstermektedir. Yeşil, özellikle renk ifadede sözcüklerde yoğun olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. “Gökkuşağı” ve dolayısıyla “rengarenklik” anlamını vermesi özellikle ilgi çekicidir. Prototip bir renk adı olan ve bünyesinde “mavi; yeşil; mor; gri” gibi anlamlar barındıran gök renk adı dışında böylesi bir özellik gösteren renk adına rastlamak, Türkçede sıklıkla karşılaşılan bir durum değildir.

Bu renk adının gerçek anlamda renk ifadesi taşıması, Karahanlı Türkçesinden itibaren başlamış gibi görünmektedir ancak günümüz Türkçesinde açık ve koyu gibi belirleyiciler dışında 75 ayrı tona sahip olması renk adının artık kültürümüzde önemli bir yer tutmaya başladığını göstermektedir.

Türk Dil Kurumu’nun Büyük Türkçe Sözlük’ünde şu anlamlar verilmiştir.

1. Sarı ile mavinin karılmasından ortaya çıkan, bitki yapraklarının çoğunda görülen renk
2. Bu renkte olan
3. Kurumamış, taze (sebze), kuru karşıtı
4. Olmamış, ham (meyve)

Ağızlar sözlüğünde buna ilaveten iki anlam daha yer almaktadır:

1. koyu al (at rengi için)
2. genç, gür

Yeşil renk adını içeren hayvan ve bitki adlarında yeşilin renk ifadesi taşıdığı, bitkilerde renk dışında tazeliğe de göndermede bulunduğu görülmektedir. Renk ifadesi; kimya, tıp ve hastalık terimlerinde de göze çarpmaktadır. Özel adlarda oldukça sık kullanılan yeşil, “sulak, yeşilliği bol” gibi olumlu çağrışımlar sağlamaktadır. Mecaz kullanımlar ve deyimlerde de “canlılık, hayat; rengarenklik” anlamları yoğundur. Olumsuz çağrışım için kara ve sarı ile bir araya gelen yeşil, olumlu çağrışımlar için al renk adıyla (*Alli yeşilli ol-; al yeşil kuşan-* gibi) beraber kullanılmaktadır. Özellikle mecaz ve deyimlerde yeşil renk adının sıklığı, yeşilin yan anlamlar yanısıra mecaz anlamlar da edindiğini kanıtlamaktadır. Görüldüğü gibi, yeşil renk adı zaman içinde anlam alanına birçok anlam katmış bir sözcüktür.

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A historical look on structural, semantic, conceptual field of the Turkish colour term green (Yeşil)

Abstract

This study is part of a series of studies that examined colour terms from different perspectives. This particular study deals with *yeşil* and its earliest known form *yaşıl*. This study starts with a brief examination of the history of *yeşil*, followed by example sources where the term is used. By doing this, the course of changes in the term *yeşil* is presented through examples from Turkish language and its dialects. To identify the structural, semantic and conceptual fields of the colour term *yeşil*, its use in various dictionaries and source books were documented, which yielded a total of 339 different uses of the term. The analysis revealed that it is not possible to classify *yeşil* as a colour term in the Orkhon Monuments as the colour green was often represented by the colour term *gök*. Despite its limited use in early phases of Turkish, *yeşil* appears to have a rich structural, semantic and conceptual field in modern Turkish. The presence of a multitude of colour terms including the term *yeşil* with as many as 75 different shades indicates that it has long established itself as a colour term independent of the colour term *gök*.

Keywords: colour terms; the colour term *yeşil*; onomastique

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Recurrent phrases in Turkish EFL learners' spoken interlanguage: A corpus-driven structural and functional analysis*

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Abstract

Various studies contrasting learner language with native speaker (NS) performance have shown that recurrent multiword expressions that come so naturally to the NSs pose difficulty for the non-native (NNS) speakers and hinder their language production although usually easy to understand. Therefore, the present study aims to explore the structural and functional properties of the recurrent phrases in the spoken English of the Turkish learners of English and the native speakers to find out whether these word combinations also cause difficulty for the learners under investigation. The study adopts "the corpus driven 'recurrent word combination' method" (De Cock, 2004, p. 227) within the framework of the Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CIA) (Granger, 1998). The corpora drawn on in the study are the native speaker corpus, the Louvain Corpus of Native English Conversation (LOCNEC), and the subcorpora of the non-native speaker corpus LINDSEI (the Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage), which contains speech produced by advanced Turkish learners of English. Two taxonomies were used to analyze the recurrent phrases: the structural taxonomy and the functional taxonomy. The study confirms that the recurrent language characterizes both native and nonnative speech despite marked variations in terms of underuse and overuse phenomena in the learner data. The significance of difference as to the structural and functional variations that particular word combinations display in the nonnative corpus as compared to the native speaker corpus is discussed and pedagogical implications are shared.

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Keywords: Recurrent word combinations; spoken corpus; interlanguage; corpus-driven method; contrastive interlanguage analysis

1. Introduction

As stated by Gilquin, Granger and Paquot (2007), corpus linguistics and corpus based research has played "a key role in most language-related fields from lexicography to language teaching through natural language processing and literary criticism" (p. 320). The practical and theoretical potential of computer assisted corpus analysis has recently been recognized in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) as well. With the purpose of researching interlanguage through usage-based descriptive and quantitative as well as qualitative analyses, a number of researchers have begun

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developing what are called learner corpora which refer to electronic collections of speech or writing of foreign or second language learners in a variety of language settings.

Although learner corpus compilation is a relatively recent activity, a number of projects have already been started (even some were completed) since 1990s. Among a number of learner corpora, the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE) is especially noteworthy since, unlike most of the existing learner corpora focusing on one L1 group, ICLE contains data from learners with different L1s. It currently consists of 4.5 million words of argumentative essays written by university students of English with 16 different L1 backgrounds. One strength of ICLE stems from the fact that it has a reference corpus, the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS), compiled from the native speakers (NSs) under the same task conditions, which make it an efficient comparable base for learner English. For spoken learner corpora, currently, the biggest one is the Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage (LINDSEI), which contains interviews with advanced learners of various L1s. To date, it has covered 11 different mother tongue backgrounds. Like ICLE, LINDSEI has also a comparable corpus of NSs, The Louvain Corpus of Native English Conversation (LOCNEC).

Most of the learner corpus projects have been launched in the last decade and the research drawing from them is relatively limited (Tono, 2000). However, there are notable efforts in terms of exploiting the potentials of learner corpora in both written and spoken medium (Ädel & Römer, 2012; Aijmer, 2002, 2004; Altenberg, 2002; De Cock, Granger, Leech, & McEnery, 1998; De Cock, 2004; Ebeling, 2011; Granger & Tyson, 1996; McEnery & Kifle, 2002; Wei, 2009) – though the spoken interlanguage related studies are fairly new.

2. Literature Review

Altenberg (1998) defines the term ‘recurrent word-combinations’ as “any continuous string of words occurring more than once in identical form” (p. 101). The notion of recurrent phrases has been investigated through corpus based methodology to reveal the patterning of language under various terminologies such as recurrent word combinations (Altenberg, 1998), lexical bundles (Biber, Conrad, & Cortes, 2004; Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999; Hyland, 2008a), recurrent sequences (De Cock, 2004), lexical chunks (Ishikawa, 2009) and multi-word constructions (Liu, 2012). De Cock's study (2004) is among the earliest attempts to investigate the recurrent phrases in learner language. Her primary focus is the spoken English produced by French learners. Waibel (2007) conducted an investigation on phrasal verbs in written interlanguage produced by German and Italian learners, which provides insights for the recurrent phrases in learner language. Ping (2009) investigated lexical bundles in written English of Chinese students and compared the findings with native speaker (NS) writing. Likewise, Ishikawa (2009) compared the high-frequent word combinations in English essays written by Japanese learners of English with those used by NSs. Chen and Baker (2010) report a study of recurrent phrases through a written corpus of learner language. More recently, Ädel and Erman (2012) carried out a study on recurrent word combinations in academic written English of Swedish learners in comparison with NSs' written performance.

These studies contrasting learner language with the NS performance have shown that recurrent multiword expressions that come so naturally to NS pose difficulty for non-native (NNS) users (De Cock, 2004; Nesselhauf, 2005). Recurrent phrases are usually easy to understand but they hinder language production for the learners. Learners construct their spontaneous speech by combining individual words, which results in producing unnaturally sounding language although it is grammatically correct. Kjellmer (1991) summarizes this as "their building material is individual blocks rather than prefabricated sections" (p. 124).

As for the Turkish L1 background, the learner corpus research mainly has centred on written interlanguage (Can, 2009, 2012; Kilimci & Can, 2009; Kilimci, 2001, 2003, 2009; Şanal, 2007). Given that, to the best knowledge of the authors, there exist no previous corpus-based studies on the recurrent word combinations in the spoken English of Turkish learners, the study undertaken is the first attempt to explore the recurrent phrases through the contrastive analysis of relatively large native (LOCNEC) and nonnative (LINDSEI-TR) speaker spoken corpora. In this respect, the exploration of this untouched area of research is believed to make a significant contribution to the existing literature of learner corpora.

2.1. Research questions

The present study aims to investigate the recurrent phrases in the spoken corpus of informal interviews by the Turkish EFL learners and check the findings against a comparable native speaker spoken corpus (LOCNEC) from structural and functional perspectives within the domain of contrastive interlanguage analysis (CIA) (Granger, 1998). This study is designed to explore the following research questions:

1. What are the structural and functional features of recurrent sequences of two or more word combinations prevalent in the spoken interlanguage of the Turkish EFL learners?
2. To what extent are these recurrent sequences in the Turkish learners' speech similar to and/or different from those in the native speaker speech?

3. Method

3.1. Design

The present study adopts “the corpus driven ‘recurrent word combination’ method” (De Cock, 2004, p. 227) and the Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CIA) (Granger, 1998) to investigate data from a learner spoken corpus (LINDSEI-TR) and a native speaker spoken corpus (LOCNEC). Two taxonomies were used to analyze the recurrent phrases from structural and functional perspectives. The first is the structural taxonomy modeled by Biber et al. (1999), which was also used in similar studies on recurring word combinations in the field (Cortes, 2002b, 2004; Hyland, 2008a, 2008b). The second is the taxonomy for the functional categorization of the recurrent expressions initially designed by Cortes (2002a, 2002b) but later revised by Biber and his colleagues (Biber et al., 2004; Biber & Barbieri, 2007).

3.2. Data

Two types of comparable spoken corpora were used to investigate the recurrent phrases in the spoken performance of the Turkish learners of English and native speakers: the Turkish component of LINDSEI (LINDSEI-TR[†]) (see Kilimci, 2014) and the Louvain Corpus of Native English Conversation (LOCNEC). The LINDSEI corpus with its all sub-corpora and the comparable reference corpus LOCNEC follow the same design structure with at least 50 interviews made up of pre-identified tasks such as telling a story, answering a question or describing a picture. (Gilquin, 2012).

[†]LINDSEI-TR as a research project (Project no: EF2013BAP22) is funded by the Commission of Scientific Research Projects, CukurovaUniversity. Data evaluation and annotation process is still in progress.

3.2.1. Learner corpus: Turkish component of LINDSEI – LINDSEI-TR

LINDSEI is the spoken counterpart to the written learner corpus ICLE, and it is the first large-scale corpus of spoken learner English. The corpus is compiled from informal interviews with higher intermediate to advanced learners of English, employing three type of tasks: a set topic, free discussion and a picture description. The project which started with the compilation of the first component from the French mother tongue learners of English has expanded with the inclusion of other mother tongue backgrounds with the transcripts of 50 interviews of about 1000 words of learner language each. To date, a total of 20 sub-corpora with different L1 backgrounds are in the project, and 11 of them have been completed and made available to public use, yet the others are in progress (Gilquin, 2012).

The Turkish component of LINDSEI (LINDSEI-TR), contains a total of 58 recorded interviews of about fifteen minutes, each transcribed and marked up according to the LINDSEI guidelines. The corpus contains 80.817 words, of which learner turns comprise 63.924 words. The corpus is still being double checked in detail again to ensure that the interviews are transcribed accurately and consistently in terms of the transcription conventions. The present study is based on 58 interviews, but the final corpus is planned to be of 50 interviews like the other components of LINDSEI corpus.

3.2.2. Reference Corpus: LOCNEC

LOCNEC, the Louvain Corpus of Native English Conversation, was compiled as part of the interlanguage research project. It is the mirror image of LINDSEI as the comparable corpus of native speaker English. The interview sessions were recorded non-surreptitiously, and they were not used for any sort of external assessment of the participants who are all university students majoring in English. As to the content of the conversations, the same procedure as LINDSEI was followed. Namely, the interviewees were first introduced general topics identified beforehand, which is proceeded with the follow-up questions depending on what the interviewees had said. The last part of the questionnaire included making-up a story based on the given pictures. The LOCNEC interviews make up a total number of 161,725 words and learner turns only consist of 118.553 words.

3.3. Data collection procedures

The Turkish component of LINDSEI was compiled from the face to face interviews of about 15 minutes by the third and fourth year students studying at the department of English Language Teaching in Çukurova University. The interviews were based on three types of tasks intended to elicit speech samples from the learners. First, interviewees were told that they would be interviewed on topics of their personal interest for about fifteen minutes and their conversation would be recorded. Then, they were asked to choose one of the three topics presented in written form - e.g. an experience you've had which has taught you an important lesson, a country you have visited which has impressed you, a film/play you've seen which you thought was particularly good/bad - and think about what they were going to say for a few minutes. The second part of the interview was an informal conversation based on either the questions related to what learners said or more general topics to keep the conversation going. The final part of the interview was story-telling task. The interviewees were asked to make up a story around a four picture sequence rather than describe it. After the interviews ended, each interviewee was asked to fill out and sign a learner profile, which contained data about learners' social and educational backgrounds and signified the interviewee's consent for the speech recorded to be used for research purposes. Later, the interviews were transcribed verbatim and marked up, paying particular attention to

such speech features as dysfluencies, filled pauses and backchanneling, empty pauses, truncated words, phonetic and prosodic features etc.

3.4. Data analysis

The study focused on recurrent phrases of two-, three-, four-, five- and six-word sequences that occur at least 12, 6, 4, 3 and 3 times respectively to investigate learner language from a broader perspective. Different frequency thresholds were set for each sequence because the length of recurrent word combinations is inversely related to their frequency (Altenberg, 1998; De Cock, 2004). Recurrent phrases and their frequencies were extracted from the native and nonnative speaker corpora using WordSmith Tools v5.0 (Scott, 2010), exclusively focusing on the interviewee turns which were tagged as and in the transcription of the interviews. Since the LOCNEC interviewee turns consist of 118.553 words, which is almost twice that of the LINDSEI-TR corpus, speech samples of 63.900 words were extracted from the LOCNEC corpus in order to make it comparable to the LINDSEI-TR, which is made up of 63.924 words.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Structural analysis of recurrent phrases in LINDSEI-TR and LOCNEC

The structural analysis yields three broad types of word sequences: verb phrase fragments, dependent clause fragments and noun/prepositional phrase fragments, which are further divided into sub-categories. Figure 1 displays the overall distribution of main structural types of word combinations in the Turkish learner and the native speaker spoken data.

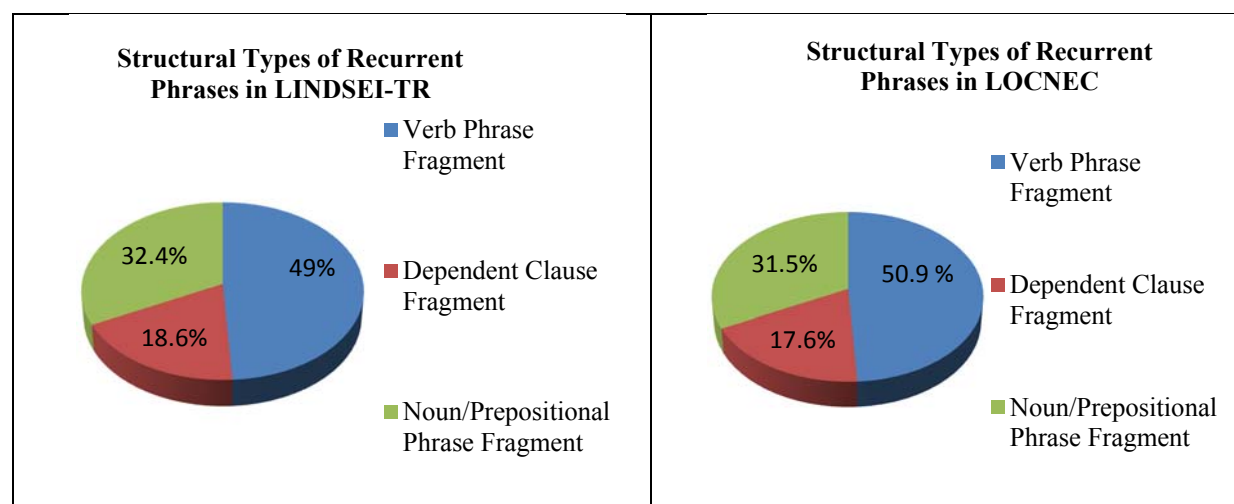


Figure 1. Distribution of major structural types in LINDSEI-TR and LOCNEC

As seen in Figure 1, structural types of word combinations show a very similar distributional pattern in the learner and native language. Verb phrase fragments in both corpora make up the biggest proportion in the overall structural types. This structural profile of data in Turkish learners' and native speakers' speech is, to a great extent, similar to the data distribution across the structural types reported in Hernández (2013). Also, this finding lends support to Biber et al. (2004) who note that in conversation, almost 90% of all the word combinations include verb phrases, and even "50% of them

begin with a personal pronoun + verb phrase” (e.g. I think it is, I don’t know) (p.380). The second largest group of word combinations incorporates noun and prepositional phrases. Dependent clause fragments are the least frequently used structures in the native and nonnative spoken data. These findings suggest that verb, noun and prepositional phrase fragments are the single most important building blocks for on-going discourse, whether in native speaker or in learner spoken communication. Therefore, it is possible to claim that conversation is fundamentally phrasal rather than clausal, which is not surprising when the cognitive load of making full sentences in real-time production is considered. Although Turkish learners show similarities in general distribution of the structural types of word sequences, a detailed analysis dividing these combinations into more specific sub-categories reveals several differences between these two speaker groups. Table 1 displays the major recurrent phrases further categorized according to their structures with examples from both LINDSEI-TR and LOCNEC corpus.

Table 1.

Structural Categories of Recurrent Phrases in LINDSEI-TR and LOCNEC

STRUCTURE	LINDSEI-TR	%	LOCNEC	%
1. Verb Phrase Fragments				
(connector +)1st/2nd person pronoun+VP fragment	<i>I think (and I think) I want (so I want, I want to) you know I don't (I don't know)</i>	61.2	<i>I think (yeah I think) you know (you know you) I mean (yeah I mean)</i>	60.3
(connector +) 3rd person pronoun+ VP fragment	<i>it was (it was very) she doesn't like,</i>	22.5	<i>it was (and it was, it was just) so that was,</i>	28.3
Discourse markers + VP fragment	<i>I think it is, of course I want</i>	2.1	<i>sort of you know, you know it was,</i>	3.7
Verb Phrase (with non-passive verb)	<i>like it,</i>	11.8	<i>paint a picture</i>	3.7
verb phrase with passive verb	-----	-----	<i>was very impressed</i>	1.8
yes/no question fragments	<i>can I say</i>	1.0	-----	
Wh-Question fragments	<i>how can I say</i>	1.4	<i>what else did I</i>	2.2
2. Dependent Clause Fragments				
1 st /2 nd person pronoun+Dependent Clause	<i>she wants him to, I don't know why</i>	16.6	<i>you know it was</i>	15
Wh-clause fragments	<i>when I was a child</i>	11.1	<i>I don't know what</i>	70
if-clause fragments	-----		-----	
verb/adjective+to-clause	<i>I want to do, want to have,</i>	55.5	<i>like to go, like to see, to go to,</i>	15
that-clause fragment	<i>I can say that,</i>	16.6	----	
3. Noun Phrase And Prepositional Phrase Fragments				
Noun phrase with –of phrase fragment	<i>of them, the end of the, a lot of,</i>	22.2	<i>a bit of, a awful lot of</i>	67.8
Noun phrase with other post-modifier	<i>plans for the future</i>	5.6	----	
Other noun phrase expressions	<i>the picture</i>	36.1	<i>a look at</i>	17.9

Prepositional phrase expressions	<i>in high school</i>	36.1	<i>at the moment</i>	14.3
Comparative expressions	-----			
4. Other Expressions	<i>once upon a time</i>		<i>yeah yeah yeah</i>	

The verb phrase fragments category displays a similar frequent use of first person pronoun + verb combination, which could be attributed to text- and task types, where the speaker is urged to talk about himself/herself. In both corpora, this pattern displays a general tendency for the use of know/think/want after the first person pronoun. This corresponds to the observation by Biber et al. (1999), based on their conversational data, that “most of the sequences made up of following elements occur as recurrent [phrases] in conversation: I/you + know/think/want” (p.1001). These phrases are often followed by a complement clause, as in the examples of *I don't know why* from LINDSEI-TR and *you know what I* from LOCNEC.

A closer look at the sub-categories of structural types ascertains several differences between the native speakers' and the Turkish learners' speech as well. The different rates in terms of the use of third person pronoun+VP fragment, especially in the use of pronoun *it* in the NS (28.3%) imply that unlike non-native students, native students do not rely as much on their personal experiences. A similar findings is also reported by Hernández (2013) comparing spoken language of the NS and the NNS students. For the sub-categories of verb phrases with non-passive and passive verbs, it has been observed that there is a tendency towards using active voice verb phrases in both corpora. While passive verbs are not used at all by the Turkish learners, the native speakers use passive voice only at the rate of 1.8%. This finding is in line with the literature since “active voice is the unmarked choice ... all spoken registers use active voice verb phrases over 95% of the time” (Biber, 2006 p. 64). For the comparison of the NS and the NNS in terms of non-passive verbs, Table 1 shows that the learners use non-passive verbs more than the native speakers. That learners generally prefer active discourse frames has been shown in previous studies as well (Granger, 1998; Ishikawa, 2009).

Regarding dependent clause fragments category, while the non-native speakers' speech is dominated by verb + to-clause fragments (55.5%), the native speakers employ wh-clause fragments intensively (70%) in their clausal constructions, which is in line with (Biber et al., 1999) who list wh-clause fragments in the frequent sequences of conversational English and indicate that native speakers often use such fragments as “utterance launchers, presenting a personal stance relative to the information in the following complement clause” (p.1003) as illustrated in the following example (1) taken from LOCNEC.

(1) B> modern Eng= yeah like my major **what I want to do** is .modern English language

On the other hand, the Turkish learners use wh-clause fragments only at the rate of 11.1% in their speech, which displays a striking deviation in the learner speech from the native speaker norm. Comparing the use of clausal fragments in spoken and written texts, Kaltenbock (2004) points to “extra processing effort required by clausal constructions”(p.223) if they are not stored as automatically retrievable sequences. Accordingly, it is possible to claim that the Turkish learners have small repertoire of automatically retrievable wh-clause fragments. They are likely to process such fragments on the basis of grammatical rules, which is relatively difficult in real time production. Another striking difference lies in the use of that-clause fragments between both corpora. Such clauses occur quite frequently in the nonnative speaker data. Biber et al (1999) note that the “retention of *that* is the norm in academic prose, while exceptional in conversation as conversations favor the reduction or omission of the constituents that can easily be reconstructed” (p.680). The tendency of the Turkish learners to retain *that* could be

that the Turkish learners are unaware of register properties. If-clause fragments that do not appear in both corpora might be attributed to the contextual properties of data gathering tasks which don't require the use of such clausal fragments.

Finally, the analysis of the noun phrase and prepositional phrase fragments category shows that the native speaker speech features a higher number of complex noun phrases -noun phrase with -of phrase fragment- (67.8%) and lower number of simple noun phrase -other noun phrase expressions- (17.9%), while the learner speech makes extensive use of simple noun phrases (36.1%) to the neglect of more complex noun phrases (22.2%). This difference could be explained with the fact that "of-phrases is associated with the overall frequency of nouns" (Biber et al., 1999: 302). Although it is typical of written English to make an extensive use of phrasal bundles incorporating noun/prepositional phrases (Biber et al., 2004; Hyland, 2008), the high frequency of noun and prepositional phrases in both corpora seems normal as the interviews that make up the corpus are structured around such communicative tasks as telling a story, answering a question or describing a picture which naturally requires the use of high number of noun and prepositional phrases. In this respect, however, the comparisons reveal that the elicited oral data from learners is obviously less loaded with information and more relies on prepositional phrases and simple noun phrases rather than complex of phrase fragments.

4.2. Functions of recurrent phrases in LINDSEI-TR in comparison with LOCNEC

The functional analysis of the recurrent phrases in the NNS and NS spoken language has pointed to four broad categories: stance expressions, discourse organizers, referential expressions and special conversational expressions. Figure 2 illustrates the distributional pattern of the recurrent phrases in terms of their functions in both NNS and NS corpora.

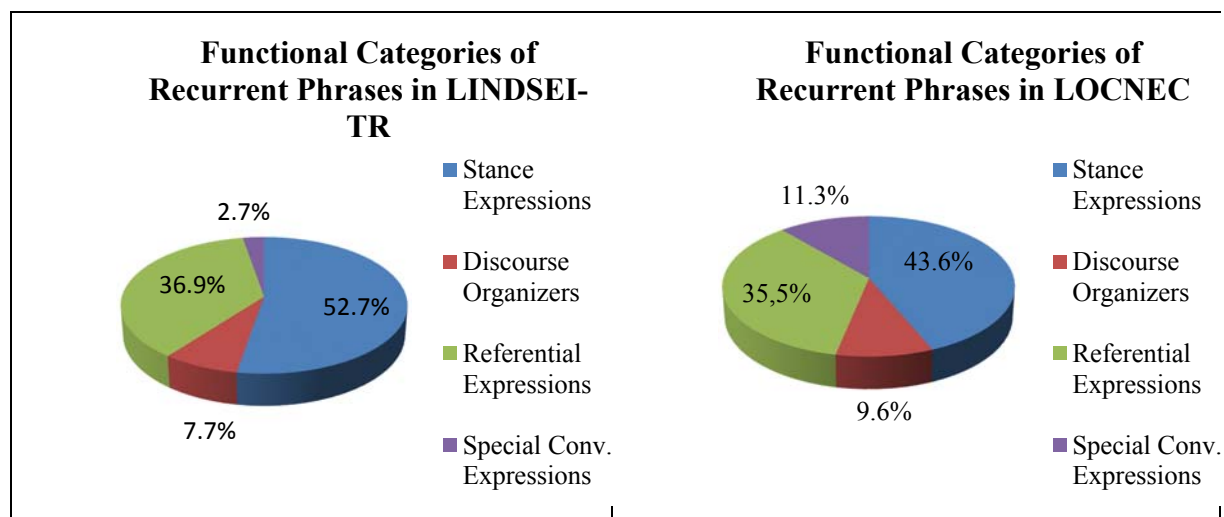


Figure 2. Distribution of major functional categories in LINDSEI-TR and LOCNEC

As seen in Figure 2, stance expressions that cover the word combinations expressing the user's attitudes, judgments and perspective which frame some other propositions have the largest proportion in both corpora. Stance expressions are evaluated in two groups: Epistemic stance and attitudinal stance which have personal and impersonal variations. The data analysis shows that both native and nonnative speakers prefer to use personal stance expressions in conveying their messages. The high proportion of personal stance expressions in spoken language is also observed by Biber and Conrad (2004) who state

that “the most striking aspect of conversation’s use of word combinations is the high proportion of personal stance expressions” (p.67). Similar findings were also reported by Biber and Barbieri (2007), Biber et al. (1999) and Hernández (2013) who note that personal stance expressions make up more than 60% of the typical conversation in English. Referential expressions have the second largest proportion, which is followed by the discourse organizers and special conversational expressions respectively. Special conversational expressions are more widely used by native speakers than the Turkish learners, which points to the Turkish learner’s unfamiliarity with the conversational English.

Biber et al. (1999) further divide these broad categories into sub-classes in accordance with the precise functions the word sequences perform. However, the analysis of LINDSEI-TR and LOCNEC in terms of the functions of recurrent phrases demonstrated that not all sub-categories identified in the original taxonomy are found in the recurrent phrases. For example, phrases expressing impersonal stance or personal/impersonal ability do not appear in both corpora. Therefore, the original taxonomy offered by Biber et al. (1999) has been modified by deleting some categories and by adding a new category of function for the recurrent phrases. It should also be noted that some combinations appear in more than one category as they may perform multiple functions in different context, such as *I don’t know*, which “does not have a single function but is characterized by its broad spectrum of uses”(Aijmer, 2009 p.156). Table 2 further displays the functions of major recurrent phrases in LINDSEI-TR and LOCNEC with examples extracted from transcribed texts.

Table 2.

Functional Categories of Recurrent Phrases in LINDSEI-TR and LOCNEC

Categories	LINDSEI	%	LOCNEC	%	
Sub-Categories					
Stance Expressions	A) Epistemic Stance				
	Personal	<i>I think</i>	16.6	<i>I think</i>	
		<i>I don’t know</i>		<i>you know</i>	29.3
		<i>but</i>			
	B)				
	Attitudinal/Modality Stance				
	B1: Desire	<i>I want</i>	33.3	<i>I would like to</i>	
	Personal	<i>I don’t like,</i>		<i>I wanted to</i>	8.6
		<i>I would like</i>			
	B2: Obligation/Directive				
Personal	<i>I have to</i>	1	<i>you have to</i>	3.1	
B3: Intention/Prediction					
Personal	<i>I will</i>	1.8	<i>I am going to</i>	2.6	
Discourse/Text Organizers	A) Topic Introduction/Focus				
		<i>I want to talk firstly I want to</i>	4.1	<i>I want to talk about</i>	1.7

Referential Expressions	B) Topic Elaboration /Clarification	<i>for example</i>	1.7	<i>I mean I was what I mean</i>	4.8	
	C) Topic Closing/Turn Yielding	<i>I don't know</i>	1.9	<i>I don't know</i>	1.2	
	A) Identification/Focus	<i>in this picture of the film</i>	6.2	<i>that kind of thing that's the only</i>	5.1	
	B) Imprecision / Markers of Vagueness	<i>I don't know</i>	2	<i>and things like that sort of you know</i>	13.7	
	C) Specification of Attributes					
	C1: Quantity specification / Quantifying Sequences	<i>a lot of things there are lots of</i>	8.3	<i>there's a lot of a couple of</i>	12	
	D) Time/Place/Text Reference					
	D1: Markers of Time	<i>at the end of</i>	8.3	<i>all the time yeah</i>	6.1	
	D2: Markers of Place	<i>in high school</i>	4.1			
	D3: Text deixis	<i>as I said before</i>	4.1			
	D4: Multifunctional References	<i>at the end, first of all</i>	3.9			
	Special Conversational Expressions	A) Speech/Thought Reporting		--	<i>I thought it was</i>	2.1
		B) Responses	<i>okay okay okay</i>	2.7	<i>yeah that's right yeah</i>	9.2

A closer look at Table 2 shows that while epistemic stance occupies a large place in the NSs communication (29.3%), the Turkish learners employ stance expressions regarding personal desire to a great extent (33.3%). As for the intention/prediction expressions in attitudinal stance, both speaker variety choose personal expressions rather than impersonal, which sounds meaningful when the fact that one of the tasks in data gathering was directly about the future plans of the interviewees is considered.

Another difference is observed in the choice of discourse organizers in topic elaboration/clarification. While the NS prefer to use *I mean* and its combinations to clarify the previously stated idea, this discourse item is not so frequent in Turkish learners' data. This confirms the earlier findings by De Cock (2004) and Huang (2011) who also found that *I mean* is underused by non-native speakers of English. What is interesting is that in Turkish learners' speech, *for example* seems to serve the same function as illustrated in the extract (2):

- (2) (eh) so he he argues but (eh) when his father (eh) learned that (eh) he he is ill (er) ..he accepts . his son (eh) . I I am affected (eh) from this film because (eh) it is very similar to my family . (eh) so (er) this was very sad film (eh) ..

<A> (uhu)

for example (eh) my father (eh) have argued (eh) with his father so (eh) he tells all the time (eh) .what he feels about it

As is seen, the learner in his second turn explains why the film he is talking about is very similar to his family by using *for example* just before the clarification. Additionally, the analysis of the NS and the NNS speech has revealed that a new sub-category of discourse organizers which is not proposed in the original taxonomy should be added to the classification of discourse items. When the use of *I don't know* is analyzed in detail, it has been observed that it has an additional function apart from personal epistemic stance. Consider the following utterances (3) from LINDSEI-TR and (4) from LOCNEC.

(3) (eh) well (eh) . I can say that (eh) Turkish people are (eh) more (eh) friendly than (eh) Polish people because (erm) in fact .. for example I stayed there (eh) and no friends (eh) came and (mm) .. we didn't go: (eh) for example to parties so much with friends with classmates they were (em) they weren't so: . smiling

<A> (uhu)

 (eh) maybe because of the climate **I don't know**

<A> (uhu)

(4) yeah I think that might have something to do with it (erm) **I don't know** I've just always felt more comfortable in Ireland and that's maybe where I . I fit in and

As seen in example 3, *I don't know* functions as a topic-closing sequence or as Aijmer (2009) demonstrates it has a floor-yielding function in the conversation. Aijmer (2009) further states that *I don't know* in the potential topic closing function may not always be followed by a new turn since the current speaker may choose to continue as shown in example 4. What is more, Aijmer (2009) notes that this function of *I don't know* is especially common in interviews, which explains the occurrence of this function of *I don't know* in LINDSEI-TR and LOCNEC.

Regarding the referential expressions, what is conspicuous at first glance in Table 2 is the sub-category of imprecision/markers of vagueness. Vagueness tags are the indicator of intersubjectivity and they have a crucial role in informal spoken communications, signaling an assumption of shared experience and social closeness (Aijmer, 2002; De Cock, 2004). It has been observed that the NSs employ vagueness tags (13.7%) in their speech more than the Turkish learners (2%). For instance, one of the commonest vagueness tags –*sort of*– is very frequent in the NS speech while it hasn't occurred in the NNS spoken language at all. This is the case with the learner groups in Aas's (2011) and De Cock's (2004) studies. Therefore, it could be argued that the underuse of vagueness tags or even their not being used in the Turkish learners' speech is an idiosyncratic feature of their spoken interlanguage. Lack of imprecision in an informal conversation is a reason explaining foreign-soundings of the speakers. Thus, it is likely that the Turkish learners' speech sounds non-native as they do not organize their discourse using the characteristics of the informal talk. The last category of the functions of recurrent phrases in the NS and the NNS lend further support to the findings above.

5. Conclusions

In conclusion, this study has set out to explore the use of the recurrent word combinations in terms of structural and functional variation by comparing the native and nonnative spoken corpus. From a pedagogical perspective, the findings of the study could be useful in several ways. To begin with, regarding learners' unfamiliarity with the spoken English, this study suggests course designs exposing learners to the features of spoken English through authentic materials to increase their awareness of linguistic properties of spoken English. Secondly, as underlined by Shirato and Stapleton (2007) word combinations specific to oral communication need to be incorporated into the syllabus of speaking course. Creating a pedagogically useful list of recurrent phrases of spoken English is recommended as a starting point, and the language teachers could arrange the instructional activities based on such a list. Thirdly, explicit instruction on the recurrent phrases used by native speakers in various communicative events (e.g. topic introduction, clarification, turn yielding etc...) would be helpful for learners in terms of foreign-soundingness and in speaking more fluently.

Also, this study has found that the use of vagueness markers and hedging devices (e.g. things like that, sort of, you know, sort of like etc...) is particularly significant considering the striking differences between the learners and the native speakers. Vagueness is central to informal communication and of great use when interlocutors cannot find the right words, and hedging is a characteristic of casual speech softening the tone of conversation (McCarten, 2010). Therefore, in designing speaking courses, these devices should also be incorporated into the syllabus to enhance strategic competence "even before the acquisition of any grammatical competences" (Shirato & Stapleton, 2007, p.408). Last but not the least, this study has important implications about the functions of recurrent phrases regarding the inappropriate use of some word combinations (e.g. for example). Thus, it is necessary that while teaching specific combinations, not only their meaning but also their function in context should be underlined.

There are two noteworthy limitations of this study. First, this study does not provide a complete picture of the spoken interlanguage characteristics of the Turkish learners regarding recurrent word combinations as certain categories such as epistemic tags or markers of vagueness are not considered. Second, since the structural and functional analyses of recurrent phrases were qualitatively conducted manually, it is likely that there might be some possible inconsistencies. Despite the limitations, this study is considered to contribute to the existing knowledge of word combinations in learner English. There is, however, still room for further research to provide better understanding of the use of word sequences in learner language. First, a research project focusing on recurrent phrases across different L1 groups would result in a richer understanding of learner language. Also, comparison with the other sub-corpora of LINDSEI would shed further light on general tendencies across learner populations. Finally, functional patterns of recurrent phrases that emerged from the present study may provide useful onset for further research, leading to practical applications of the recurrent phrases in educational setting.

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İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerinin sözlü aradilinde tekrarlanabilir öbekler: Derleme dayalı yapısal ve işlevsel bir çözümleme

Öz

Anadili konuşuru edimi ile öğrenci dilini kıyaslayan çeşitli çalışmalar anadili konuşurlarına doğal gelen tekrarlanabilir çok sözcüklü öbeklerin anadili konuşuru olmayanlar için zorluk oluşturduğunu ve bu öbeklerin anlaşılmasını kolay olmasına rağmen öğrencilerin dil üretimini engellediğini göstermiştir (De Cock, 2004; Nesselhauf, 2005). Bu nedenle, bu çalışma, tekrarlanabilir sözcük öbeklerinin Türk öğrencileri için zorluk oluşturup oluşturmadığını belirlemek amacıyla Türk öğrencilerinin ve anadili konuşurlarının sözlü İngilizce’inde söz konusu öbeklerin yapısal ve işlevsel özelliklerini araştırmayı hedeflemektedir. Çalışma, tekrarlanabilir öbeklerin incelenmesinde Karşılaştırmalı Aradil Çözümlemesi (Granger, 1998) çerçevesinde, “derleme dayalı ‘tekrarlanabilir kelime öbekleri’ yöntemini” (De Cock, 2004, p.227) kullanmaktadır. Çalışmanın veri kaynağını Louvain Uluslararası Aradil Konuşma İngilizce’si Veritabanı (LINDSEI) oluşturmaktadır. Türk öğrencilerin aradil özelliklerini araştırmak için, bu derlemin, Türk öğrencilerden toplanan verilerle oluşturulan alt derlemi LINDSEI-TR kullanılmıştır. Tekrarlanabilir öbeklerin yapısal ve işlevsel açıdan çözümlemesi iki sınıflama kullanılarak yapılmıştır: yapısal sınıflama ve işlevsel sınıflama. Öğrenci derlemi tekrarlanabilir öbeklerin aşırı kullanımı ve az kullanımı açısından belirgin farklılıklar göstermesine rağmen, tekrarlanabilir öbeklerin hem anadili konuşurlarının hem de anadili konuşuru olmayanların sözlü dillerinin belirgin bir özelliği olduğunu belirlenmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuç bölümünde, anadili konuşuru ve anadili konuşuru olmayanların derlemlerinde bulunan tekrarlanabilir öbeklerin yapısal ve işlevsel farklılıklarının önemi tartışılmış ve öğretimsel sezdirimleri paylaşılmıştır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Tekrarlanabilir sözcükler; sözlü derlem; aradil; derleme dayalı yöntem; karşılaştırmalı aradil çözümlemesi

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Implementation of corrective feedback in an English as a foreign language classroom through dynamic assessment

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Abstract

The present study tried to investigate the effectiveness of the implementation of corrective feedback in the light of Dynamic Assessment (DA) techniques which are rooted in ZPD on Foreign language learners' learning of reported speech structures. Two frameworks were used as the theoretical bases in this study; Lantolf and Aljaafreh's regulatory scale (1994) and Feuerstein, Rand, and Rynders (1988) Mediated Learning Experience (MLE). Two intact English language classes in a language center (Isfahan-Iran) each having 15 students were randomly selected; one class was randomly regarded as the experimental group and the other one as the control group. The experimental group received DA-based treatment through the frameworks under focus in this study; however, the control group did not receive such treatment and followed the routines of the language center. The classes were tape recorded and were reviewed at the end of each session. After the instruction, the participants took two post-tests, i.e., one immediately after the treatment, and another one after two weeks. The data were then qualitatively analyzed after the transcription, and it was concluded that the amalgamation of DA framework and Corrective Feedback framework were effective in enhancing the participants' learning reported speech structures, and a long term effect was also observed regarding the experimental group.

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Keywords: ZPD, Dynamic Assessment, Corrective feedback, Mediated Learning Experience (MLE), Long Term Memory

1. Introduction

Despite the growing understanding of the importance of classroom assessment in the learning process, testing researchers have overlooked the area of classroom-based assessments (Leung & Mohan, 2004; Davison, 2004). The traditional method of one-time performance testing is still performed in most language settings, and the role of teachers as both instructors and assessors has not been given adequate attention. With that in focus, this study examined the application of corrective feedback accompanied by dynamic assessment so as to give an account of emergent development of L2. Through this combination, teachers and practitioners can get closer toward the integration of instruction and assessment in view of dynamic assessment.

Dynamic Assessment (DA, henceforth) is an approach by which assessment and instruction are dealt with based on 'Zone of Proximal Development' by Vygotsky (Poehner & Lantolf, 2005). DA has

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been pursued by school and clinical psychologists as a way of more accurately assessing an individual's potential for future development by embedding instruction in the assessment process itself (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 2002). In this framework the mediator jointly engages with learners in tasks, offering support, or mediation, as problems arise. Mediation may include such activities; *inter alia*, leading questions, hints, prompts, feedback, and examples, that all stress a dialogic way of language teaching.

Considering the opportunity that the mediator (instructor) has in interacting and providing the right feedback for the learners, the debate of what kind of feedback is best to provide is still debated. Having explicit versus implicit feedback has long been a contentious issue, and many studies have tried to shed light on different aspects of these two methods of providing feedback for language learners. The present study, therefore, has tried to operationalize corrective feedback within a dynamic assessment framework. That is, instead of summarizing the learners' achievement at the end of a course or school semester (or even year), the major aim was to provide them with an immediate and contextual feedback so as to make correction more effective for their learning and assessment. Since the most common practice in language classrooms in Iran is following the guidelines provided by Communicative Language Learning Approach, and error correction is implemented implicitly; the urge to introduce both a new approach (sociocultural approach, here DA) and a framework for error correction to the context seemed to be an important issue to be addressed. This way, by integrating the corrective feedback with DA, the authors had in mind to focus on the students' upcoming development rather than the assessment of their past L2 grammar acquisition.

To obtain a better understanding of the frameworks used in this study, the two following sections deal with first, the theories underlying Dynamic Assessment and second, the ideas concerned with corrective feedback.

1.1. Dynamic assessment and S/FLA

As stated in the previous section, Dynamic Assessment (DA) is rooted in Vygotsky's theory of 'Zone of Proximal Development' claiming that it can accurately assess individuals' learning potentials and make them prepared for future developments (Lantolf & Thorn, 2006). In this framework, the mediator jointly engages with learners in doing the tasks, offering support, so that s/he can unobtrusively move them from the potential state to the actual performance while directly involved with the problem. To put it another way, mediation through interaction includes different activities that cause learners to proceed from doing the task dependently, doing it together with the instructor and finally to performing it on their own. Through this process, a diagnosis is formulated encompassing fully developed abilities, revealed through learner independent performance, as well as abilities that are in the process of forming, as indicated by learner responsiveness to mediation (Sternberg and Grigorenko 2002; Haywood and Lidz 2007). Hence, the debate on ZPD by Vygotsky indicates that individual performances by a learner cannot be an exact indication of their actual level of development, and mediation is necessary to discover a learner's cognitive abilities and thereby predict their future development (Poehner & Lantolf, 2005).

Two main conceptualizations have been put forward by Lantolf and Poehner (2004) for approaching DA in classrooms (both EFL and ESL); the 'interventionist' and 'interactionist' DA. The distinction between the two DA concepts, as Lantolf and Poehner (2010) believe, "can be understood with regard to the relative freedom mediators have to respond to learners' difficulties and to pursue concerns as they emerge during the interaction" (p. 16). In interventionist DA, on the one hand, there is a mediation phase between two non DA phases which are usually a pre or post-test. Such an approach to DA can be observed in a study by Kozulin and Garb (2002) in which a reading

comprehension test was administered as a pre-test to a group of ESL students. After administering the test in a non-dynamic manner, a group of trained mediators negotiated the items with each student and talked about different strategies required in each item. A post-test almost similar to the pre-test was administered afterwards with the goal of development of reading. The development was tried to be evaluated as the difference between the scores of the pre and post-tests.

The interactionist DA, on the other hand, involves continuous interactions between the mediator and the learner in order to estimate the potentials of the learner's ability within ZPD. In a relevant study using interactionist DA, Anton (2003) employed a DA procedure for placing students in an advanced L2 Spanish course. A movie about traveling around Spain was played for the students and the students were required to narrate the story in simple past. The students were evaluated based on their accuracy of use in terms of their vocabulary and simple past forms. The mediator was free to interrupt the students any time and permitted the learners to start the narration over if necessary. The students who were able to promote their performance through the mediation were considered to have a higher level of proficiency. Using Vygotsky's terminology, these learners were immature in their abilities and their ability to use simple past was within their ZPD which was consequently improved via mediation.

Similarly, to examine 'Vygotskian praxis' concerning the second language development, a study was conducted by Lantolf and Poehner (2010) whereby they exemplified a DA approach in language classrooms as a way for language development. A teacher named Lucy implemented an interventionist approach to DA to teach noun-adjective correspondences in English (L1) and Spanish (FL). DA in this study is not used for assessment; rather it is used as a way of interacting moment by moment with the learners in order to help them improve. Hence, they concluded that the application of DA in the classroom calls for the amalgamation of theory and practice, as supported by Vygotsky, and the functions of theory and practice are not mutually exclusive, i.e., theory guides practice but at the same time practice suggests some extension or transformation to the theory.

In the studies mentioned above, DA was shown to be a way to help learners improve their learning state by the help of the mediation provided by the mediators. To operationalize a corrective feedback framework in a DA framework, the following part gives a quick look at the debate over the two dominant techniques of providing feedback, namely explicit versus implicit feedback.

1.2. Corrective feedback and DA in language classrooms

There has been a great deal of controversy on which type of feedback, explicit or implicit, is more effective in both language acquisition and performance in an L2 context. For instance, Carroll and Swain (1993) proposed that explicit feedback helps identifying the nature and site of the learning problem whereas implicit feedback helps with both. In another study, Ellis, Loewen & Erlam (2006) investigated the effects of implicit and explicit feedback on the acquisition of L2 grammar. As a result of the statistical analysis, they came to the conclusion that explicit feedback proved to be more advantageous than implicit feedback in both delayed imitation and grammaticality judgment posttests. More recently, Ellis, Loewen, Elder, Erlam, Philp, and Reinders (2009) investigated 11 studies in which explicit and implicit feedback were compared against each other and found out that the former was more effective at least when production was in focus. In the light of the results obtained in these studies, it can thus be argued that there is no clear indication as to whether explicit feedback is more effective than implicit feedback, or vice versa; a compromise should be reached that equal weight should be given to each of them. The extensive discussion on this issue is actually beyond the scope of the present study (for more information, interested readers can see Ellis, 2008 & Ellis et al. 2009).

Moreover, it might come to notice that the mediation provided during dynamic assessment is the same as the notions introduced via the proponents of corrective feedback. However, Lantolf and Poehner (2010) argue that there is a slight difference between the nature of corrective feedback and the type of mediation provided in DA. This is to say, mediation in DA is a way of interacting with the learner and providing help and support in a stepwise manner in order to achieve development whereas such intimate interaction and autonomy provided in DA approaches are not present in corrective feedback. Therefore, the main objective of the present study is to implement corrective feedback in a more dynamic context, i.e., the application of DA would probably help corrective feedback to be more efficient and interactive.

In their 1994 study, Aljaafreh and Lantolf developed a regulatory scale containing corrective feedback ranging from the most implicit to the most explicit. Their study was not framed in DA; however, the purpose of the study was to promote language development by interacting with the learners and understand their problematic areas in order to co-construct their ZPD. The aim of the present study, however, was implementing this scale (Figure 1) in a DA framework proposed by Feuerstein et al. (1988).

0. Tutor asks the learner to read, find the errors, and correct them independently, prior to the tutorial.
1. Construction of a “collaborative frame” prompted by the presence of the tutor as a potential dialogic partner.
2. Prompted or focused reading of the sentence that contains the error by the learner or the tutor.
3. Tutor indicates that something may be wrong in a segment (e.g., sentence, clause, line)-“Is there anything wrong in this sentence?”
4. Tutor rejects unsuccessful attempts at recognizing the error.
5. Tutor narrows down the location of the error (e.g., tutor repeats or points to the specific segment which contains the error).
6. Tutor indicates the nature of the error, but does not identify the error
 1. (e.g., “There is something wrong with the tense marking here”).
 7. Tutor identifies the error (“You can’t use an auxiliary here”).
 8. Tutor rejects learner’s unsuccessful attempts at correcting error.
 9. Tutor provides clues to help the learner arrive at the correct form (e.g., “It is not really past but something that is still going on”).
 10. Tutor provides the correct form.
 11. Tutor provides some explanation for use of the correct form.
 12. Tutor provides examples of the correct pattern when other forms of help fail to produce an appropriate responsive action

Figure 1. Regulatory scale. (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994, p. 471)

In their Mediated Learning Experience (MLE), Feuerstein et al. (1988) argue that the problem with many educational settings is their perspective towards future functioning of language learners; that is, they assume that the future functioning of an individual can be fully predicted from their present performance ignoring the fact that through powerful interventions (MLE) the predicted destiny has the potential to change for better (Poehner, 2008).

Feuerstein et al. (1988) define MLE as a process by which the intact environmental stimuli are manipulated by a mediator (here, teachers) who selects, frames, modifies, and reorders these stimuli to reassure that they are presented in the most appropriate way to language learners (cited in Poehner & Lantolf, 2005). They have introduced some components for MLE including 'intentionality', 'reciprocity', and 'transcendence' that were considered in this study. By intentionality, they mean the attempt a mediator makes to provide change in a learner's state of knowledge which is as opposed to

the incidental traditional instruction. The notion of reciprocity indicates the role of the learner as an active participant in the process of learning; that is, the learner and the mediator (teacher) construct knowledge in cooperation. The third notion, transcendence deals with language development through time. It indicates the generalizability of the learnt knowledge to different tasks and situations in the future. Focusing on the above DA framework, the present study thus tried to investigate the effectiveness of corrective feedback (implicit and explicit) concerning reported speech.

As mentioned earlier, the present study has tried to operationalize corrective feedback in an interactionist DA approach aimed at assessing (as opposed to Lantolf and Poehner, 2010) learners on their language improvement (here reported speech). The necessity called for action in teaching reported speech structures in this study was based on the authors' experience on the difficulty of the structure for the Iranian EFL learners due to its rare usage in daily conversations and also in their mother tongue. Therefore, the study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. Can corrective feedback (explicit/implicit) feedback improve the learning of reported speech structures in the EFL learners participated in the study?
2. How can implementing corrective feedback in a DA framework improve the learning of reported speech structures in the EFL learners participated in the study?
3. It was hypothesized that implementing corrective feedback embedded in a DA framework could be effective for learning the structure under question (reported speech) in these learners.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

Two intact EFL classes containing 15 female students each were selected in a language institute in Isfahan, Iran. All students had passed 9 to 11 courses of English for an estimated period of 3 years and all mastered Persian as their native language. They were randomly grouped in two classes based on the criterion of the passing score of the previous course. The two classes were assigned to the control and experimental groups.

2.2. Materials

The textbook taught in both classes was 'Passages 1' by Jack C. Ritchards & Chuck Sandy Second Edition.

2.3. Procedure

2.3.1. The framework

As mentioned above, a combination of Aljaafreh and Lantolf' 'Regulatory Scale' (1994) and Feuerstein et al. (1988) was used to teach reported speech structures in this EFL class (the experimental group only).

2.3.2. The experiment

Two L2 classes were selected for the experiment. The main medium of the class was English, and Persian was rarely used. A part of the institute's policy is to have cameras in classes for security and teacher observation. Therefore, the classes in this institute are recorded on cameras and the classes selected for this study were of no exception. The videos were used to review the procedure at the end of each session to remind the researcher about the conversations in class. The experimental group

received treatment (based on the frameworks mentioned above) and the control group followed the routines of the institute.

The control group were taught the related grammatical structure (reported speech) following the steps provided by the institute which was the same as the experimental group but the kind of interaction and the hierarchy of corrective feedback provided for the experimental group were absent in this group.

As for the experimental group, a framework was provided based on the combination of the two frameworks mentioned above prior to the beginning of the course and the notions were followed through all sessions. A profile was developed for each student in order for the instructor to be able to follow the number of feedbacks each student had received and on what points. The profiles were reviewed by the instructor at the end of each session to provide necessary changes in response to each student's needs for instruction and assessment.

The structure 'reported speech' is introduced in unit 5 of the book. Examples are provided in a grammar box containing all possible tense forms in English and their reported counterparts in the front. It is followed by some exercises; such as, rewriting in which the direct quotations are provided and the students need to write the reported counterparts in the front, and a pair work exercise in which the students are provided with a conversation and are to retell the conversation using reported speech. How these exercises were exploited in the classrooms will fully be reported below.

Day 1

To check on the students' knowledge on reported speech a short extract of a movie was played in both classes and the students were asked to report on the conversations. The extract was a conversation between two family members. The following are some extracts from the students' reports ('S' for the student and 'I' for the instructor).

(1)

S1: ... The father was very angry because his son got bad marks

I: All right, tell us how he showed his anger?

S1: He was shouting and had red face

I: right, what did he say? Can you tell us what he said?

S1: He said "why don't you pay attention to your school assignment?"

I: All right, any other (pointing to the students)

S2: Yeah! As she said, he was angry, so angry and said "I must ask for some tutor for help"

I: Oh! Who said that?

S3: the father, and the son agreed ...

I: what did the son say in response to the suggestion?

S4: He said "OK I'll do whatever you suggest"

As it is obvious, the students did not use reported speech in their statements and tried to report directly. The movie extract was conducted as a kind of diagnosis to the present situation of the students and not just a pretest to be checked against a posttest afterwards.

Day 2

The next day in class, the grammar box was introduced to the students inductively by presenting some examples of reported speech. The instructor tried to give students an example of a conversation between her mother and her by reporting the statements in reported speech. Then, she wrote the conversation (the direct form) on the board and the reported counterpart of each sentence in the front. After that, she asked the students to elicit the rules. Some students started saying the rules; for example, ‘when your original sentence is in simple present tense you have to change it to simple past’ and so forth. This was because almost all students had studied the grammatical structure in school and knew the explicit rules by heart. The same procedure was conducted in the control group.

After finishing explaining the rules, the students were asked to do the mechanical drill provided in their book. The following is an example of what they had to do.

Rewrite the sentences using reported speech. Then compare with a partner.

1. “I’m not surprised at all” She told me

The instructor gave students 10 minutes to finish the exercise in groups. The students were then asked to read their answers one by one. For the control group, the instructor asked for the correct responses and for each incorrect response, the instructor explicitly explained why the answer was wrong and provided the correct answer for the students. The same procedure was implemented through all exercises on reported speech. For the experimental group, on the other hand, the following conversations happened during the sessions.

(2)

S1: “I’m not surprised at all”,... Umm ... it is simple present so it is change to “she told me that or without that she wasn’t surprised at all

I: that’s right thank you

S2: “Have you heard the news” ok present perfect so ... “He asked me had you heard the news?”

I: Umm ... all right ... do you want to think about it again?

S3: may I?

I: Please let her decide on her own

S2: well ok! I don’t know if Well it is present perfect and I need to change it to past perfect, is it true?

I: yes sure, but is it enough? In your sentence do you mean ‘I (pointing at herself) had heard the news?’

S2: Oh! Right! Sorry! He asked me had I heard the news, right

I: Good, right! Now just take a look at the original sentence what’s the form?

S4: It is a question

I: (to S2) so? Should you change it?

S2: Umm! Yeah! To use if or whether? Means “He asked me if ... I need to change to a statement I had heard the new

I: correct, thanks

In this conversation, the students needed some implicit hints to get to the answer. The students did not seem to have a problem with indirect questions because they have had it in their previous terms in

the book 'Interchange 2'. The next student responsible for item 7 seemed different in the amount of feedback needed:

(3)

S5: "was the movie scary?" the answer is "the children asked me had the movie scary?"

I: (showing uncertainty in face) well

S5: I am not sure well, 'was' is past ... simple past, and I have to change it to past perfect ... So I have to have 'had' isn't it true?

I: OK, can you make a sentence in past perfect for me?

S5: I had my lunch before I came here.

I: Can you give another sentence, about you studying before coming here today?

Here it seemed that the student had a sort of confusion between the auxiliary 'had' and the past form of main verbs 'have/has: had'. The teacher asked the student to make a sentence with a different concept to check the source of the problem.

(4)

S5: I ... studied ... need had, right?

I: nodding

S5: I had studied English before I came here today.

I: good, nice, so can you make your answer again?

S5: yeah, OK, "the children asked me had been the movie scary? Wait, Had the movie been scary?"

S2: It is a question like mine

S5: OK, a question, it is a question too ...

S2: Change it to statement

I: Would anyone else want to?

S6: May I? The children asked me whether or not the movie had been scary

I: right, thanks

Here, the instructor let the peers help provide a less direct or confrontational way of correcting to the situation. S5's primary problem did not seem to be the rules of reported speech but the indirect questions. The instructor had supposed that all students had learned this structure before; however, having two students with the same shortcoming she decided that this structure needed to be explained all over again. The magnitude of the problem differed as S2 could correct herself by being provided with a small hint, but S5 could not see where the problem was even after S2 tried to give her the idea of indirect questions. As a result, the instructor tried to provide a fun situation to refresh the students' minds of the structure in need. It is worth mentioning that what was presented in the DA framework (elaborated in the introduction section) as 'intentionality' helped the instructor detect the real source of the error.

The activity was a kind of chain game. One student asked a question directly and another student repeated the question in an indirect manner:

(5)

I: “Could you open the window please?”

Shohreh: (looking at Nasim sitting next to the door): She asks if you could open the window.

Nasim: sure!

I: “when is Sahar free to go out?”

Zahra: (to Sahar): She wants to know when you are free to go out?

The game went on for three more exchanges and then the instructor asked the students to come up with their own questions and go round the class. S5 and S2 were also engaged in the game and after two exchanges they seemed to get the rule. The instructor then tried to elicit the rule by asking the students different types of questions and their indirect counterparts.

The important point here is the way the instructor’s first interpretation would be without digging down into these two students’ real source of problem while answering questions. Had followed the conventional method of asking for the correct answer and then corrected any mistaken ones, the teacher would never understand the real source of the problem, which in this case was not the main structure in need but another underlying attribute needed to accomplish that.

The next exercise was a pair work provided in the book. The exercise was a conversation that the students had to pretend to have heard it unintentionally and now wanted to report to a friend. The teacher gave the students some time to practice the exercise in pairs. Four students were chosen to do the conversation. Two would say the actual conversation and two were in charge to report it to each other as if they were eavesdropping. S5 was chosen intentionally to check if she had improved the shortcomings. The instructor asked them to role play the conversation.

(6)

S1: I heard some interesting news today. Do you know Amanda Jenkins?

S2: Oh! Ryan said he had heard some interesting news today and had asked if Lara knew Amanda Jenkins.

S2 seemed to have improved the problem with indirect question and did not need any kind of help.

S3: I know what she looks like, but I have never met her.

S5: Lara said she knew what did she (hesitation, looking at the instructor) continued ... It is an indirect question right?

I: what do you think?

S5: I think so! OK! Lara said she knew what she looked like (looking at the instructor for confirmation) but she had never met her.

I: Good! Nice!

S5 seemed troubled at the beginning and looked for some help. The instructor tried to provide the most implicit form of feedback. S5, seemed to have benefited from the previous instruction on indirect question, self-corrected herself. Here the instructor provided an atmosphere of learner autonomy by not interfering in the learner’s inductive thinking and remained silent till the time the learner was able to correct herself.

The instructor asked two more students to replace students 2 and 5 and finish the conversation.

Day 3

The instructor asked a student to share what she had done the previous day. She started reporting her activities and she mentioned a telephone conversation between her friend and her. The teacher asked the student to tell the others, if possible, what had been said. The real reason behind it was that changing direct sentences to reported sentences when having them printed seems easier than reproducing a conversation happened in a real life situation. The instructor could make sure that the students had learned the structure only if they could use it automatically in a real life situation. This part of the study was implemented to see whether the notion of ‘transcendence’ could be met according to which the learners involved in a DA context need to be able to transfer what they have learned to other tasks or situations.

(7)

S6: Well I called her to ask about her job interview. She said that she had the job interview yesterday.

I: Well, you mean she was going to have the interview after you called her?

S6: Oh, no! She had it in the morning.

I: So when you called her the interview was finished.

S6: yeah!

I: Don't you think your report has a problem 'cause I misunderstood the time of your friend's interview!

S6: yeah! I guess so! You mean I have to change the time of the report?

I: yeah!

S6: Ok! It happened before yesterday afternoon. Uhu ... she told me that she had had the job interview.

I: right, good!

I: any other? Anyone else wants to share a conversation?

S7: Yeah, me! Yesterday my friend told me that she was going to take a trip tomorrow.

This student seemed to have thought about her sentence and the sentence was alright except the idea of time. The instructor then tried to make her notice the fact by asking some questions about the exact time of the event.

(8)

I: Oh! Good! So what day is today everybody?

Class: Tuesday!

I: So she is taking her trip tomorrow on Wednesday?

S7: Oh no! Today! She said today!

I: but you're reporting it NOW and the day she mentioned is not tomorrow anymore it's today!

S7: So what should I do?

S8: Change it to 'the day after'??!

The instructor tried to look at the others to see if everybody has the same idea as S8 or not. It seemed most of the students did not know how they could report a time that is passed. The instructor then started giving examples.

(9)

I: OK! For example, yesterday we were out I mean me and my husband. My husband wanted to eat out. So here it is, we are passing this restaurant and he suggests: “do you want to eat here?” And I accept. Now I want to report that, see, He asked me ... help me everyone

Class: He asked if you wanted to eat here

I: Oh! You mean here in class??!

Class: (Laughing)! No! There in the restaurant

I: Yeah! That’s it! You need to change what to what?

Class: here to there

I: OK! Let’s have another example! Umm ... Yesterday I was talking to my mom, and here is what she was saying. I had a conversation with your dad yesterday and he accepted to get another loan from the bank. Now let’s see how I can report this to you ... yesterday, my mom told me that come on everyone ... Let’s write it on the board OK tell me

Class: she told you that she had had a conversation with your dad yesterday (half silent in this part) and he had accepted to get (got) a loan from the bank

I: OK! Now! Let’s see! Yesterday was Monday, but my mom meant the conversation was on Sunday!

S9: Oh! We need to use ‘the day before’

I: that’s right! So here we have to change what to what?

Class: ‘Yesterday’ to ‘the day before’

I: that’s true

In this conversation, two students seemed to have overgeneralized the tense modification and tried to change the infinitival ‘to get’ to ‘to got’. Here too, the notion of ‘intentionality’ helped the instructor find out the real source of the problem.

(10)

I: Alright, wait a moment, Zohreh, could you give us the answer again

Zohreh: Sure, she told you that she had had a conversation with your dad the day before and he had accepted to get a loan from the bank.

I: Well, how about I tell you there’s something wrong with your answer

Zohreh: But the time is true I have to change to past perfect and change yesterday to the day before!

Zohreh seemed to need a more explicit feedback on her answer.

(11)

I: You're right; the problem is with the last part of your answer, the part talking about the loan.

Zohreh: (repeating with herself) he had accepted to got a loan from the bank.

I: Well, you sure need to change the tense but is there any exception, I mean a verb that should not be changed?

Zohreh: (seems unable to identify the error)

I: OK, do you know what infinitives are?

Zohreh: yeah! To plus a verb

I: what kind of verb? I mean the form of the verb?

Zohreh: simple form

I: what do you mean by simple?

Zohreh: means, no -ing, -ed, etc.

I: Good, now can you take a look at your answer again?

Zohreh: Oh yeah! Sure! To get ... right

I: Good! So everyone you need to change the tense of the verbs but not when they are in an infinitive form

In this situation, the instructor started from the most implicit form of feedback and moved toward more explicit ones till the time the student was able to identify the error on her own. The instructor continued on different changes of time and place expressions; such as, tomorrow, this, that, etc. by giving examples.

The next exercise was a listening exercise. The students were to take notes while listening to the parts once, and then ask each other questions. Some sentences were not reported speech but some others were (see Appendix x for the transcription of the parts).

(12)

S10: what did Nicole say about her sister?

S15: She said that her sister is getting married

I: you know the time of the conversation, huh?

S15: what do you mean?

I: the conversation you are talking about is not happening now, it happened in the past. So you need to report it ...

S15: Can't I use the direct statement?

I: Sure you can, but it is better to report a conversation happening in the past.

S15: OK then, she said her sister was getting married

In this conversation, the student did not seem to have a problem with the structure of reported speech, but the problem was with the function of this particular form. Again without asking the student to reason out her answer, the teacher would not understand the source of the problem properly.

During the sessions, other cases of problems such as the above were recognized and treated likewise. Another student for example had a problem with the concept of present perfect tense and therefore could not simply analyze these sentences let alone changing them to reported speech. The same routine was implemented to improve the problem. Some students were able to self-correct themselves by very implicit hints such as pausing or the facial expressions of the instructor, but some needed more explicit feedback even to the degree that the instructor had to speak about the rule and ask students to do some exercises to improve the weakness. The last exercise practiced in class was similar to the first activity practiced. A movie extract was played and the students had to report to the instructor.

Day 4

At the end of the fourth session from the day teaching reported speech started, an extract of a CNN documentary was played. The students were asked to report the reporter after each two minutes. The students seemed more confident and more willing to take part in reporting. Some still needed to analyze things explicitly but with a few implicit hints such as when did that exactly happen? Or where she meant by there or here, they were able to provide correct reports of the situations. It is worth mentioning that the same extracts were presented for the control group as well. The difference however was the way the instructor treated these movies in class. The movie part was presented in class, and during the episode the instructor only stopped the video and reviewed some new vocabulary and asked some comprehension questions about the content of the part. No corrective feedback was provided as to the structure of the answers and no requirement for reporting the statements.

To check for the possible long term effect of DA and also any difference existing between this group and the control group, it was decided to compare their performance in the final exam. The institute's routine contains one mid-term and one final exam. Both the midterm and the final exams consist of two parts; written and oral. The exams are designed in a way to evaluate both structural and communicative skills of the learners. Thus, the written exam is a multiple choice test of 4 sections: listening comprehension, vocabulary, structure (grammar), and reading comprehension, and the oral exam contains mostly communicative questions related to the course.

The final exam was conducted five sessions after the last session working on reported speech. The focus of the comparison was the oral exam which was again video-taped. The questions provided contained 5 questions on the topic of reported speech. The instructor responsible for the oral exam had been talked to and he was asked to cover all 5 questions for all learners. The questions required students to make spontaneous reports of real conversations they have had or to change a statement to reported speech orally. The latter were found to be easily manageable for nearly all the experimental group (EG) students and for more than the two third of the learners in the control group (CG). The EG student who had difficulty answering one of two transformation questions was interviewed right after the exam (the instructor was watching the whole oral session through a TV set connected to the camera). The question was: "I felt fascinated by the news" The student claimed at the moment she couldn't distinguish the structure of the sentence. She had difficulty analyzing 'fascinated' as an adjective and therefore was not able to change the tense of the sentence to the appropriate one.

The second type of the questions was a spontaneous open-ended type in which students had to talk about a personal experience (e.g. think of a time when you overheard someone say something really

funny, or someone told you a big secret). The CG answers were of three types. The first group (7 Ss) avoided the situation completely and tried to narrate the story.

(13)

S: Yesterday, my friend told me a secret, it was about her friend's fiancé. Her friend is getting married to her professors at the university.

A number of these students tried to use reported speech in a prefabricated form by giving only one sentence and as much as the instructor tried to elicit more they did not share any information. The sentences they gave were simple uncommunicative ones out of context.

(14)

S: yesterday, my friend told me she had been sick

I: That was a secret?!

S: Well (smiling), she didn't have a secret.

I: OK tell me what else did she tell you yesterday on the phone? You talked on the phone, right?

S: Yeah! Well! Nothing special really (looking uncomfortable)

I: Alright then!

The remaining tried to be more communicative; however, when the instructor tried to ask follow-up questions it took too long for them to provide appropriate answers or even were incapable of providing a correct one.

(15)

S: Once, in a party, my friend made a joke, he said he was very happy when watching his wedding video backwards, he said when I watched it backwards my wife gave the ring back and went back to his father's house (both laughing)

I: What was his wife's reaction?

S: She was angry I guess!

I: what did she say?

S: she said "I'm going to show you when we get home"

I: OK!

The DA group students seemed more at ease providing communicative answers with no avoidance.

(16)

S: Once my friend told me a secret, she said she had copied his father's signature on a check!

I: Oh really! What did you tell her?

S: I told her she should (pause) had to tell her father the truth

I: And? What did she say?

S: She was so afraid of his dad!

Anything else she said?

S: No!

In this conversation the student was able to take two turns of the conversation and provide an appropriate answer.

(17)

I: Can you tell me about a time you were shocked about a piece of news?

S: Yeah, sure! Let me think a moment OK, once I was watching the NEWS and there was something about a person killing 7 women!

I: Oh! Can you tell me what the news was?

S: Yeah! About a man who had killed 7 women and that he was arrested by the police.

I: OK

In this conversation the instructor seems unable to provide a good situation for the student to use reported speech and it was not clear whether the student was able to use the structure or not. It is worth mentioning that the above student was the one who had difficulty understanding and using past perfect earlier in class.

As a matter of fact, because of the limitation in the scope of the present study, all other activities that were done in the experimental classroom can not fully be reported here. From what went on in the two classes comparing corrective feedback with DA and without DA, we can initially figure out that there was a dialogic relationship between the instructor and the students in the experimental class. This fact is necessary if we wish to follow the integration of assessment with instruction which is the ultimate goal of DA. More information regarding the explanation and interpretation of the obtained data will be provided in the next sections.

3. Results and discussion

The present study tried to investigate the role of corrective feedback and Dynamic Assessment in an EFL setting. The questions of the study followed two purposes: First, how corrective feedback, both implicit and explicit, could improve the learning of reported speech structures in the learners in a DA environment, and second, how the implementation of DA framework together with corrective feedback could help these learners learn reported speech structures.

It was hypothesized based on previous research (e.g. Carroll & Swain, 1993; Ellis et al. 2006; Ellis, et al. 2009; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami & Takashima, 2008) that the implementation of corrective feedback can be effective in language learning. The point here was using a more dynamic and interactive framework of corrective feedback by Lantolf and Aljaafreh (1994) in which there were different levels to explicitness and implicitness to feedback. Respecting the second research question, it was hypothesized that implementing the above framework in a dynamic assessment framework (here Feuerstein et al. (1988)) could help improve the learners and also provide a possibly longer term retention.

To deal with the first research question, the framework adopted from Lantolf and Aljaafreh (1994) was applied for each student. As it can be observed in the Procedure section above, through the

experiment, different students received different kinds of feedback in a range from the most implicit to the most explicit based on the instructor's diagnosis of the depth of the problem. As an illustration, in extractions (2) and (3) above the amount of feedback needed was different from a more implicit to a more explicit one for the two learners in the experimental group. To understand whether this kind of feedback would prove helpful to the learners, each participant's profile was investigated by the authors. It could be observed that the students who were in need of more explicit feedback required a less explicit and more implicit one as they received more feedback. They were able to get the language form after an implicit hint such as a pause by the instructor or an indirect question such as 'Would you repeat your answer?' This finding was in accord with Nassaji & Swain (2000), Lantolf & Aljaafreh (1994), and Ellis et al. (2008) in the effectiveness of implementing corrective feedback in a collaborative manner.

For the class in which the typical procedures of the institute was used, the participants had only received explicit corrective feedback concerning each incorrect answer. They were provided with the rules to make correct reported speech statements each time they produced a wrong answer. The instructor in this class did not try to provide different levels of feedback to the needs of each student; therefore, what they had received was repeated teaching of the rules by her. After watching the videos of both classes, the subjects in the control group were found to repeat their mistakes over and over again even after they were asked to repeat the correct form after the instructor. They were found to show correct behavior right after the correction, but making the same mistake the day after while doing the exercises or reviewing.

Consequently, the above mentioned episodes from the language classroom indicated that tailoring feedback according to each student's level of knowledge enabled both the teacher and learner to have a more profound look at the present state of the learner and to evaluate the state to which the learner can reach through the help provided by the instructor. This finding is in accordance with Vygotsky's ZPD by which it is believed that learners can improve to achieve their true potentials through scaffolding by the surrounding environment including teachers and other peers. While the notion of helping in traditional teaching is a unidirectional processes from the teacher towards the learners without considering their true state of knowledge and the amount of help needed to reach their true potentials (see McCarthy and Mac Mahon, 1992), Donato (1994) states that scaffolding is a two way around procedure in which the teacher-learner interaction happens according to the needs of the learners and it is a result of a close collaboration between the two. As a result, providing feedback in a collaborative manner brings in the true nature of scaffolding into language classrooms. As confirmed by other researchers (see Nassaji and Swain, 2000) implementing corrective feedback based on the principles of ZPD helped improve the state of knowledge in the students in the above mentioning language classroom. The learners provided by the graded feedback were found to benefit from learning to their potentials.

The second research question was aimed at discovering whether implementing a corrective feedback framework accompanied by a DA framework would improve the state of knowledge in the learners participated in this study. To investigate this problem, as mentioned in the introduction section, Feuerstein et al., (1988)'s DA framework containing three notions of 'intentionality', 'reciprocity', and 'transcendence' were considered, whose relevant discussion will follow:

To meet the notion of 'intentionality', the instructor deliberately tried to bring the principles of DA, with the notions of mediation and interaction in its core, to classes to diagnose the nature of this difficulty and to start moving the students from the state they were in to the state they could ever be through mediation and intentional interactions. Without ever digging into their state of knowledge, any unsuccessful attempt to use reported speech would be considered a failure in understanding the

structure itself, whereas excerpts, for example, (4 & 9 above) show the difficulty was not really originated from the structure in question. In some parts, the problem was with the tense, in some others it was the indirect questions. The teacher would never understand the source of difficulty without seeking into the learners’ minds and interacting with them to improve the problem.

To bring the notion of ‘reciprocity’ during the conversations in class, the instructor tried to start giving students the chance to get deep into their language choices by beginning with the most implicit feedbacks to the most explicit ones. In the control group class the mistakes were directly corrected and mostly in an explicit way. Here the instructor tried to give the students a chance to discover for themselves what shortcomings their language choices would contain. In some cases the instructor made students give reasons for their answers and consequently tap their metalinguistic knowledge. The use of self-corrections and peer-corrections involved students in their learning process and helped them reach a higher level of understanding of their capabilities. As mentioned earlier, after transcribing the videos and investigating each student’s profile, it was clear that the students who had received feedback starting with implicit ones and ended with more explicit ones needed less explicit feedback during the sessions.

To provide the third notion ‘transcendence’ in the experiment, the instructor started teaching and practicing reported speech with mechanical drills such as transformations and then see whether the learners could perform other tasks as well. Therefore, the instructor first asked the students to change direct statements to indirect ones. The type of task changed through the sessions to more communicative spontaneous tasks such as sharing a piece of news with the class (excerpt 7) to the unplanned questions of their oral exam which required them to give their own experience on some secret or funny situation. The learners seemed to be able to perform well as the type of task changed and tried to cope with the new situations and transfer what they had learned to these conditions.

The final assessment into the degree of improvement in the learners participated in the study came from the movie excerpt played the session after the last lesson on reported speech and the final exam. As reported above the students were more comfortable using the structure and had fewer mistakes. To illustrate the pattern of development in both groups from the diagnosis (pre-test) stage to the post-test and the following delayed post- test, Table (1) below presents the frequency of use regarding the target structure. The correct usage of ‘reported speech’ was defined as selecting the right tense for the statement in addition to the right person and the necessary adverbs of time and place.

Table 1. Frequencies for pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test

Groups	Pre-test			Post-test			Delayed post-test		
	Tense	Person	Adverb	Tense	Person	Adverb	Tense	Person	Adverb
Experimental group	15%	10%	2%	40%	45%	44%	41%	43%	40%
Control Group	14%	11%	3%	20%	25%	10%	15%	19%	8%

As illustrated in the above table, a general improvement for both groups was found in the post-test; however, this was markedly more significant for the experimental group. The results of the delayed post-test, on the contrary, indicated a continuous increase for the experimental group in contrast to the control group with slightly lower proportions in comparison with their post-test. For example, the proportion of tense increased from 15% in the pre-test to 40% and 41% for the post and delayed post-tests for the experimental group, respectively, but the same figure increased from 14% to 25% in the post-test and had a fall to 15% in the delayed-post-test for the control group. A point worth of mentioning is that some percentages with the experimental group is with a lower number than the

post-test (person and adverbs). One explanation for this occurrence would be the stressful atmosphere of the final exam as opposed to the class context where both pre and post-tests were conducted.

The interactions implemented by the instructor concerning the language classrooms used in this study refer to what Feuerstein, Falik, Rand and Feuerstein (2003) state about the difference between everyday interactions and what happens during interactions in a DA setting. They propose that everyday interactions contain a continuous effort to provide help; whereas, interactions in DA settings contain systematically calibrated mediations according to learners' needs. Feuerstein et al, (2003) further believe that cooperative mediation is an important element in helping learners take responsibility for their learning and being more responsive to the coming language input. An observation of the notion of feeling responsible on the part of the learners comes from the episodes in which the learners were able to self-correct themselves with even the slightest implications from the instructor, or when they were ready to use the structures in spontaneous language production and did not avoid the structure. This willingness to produce the structure for the purpose of communication in stressful situations such as their final exam in this study has an indication of personality growth in terms of more self-confidence in these learners.

The long term effect of DA procedures (as presented in table 1) came about with the comparison made at the final exam. The experimental group had the knowledge after about two weeks from the last instruction. The long lasting effects of DA could be observed for almost two third of these students in comparison with the control group. The results here, to the extent that DA techniques are considered, are in line with the previous studies conducted based on DA techniques in language classrooms with different skills (e.g. Poehner, 2009; Lantolf & Poehner, 2010; Ableeva, 2010; Ableeva, 2008; Poehner & Lantolf, 2005; Guterman, 2002; Lantolf & Aljaafreh, 1995; Cioffi & Carney, 1983). As Vygotsky insisted, psychological functions may form over a very short period of time (cited in Lantolf and Pohner, 2010) which is also called 'microgenesis'. One more indication of the long-time effect of DA strategies observed here even for a short period of time comes from what Feuerstein et al. (2003) call the quality of interactions in DA approaches. They propose that when long time exposure and interaction are key elements in any language setting, the quality of these interactions is equally important. More support for the quality versus quantity of interactions in classes are one-session DA programs designed by Feuerstein which showed improvement in learners' language abilities.

4. Conclusions

The present study tried to compare traditional methods of both instruction and assessment in two EFL classrooms. As observed in the procedures section, the researcher tried to compare the experience of traditional ways of instruction and a mid-term/final exam tradition with a more dynamic procedure through implementing the principles of Dynamic Assessment accompanied with corrective feedback. Throughout the procedure, the problematic grammatical concept of reported speech was tackled in a different way to see if the students could improve the difficulty. New areas of difficulty were revealed as the instructor tried to dig deeply into the sources of the problem and dynamically find remedies for improvement by shifting through different tasks (games) and different ways of interaction (most implicit to most explicit). This is what is expected through implementing a DA Framework to a language classroom through which the mediator actively joins with the learners to help them move from the potential state to the actual performance as well as help improve abilities that are in the process of forming (Sternberg and Grigorenko 2002; Haywood and Lidz 2007)

Concluding this study, we can say, the adjustment of instruction and assessment provided a context of development for the students to move from their present level to where they could really be. This is in accord with the concept of ZPD by Vygotsky. For Vygotsky, development is not the solo production of a task by a learner, rather it is the extent any learner can transfer this knowledge to novel situations (Vygotsky, 1997). The way students could perform reported speech in movie reporting and spontaneous talks even after two weeks from instruction can be a valid evidence for DA as a long lasting approach to be implemented in language classrooms, which is in accordance with most DA studies in the literature.

In the long run, it is reasonable to conclude that DA techniques together with corrective feedback, especially the framework used here, which is more interactive than the usual feedback performed by teachers in most language classrooms, can be regarded as an effective move towards more dynamic language classes in which the learners are assessed every moment based on their performance and are helped through scaffolding to reach their potentials. Implementing DA techniques in classes can, therefore, have a remarkable implication for language teachers. For instance, it may guarantee a more thorough and comprehensive way of assessment by language teachers in which the learners are deeply assessed and instructed accordingly. Further research into the effect of implementing the DA framework here and its combination with corrective feedback is strongly suggested for other skills rather than speaking and other problematic structures in both second and foreign language settings.

There were some limitations, however, suggesting the obtained findings should be taken with more care for classroom application. First, there was a need for longer instructional plans whereas in this study, the instruction lasted only for four sessions. Second, there were factors that the design used in this study could not control, such as having a random sample for the groups under study. So, more robust research procedures are required to come to more generalizable findings with respect to the unification of assessment and instruction.

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İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği bir sınıfta düzeltici dönütün dinamik değerlendirme yoluyla uygulanması

Öz

Bu çalışma düzeltici dönütün uygulanmasının etkililiğini yabancı dil öğrencilerinin dolaylı anlatım yapılarını öğrenmede ZPD'ye dayanan Dinamik Değerlendirme (DD) teknikleri doğrultusunda araştırmaya çalışmıştır. Bu çalışmada teorik temel olarak iki taslak kullanılmıştır; Lantolf ve Aljaafreh'in düzenleyici ölçeği (1994) ve Feuerstein, Rand, ve Rynders'ın (1988) Arabuluculu Öğrenme Tecrübesi (AÖT). Bir dil merkezinde her biri 15 öğrenciden oluşan iki tam İngilizce dili sınıfı rastgele seçilmiştir; bir sınıf rastgele deneysel grup olarak ve diğeri ise kontrol grup olarak sayılmıştır. Deneysel grupta çalışmada kullanılan taslaklar doğrultusunda DD-tabanlı uygulama gerçekleştirilirken, kontrol grupta bunun gibi bir uygulama yapılmamış ve dil merkezinin rutin uygulamaları izlenmiştir. Kayıtlar kaydedilmiş ve her dersin sonunda gözden geçirilmiştir. Öğretimden sonra katılımcılar iki tane ardıl sınava (biri uygulamanın hemen sonrasında diğeri iki hafta sonra) girmişlerdir. Veri, çevir yazılardan sonra nitel olarak incelenmiş ve DD ile Düzeltici Dönüt taslaklarının birleşiminin katılımcıların dolaylı anlatım yapılarını öğrenmelerini geliştirmede etkili olduğu sonuçlanmış ve deneysel gruba yönelik uzun vadede bir etki gözlemlenmiştir.

Anahtar sözcükler: ZPD, Dinamik Değerlendirme, Düzeltici Dönüt, Arabuluculu Öğrenme Tecrübesi (AÖT), Uzun Erimli Bellek

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