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Foreword

We proudly present the new issue of *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*; *Volume 11, Number 1, 2015*. In this issue, we publish 9 original articles which promise a lot for the scientific enquiry in language and linguistics research.

The first article is "Looking into burnout levels among English language instructors" by Eda Ercan Demirel and Paşa Tevfik Cephe. They investigate the burnout levels of English language instructors teaching in School of Foreign Languages at Konya Necmettin Erbakan University, Selçuk University and Gazi University. They further look for the factors that lead to burnout and determine the viable relationship between their burnout levels and teaching experience.

Another contribution to the current issue comes from Şerife Demircioğlu and Cemal Çakır. In their article titled "Intercultural competence of English language teachers in International Baccalaureate World Schools in Turkey and abroad" explores the opinions and attitudes of International Baccalaureate Diploma Programme (IBDP) English language teachers from Turkey, the USA, the UK, New Zealand and Spain on intercultural language teaching, suggesting that intercultural communicative competence (ICC) ought to be given a good deal of emphasis in second or foreign language teaching.

In his article titled "To what extent do educated British users of English accept certain established norms in selected non-British Inner Circle and Outer Circle Englishes?" Abdel Halim Sykes seeks to address the question of whether certain established norms common to several varieties of English would be accepted by educated British users of English. He argues that only those norms and standards that are commonly accepted provide the foundation of English as an International Language.

In "Using rubrics as an instructional tool in EFL writing courses", Fehmi Turgut and Mustafa Naci Kayaoğlu investigate the effect of using rubrics as an instructional tool on students' writing performance in English as a foreign language. Using a mixed methods approach, they found that students who received the rubric outperformed the students in the control group. In addition, their analysis of the student interviews proved that integration of the rubrics into the course, though initially somewhat challenging, helped the students appreciate the qualities of good writing and then utilize appropriate strategies to achieve them in their own writing.

Another contribution to the present issue of the Journal comes from Mehmet Asmalı, Ufuk Bilki, and Carina Adriana Duban. In their cross-cultural research project titled "A Comparison of the Turkish and Romanian students' willingness to communicate and its affecting factors in English", the authors investigate willingness to communicate and its key antecedents, namely the self-perceived communication competence and the communication apprehension in Turkish and Romanian contexts. They report that there were strong positive correlations between the willingness to communicate and the self-perceived communication competence while negative relationships were found between the communication apprehension and willingness to communicate for both groups.

In their article titled "Graphic novels: An alternative approach to teach English as a foreign language" Hüseyin Öz and Emine Efecioğlu report the findings of a study that investigates the role of graphic novels in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) to International Baccalaureate students (aged 15-16) in TED Ankara College Foundation Private High School. Their findings reveal that there is a significant difference in the scores of the participants in the experimental and control groups, with the graphic novel playing a significant role in understanding (i) literature elements such as symbol, setting and foreshadowing, (ii) inference and (iii) vocabulary. This study calls for integrating graphic novels

into the syllabi of the relevant schools as these materials appeal to the students' visual senses and yield more insights compared with traditional plain literary texts.

In their study titled "Teachers of Turkish grammar in the eyes of high school students", İsmail Hakkı Erten and Nesrin Bayraktar-Erten invesitage how students in Turkish grammar classes at three state high schools in Turkey perceive their teachers and the classroom interaction. With over 100 metaphors produced by students, almost half the students had fairly negative perceptions of their teachers. They further identified metaphors mostly denoting passive roles for students and control oriented classroom management strategies for teachers, suggesting that it may be conductive if teachers could revise their classroom management strategies.

Mehmet Kanık's article on the Turkish aorist and progressive markers investigates the uses of the aorist and the progressive tenses in spoken Turkish and the extent to which they are used interchangeably. He reports that assumptions and commitments are the most common uses and that they account for the 56% of the uses of the aorist, whereas three functions of the progressive, namely progressive (event), progressive (state) and repetitive/habitual, account for 96% of all its uses. He also reports that 76% of interchangeable functions are expressed in the progressive tense, suggesting some implications for curriculum and materials development and teaching practices.

Finally, "The impact of language play-oriented tasks with planned focus on form on Iranian EFL learners' accuracy in controlled writings" by Javad Gholami and Mitra Gholizadeh sought to investigate the possible effect of language play-oriented tasks with planned focus on form on Iranian EFL learners' accuracy in controlled writings. Their findings demonstrate the supremacy of playful tasks over non-playful language learning activities with the items in playful tasks being recalled better. Authors' research calls for integration of playful language tasks along with planned focus on form in EFL classes and provides EFL teachers with a good set of such tasks to create an enjoying and relaxing atmosphere in their classes.

To conclude the foreword and leave you alone with the works published in *Volume 11 Number 2*1of *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, we would like to thank the researchers, reviewers, and editorial team members who contributed to our journal, and invite new authors to submit to our journal which now owns the privilege and experience of over ten years of academic publishing.

On behalf of the Editorial Board,

Best regards,

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Arif SARIÇOBAN

Editor-in-Chief

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Looking into burnout levels among English language instructors

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate the burnout levels of English language instructors who are currently teaching at School of Foreign Languages, namely Konya Necmettin Erbakan University, Selçuk University and Gazi University, to look for the factors leading to burnout and to see if there is a relationship between their burnout levels and teaching experience. The study has a mixed method design. Maslach Burnout Inventory Educators Survey (MBI/Maslach & Jackson, 1981/Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996) was administered to 70 English language instructors and semi-structured interviews were conducted with 30 of them. The results showed that burnout existed among instructors at varying levels. Although not supported by ANOVA results, there is an inclination of higher burnout levels at younger ages and in less experienced groups. As a result of the analysis of the qualitative data, gathered with semi-structured interviews, it was found that academic factors such as hours of teaching, proficiency levels of students, and the offices the instructors are working at such as testing, materials and teacher development are important in the emergence of burnout among instructors.

Keywords: Burnout; English language instructors

1. Introduction

Burnout is the feeling of being tired of work in its simplest form. It can also be dubbed as long-term exhaustion and loss of both energy and motivation to work. Rudow (1999) defines burnout as "a phenomenon that takes years or even decades to evolve. It is often a lingering process unnoticed or underestimated by the teacher. Burnout is thus in large part a function of years of employment" (p. 54). Although the term 'burnout' has been under scrutiny for over a period of 50 years, the term was only introduced to the world of social sciences in 1974. It was coined by Freudenberger (1974), "who used it to describe the phenomenon of physical and emotional exhaustion with associated negative attitudes arising from intense interactions when working with people (as cited in Chan, 2007, p.34)".

Burnout consists of three stages and Payne (2001) explains them as in the following: "*Emotional exhaustion* comprises burnout in the first stage, followed by *depersonalisation* which is used as a coping strategy, and finally feelings of *reduced personal accomplishment* are experienced (as cited in

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Engelbrecht, Berg & Bester, 2009, p.4). Emotional exhaustion is explained by Maslach (1999), who coined the term 'burnout' as "the feelings of being emotionally overextended and depleted of one's emotional resources" (p.215). As a result of the depletion of emotional resources and the feeling of being emotionally inadequate, "people feel they are no longer able to give of themselves at a psychological level and emotionally unable to cope (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p.99)". The individual begins to have negative and undesired attitudes towards the people he works with, which is defined as "depersonalisation". In the last stage of burnout, with reduced personal accomplishment, people feel dissatisfied with themselves and the work they do. They begin to have a negative perception of their performance.

"Emotional exhaustion can be considered the core symptom of burnout (Shirom, 1989 as cited in Greenglass, Burke & Konarski, 1998, p.1088). Starting with emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and finally reduced personal accomplishment; the case ends in deadlock. As the final step of burnout, comes *quitting the job.* When not being able to cope with the consequences of burnout, the "victim" comes to the end of the road. The only solution *quitting* and *letting the burnout win* seems as a life-saver. To conclude, burnout may lead to many consequences including symptoms such as stress, physical and psychological illnesses, depression, fatigue, absence, low performance, lack of involvement and excitement for work, none of which can be underestimated.

From the very beginning, the real concern – apart from having a general look at "burnout"- has been "burnout in teacher education". Although burnout has gained meaning in many different fields, being the real concern of our study, teacher burnout is going to be handled thoroughly from now on. As a result, the term "burnout" is going to be used in the sense of "teacher burnout" as of this moment.

Teacher burnout might be one of the most important type of burnout since "the teaching profession is among the most stressful of all occupations because of the daily unrelenting pressures and fragmented demands from a number of sources- students, parents, and administrators as well as from the teachers themselves" (Blasé,1991; Blasé and Kirby,1999 as cited in Kottler, Zehm and Kottler, 2005, p.116). Burnout arises when there is a mismatch between all these demands and what is available in terms of academic, personal, and administrative factors.

Factors causing burnout can be categorised in many different ways such as: the teachers' personality characteristics and the conditions of the workplace (Gold, 1988 as cited by Kottler et al., 2005, p.116); internal and external factors; micro (academic & administrative) and macro (governmental & personal) factors (Cephe,2010, p.229-30); the societal influences and teachers' workplaces (Kelchtermans and Strittmatter, 1999); difficult/ disruptive students (Kottler et al., 2005); classroom discipline, influence of interpersonal interaction (Watts and Robertson, 2011); working conditions; work overload, lack of autonomy, emotional demands, low social support, role ambiguity (Chan 2009, Schaufeli and Enzmann 1998, Lee and Ashforth, 1996, as cited in Hoigaard, Giske and Sundsli, 2011).

Those who suffer from the factors causing burnout and who are late for noticing the signs face burnout sooner or later; which is why the consequences matter a lot. "Teacher burnout could be a problem with potentially serious consequences for the teaching careers of the teachers concerned as well as for the learning outcomes of their students" (Chan, 2007, p.35). As a result, teacher burnout should be seen as a threat concerning both sides of the teaching and learning process. Teachers should be really safe from burnout for the sake of effective teaching since "as a profession realised in front of people, the consequences of burnout may be frustrating for both teachers and learners in the teaching and learning process (Cephe, 2010, p.25)".

1.1. Literature review

There are many studies on burnout according to various variables such as age, gender, marital status, self-efficacy, and locus of control. Findings tend to differ according to the stages of burnout. For instance, most studies show that younger teachers are more affected by burnout when compared to older ones (Byrne, 1991; Lackritz, 2004; Anderson and Iwanicki,1984; Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Ghorpade, Lackritz and Singh,2007) while some research show no meaningful difference in terms of emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation (Dericioğulları, Konak, Arslan and Öztürk; 2007). As for gender, it was found out that females have higher scores on emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation compared to males, whereas males had higher scores on personal accomplishment (Dericioğulları et al., 2007). However, in another study by Maslach and Jackson (1981) females scored higher only on emotional exhaustion. Chan's (2007) study revealed higher levels of depersonalisation with male teachers. There are also some studies showing females suffer more from burnout (Byrne, 1991) or just the other way around (Anderson and Iwanicki, 1984). When it comes to marital status, on the whole some studies show no significant relationship between marital status and burnout (Byrne, 1991,1999; Maslach& Jackson,1986), whereas others such as Maslach and Jackson (1981) show that marital status is significantly related to emotional exhaustion, and single teachers score higher in emotional exhaustion in contrast to married ones, who score higher in personal accomplishment (Dericioğulları et al., 2007).

Motallebzadeh, Ashraf and Yazdi (2014) focused on a possible relationship between EFL teachers' burnout and self-efficacy in their study, which showed a reverse relationship between these two concepts. Another study by Khani and Mirzaee (2015) implied the direct or indirect role of self-efficacy on reducing teacher burnout.The results also highlighted the possible direct and indirect role of self-efficacy in reducing teacher burnout.

Burnout is not a notion limited to a typical type of teacher, rather each teacher is at risk as Hamann, Daugherty & Sherbon (1988), Hamilton (2005) and Jamal (1999) point out: "It is commonly believed that the stressors leading teachers to burnout are seen only among primary and secondary teachers, which is indeed not the actual case. Even the university professors are reported to suffer from burnout." In this sense, this study aims to shed light on burnout among the instructors at schools of foreign languages by referring to their burnout levels, the possible relationship between those levels and instructors' teaching experience as well as the factors that result in burnout. Hence, the study can yield results that will function as a step toward understanding burnout in the EFL context, specifically at the university level.

1.2. Research questions

It is the aim of the study to investigate the burnout levels of English language instructors, to look for the factors leading to their burnout, and to see if there is a relationship between their burnout levels and teaching experience. In line with these goals, the study seeks answers to the following questions:

1. What are the burnout levels of in-service EFL instructors?
2. Is there a relationship between in-service EFL instructors' burnout levels and their teaching experience?
3. What are the factors leading instructors to feel burnout in the EFL context?

2. Method

The research design of the study is a mixed one, which integrates both qualitative and quantitative research methods. "According to Sandelowski (2003), there are two main and somewhat conflicting purposes for combining methods: (a) to achieve a fuller understanding of a target phenomenon and (b) to verify one set of findings against the other" (as cited in Dörnyei, 2007, p.164). In other words, the study tries to have a better and detailed understanding of the topic through qualitative research, and to verify the findings through quantitative research. In the quantitative section of the study, it is intended to find out whether English instructors suffer from burnout and which level they are at if they do. In the qualitative section, the goal is to identify the reasons underlying these instructors' feelings of burnout.

2.1. Sample / Participants

2.1.1. Quantitative Part of the Study

The quantitative part of the research was conducted with instructors at Selcuk University School of Foreign Languages, Konya NEU School of Foreign Language, and Gazi University School of Foreign Languages on voluntary basis. The numbers of the instructors were 46, 14, and 10 respectively.

Table 1. Participants for the Quantitative Part of the Study

		N	%
Gender	Female	54	77
	Male	16	23
Age	20-25	4	6
	26-30	21	30
	31-35	26	37
	36-40	7	10
	41-45	3	4
	46+	9	13
Experience	1-5	18	26
	6-10	16	23
	11-15	22	31
	16-20	2	3
	20+	12	17

The demographic information of the participants is also provided above. 70 participants in total are categorised according to their gender, age, and experience.

2.1.2. Qualitative Part of the Study

Based on the findings of the quantitative data, the qualitative part of the study was conducted with 25 instructors out of 70 instructors in total. The participants were randomly selected from the burnout-level groups.

2.2. Instrument(s)

2.2.1. Quantitative part of the study

The Turkish version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory- Educators Survey was used to determine the burnout levels of the participants. The scale consists of two parts, first of which seeks answers to participants' gender, marital status, department, age, degree, and teaching experience. The second part is the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach& Jackson, 1981) was originally developed for general use and then adapted for different purposes. The scale consists of 22 items, having subscales for 3 dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and personal accomplishment. High scores on emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation and low scores on personal accomplishment are signs of burnout. The scoring is as follows:

Emotional exhaustion: Items 1,2,3,6,8,13,14,16,20

(Scores: 27 or over High/ 17-26 Moderate/ 0-16 Low)

Depersonalization: Items 5,10,11,15,22

(Scores: 13 or over High/ 7-12 Moderate/ 0-6 High)

Personal accomplishment: 4,7,9,12,17,18,19,21

(Scores: 0-31 High/ 32-38 Moderate/ 39 or over Low

MBI has been translated into Turkish and used as a data collection instrument in the field of medicine before (Çam,1992; Ergin,1992). It was found reliable and valid. Ergin (1992) found reliability coefficients as .83 for Emotional Exhaustion (EE), .65 for Depersonalisation (DP), and .72 for Personal Accomplishment (PA). Çam (1992) found no significant difference between the English and Turkish versions. In an educational context, the adapted forms were also found reliable and valid with .74 for EE,. 75 for DP, and .77 for PA (Baysal, 1995) and .87 for EE, .63 for DP, .74 for PA (Girgin, 1995).

2.2.2. Qualitative part of the study

After the analysis of the quantitative data, a semi-structured interview form was developed under the supervision of language experts in order to reach the underlying reasons beyond the scores. First of all, the form was piloted in advance with 5 colleagues. Then, with the help of the experts, some questions were deleted, modified, and reordered. Eventually, the final version of the semi-structured interview was formed and it consisted of 3 parts: *Demography and Context*, *Information about Teaching*, and *Personal View*.

2.3. Data collection procedures

As the first step of the data collection procedure, the Maslach Burnout Inventory- Educators Survey was administered to randomly selected 70 English language instructors in total with the aim of looking into burnout levels. According to the burnout levels the quantitative data revealed, 31 were found to be suffering from burnout at Low Level, 24 at Moderate Level, and 15 at High Level. 30 participants out of 70 were selected which was planned as 10 for each burnout level and 25 of them voluntarily agreed to take part in the qualitative data collection. 25 instructors of different burnout levels, namely 9 for low and moderate levels for each, and 7 for high- participated in the semi-structured interviews. The data collection process includes data of burnout levels, and also through the qualitative data, the reasons underlying the case.

2.4. Data analysis

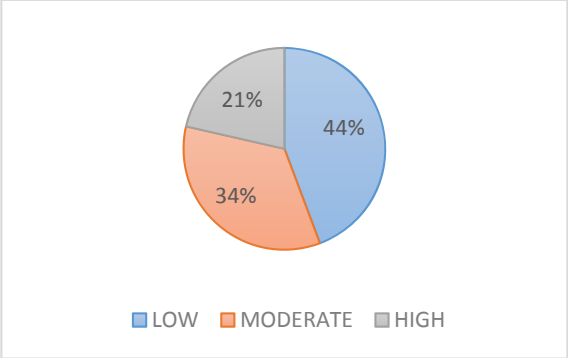
First of all, manual data input was done through Excel followed by SPSS data analysis. Afterwards, the mean scores, standard deviation scores, and standard error scores were calculated, followed by a comparative data analysis through t-test and ANOVA. The variables of *gender/ marital status/ background/ age/ degree/ experience* were analysed in terms of *emotional exhaustion/ depersonalisation/ personal accomplishment* through t-test in order to compare the differences between the groups, and ANOVA for the differences among the groups. Based on the *iterative* nature of the qualitative research *(Dörnyei*, 2007), it is usual to move back and forth between data collection, data analysis, and data interpretation depending on the emergent results. Within the data analysis of the qualitative part of the study, first of all, the data was transformed into textual forms. The transcriptions and the semi-structured interview forms were studied many times to analyse and group them under the same content for the content analysis.

3. Results

The participants were found to be in three categories of burnout: low (31), moderate (24), and high (15). The results of the quantitative phase of the study were interpreted with the above information in mind.

Research Question 1: What are the burnout levels of in-service EFL instructors?

Figure 1. Burnout levels of EFL instructors



Out of 70 participants in total, according to the scores, 31 of the participants belong to the burnout level of LOW, 24 to the MODERATE, and 15 of them to the HIGH. In other words, 44% of the instructors suffer from burnout at low, 34% at moderate level, and 21% at high level. In answer to the first research question, it is possible to say that the previous data can be used. It was concluded that there were participants of all burnout levels. Out of 70 participants; 31 were at Low level, 24 at Moderate, and 15 at High Level of burnout. Therefore, the proportion of the participants at Low level was the biggest, followed by Moderate and High levels.

Research Question 2: Is there a relationship between in-service EFL instructors' burnout levels and their teaching experience?

Table 2. Burnout levels and teaching experience of participants (based on Quantitative Phase)

	Teaching experience	LOW	MODERATE	HIGH	TOTAL	%
EXPERIENCE	1_5	7	4	7	18	26
	6_10	9	6	1	16	23
	11_15	8	9	5	22	31
	16_20	1	1	0	2	3
	20+	6	4	2	12	17

As for the second research question, which focuses on whether there is a relationship between EFL instructors' burnout levels and teaching experience, it can be seen that the distribution of participants at 1-5 years of experience was found to be 18 (nLow:7/nMod:4/nHigh:7); and 10 + years of experienced participants as 36 (nLow:15/nMod:14/nHigh:7). Thus, the numbers of 1-5 years experienced participants are equally distributed to Low and High levels; whereas the ones of 10+ experience are mostly and intensively piled up at low and moderate.

Table 3. Anova Findings- Experience variable

		F	Sig.
Emotional Exhaustion	Between Groups	2.087	**0.93**
	Within Groups		
	Total		
Depersonalisation	Between Groups	.656	**.625**
	Within Groups		
	Total		
Personal Accomplishment	Between Groups	1.015	**.406**
	Within Groups		
	Total		

When the mean scores and ANOVA results above regarding all dimensions, i.e. *Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalisation,* and *Personal accomplishment* are taken into consideration, it can be inferred that there was no significant difference between the groups of experience of the participants, showing a relationship between burnout levels and teaching experience in a certain manner. However, it is still possible to see the total number of the participants was intensively and equally located at low and high levels of burnout. Also, the ones with high level of burnout made up nearly half of the group, seeming in favour of higher levels of burnout. What is more, participants with 10+ years of experience mostly tend to go for low and moderate levels of burnout. It can also be concluded that moderate level of burnout is mostly dependent on participants with 11-15 years of experience. All data can be interpreted as higher levels of burnout being inversely related with 10+ years of experience. To have a better and deeper understanding of the phenomenon, the data was also analysed level by level with teaching experience as the other variable. The analysis of the mean scores and the ANOVA results in Table 3 showed that there was no significant difference between them; still other findings seeming in favour of 10+ years of experience should be kept in mind to analyse the data thoroughly, excessively, and properly.

Figure 2. Low level of burnout experience variable

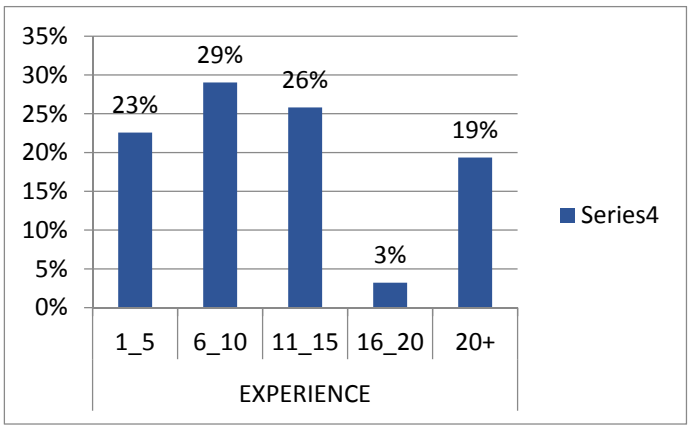
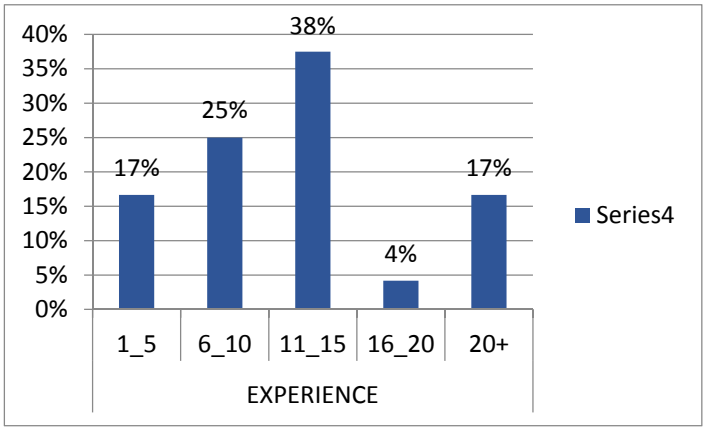


Figure 2 provides data of findings according to low level of burnout. The statistics show that 23% of the participants with low level of burnout had experience between 1-5 years, 29% had experience of 6-10 years, 26% were in the experience group of 11-15, 3% had experience between 16-20 years, and finally 19% were experienced with 20 years and more. It can be said that the participants of 6 to 10 years of experience surplus the percentage of the others and dominate the group of Low Level of Burnout.

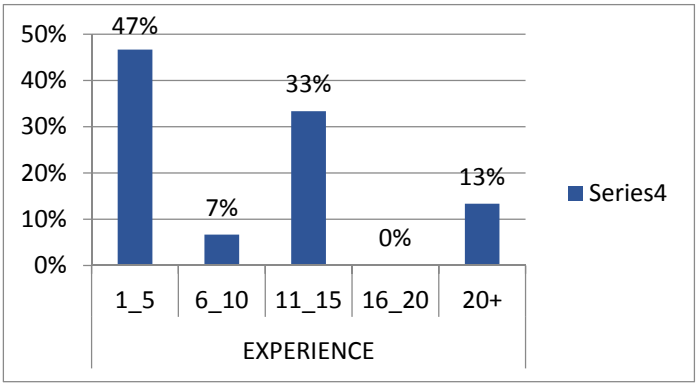
According to Figure 3, which shows data of the moderate level of burnout, experience group of 11-15 years exceeds the others with 38%. The others are 1-5 years with 17%, 16-20 with 4% and 20+ with 17%. The participants of 11 to 15 years of experience surplus the percentage of the others and dominate the group of Moderate Level of Burnout.

Figure 3. Moderate level of burnout experience variable



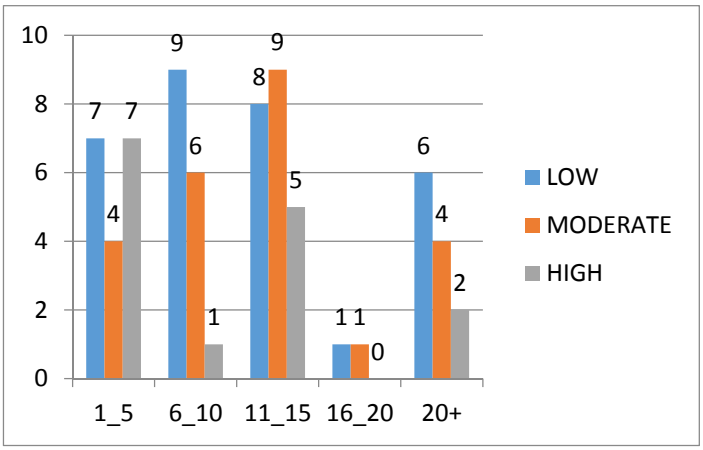
For the findings of high level of burnout, Figure 4 indicates that of all 15 participants, 7 were at 1-5 year of experience. It is also almost half of the 1-5 year of experience (n=18).

Figure 4. High level of burnout experience variable



Of all 15 participants with a high level of burnout, 7 were at the experience group of 1-5 with the highest proportion of 47%. The ones experienced with years between 6-10 is made up of only one instructor, which is only 7% of all; and 5 participants between 11-15 years is 33% of all. There were no participants from experience group of 16-20. The rest-13%- is made up of 2 instructors with an experience of 20+. That's why it can be easily said that the experience group of 1-5 years dominates the high-level-of-burnout instructors according to experience.

Figure 5. Experience variable



The distribution of the participants in terms of their experience is as follows: There were 18 with the experience of 1-5 years; 16 with the experience of 6-10 years; 22 with the experience of 11-15 years; 2 with the experience of 16-20 years; and 12 with the experience of more than 20 years. The participants with the experience of 6-10 years and 20+ have their highest proportions at Low level of burnout; and the ones with 11-15 years of experience at Moderate level of burnout. 1-5 years of experienced participants have equal dominance at Low and High levels of burnout.

Research Question 3: What are the factors leading instructors to burnout in EFL context?

Through the detailed study and analysis of the semi-structured interview data findings, it was found that academic factors dominate other challenges. As for academic factors, there stands a relationship between the higher levels of burnout, longer hours of teaching, and lower academic levels of the

students. Higher levels of burnout are also negatively related to the offices the instructors are working at.

In terms of administrative factors; there found to be a relationship between lower levels of burnout and institutional support, academic support of the colleagues, ideal working conditions. Within personal factors, there stands a relation between lower levels of burnout and elements such as professional development activities, self-esteem of successful teachers, self-improvement, and the need to teach other levels. For instance, some participants emphasized the possibly positive effects of teaching a different level or age group as in the following:

"I would like to teach intermediate and higher students as I think I will be much more satisfied as a teacher." (F.B.)

"…because I find advanced level more satisfactory. (P.S.)

"Especially Ph.D. level. It forces someone to improve himself." (S.Ö.)

Lower levels of burnout are also negatively related to the thought of changing profession. For governmental factors, there was found an overall consensus and relationship between higher levels of burnout and ideas on lower incomes. No relationship was found in terms of burnout and teacher's role, students' role, working conditions. Longer hours of teaching, lower levels of students, offices at school, lower income, academic factors, lack of professional development activities, lack of school and academic support among colleagues, lack of self-efficacy and self-confidence, need for ideal conditions were found to be effective factors causing burnout among in-service teachers. Above all, academic factors were found to be the most striking.

4. Discussion

The first research question of the study aimed at reaching the frequencies and percentages of the instructors experiencing burnout. The results showed that instructors had burnout at different levels, i.e. low, moderate and high level.

The second research question asked: *Is there a relationship between in-service EFL instructors' burnout levels and their teaching experience?* For this question, the study indicated that there is a relationship between the burnout levels of the EFL instructors and their year of experiences. At Low level of burnout, participants with 6-10 years of experience surplus the others. It is the case for the 11-15 years of experience for Moderate level of burnout, and 1-5 years of experience for High level of burnout. It can be said that levels of burnout are divided into experience groups. The fact that High level of burnout is much more occupied by the participants of experience group 1-5 years (almost half of the burnout level group n=7 out of 15 total) may give insights towards the relationship between experience and burnout. Still there found to be no direct finding pointing to a relationship among experience groups according to ANOVA results. However, out of 18 participants at 1-5 experience group the distribution was 7 Low, 4 Moderate, and 7 High. As for the experience group of 6-10, it can be said that the majority of the low level of burnout is occupied by them and also it is supported by the results that most of this age group is at low level of burnout in total- 9 Low, 6 Moderate, and 1 High. It can be explained with young age. Although the fact that 11-15 years of experience has dominance at moderate levels of burnout might lead to a possible idea of a relationship between experience and burnout, there is no ANOVA finding that can settle it for sure. Conversely, 20+ experience group has the majority at low levels of burnout.

The third research question tried to find out the factors leading the instructors to burnout in EFL context. The results revealed that the burnout levels of the participants were affected by various factors,

such as governmental, administrative, academic and personal factors. Even though all factors had impact on the burnout levels of the participants, academic factors were the most influential ones. The factors related to their profession, such as working environment, teaching hour, students, classroom climate affected them mostly, and it is quite understandable as their profession forms big proportion of their lives.

5. Conclusions

Through the burnout scale, MBI, it was concluded that there were participants at all burnout levels-Low at most, followed by Moderate and High levels of burnout. This could also be interpreted as the existence of burnout among instructors. There also found to be an inclination of higher burnout levels at younger age groups (especially 31-35&26-30) and less experienced groups (1-5 years). Novice teachers may be the most vulnerable ones to burnout as they are at the very beginning of their careers, most of the time feeling "alone" without any support, which is in line with what Hoigarrd, Giske and Sundsli (2011) suggest: "Studies indicate that the period when teachers are newly qualified is a peak time for leaving the profession" (p. 1). Because of the fact that there was no relationship between experience in teaching and higher levels of burnout statistically, some other factors such as academic ones were found to be striking as a result of the analysis of the qualitative data.

Taking the findings of the study into consideration, the tendency towards burnout at 1-5 years of experience, brings forward the need of an in-service training, especially at the very beginning stages. The findings were also supported by that of the semi-structured interview. There found to be a direct relationship between lower levels of burnout and more professional development activities such as conferences, seminars, courses, trainings and so on.

In the light of the findings and interpretations of the study, an important pedagogical implication emerges: In-service training can help cure burnout among instructors at university levels. In-service training may provide the instructors with self-efficacy beliefs, positive self-esteem, and professional development, which are important factors in academic life. This may be possible through making in-service training programmes widespread. The concept of in-service training or teacher development activities are somewhat blurry and optional in Turkey's context. Thus, the lines in in-service teacher training should be made clear and instructors should be encouraged to take their part in it to avoid from burnout during the rest of their academic lives.

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İngilizce okutmanlarında tükenmişlik

Öz

Bu araştırma, Konya Necmettin Erbakan Üniversitesi, Selçuk Üniversitesi ve Gazi Üniversitesi'nde çalışmakta olan İngilizce okutmanlarının tükenmişlik düzeylerini araştırmayı, tükenmişliğe yol açan faktörleri bulmayı ve tükenmişlik ile öğretmenlik tecrübesi arasında bir ilişki olup olmadığını ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çalışma karma yöntemli araştırma deseniyle yürütülmüştür. 70 İngilizce okutmanına Maslach Tükenmişlik Ölçeği (Maslach Burnout Inventory Educators Survey- MBI/Maslach &Jackson, 1981/Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996) uygulanmış; bu katılımcıların 25'iyle de yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar okutmanlar arasında tükenmişliğin çeşitli seviyelerde görülüğünü göstermiştir. ANOVA sonuçlarıyla desteklenmese de, daha küçük yaşlarda ve daha az tecrübeli gruplarda daha yüksek tükenmişlik düzeylerine olan bir eğilim söz konusu olmaktadır. Yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmelerle toplanan nicel verinin analizi sonucunda, öğretim saatleri, öğrencilerin İngilizce seviyesi ve okutmanların çalıştığı ölçme, materyal ve mesleki gelişim ofisleri gibi birimlerin okutmanlar arasında tükenmişliğin ortaya çıkmasında önemli rol oynadığı belirlenmiştir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Tükenmişlik; İngilizce okutmanları

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Intercultural competence of English language teachers in International Baccalaureate World Schools in Turkey and abroad

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Abstract

The study explores the opinions and attitudes of International Baccalaureate Diploma Programme (IBDP) English language teachers from Turkey, the USA, the UK, New Zealand and Spain on intercultural language teaching. 16 teachers from Turkey, 15 teachers from the USA, 11 teachers from the UK, 10 teachers from New Zealand and 8 teachers from Spain, in total 60 English language teachers participated in the study. An online research survey which consists of seven open-ended questions was prepared. Textual (content) analysis and the constant comparative method were used for the analysis of the research survey. The IBDP English language teachers from Turkey, the USA, the UK, New Zealand and Spain found intercultural language teaching very important in the globalization world and they thought that intercultural communicative competence (ICC) ought to be given a good deal of emphasis in foreign language teaching.

Keywords: Intercultural communicative competence, intercultural communication, International Baccalaureate Diploma Programme

1. Introduction

Nowadays, intercultural communication plays an important role in ELT partly because English assumes the role of an international language which is used extensively by millions of people outside its original geographic boundaries to "convey national and international perceptions of reality which may be quite different from those of English speaking cultures" (Alptekin, 2002, p. 17). As English continues to spread as an international language, the number of second language users of English will continue to grow, far surpassing the number of native speakers of English. A new and changing era has made intercultural communicative competence (ICC) a prerequisite, which has set a new goal for foreign language teaching. The native speaker as the model in English language teaching has become questionable. The goal of foreign language teaching is not only to enable the learners to acquire language competence and communicative competence, but more importantly, ICC. Thus, teachers today are expected to promote the acquisition of ICC in their learners.

But what exactly is ICC? ICC is defined as "the ability to interact effectively with people of cultures other than one's own" (Byram, 2000, p. 297). It is also defined as "the ability to interact effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations, based on specific attitudes, intercultural knowledge, skills and reflection" (Deardorff, 2006, p. 13). According to Spitzberg and Changnon

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(2009), it is "the appropriate and effective management of interaction between people who, to some degree or another, represent different or divergent affective, cognitive and behavioural orientations to the world" (p.7). Fantini (2009) states that ICC is "the complex of abilities needed to perform effectively and appropriately when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself" (p. 458). Chen and Starosta (1996) emphasizes that "competent persons must know not only how to interact effectively and appropriately with people and environment, but also how to fulfil their own communication goals by respecting and affirming the multilevel cultural identities of those with whom they interact" (p. 358- 359). As the definitions show, in order to promote ICC, it is necessary to change the overall goal of foreign language teaching. Instead of focusing on the native speaker as a model or teaching merely grammar, syntax and vocabulary, successful English teaching is to help language learners cultivate a good ICC. Corbett (2003) summarizes that the ultimate goal of language education is not so much 'native speaker competence' but rather ICC. Foreign language teaching is seen as comprising not only linguistic performance and verbal communication, but also such abilities as intercultural consciousness and intercultural skills. It is a well known and accepted fact that linguistic skills and cultural issues are inseparable and should be handled together in language learning and teaching. As Jordan (2002) states, it is acknowledged that language proficiency alone is inadequate; communication is holistic and also requires the knowledge of the ways culture and language interlock and an understanding of how interaction across cultures operates.

It is obvious that if a teacher wants to maximize students' communicative effectiveness when interacting with members of other cultures, the students should also be provided with intercultural awareness training as an integral part of their English courses (Hoa, 2007). Enabling learners to possess ICC is a significant task of language teachers, particularly when their goal is to promote communicative competence (Sarıçoban & Öz, 2014). As Sercu et al. (2005, p.5) point out, L2 teachers and teacher trainees need "an adequate sociocultural knowledge of the target language community, frequent and varied contacts with it and a thorough command of the pragmatic rules of use of the foreign language in contexts that may be considered to belong to their professional sphere". Teachers can play a role in either reinforcing or refuting cultural pluralism. Culturally sensitive teachers understand and deal directly with intercultural sensitivity (Chen and Starosta, 1998; Fantini, 2000). Teachers are nowadays required to teach their learners how to communicate and interact across cultural boundaries (Byram, 1997; Kramsch, 2013). However, teaching or emphasizing intercultural communicative awareness in the English language classroom is not an easy task and unfortunately teachers do not have enough knowledge about ICC and how it is assessed.

Although there is consensus on the fact that ICC should be developed in the language learners, language teachers do not have a clear understanding of how to teach it. Sakuragi (2008) states that intercultural communication has a paucity of literature when considering the study of languages. Sercu (2005) and other researchers conducted a study with 424 secondary teachers from seven countries to find out teachers' approaches towards intercultural competence. The result shows that the majority of teachers focus on communicative competence but not ICC. Although they are willing to integrate ICC into their teaching, their actual teaching practices are very limited due to lack of time, lack of preparation, curricular overload and lack of necessary teaching materials. Skopinskaja (2000, 2003) hypothesized in the research project that because foreign language syllabi across different countries are mostly exam-centered, teachers merely concentrate on promoting their students' linguistic abilities rather than their intercultural competences.

In their study, Hayden et al. (2000) sought the opinions of over 200 teachers and 1800 students in international schools on what it means to be 'international'. Using data collected through

questionnaires which contained 32 proposed characteristics of internationalism that formed the basis of the questions, the researchers determined that teachers (and incidentally, the students as well) believed that internationalism was best exemplified through 'attitudes of mind' including such habits as "being interested in and informed about other people and parts of the world showing respect for others and respecting the rights of others to hold views contrary to one's own" (p. 120) among others.

Putting an emphasis on ICC and international mindedness, the International Baccalaureate Organisation (IBO) currently works with 3,290 schools in 141 countries to develop and offer three challenging programmes (primary years, middle years and diploma programme) to over 962,000 students aged 3 to 19 years. These programmes encourage students across the world to become active, compassionate and lifelong learners who understand that other people, with their differences, can also be right (IBO, 2006).

One of the three programmes, the International Baccalaureate Diploma Programme (IBDP), is for students aged 16 to 19 and it has a two-year curriculum leading to final examinations and a diploma that is recognized by universities around the world. The IB curriculum represents the best from many different countries rather than the exported national system of any one. The programme encourages students to develop intercultural understanding, open-mindedness, and the attitudes necessary for them to respect and evaluate a range of points of view (IBO, 2006).

There are some key words in IBDP such as critical thinking, inquiry-based learning, learning how to learn, and international-mindedness. IBDP encourages international-mindedness. To do this, IBO believes that students must first develop an understanding of their own cultural and national identity. All IB students learn a second language and the skills to live and work with others internationally. To promote intercultural communicative competence, the English course has an important place in the IBDP curriculum. It is designed to provide students with the necessary language skills and intercultural understanding to enable them to communicate successfully in an environment where the language studied is spoken. At this point, English teachers have lots of responsibilities to design their course and develop materials to promote students' intercultural communicative competence.

1.1. Research questions

In light of the purpose of the research, the following research questions are explored:

1) What is the current status of English language teachers from Turkey, the USA, the UK, New Zealand and Spain in terms of intercultural communicative competence teaching?
2) What is the level of importance that English language teachers from Turkey, the USA, the UK, New Zealand and Spain attach to teaching intercultural competence compared to teaching grammar, vocabulary and the four skills?
3) In what ways do English language teachers from Turkey, the USA, the UK, New Zealand and Spain create opportunities for students to understand and experience the cultures of other countries?
4) Which aspects of culture do English language teachers from Turkey, the USA, the UK, New Zealand and Spain consider most important in teaching a foreign language?
5) What are the opinions English language teachers from Turkey, the USA, the UK, New Zealand and Spain about the level of emphasis to be placed on intercultural competence in foreign language teaching?

2. Method

2.1. Sample / Participants

60 English language teachers working in IB World Schools (44 female, 16 male) participated in this study: 16 teachers from Turkey, 15 teachers from the USA, 11 teachers from the UK, 10 teachers from New Zealand and 8 teachers from Spain. The profile of the teachers who participated in this study can be summarized as follows:

1) Of 60 of the teachers, 26.67% live in Turkey; 25% in the USA, 18.33% in the UK, 16.67 % in New Zealand; and 13.33 % in Spain.
2) 73.33% are female and 26.67% male.
3) 63.33% are native speakers of English and 36.67% are non-native speakers of English.
4) 76.67% have lived in an English speaking country and 23.33% have not.
5) 61.67% have worked abroad and 38.33% have not.
6) 35% have 0-2 years of experience of teaching English, 40% have 3-6 years, 5% have 7-9 years and 20% have 10 and more years.
7) 11.67% have not attended any IB workshops, 31.67% have attended one IB workshop, 18.33% two IB workshops, 16.67% three workshops, 8.33% four workshops, 6.67% five workshops, 1,67% six workshops, and finally 5% seven and more workshops.
8) 93.33% have travelled abroad and 6.67% have not.

2.2. Instrument(s)

The research survey contains two parts. The first part includes fourteen demographic questions about the teachers' background, gender, nationality, years they have been teaching in IBDP, teachers' previous exposure to other cultures, participation in IB workshops, international projects, previous travel, and years of working abroad. The purpose of asking these questions is to get general information on the current situation of teachers.

In the second part, there are seven open-ended questions about teachers' intercultural communicative competence to provide their own explanations and to put the emphasis on the meaning of the beliefs of the teachers in the educational process. The written texts obtained in the process provide material for discourse analysis and interpretation.

Some of the open-ended questions are taken and adopted from a similar study by Pędich et al (2003). Q1 and Q2 were paraphrased. Q3 was directly taken from the study. Q4 and Q5 were also borrowed from the study but some sub-items were added for easy comprehension by teachers. Q6 was adopted from the study. Q7 was written by the researchers. The length of the answers was left to the participant.

Q1 asks the teachers whether they have any intercultural communication training in the in-service training and what kind of training this is. The purpose of this question is to find out their previous education about ICC.

Q2 asks how their own experiences with people of other countries/nationalities have affected their teaching. This question aims at having teachers assess their previous experiences and finding out to what extent teachers' intercultural experiences affect their teaching.

Teachers are asked in Q3 how much importance they attach, while teaching English, to teaching intercultural competence compared to teaching grammar, vocabulary and the four skills and why they do so. From this basic information data might be obtained about their attitudes towards ICC.

Q4 asks teachers in what ways they create opportunities for students to understand and experience other cultures of other countries and how they provide some possible ways to help their students avoid intercultural misunderstandings such as inviting people from other countries/nationalities to come as a guest speaker; bringing authentic materials; arranging video conferences; participating in international projects or competitions; attending international concerts, exhibition or festivals; celebrating some universal days; arranging student exchange programmes or summer camps; and guiding students to use technology such as Facebook, Twitter or forum pages. Teachers put a tick in the aforementioned sub-items if they apply to them. Teachers are asked to suggest other ways they create opportunities if they wish. The purpose of asking this question is that the transmission of intercultural knowledge in the classroom depends largely on the teachers' own intercultural awareness and understanding and willingness to create different opportunities for intercultural teaching and find out which ways are most commonly used. Additionally, the purpose is to explore the relationships between teachers' intercultural teaching beliefs and their teaching practices.

Q5 is about aspects of culture such as family life, community life, society, religion and spiritual beliefs, government and international relations, arts and crafts, education, resources and economics, food, customs and traditions, clothing, and festivals and values. Teachers are asked which ones are the most important in teaching a foreign language, and they are encouraged to write one or two sentences to explain why they choose those aspects.

The level of emphasis to be placed on intercultural competence in foreign language teaching is asked in Q6. This question aims at investigating teachers' general approach towards the teaching of intercultural competence in a foreign language. Since participants of the research are English language teachers working in IBDP and the English course in this programme is founded on ICC, the last question is about what kind of changes they have observed in their students' intercultural competence thanks to the IB Diploma Programme.

2.3. Data collection procedures

The pilot study feedback form for the survey was designed to gather information and obtain feedback prior to the study. The first draft of the surveys was pilot-tested face to face with a small group of ten teachers. Attached to the first draft was a separate feedback form on which teachers could critique the survey and make suggestions in terms of layout, flow, length, time it took to complete, clarity of questions and ease in following directions. Though the pilot study did not generate a lot of feedback, the input received was incorporated into the final survey that was sent out. Following the pilot study, the online version of the survey was prepared. When the teachers clicked link, they answered the questions and submitted their answers.

Firstly, the electronic invitation and the survey's link were sent to IBO to inform them about the study and to get IBDP coordinators' e-mail addresses. IBO wrote that they could not share this information in order to ensure that coordinators are not submerged with emails. Thus, the invitation and survey link were sent to IBDP coordinators of IB World Schools through the IB web site one by one for them to forward electronically to English language teachers in the programme. To be able to contact more IBDP schools, the electronic invitation and links were put on IBDP Coordinators Facebook pages, IBDP Coordinators LinkedIn sites and IBDP Coordinators Twitter page. Further follow-up was made with individual participants to clarify any questions that were not clear or that had the potential for misinterpretation.

Teachers were informed in the electronic invitation that participation in this study was on a voluntary basis. Confidentiality was assured at all times and respondents were informed of the purpose of the study as a prerequisite for the researcher to carry out the research. The researchers detailed

procedures to preserve the anonymity and protect the confidentiality of the participants. Participant identity remained anonymous throughout the research process, as scores were linked only to the identification codes assigned to the students.

2.4. Data analysis

The research survey for teachers includes demographic information and qualitative data. Since there are open-ended questions, the research survey for teachers was a qualitative study and textual (content) analysis and the constant comparative method were used for the analysis of the research survey for teachers.

Cooper and Schindler (2003, p. 460) affirm that content analysis can be used to code and analyse responses to open-ended questions. The research tool, content analysis, is used to determine the significance of certain words or concepts within the survey. The meanings and relationships of words and concepts are quantified and analysed by the researcher who makes conclusion about the messages (Walt, 2006). The raw data received from the survey is changed into a structure that is suitable for analysis through the process of initial or open coding. Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006) add that researchers engage in this process in order to separate multiple pages of text into more controllable segments that can be grouped together and analysed. Hence, for the purpose of this study, content analysis is used to analyse open-ended questions.

The analysis involves classification of the responses and textual analysis. Possible generalisations are drawn, but the emphasis is primarily on the respondent as an individual and then a group to contribute to a picture of the views of representative English Language teachers in five different countries. As in another similar research of this type (Byram and Risager, 1999, p. 86), answers are formulated in ordinary language, without the use of specialist terms.

In the constant comparative method, as Taylor and Bogdan (1984) summarise,“ the researcher simultaneously codes and analyses data in order to develop concepts; by continually comparing specific incidents in the data, the researcher refines these concepts, identifies their properties, explores their relationships to one another, and integrates them into a coherent explanatory model” (p. 126).

Coding is done by two coders (the researcher and a native English language teacher) independently. Neuendorf (2002) suggests that when human coders are used in content analysis, reliability translates to intercoder reliability or "the amount of agreement or correspondence among two or more coders" (p. 52).

3. Results

Q1: Did you have any intercultural communication training while you were studying to be an English teacher? If “yes,” what did you do in intercultural communication training?

According to the teachers’ responses, nine teachers out of 60 teachers had intercultural communication training as shown in Table 1. The teacher from New Zealand said that in the training, she learned about the differences in cultures and world views, explored similarities between cultures and learned about how culture is embedded in language. The Spanish teacher explained that she attended a course that was followed by written examinations, school visits and pilot teaching. The intercultural communication trainings of the teachers from the USA were typical university level intercultural courses, a course called Multi-Cultural Education or a multiculturalism in education course. In these courses, they studied the cultural biases and lenses through which people see the world, doing a lot of reading, watching documentaries and doing some simulations.

Table 1. Number of Teachers Taking Intercultural Communication Training

Teachers from	Yes	No
Turkey	0	16
New Zealand	1	9
Spain	1	7
UK	0	11
USA	7	8
TOTAL	9	51

Most of the respondents, however, admit that intercultural competence was taught in an implicit way in such courses or training as follows:

- Youth projects
- Training programmes
- World religion courses
- Communicating with native English language teachers
- Ethnical studies course
- Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE) training

The way Question 1 was answered shows that only 15% of the teachers had a course on intercultural communication. Most of the answers point to the absence of any systematic presentation of intercultural communication training. However, formal education is closely tied to promoting learners' ICC (Elorza, 2008; Genc¸ & Bada, 2005; Moran, 2001; Wei & Xiao-mei, 2009).

Q2: How have your own experiences with people of other countries/nationalities affected your teaching?

Communication with others is fundamental since people transmit both grammatical structures and cultural messages during the act of communication (Johnstone, 2006). On a general level, teachers' experiences with people of other countries/nationalities resulted in greater awareness of cultural diversity and their willingness to tolerate diversity and share them with their students. A major impact of contact with people of other cultures is thus seen in teachers' attempts to incorporate at least some component of intercultural competence into their own language teaching.

All teachers from Turkey found their experiences with people of other countries/nationalities positive and rewarding in that these experiences increased their intercultural awareness and knowledge enabling them to add a new perspective, enlarge their vision, gain broader view points and transfer all this knowledge to the students and class activities, which really matters in IB. They also said that the experiences made them more broad-minded, tolerant, flexible, respectful and willing to take risks.

Exposure to other cultures for Spanish teachers leads to a greater awareness of cultural diversity and understanding of how language can be used in real life situations. This experience helps them adjust the content and purposes of their teaching enabling them to be more open-minded, more interested, more secure and more confident.

The experiences with people of other countries have also affected teachers from New Zealand positively. They have helped the teachers to be more thoughtful in their comments, more aware of different literary approaches and interpretations and more aware of prejudice/generalizations that may arise. One teacher said that "the more I interact with people of other cultures and nationalities, the deeper my understanding of myself and how to connect with a diverse student body." One teacher said that the experience has not particularly affected her teaching but certainly brought another strand to it.

Teachers from the UK expressed that the experiences provided them with firsthand knowledge of life in different places and worldviews and made them see things from another culture's point of view. Since most of the teachers from the UK have worked abroad and had opportunities to teach English in

different countries, they wrote about adapting their teaching to the needs of students from other cultures and adapting to new programmes of study and teaching regulations. One teacher compared her experiences in Turkey and China. She said that "my experiences in Turkey have shaped my teaching because the exam system and the motivations of Turkish students are very different. Turkish students tend to want to pass English exams, which govern every aspect of life in Turkey; whereas, when I have taught, for example, Chinese students, they have wanted to improve their speaking instead because of the prestige that speaking English well would bring them."

Similarly, teachers from the USA found experiences of interacting with those from other countries rewarding and affective. They can acknowledge and teach the different styles of communicating which accompany a language and culture. Generally, teachers from the USA compared their experiences in different countries since they have worked abroad and taught English to non-native students of English.

On a general level, teachers wrote that these experiences have made them more patient and empathetic and have broadened their teaching in the best way.

Q3: While teaching English, how much importance do you attach to teaching intercultural competence compared to teaching grammar, vocabulary and the four skills? Why?

Comparing the teaching of ICC to the teaching of grammar, vocabulary and the four skills, participants were divided in two groups. Most of the teachers think that ICC is more important than grammar and the rest, while others believe it is equally important. The majority of the teachers gave a reason or explained why they thought the teaching of ICC was more or equally important, though there were quite a few who did not explain why they hold that particular opinion. Typical explanations of why the teaching of ICC is or should be given a lot of importance were from IB teachers and those teaching English in an "international curriculum," helping students "to avoid misunderstandings," enabling them "to communicate effectively and interculturally competent" rather "than [focusing on] the correct use of grammar and vocabulary," and "preparing students for the real life." A number of teachers stressed that ICC should be integrated into the lessons while incorporating new structures and vocabulary, thus accomplishing both goals at the same time.

The teachers from Turkey found intercultural competence very significant. They all believe that, without intercultural training, students, especially IBDP students who have an international education, cannot reach their aim. They thought intercultural competence should be the fifth skill. Since the English B syllabus in IBDP is based on intercultural competence, teachers have implemented different activities about customs, traditions, global issues, media and health.

Spanish teachers believed it is equally important. They expressed that they try to integrate the four skills and intercultural competence equally in their course. They said that students learn grammar, vocabulary and the four skills using texts, videos, magazine articles, debates based on different cultures, and this is what makes them more globally-minded, understanding the differences and looking for similarities.

Teachers from the UK said that there is a lot of focus on intercultural competence in relation to the texts that are studied in the English course in IBDP. Understanding the cultural background of the texts is important in helping students to understand the texts themselves. One teacher said that "within national systems intercultural competence is not fostered, and students go to university with rather narrow patterns of thinking and with little knowledge of other cultures and societies. This leaves them trapped within a national paradigm and with views which are, to be honest, quite ignorant. Grammar,

vocabulary and other elements will always be taught, but if I have the opportunities to make them more open thinkers and culturally aware, it is important that I do so."

Teachers from New Zealand believed that intercultural competency is a much more necessary skill than perfect grammar or vocabulary. According to them, the fundamental skills of English are also important, but being able to communicate effectively in different situations is the ultimate goal, especially for IBDP students.

Teachers from the USA also found intercultural competence to be more important than the four skills. Most of the teachers put emphasis on teaching intercultural competence. A teacher advocated focusing on teaching ICC because "the students live in a 'bubble' of sorts and have to be taught that their world isn't the only world." Another teacher stressed the fact that she gave "high importance [to ICC] because it is harder for the students to acquire this information on their own compared to grammar, vocabulary, and the four skills."

Q4: In what ways do you create opportunities for students to understand and experience other cultures of other countries? How do you provide some possible ways to help them avoid intercultural misunderstandings? Please put a tick in the box for the item if it applies to you.

- *Inviting people from other countries/nationalities*
- *Bringing authentic materials*
- *Arranging video conferences*
- *Participating international projects or competitions*
- *Attending international concerts, exhibition or festivals*
- *Celebrating some universal days*
- *Arranging student exchange programmes or summer camps*
- *Guiding students to use technology such as Facebook, Twitter or forum pages*
- *Others...*

Table 2. Different Ways for Students to Understand and Experience Other Cultures

Different Ways	Inviting people from other countries/nationalities	Bringing authentic materials	Arranging video conferences	Participating international projects or competitions	Attending international concerts, exhibition or festivals	Celebrating some universal days	Arranging student exchange programmes or summer camps	Guiding students to use technology such as Facebook, Twitter or forum pages	Others
SUM	36	46	8	36	16	34	20	28	10
%	60	76.6	13.3	60	26.6	56.6	33.3	46.6	16.6

Teachers are supposed to take into consideration learners' sociocultural backgrounds and how to be careful and sensitive in selecting appropriate materials and educational approaches for specific contexts of teaching cultural dynamic pinpoints (Sarıçoban & Öz, 2014).

When all the data was examined from Table 2, it was seen that bringing authentic materials (76.6%), inviting people from other countries/nationalities (60%) and participating in international projects or competitions (60%) are the most frequently used ways to create opportunities for students to understand and experience other cultures of other countries. Arranging video conferences (13.3%) is the least preferred one among the choices.

Teachers from New Zealand prefer bringing authentic materials (90%), celebrating some universal days (70%) and guiding students to use technology such as Facebook, Twitter or forum pages (70%). None of the ten teachers prefer to arrange video conferences. Four teachers added their own ways such as student and teacher storytelling, using the human resources within the school, developing Model United Nations groups to attend conferences and doing research.

As for the Spanish teachers, all eight of the teachers prefer bringing authentic materials to enable their students to experience other cultures. The second most chosen way is inviting people from other countries/nationalities (75%). None of the Spanish teachers added other ways.

When Turkish teachers' responses are examined, Turkish teachers mostly prefer inviting people from other countries/nationalities (75%) to help their students experience other cultures. Bringing authentic materials, participating in international projects or competitions and arranging student exchange programmes or summer camps are the second most preferred ways to create opportunities (68.7%). According to Jung (2002), research has shown that L2 learning contexts present more fruitful input than foreign language learning contexts and that learners are inclined to display continuous convergence to native speaker pragmatic behaviour as their length of accommodation increases. Two teachers added their ideas suggesting preparation of bulletin boards on certain countries each month and giving some details about the country.

The data shows that teachers from the UK mostly prefer to bring authentic materials (72.7%). Participating in international projects or competitions is the second preferred way and inviting people from other countries/nationalities is the third preferred way to enhance students' intercultural competence. Arranging video conferences is not preferred, just like New Zealander teachers.

As for teachers from the USA, celebrating some universal days (80%) is the most preferred way to enhance students' intercultural understanding. Bringing authentic materials (66.6%) is the second and inviting people from other countries/nationalities (60%) is the third preferred way. One teacher added his ideas expressing online forums, visiting the websites in other cultures, viewing movies and films from the target culture were ways that he likes to incorporate cultural education into his class.

As communicating in real and given L2 situations always bears contextual and cultural dimensions, culture and communication cannot be separated from each other (Kramsch, 2001 and Valdes, 1986). When all the data is examined, it is seen that bringing authentic materials is the most preferred way to create opportunities for students to learn about other cultures by the New Zealander, Spanish and English teachers. In this area, the most preferred way is different for Turkish and American teachers. Inviting people from other countries/nationalities is the most frequently used way by Turkish teachers and celebrating some universal days is the most preferred way by American teachers. Arranging video conferences is the least preferred way by all participant teachers in five countries.

Q5: Which aspects of culture do you consider most important in teaching a foreign language? Please put a tick in the box for the item if it applies to you.

- *Family Life, Community Life, Society*
- *Religion & Spiritual Beliefs*
- *Government & International Relations*
- *Arts & Crafts*
- *Education*
- *Resources & Economics*
- *Food*
- *Customs & Traditions*

- *Clothing*
- *Festivals*
- *Values*

Why?

Table 3. Aspects of Culture

Aspects of Culture	Family Life, Community Life, Society	Religion& Spiritual Beliefs	Government& International Relations	Arts& Crafts	Education	Resources& Economics	Food	Customs& Traditions	Clothing	Festivals	Values
SUM	51	26	22	18	23	7	15	47	5	16	46
%	85	43.3	36.6	30	38.3	11.6	25	78.3	8.3	26.6	76.6

Language and culture are regarded interrelated constructs and culture is viewed as glue which binds languages together (Brown, 2007) in the sense that culture for language is as water is for fish (Öz, 2015). As seen in Table 3, family life, community life and society is the most important aspect of the culture (85 %) in teaching a foreign language according to participant teachers. The second important aspect is customs and tradition and the third one is values. Clothing is the least important aspect of the culture.

According to teachers from New Zealand, family life, community life and society is the most important aspect of the culture (90%) in teaching a foreign language. Values (80%), religion and spiritual beliefs, education, customs and traditions (70%) are the second and third most important aspects. Except one teacher, all teachers gave their explanations about their choices. One teacher explained that "in the areas I have taught, I have discovered that family values seem extremely important to the parents so I am always aware that, although, my culture is very different I should respect their views and beliefs while still stressing the importance of accepting the views and beliefs of others," Another teacher observed that the importance of aspects changes depending on the culture. She gave an example: "When I was in Vietnam, festivals and family life were the most important. In Saudi Arabia, it struck me that religion is the most important."

Like the teachers from New Zealand, Spanish teachers consider family life, community life and society the most important aspects in teaching a foreign language (100%). Values (80%) are the second, education and religion and spiritual beliefs (70%) are the third important aspects. Clothing, resources and economics (1%) are the least important aspects. Half of the teachers explained why they consider various aspects of culture most important. A teacher observed that most of the aspects specified in the question are the common topics students know about, and it is easier for them to compare and analyze and they enjoy finding similarities or learning new things. Another teacher added that "when language is taught in context and students have a chance of experiencing first hand issues of the target culture then language makes meaning to them and they can use it in context."

Unlike the teachers from Spain and New Zealand, Turkish teachers find customs and traditions and values (87.5%) to be the most important aspects of culture in teaching a foreign language. Family life, community life and society (81.2%) is the second important aspect. Except for four teachers, all teachers explained why these aspects are important. One teacher, who chose all the

aspects except for government and international relations and food, said that these aspects are "life itself." Another teacher added that "these items include the most inevitable points related with our past, present and future." A teacher who found family life, religion, governmental relations, customs, tradition and values more important than others argued that "they are the little C part of the culture. Generally students have an idea of food or clothing or festivals. When learning about a new culture, the big C cultural elements would be discovered first; they are the most overt forms of culture. However, they do not know what constitute them beyond these cultural aspects. They are invisible."

Like Turkish teachers, customs and traditions (81.8%) is the most significant aspect of the culture in teaching a language according to teachers from the UK. Values (63.6%) are the second and family life, community life, society and government and international relations (54.5%) are the third significant aspect. Just one teacher did not give an explanation about her choice. One teacher said that "it is important to see different ways of living, to understand wider social issues and to think beyond your own, often privileged situation. Also by looking at problems and how they are dealt with in other cultures, it can foster more critical thought."

Like Spanish and New Zealander teachers, according to American teachers, family life, community life and society is the most important aspect of the culture (100%) in teaching a foreign language. Customs and traditions (86.6%) are the second and values (73.3%) are the third most important aspects. Food and festivals are the least important aspects. Fourteen teachers made an explanation why the aspects they have chose are important. A teacher said that "without an understanding of the social structures within which other people live, communicating with them will be difficult. Understanding values is extremely important, but this is best taught not through high-level and abstract discussions of norms and morals but through insights into the everyday actions of other people. Hence, customs, family life, school and daily existence are important aspects of culture to be taught."

To sum up, the choice of aspects of culture to be introduced in the language classroom derives from the teachers' opinions of the relevance of these topics for ICC, as well as their appeal to the students.

Q6: Provide your opinions about the level of emphasis to be placed on intercultural competence in foreign language teaching.

- I think that more emphasis should be given because...
- I think that less emphasis should be given because...

Generally, the answer to this question expresses the opinion that ICC ought to be given a good deal of emphasis in foreign language teaching. The reasons given by the participant teachers generally fall into two categories: the idealistic reasons which would contribute to a better world and the pragmatic reasons which are related to the course itself and preparing students for future lives.

A number of idealistic reasons for ICC in foreign language teaching were mentioned:

- A hope for world peace and reconciliation, creating a better world
- A deeper understanding and appreciation of other ways of life
- Breaking down barriers among different cultures
- Creating open-minded and tolerant societies through worldwide understanding
- Raising future global leaders

The pragmatic justifications of the presence of ICC in language teaching were as follows:

- Providing lessons more authentic materials and real-life situations, thus making lessons more interesting and fun
- Preparing students for their need for ICC in university education in different countries
- Preparing students to travel and work in other countries in such a rapidly developing and globalizing world

Some participants pointed out that "language and culture are intrinsically linked. Students cannot be fully 'fluent' without culturally competent." A teacher from New Zealand defined ICC as a key competence. A teacher from the USA added that "culture gets to the root of real, whole communication between human beings, and it transcends language."

Some teachers, referring to this question, pointed out the globalization: since the "world is a village these days" (New Zealand) and "we all live in one world" (Spain), "students have more possibilities to interact with people from other countries (Turkey)." Intercultural competence is "central to a student's own story and identity, so it is the basis for developing understanding" (the USA).

To sum up, the responses to the question about the extent of ICC in language teaching, it can be said that teachers from the five countries who participated in the study are aware of the importance of the issue and agree that it ought to be given emphasis in the language classroom.

Q7: What kind of changes have you observed in your students' intercultural competence thanks to the IB Diploma Programme?

The International Baccalaureate Organization (IBO) places importance on the effect of the Diploma Programme on international understanding. Professor George Walker, director general of the IBO, in a strategic plan written for the organization (Walker, 2000) recognized and expanded upon the concept of international understanding. He defined international education as a working description of the distinctive features of an "international education" which covers an understanding of the meaning and importance of culture and a study of issues of global concern.

In IBDP, in addition to meeting academic prerequisites, students develop an understanding of other cultures, languages and perspectives. The students in the programme learn a second language and develop the skills necessary for living and working internationally. Such international competence is very important. International-mindedness is key to this competence and involves gaining the understanding that other people with their differences can also be right.

As for intercultural awareness, Tan (2005) pointed out that at the outset, the IB was created as a curriculum to cater to different cultures; hence, intercultural awareness is embedded in its mission statement, which calls for students across the world to understand that "other people, with their differences, can also be right". As such, the IB programmes place an emphasis on developing students' attitudes, knowledge and skills as they learn their own and other's social, national and ethnic cultures. Meanwhile, the programme encourages students to consider a broad range of perspectives when dealing with global issues. For example, IB students have to learn to speak another language, empowering them to access another culture. Throughout the program, students learn about their own culture and how it fits into the world around them, and understand that their choices will affect others. Intercultural awareness leads to the development of intercultural competence and global-mindedness, which is the key for students to stay competitive in the 21st century (Tan, 2005).

Since the IBDP focuses on intercultural competence, this question was prepared for English language teachers working in the IBDP to learn how their students' intercultural competence has

changed. Generally, all teachers mentioned positive changes in their students' intercultural competence.

A teacher from New Zealand said that the values of the IB Learner Profile and CAS have helped a great deal. Another teacher added that the world literature component of the course allows for much of this through related discussion. Another teacher had the same idea: "Students now have access to a work in translation, which means that they will most likely have access to some culture they aren't as familiar with (since most works are in English and come from the USA or the UK and since these places are their influence in terms of TV and movies). I feel that this is a great opportunity for us to give them more information about a culture that is not as familiar to them."

The Spanish teachers expressed that IB students are "more reflective, caring, much more open and acceptable for the difference." Another teacher went on to say that they are "open-minded and risk takers."

Teachers from Turkey reported the following positive changes that their students have undergone and can/will undergo:

- *They are accustomed to international ways of questioning, exams and ways of learning and practicing what they have learnt.*
- *They get a chance to see what other cultures and people have in common or different from them and this way they become better world citizens.*
- *Since the programme has an international curriculum, they are always exposed to the international materials and taking part in international projects or forum sites. They open new doors in their world. Thus, when compared to students in national curriculum, they are flexible, knowledgeable and open minded. They have critical cultural awareness necessary to communicate interculturally.*

As is easily seen from the comments of teachers from the UK, thanks to the IB diploma programme, IBDP students' intercultural competence is high:

- *The IB Diploma programme encourages students to consider and challenge ideas from all cultures, and students in the IB programme have responded well to these ideas.*
- *I think that they have a better understanding of other cultures in the world and they are less likely to jump to stereotypical assumptions about people from other cultures and traditions. Many of our students travel overseas to study and it is important for them to understand something of these cultures before they move there.*
- *A lot, because the curriculum forces them to address international issues and be more globally minded.*

Additionally, teachers from the USA had the same idea about positive changes in their students' IC thanks to the IBDP with other teachers in four countries;

- *Ideally, they are more aware of themselves as citizens of the world, given the variety of students, teachers, cultures, and ideas to which they are exposed and invited to appreciate.*
- *Because the units we have taught (Global Issues and Media, as well as novels, plays and poetry) have promoted intercultural competence and global perspectives, I think that our students are better off. The IB gives a particular framework that is more broad and comprehensive than any curriculum I have yet seen in any U.S. state system.*
- *Accent reduction; increased ability to comprehend texts; overall better competence and comfort with English and literature.*
- *My students seem to be more interested in studying other cultures as a result of the programme. They are better at understanding that the world is made up of a vast mixture of people. They are unified because of their differences.*

There is only one conclusion to be drawn from an analysis of the replies to this question: the IBDP leads to positive effects on students' intercultural competence. Teachers' views are in parallel with the previous study by Hinrichs (2001). This study indicates that the IB Diploma Programme may be effective in promoting international understanding as demonstrated by one measure used in the study.

4. Discussion

The aim of the study is to find out the opinions and attitudes of IBDP English language teachers from Turkey, the USA, the UK, New Zealand and Spain on ICC teaching. Seven open-ended questions were answered by the teachers. The answers show that only 15% of the teachers had a course for intercultural communication. Their own experiences with people of other countries/nationalities affected their teaching in a positive way. On a general level, it resulted in greater awareness of cultural diversity and their willingness to tolerate diversity and share them with their students. Comparing the teaching of ICC to the teaching of grammar, vocabulary and the four skills, teachers were divided in two groups. Most of the teachers considered that ICC is more important than grammar and the rest, while others believe it is equally important. Additionally, teachers tried to create different opportunities for students to understand and experience other cultures of other countries. It was seen that bringing authentic materials, inviting people from other countries/nationalities and participating international projects or competitions were the most frequently used ways. Arranging video conferences was the least preferred way. According to teachers, family life, community life and society were the most important aspects of the culture in teaching a foreign language. All teachers thought that ICC ought to be given a good deal of emphasis in foreign language teaching. As for the changes on their students' intercultural competence thanks to IB Diploma Programme, all teachers mentioned positive changes in their students' intercultural competence. Teachers' views are in parallel with the study by Hinrichs (2001).

5. Conclusions

Obviously, the development of ICC is the core of foreign language education in this age of globalisation. It must be included into foreign language teaching as one of its goals. As Hismanoglu (2011) states, ICC education should commence at the very beginning of foreign language learning since ICC development is just as much a prominent ingredient of language development as phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic improvement. Thus, English language teachers have a responsibility to try and develop their students' intercultural competence. The research shows that there is not enough formal education about intercultural language teaching in university education. There is also little guidance available on intercultural competence teaching. The specific components of intercultural competence should be examined and how they may best be promoted though foreign language instruction should be given more closely in pre-service and in-service education. Pre-service teacher training programs should involve a course to inform prospective teachers about ICC and help them to gain knowledge and skills about preparation of IC based lesson plans and implementation of these lessons. Additionally, curriculum developers and syllabus designers should take ICC into consideration during the curriculum development process. Likewise, course book writers should design intercultural activities as frequently as possible in each unit, and support the teachers with background information in the teachers' manual.

6. Limitations

The study has some limitations like other studies in social sciences. The sample consists of 60 IBDP English language teachers. A large group of IBDP English language teachers may be needed to

get a big picture and for the consistency of the study. Additionally, this study involves only IBDP English language teachers. A future study which consists of English language teachers working in national curriculum can be done comparing with IBDP English language teachers. Although the survey is a powerful method to generate information about individuals, other research methods including focus group and personal interviews should be explored to generate rich data.

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Türkiye ve Yurtdışında Bulunan Uluslararası Bakalorya Dünya Okullarındaki İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Kültürlerarası Yetisi

Öz

Çalışma, Türkiye, ABD, İngiltere, Yeni Zelanda ve İspanya'daki Uluslararası Bakalorya Diploma Programında çalışan (IBDP) İngilizce öğretmenlerinin kültürlerarası dil öğretimiyle ilgili görüşlerini ve yaklaşımlarını araştırmaktadır. Türkiye'den 16, ABD 15, İngiltere'den 11, Yeni Zelanda'dan 10, İspanya'dan 8 öğretmen olmak üzere toplam 60 İngilizce öğretmenleri çalışmaya katılmıştır. Yedi tane açık soru sorudan oluşan online araştırma anketi hazırlanmıştır. Araştırma anketinin analizi için metin (içerik) analizi ve karşılaştırmalı yöntem araştırma metodu kullanılmıştır.

Türkiye, ABD, İngiltere, Yeni Zelanda ve İspanya'da Uluslararası Bakalorya Dünya Okullarında çalışan İngilizce öğretmenleri küreselleşen dünyada kültürlerarası dil öğretiminin çok önemli olduğunu ve kültürlerarası iletişim yetisine yabancı dil öğretiminde önemli bir yer verilmesi gerektiğini düşünmektedirler.

Anahtar sözcükler: Kültürlerarası iletişim yetisi, kültürlerarası iletişim, Uluslararası Bakalorya Diploma Programı

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To what extent do educated British users of English accept certain established norms in selected non-British Inner Circle and Outer Circle Englishes?

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Abstract

Drawing on work that has attempted to describe and codify features of World Englishes, this study sought to address the question of whether certain established norms common to several varieties of English would be accepted by educated British users of English. The findings revealed that the respondents did not accept most of the selected norms. Only three items were acceptable to the majority of respondents. There was no significant difference in the responses of male and female respondents, and there was insufficient evidence to determine whether being a user of more than one language was a factor in the degree of acceptance. Whilst the lack of acceptance of non-British English norms does not imply deficiency in other Englishes, it does have implications for the identification of norms and standards that are commonly acceptable across all varieties of English. It could be argued that only those norms and standards that are commonly accepted provide the foundation of English as an International Language.

Keywords: World Englishes; standards and norms; Inner Circle; Outer Circle, acceptability

1. Introduction

This paper describes the findings of a questionnaire survey conducted to discover the extent to which a group of educated British users of English accept certain established norms in selected non-British Inner Circle and Outer Circle Englishes. The research arose out of issues of standards and norms in a variety of Englishes. It attempts to ascertain the degree of agreement and disagreement and convergence and divergence between the respondents in their acceptance of established non-British norms. It begins with a review of relevant literature. It then goes on to describe the research design and data collection procedures. An analysis of the data gathered via the questionnaire is provided, from which a number of conclusions are drawn on the respondents' level of acceptance and non-acceptance of certain selected norms.

The paradigm of Inner Circle, Outer Circle and Expanding Circle English language using communities proposed by Kachru (1985) is useful in understanding the varieties of English currently found throughout the world. It takes account of the fact that whilst English has become a world language, it is, paradoxically, 'breaking into multiple and increasingly differentiated Englishes' (Kalantzis & Cope 1999, p.2). On the one hand, there is the case for English as an International

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Language, and on the other, there lies the emergence of a 'plurality of –lects' (Davies *et. al.*, 2003, p.572), which supports the notion of World Englishes. In order to find a point of convergence between these views of English, Kachru (1985) argued for recognition of English language norms within particular English using communities, both in the Inner Circle (e.g. Britain, the United States, and Australia) and in the Outer Circle (the former British and US colonies). He suggested that allowance for a variety of norms would not lead to problems of intelligibility among World Englishes, but would engender the emergence of an educated variety of English, intelligible across all varieties of English, i.e. English as an International Language. However, whereas the norms of one variety of English may be intelligible to users of other Inner and Outer Circle varieties of English, such norms may not be acceptable to those other users. Therefore, the notion of English as an International Language should be defined more in terms of acceptability rather than intelligibility. In order to explore this further, a review of relevant literature should be made before proceeding to a discussion of the study undertaken.

2. Literature Review

In the last two decades, a vast literature on World Englishes and English as an International Language has emerged and continues to grow apace. However, in a paper of this length, it would be difficult to explore the literature beyond the immediate scope of this study. Therefore, in order to allow more space to discuss the empirical aspects of this study, the review of the literature will be restricted to issues related to standards and norms, and acceptability.

2.1. Standards and norms

Prior to independence, and for some time after, generally the standards and norms of Outer Circle Englishes were derived from either British or American English, and were presented in schools to Outer Circle users of English as formal or predominantly written norms (Platt *et. al.*, 1984). However, more recent decades have seen the development in other Inner Circle countries, such as, Australia, Canada, and South Africa, of what MacArthur (2001) refers to as 'projects that increase the cohesion and autonomy of their own Englishes' (p. 10). The establishment of dictionaries and grammar reference texts by these Inner Circle users of English has reduced dependence on the norms and standards set by British English and American English. Furthermore, Outer Circle English users have also begun to produce dictionaries for local use. Higgins (2003) suggests that this scholarship, which brings with it the formalisation of these varieties, demonstrates that they are Englishes in their own right, rather than deficient versions of British English or American English. Indeed, Verma's (1982) assertion, that Indian English is a self-contained system with its own set of rules, could also be applied to other non-British Inner and Outer Circle Englishes.

It could be argued that a variety of English, distinct from the one of the two major varieties of Inner Circle Englishes, does not exist unless it has its own standards and norms that are acceptable to a significant number of its users. Only then could that variety of English be codified in dictionaries and grammars, and have its users free from the need to seek the opinion or approval of the Inner Circle users of English for the standards and norms which might be peculiar to that variety (Mehrotra, 1982). Whilst autonomy in setting standards and norms is important for the development of World Englishes, for English to be an international language there must be certain standards and norms common to all of its varieties and acceptable to all its users. The fact that most users of English acquire the language in a formal educational setting, in which specific standards and norms are taught, ensures a great deal of commonality between the varieties of English (McKay, 2002). This commonality would suggest that there is little to impede understanding between Outer Circle users of English and Inner Circle users of English (McKay 2002, p. 68-69).

2.2. Acceptability

Although English grammar is taught formally throughout the world, Strevens (1992) has suggested that beyond the English language teaching classroom, norms of usage are usually established informally and without conscious decision. Each community of English users sets its own goals and targets in the absence of any authority determining the norms of the local variety of English. Thus, acceptance of norms depends on the users' particular variety of English. The norm becomes established and accepted when users 'demonstrate a solidarity, identity, and loyalty' (Kachru 1992, p.67) towards it. This is the case not only in Outer Circle Englishes, but also within the Inner Circle. Indeed, as this paper will show, a norm that is acceptable in American English may not be acceptable in British English. Das (1982) argued that before classifying norms as acceptable or unacceptable it is necessary to consider the culturally and linguistically determined context in which they occur. This would imply that there is no 'universal of acceptability since the situational components differ from place to place, person to person' (Das 1982, p.146). Therefore, acceptability may be less a matter of grammatical accuracy and more a matter of social convention (Verma, 1982).

The analysis of the data gathered in this study will show that, as Strevens (1992) notes, it is not easy for native-speakers (in this case educated British users of English) to come to terms with, and to accept, the variations that occur in non-British Inner Circle and Outer Circle Englishes. Similarly, Kachru (1992) concluded that the attitude of Inner Circle users of English to the development of Outer Circle Englishes has not been one of acceptance or ontological recognition. Indeed, Outer Circle Englishes have been viewed as deficient models of Inner Circle Englishes, rather than as varieties of English in their own right. This unwillingness to accept norms of other varieties of English may come from 'a total lack of awareness of the existence of flourishing, effective, functional, sometimes elegant' (Strevens 1992, p. 37) Outer Circle Englishes. However, a more universalist and pluralistic view of English as an International Language suggests the language belongs, not only to those users in the Inner Circle, but also equally to those users of other varieties of English. Thus, the question of acceptability of norms both within and across the Inner and Outer Circles should be addressed to all those who play a role in defining English in the world today (Matsuda, 2003).

Having established the context for the study by discussing the notions of the Inner Circle and Outer Circle Englishes, and by considering issues of norms, standard and acceptability, this paper now turns to a description of the research undertaken and an analysis of the findings.

3. The Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this research was to discover to what extent educated British users of English accepted certain established norms in selected non-British Inner Circle and Outer Circle Englishes. The key aim was to ascertain the degree of agreement and disagreement and convergence and divergence between educated British users of English in their acceptance of established norms in selected non-British Inner Circle and Outer Circles Englishes. This finding could lead to an understanding of which selected norms were acceptable and which were unacceptable to the majority of respondents, and to identify any patterns of acceptance and non-acceptance, where they exist. The key questions this study seeks to answer are:

1. What norms are common in non-British Inner Circle and Outer Circle Englishes?
2. How does a sample of educated British users of English respond to those norms?
3. Does the sample of educated British users of English accept those norms?
4. What does the acceptance and non-acceptance of those norms tell us about the respondents' willingness to accept diversity in English language usage?

Although 'acceptability' is subjective, we can measure respondents' responses objectively without making value judgements on those responses and without making value judgements as to the relative merits or deficiencies of the Englishes selected for the study.

4. Method

As the focus of the study was on a) identifying norms common to non-British Inner Circle and Outer Circle Englishes and b) seeking the responses of educated British users of English to those norms, the first step in the research design was to select the norms to be included in the questionnaire. The second step was to design the questionnaire, and the third step was to pilot and then fine tune the questionnaire before sending it out to the target population. The use of a questionnaire survey instrument would provide a range of responses from a target population of respondents within a limited time frame.

Drawing on the research conducted in the field of World Englishes (Hall *et. al*., 2013; Wahid, 2013; Kortmann, 2010; Rubdy *et. al.*, 2008; Tickoo, 2005; Ahulu, 1998; Pakir, 1998; Baskaran, 1994; Parasher, 1994; Bamgbose, 1992; Awonusi, 1990; Lowenberg, 1986; Platt, 1980, 1984), five key types of norm attested in several non-British Inner Circle and Outer Circle Englishes were identified for inclusion in the questionnaire. Table 1 shows the norm categories and the sentences used to illustrate the selected norms.

Table 1. Items in the questionnaire

		*Norm attested in**
*Norms of **word order***		
Item 1	I and my sister look very much alike.	Sin, Mal
Item 2	He only asked ten people to the party.	US, Sin, Ind
Item 3	I asked John where does he work.	Ind, Sin, Mal
Item 4	By the time I graduate I will be too old already.	HK, Ind, Sin
Item 5	The firm cannot afford to pay its 20,000 over creditors.	Sin, Mal
*Norms of **tense/aspect***		
Item 6	I'm running an electrical shop.	Sin, Ind
Item 7	When I saw him two days ago, he told me that he is coming.	Ind
Item 8	I have seen him yesterday.	Phil, Ind, Sin
Item 9	He was in kindergarden, but he goes school now.	Sin
Item 10	I already had my breakfast.	US, Phil
*Norms of **plural marking in uncountable nouns***		
Item 11	He has many luggages.	Phil, Sin, Mal, Nig, PNG
Item 12	The hotel had spacious accommodations.	US, Phil
Item 13	We ate a lot of fruits at lunch.	Phil, Sin, Mal, Nig, PNG
Item 14	Many researches have confirmed the link between smoking and cancer.	West Afr, Sin, Mal, Ind
Item 15	I don't like my children to use slangs.	PNG, West Afr, Sin, Phil
*Norms of **use of prepositions***		
Item 16	Our mutual benefit schemes provide you and your family financial relief in emergencies.	Sin, Mal
Item 17	We discussed about his new assignment.	PNG, Sin, Mal, West Afr, Ind

Item 18	The book will be published Friday.	US, Phil
Item 19	What are you doing on the weekend?	US, Phil
Item 20	The teacher stressed on the importance of good manners.	West Afr, Sin, PNG, Mal
Norms of ***use of adjectives***		
Item 21	The team played good.	US
Item 22	He works in a twenty-four hours clinic.	Sin, Mal
Item 23	Our prices are low everyday.	Sin, Mal,
Item 24	The ambulance came quick.	US, Sin
Item 25	The museum will be opened to the public between 10 a.m and 6 p.m.	West Afr, Sin, Mal

* Hong Kong, India, Malaysia, Nigeria, Papua New Guinea, The Philippines, Singapore, The United States, West Africa

Having selected the norms and the sample sentences, the research instrument was designed. No indication of the origin of the norms was given to the respondents. They were told that the questionnaire sought their opinion on the sample sentences, which they could show by circling the most appropriate response: 'acceptable', 'unacceptable', 'don't know'. Respondents were advised that the questionnaire was not a test of their English and that they should not consult grammar books or other reference texts. Respondents were asked to state (1) their nationality (to confirm that only British users of English were included in the survey sample), (2) their sex (to check for distribution of the sexes, (3) whether English was their only language or one of their languages (monolingualism, bilingualism or multilingualism might be an important variable affecting the respondents opinions), and (4) their highest educational qualification (to confirm that they were educated to tertiary level, ensuring that the respondents had been exposed to a wide range of English language). The questionnaires were not numbered or coded and respondents were not requested for their names or any other identifying information.

A target population of 125 educated British users of English was deemed to be suitable. This number would be sufficient to give a reasonable quantity of returns that would provide an adequate range of responses that could be quantified. A combination of opportunity sampling and snowball sampling was utilised to reach the target population. Firstly, 25 respondents known to the researcher were contacted, and they agreed to participate in the study. Each member of this opportunity sample was sent five copies of the questionnaire by post. They were requested to complete one questionnaire and pass the remainder to contacts who were also educated to tertiary level. Completed questionnaires were to be returned by post in pre-paid envelopes by a specified date. Once the questionnaires had been sent to the opportunity sample, the success of the data collection and the study was largely dependent on their cooperation and goodwill in forwarding questionnaires to the snowball sample. This dual level sampling raised further issues of the honesty and integrity of the respondents and the honesty of the sample population in giving genuine responses that accurately reflected their acceptance of the norms in question. However, such issues would arise in any survey methods using instruments that rely on self-reporting and the giving of opinions.

Sixty-three of the target sample population responded to the questionnaire. This figure represented a response rate of 50.4 percent. All of the respondents were British users of English living in the United Kingdom and all were educated to tertiary level, holding either academic or professional qualifications. There were 39 males and 24 females, representing 61.90 percent and 38.10 percent respectively of the number of respondents. Sixty of the respondents (95.24%) stated that English was their only language, with only three (4.76%) having English as one of their languages. Whilst this sample was not large enough for a generalisable analysis to be made, it did offer the opportunity from

which to draw conclusions as to the extent to which this sample of educated British users of English accepted certain established norms in selected non-British Inner and Outer Circle Englishes.

5. Findings and Discussion

Analysis of data using descriptive statistics and presented in the form of tables should ensure that the question of which, if any, of the selected norms of non-British Inner Circle and Outer Circle Englishes were acceptable could be quantified and presented in a clear and comprehensible manner. In the following tables, 'Number' refers to the number of respondents and 'Percent' refers to that number represented as a percentage of the total number of respondents. For the purposes of this study, 'majority' has been defined as more than 60% of the total number of respondents; 'no consensus' has been defined as less than 60% of the total number of respondents, and 'unanimous' has been defined as 100% of the total number of respondents.

Table 2 provides the overall data gathered from analysis of the responses to the questionnaire. However, in order to analyse the data more closely, Tables 3 – 11 present specific aspects of the data.

Table 2 presents a comprehensive overview of the responses respondents made to all the items in the questionnaire. It can be seen that only two items (Item 5 '*The firm cannot afford to pay its 20,000 over creditors*' and Item 17 '*We discussed about his new assignment.*') have 'Don't know' responses. It is interesting to note that there were no 'acceptable' responses for either of these items. The other 23 items were responded to with either 'acceptable' or 'unacceptable'. All of the respondents returned completed questionnaires, with no missing responses.

Table 2. Responses to all items in the questionnaire

Item	Type of norm	Acceptable		Unacceptable		Don't Know	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	Word order	15	23.81	48	79.19	00	00.00
2	Word order	58	92.06	05	07.94	00	00.00
3	Word order	21	33.33	42	66.67	00	00.00
4	Word order	06	09.52	57	90.48	00	00.00
5	Word order	00	00.00	49	77.78	14	22.22
6	Tense/aspect	44	69.84	19	30.16	00	00.00
7	Tense/aspect	30	47.62	33	52.38	00	00.00
8	Tense/aspect	00	00.00	63	100.0	00	00.00
9	Tense/aspect	14	22.22	49	77.78	00	00.00
10	Tense/aspect	30	47.62	33	57.38	00	00.00
11	Plural marking	00	00.00	63	100.0	00	00.00
12	Plural marking	21	33.33	42	66.67	00	00.00
13	Plural marking	12	19.05	51	80.95	00	00.00
14	Plural marking	31	49.21	32	50.79	00	00.00
15	Plural marking	15	23.81	48	79.19	00	00.00
16	Use of prepositions	31	49.21	32	50.79	00	00.00
17	Use of prepositions	00	00.00	56	88.89	07	11.11
18	Use of prepositions	30	47.62	33	52.38	00	00.00
19	Use of prepositions	08	12.70	55	87.30	00	00.00
20	Use of prepositions	16	25.40	47	74.60	00	00.00
21	Use of adjectives	00	00.00	63	100.0	00	00.00
22	Use of adjectives	00	00.00	63	100.0	00	00.00
23	Use of adjectives	49	77.78	14	22.22	00	00.00

24	Use of adjectives	15	23.81	48	79.19	00	00.00
25	Use of adjectives	31	49.21	32	50.79	00	00.00

Of the 25 items in the questionnaire, only three were acceptable to the majority of respondents. This represents 12% of the total number of items presented. Table 3 shows that the respondents overwhelmingly accepted the word order '*He only asked ten people to the party*' whereas they did not accept other norms of word order. Whilst there was no clear consensus on two of the tense/aspect norms (Table 6), '*I'm running an electrical shop*' was the only item in this category acceptable to the majority. '*Our prices are low everyday*' was also deemed to be an acceptable use of the adjective, as a substitute for the det + noun form.

Table 3. Items containing norms **acceptable** to the majority* of respondents

		Number	Percent
Item 2	He only asked ten people to the party.	58	92.06
Item 6	I'm running an electrical shop.	44	68.84
Item 23	Our prices are low everyday.	49	77.78

* more than 60% of respondents

Table 4 shows that 12 of the norms presented in the questionnaire, i.e. 48%, were unacceptable to the majority of respondents. This included four items of word order (Items 1, 3, 4, 5), one item of tense/aspect (Item 9), three items of plural marking in uncountable nouns (Items 12, 13, 15), three items of the use of prepositions (Items 17, 19, 20), and one item of the use of adjectives (Item 24). These findings indicate that the majority of respondents were unwilling to accept a wide range of norms attested in a number of non-British Inner Circle and Outer Circle Englishes.

Table 4. Items containing norms **unacceptable** to the majority* of respondents

		Number	Percent
Item 1	I and my sister look very much alike.	48	70.19
Item 3	I asked John where does he work.	42	66.67
Item 4	By the time I graduate I will be too old already.	57	90.48
Item 5	The firm cannot afford to pay its 20,000 over creditors.	49	77.78
Item 9	He was in kindergarden, but he goes school now.	49	77.78
Item 12	The hotel has spacious accommodations.	42	66.67
Item 13	We ate a lot of fruits at lunch.	51	80.95
Item 15	I don't like my children to use slangs.	48	79.19
Item 17	We discussed about his new assignment.	56	88.89
Item19	What are you doing on the weekend?	55	87.30
Item 20	The teacher stressed on the importance of good manners.	47	74.60
Item 24	The ambulance came quick.	48	79.19

* more than 60% of respondents

Whereas there was no unanimous acceptance of any of the norms presented in the questionnaire, four norms, i.e. 16% of the items were marked as unacceptable by all of the respondents. Table 5 shows that Item 8 illustrating a tense/aspect norm common to India, Singapore and The Philippines was not acceptable to any of the respondents. Similarly, plural marking in the uncountable noun '*luggages*' was not accepted. Two norms of the use of adjectives were also unanimously unacceptable

to the respondents. These were the U.S norm '*The team played good*' and '*He works in a twenty-four hours clinic*' common in Singapore and Malaysia.

Table 5. Items containing norms **unacceptable** to all respondent

		Number	Percent
Item 8	I have seen him yesterday.	63	100
Item 11	He has many luggages.	63	100
Item 21	The team played good.	63	100
Item 22	He works in a twenty-four hours clinic.	63	100

Six of the items, representing 24% of those in the questionnaire, presented no clear majority of respondents who found them either acceptable or unacceptable. These norms, on which a divergence of opinion was evident, were two items of tense/aspect (Items 7, 10), one of plural marking of uncountable nouns (Item 14), two of use of prepositions (Items 16, 18), and one of use of adjectives (Item 25).

Table 6. Items containing norms **on which there was no clear consensus*** from respondents

		Acceptable (percent)	Unacceptable (percent)
Item 7	When I saw him two days ago, he told me that he is coming.	47.62	52.38
Item 10	I already had my breakfast.	47.62	52.38
Item 14	Many researches have confirmed the link between smoking and cancer.	49.21	50.79
Item 16	Our mutual benefit schemes provide you and your family financial relief in emergencies.	49.21	50.79
Item 18	The book will be published Friday.	47.62	52.38
Item 25	The museum will be opened to the public between 10 a.m. and 6 p.m.	49.21	50.79

* less than 60% of respondents

When the data were analysed according to norm category, it could be seen that the respondents were discerning in their acceptance or non-acceptance of specific norms. For example, Table 7 illustrates that only Item 2 '*He only asked ten people to the party*', attested in India, Singapore and the United States, was acceptable. Thus indicating that most of the selected norms of word order were unacceptable to the majority of respondents.

Table 7. Summary of responses to norms of **word order**

		A	*U*	*NC*
Item 1	I and my sister look very much alike.		✓	
Item 2	He only asked ten people to the party.	✓		
Item 3	I asked John where does he work.		✓	
Item 4	By the time I graduate I will be too old already.		✓	

Item 5	The firm cannot afford to pay its 20,000 over creditors.		✓	

A = Acceptable U = Unacceptable NC = No Consensus

The norm category of tense/aspect, shown in Table 8, presented the greatest range of responses, including two items on which there was no clear consensus. These were Item 7, a norm in Indian English and Item 10, attested in The United States and The Philippines. However, whereas '*I'm running an electrical shop*' was acceptable, '*I have seen him yesterday*' was unacceptable; in spite of the fact that these are both attested in India, and the latter also attested in The Philippines. This finding shows that the educated British users of English in this study do not have a tendency to accept norms from one particular non-British Inner Circle and Outer Circle English over another. For example, in the norms of tense and aspect, there is a difference in the degree of acceptance for Items 6, 7 and 8, all of which are examples of norms in Indian English.

Table 8. Summary of responses to norms of **tense/aspect**

		A	*U*	*NC*
Item 6	I'm running an electrical shop.	✓		
Item 7	When I saw him two days ago, he told me that he is coming.			✓
Item 8	I have seen him yesterday.		✓	
Item 9	He was in kindergarden, but he goes school now.		✓	
Item 10	I already had my breakfast.			✓

A = Acceptable U = Unacceptable NC = No Consensus

Table 9 shows that the respondents found four of the norms of plural marking in uncountable nouns unacceptable, each of these being common in The Philippines. The item on which there was no consensus (Item 14) was a norm found in Indian, Malaysian, Singaporean and West African Englishes. The respondents were split almost 50-50 on this particular item. It appears, then, that educated British users of English in this survey were reluctant to accept pluralisation of uncountable nouns.

Table 9. Summary of responses to norms of **plural marking in uncountable nouns**.

		A	*U*	*NC*
Item 11	He has many luggages.		✓	
Item 12	The hotel had spacious accommodations.		✓	
Item 13	We ate a lot of fruits at lunch.		✓	
Item 14	Many researches have confirmed the link between smoking and cancer.			✓
Item 15	I don't like my children to use slangs.		✓	

A = Acceptable U = Unacceptable NC = No Consensus

Whilst none of the selected norms of use of prepositions (Table 10) was acceptable to the respondents, there was some divergence of opinion on two of the items, both of which omit a preposition (*with* for Item 16 and *on* for Item 18). The fact that the omission of the appropriate preposition does not alter nor confuse the meaning of these sentences lead 49.21 percent of the respondents to accept Item 16 and 47.62 percent to accept Item 18, with no significant majority finding either of these norms unacceptable. Furthermore, Items 18 and 19 are both examples of norms of English in the United States and The Philippines. However, whereas 47.62 percent of the respondents accepted '*The book will be published Friday*', acceptance of '*What are you doing on the*

weekend?' was a low 12.70 percent. This illustrates that the respondents were discerning in their acceptance of norms within as well as across non-British Inner Circle and Outer Circle Englishes.

Table 10. Summary of responses to norms of **use of prepositions**

		A	*U*	*NC*
Item 16	Our mutual benefit schemes provide you and your family financial relief in emergencies.			✓
Item 17	We discussed about his new assignment.		✓	
Item 18	The book will be published Friday.			✓
Item 19	What are you doing on the weekend?		✓	
Item 20	The teacher stressed on the importance of good manners.		✓	

A = Acceptable U = Unacceptable NC = No Consensus

Of the five items illustrating norms of use of adjectives, shown in Table 11, four are common to Singaporean English (Items 22, 23,24,25), as well as other Englishes. However, only Item 23 was acceptable to the majority of respondents. In Item 25, the substitution of the adjective *open* by the verb *opened* lead to a divergence of opinion as to the acceptability of this norm attested in Malaysian, Singaporean and West African Englishes.

Table 11. Summary of responses to norms of **use of adjectives**

		A	*U*	*NC*
Item 21	The team played good.		✓	
Item 22	He works in a twenty-four hours clinic.		✓	
Item 23	Our prices are low everyday.	✓		
Item 24	The ambulance came quick.		✓	
Item 25	The museum will be opened to the public between 10 a.m and 6 p.m.			✓

A = Acceptable U = Unacceptable NC = No Consensus

6. Conclusion

This study has shown that there are a number of norms that are commonly acceptable across certain non-British Inner Circle and Outer Circle Englishes. However, the sample of educated British users of English who participated in the survey responded negatively to 22 of the 25 selected norms. Only three items were acceptable to the majority of respondents (Table 3). The overwhelming lack of acceptance of the identified norms suggests unwillingness among the respondents to accept diversity in English language usage. No significant difference in the responses of male and female respondents was discerned, and there was insufficient evidence to conclude whether being a user of more than one language was a factor in the degree of acceptance. It should be noted that the lack of acceptance of non-British English norms by the respondents in this study does not imply deficiency in other Englishes, but it does have implications for the identification of norms and standards that are commonly acceptable across varieties of English: for it is the common acceptability of norms and standards that is the foundation of English as an International Language.

While investigations of World Englishes provide evidence of increasing divergence in varieties of English, English as an International Language is dependent upon standards and norms that are

acceptable across varieties. As the findings of this study suggest, there is a need to identify more common ground between World Englishes in order to develop English as an International Language. Having an awareness of the differences between varieties of English and drawing attention to the most commonly acceptable norms across varieties would enable teachers, learners and other users of English to recognise the character and peculiarities of their own variety in relation to other Englishes. This awareness would give users of English the opportunity to make their own choices as to which English they use dependent upon their specific communicative needs. In this way, users of English could take pride in, and enjoy the diversity of, the language found in World Englishes, while taking advantage of the unity of the language found in English as an International Language.

This study quantified the level of acceptance and non-acceptance of selected norms in certain non-British Englishes. However, since only a small sample was drawn, it is not generalisable. A wider study, with a larger sample population and with a wider range of selected norms, could offer a more comprehensive and conclusive set of data. This study could also be repeated, but using different sentences with which to present the selected norms. A comparison of the data from this study and a subsequent one would provide more conclusive results. Furthermore, a qualitative investigation into the reasons for acceptance and non-acceptance would serve to explain the respondents' opinions. For example, further research might show that willingness to accept norms of non-British Inner Circle and Outer Circle Englishes is determined by such factors as (1) the respondents' exposure to them, (2) not recognising them as being ungrammatical, or (3) the respondents' own use of these norms. Finally, research could be conducted to ascertain whether or not having English as an only language is a major factor determining the degree of acceptance of norms of non-British Englishes.

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Eğitimli İngilizler seçilmiş iç ve dış grup İngilizcelerdeki belirli normları ne derecede kabul ediyorlar?

Öz

Bu çalışma Dünya İngilizcelerinin özelliklerini tanımlamaya ve çözümlemeye çalışarak İngilizcenin eğitimli İngiliz kullanıcıları tarafından dilin birbirinden farklı çeşitlerinde ortak olarak yerleşmiş belli başlı normlarının kabul edilebilir olup olmadığı sorusunun cevabını bulmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çalışmanın bulguları katılımcıların seçilen normların birçoğunu kabul etmediğini göstermiştir. Katılımcıların çoğu tarafından sadece üç madde kabul edilebilir bulunmuştur. Kadın ve erkek katılımcıların cevaplarında önemli bir farklılık olmamakla birlikte birden fazla dilin kullanıcısı olmanın kabul edebilirliğin derecelendirilmesinde etkisini belirlemede yeterli kanıt bulunamamıştır. İngilizcenin İngiliz olmayan kişiler tarafından kullanımındaki normlarında kabul edilebilirlik olmaması bu İngilizcelerin kullanımında bir eksiklik olduğu anlamına gelmemesine rağmen bu durum İngilizcenin tüm çeşitliliklerindeki kabul edilebilir formların ve standartların belirlenmesi açısından anlam taşımaktadır. Uluslararası bir dil olarak İngilizcenin temelini oluşturan norm ve standartların sadece yaygın olarak kabul edilmiş bu norm ve standartlar olduğu öne sürülebilir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Dünya İngilizceleri; standartlar ve normlar; merkezi grup; dış grup; kabul edilebilirlik

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Using rubrics as an instructional tool in EFL writing courses

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Abstract

This study investigates the effect of using rubrics as an instructional tool on students' writing performance in English as a foreign language. The major goal was to liberate the students from the narrow perception of writing based solely on the notion of correct grammar which is strongly felt in EFL writing. In this quasi-experimental research, the treatment group (N = 16) was given a rubric which provided them with a clear set of criteria for good writing. They were guided in using the rubric while writing two different essays. The students in the control group (N = 22) wrote the same essay types but they were not introduced to the rubric. The data were collected through student interviews and their essays, which were evaluated by three independent raters using the same rubric. The results revealed that students who received the rubric outperformed the students in the control group. The analysis of the student interviews proved that integration of the rubrics into the course, though initially somewhat challenging, helped the students appreciate the qualities of good writing and then utilize appropriate strategies to achieve them in their own writing.

Keywords: Rubrics, instructional tool, language education, process writing

1. Introduction

The majority of universities in Turkey offer a one-year intensive English preparatory program as students are required to take certain courses in English in their major subject and produce papers in English with a view to improving their academic literacy abilities and meeting future individual and social expectations . Given these stakes, teaching English as a foreign language is a daunting task.

One of the most concrete examples demonstrating the pivotal role of English as a medium of communication within the European context is the Erasmus Program (European student exchange program), which allows more than 200 .000 students to visit foreign countries for a period of between 3 months and 12 months every year to further their studies at a university abroad. Furthermore, a range of different joint educational exchange programs and agreements between different universities outside Europe as well as rapid growth in international contacts with countries have again asserted the essential role of English as a tool for academic success. It is fair to state that the quality of students' work and their intellectual capabilities are judged largely by their writing skills. However, writing does not seem to receive much enthusiasm from the students, which can be accounted for by two reasons: Firstly, students appear to be very much obsessed with the narrow definition of writing based

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on the notions of correct grammar and usage. Grammar and rhetorical forms are major concerns since writing has long been perceived to be in the service of grammar. Secondly, the students appeared to have no insights about the qualities of good writing. Teachers appear to be much concerned with the form as well. This low image of writing among the students was worsened with the practice that writing is used conventionally by teachers as a means of quickly assessing the students' language production, giving too little attention to the process of writing including the conscious and unconscious decisions which the students can make for the purpose of communicating in different situations.

Moreover, teachers keep their own criteria for assessment to themselves without articulating what counts when they give grades, creating inconsistent assessment of student performance across the school. However, there is a strong need to assess our "assessment" and "different approaches to assessment are required to accommodate the various ways in which learners construct knowledge" (Stears & Gopal, 2010, p. 591). For example, one teacher may place great priority on the linguistic structure in the assessment process while another may be more interested in the development of ideas. This always results in hot debate between the teachers and the students when writing course exam results are announced as there are shocking discrepancies between the expected scores and those given.

Taking the rubric to the classroom and asking students to write according to a scoring rubric does not bring success in spite of linguistically clear descriptors for each trait in the rubric. For instance, in terms of the organization category in the rubric, -fluent expression, ideas clearly supported, succinct, well-organized, logical sequencing, cohesive- may make much sense to students. What it is that makes a paragraph well-organized or an essay cohesive remained unclear. The rubric in this case only serves to provide a set of standard criteria for teachers to judge consistently and justifiably students' papers, but it is likely to fail to enable the students to develop the sophisticated thinking skills required to produce works of writing up to the standards of the rubric. Students have great difficulty internalizing the criteria specified in the rubric used to evaluate their performance. The students need several opportunities of working with real samples of writing work to internalize each trait of the rubric and reflect on their own work by meaningfully practicing the criteria with the guidance of an expert teacher Literature review

1.1. Literature review

A rubric or scoring guide, by definition, is a descriptive list of the criteria which teachers employ to judge their students' work. According to Moskal (2000, p. 22), "rubrics are descriptive scoring schemes that are developed by teachers or other evaluators to guide the analysis of the products or process of students' efforts". Likewise, Mertler (2001, p. 189) defines rubrics as "scoring guides consisting of specific pre-established performance criteria, used in evaluating student work on performance assessment". Primarily, a rubric for written work includes a list of certain aspects of writing performance, often subdivided under main categories such as content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. Scoring rubrics provide a description of what is expected at each level or category with a view that students use this information to improve their future performance. Rubrics were initially developed as an assessment tool used only by the evaluators of students' writing without informing the students (Arter, 2000). In an effort to stress the powerful instructive elements of rubrics Andrade (2000, p. 13) states "rubrics are also teaching tools that support student learning and the development of sophisticated thinking skills". Andrade (2000, p. 13) further indicates the strong link between teaching writing skill and the use of rubrics "it is usually used with a relatively complex assignment, such as a long-term project, an essay, or a research paper. Its

purposes are to give students informative feedback about their works in progress and to give detailed evaluations of their final products."

There are two types of rubrics (holistic and analytic) identified in the literature consulted. A holistic rubric refers to a rubric which requires the teacher to score the overall process or product as a whole, without judging the component parts separately (Nitko, 2001). The focus of a score in holistic rubric is on the overall quality, proficiency or understanding of the specific content. It is suitable when errors in some part of the process can be tolerated providing that overall quality is high (Chase, 1999). An analytic rubric is a rubric which requires the teacher to score separate, individual parts of the product or performance first, then to add the individual scores to obtain a total score (Moskal, 2000; Mertler, 2001, Saxton, Belanger & Becker, 2012). Analytic rubrics are suitable when there is a need to assess student work in detail, and to give students specific feedback on their performance. Analytic rubrics make it possible to create a "profile" of specific student strengths and weaknesses. Prior to designing a specific rubric to use as an instructional aid, a teacher must decide whether the performance or product will be seen holistically or analytically.

Recent trends in writing instruction suggest forming a connection between assessment and instruction through creating informed, collaborative environments in particular for the EFL setting. Research indicate that involving students in the assessment process and informing them about what is expected can lead students towards becoming better writers. Hillock (1986, p. 17) summarizes the effect of using rubrics on student achievement as follows:

> *Scales, criteria and specific questions which students apply to their own or other's writing also have a powerful effect on enhancing quality. Through using the criteria systematically, students appear to internalize them and bring them to bear in generating new material even when they don't have the criteria in front of them. These treatments are two times more effective than free writing techniques.*

Drawing from the composition theory and research, Soles (2001, p. 4) strongly recommends that teachers share the rubrics with the students and claims that "students primarily benefit because they will write better essays when they understand the criteria their teachers will use to evaluate their writing". By making students apply the criteria to their works, students are, in fact, included into self-assessment process. The literature on self-assessment suggests that learning improves when students learn to assess themselves and monitor their learning (Bangert-Drawns et. al., 1991; Butler & Winne, 1995; Panadero & Jonsson 2013; Zhao, 2012; Diab & Balaa, 2011).

Being an assessment tool in essence, rubrics offer a lot as an aid to create informed teaching/learning environments and arousing consciousness in the students (Wesolowski, 2012; Birky, 2012). Wyngaard and Gehrke (1996) investigated the relation between the use of criteria scales and improvement in writing skills, using an analytic rubric containing clear descriptors for each trait. They discussed the rubric during the course and provide the students with the rubric to help them to assess their own works. At the end of the implementation, they assessed the students' works themselves by using the same rubric. They concluded that the use of rubric is an effective way to improve student writing.

A recent study by Andrade and Du (2005) provides an additional support for the use of rubrics to foster learning. They investigated the use of rubric with the participation of 14 undergraduate teacher education students. The data were collected through interviews, and the analysis suggested that use of rubric let students know *what is expected* and helped them identify strengths and weaknesses thereby contributing to their learning. Noting the need for more research on the use of rubric, Andrade and Du (2005) call for investigations on students' actual use of rubrics –instead of reported use- to see whether rubrics can serve for the purposes of learning.

The rubric is no longer seen as solely assessment technique to grade students' works but also as an instructional tool in teaching writing. Depending on this idea, four main characteristics of "effective assessment" have been identified in the related literature. These are: (a) There should be clear criteria for assessing writing, (b) Students should be involved to the assessment process, (c) Assessment should provide opportunities for improvement through revision and (d) Assessment criteria should be sensitive to student's developmental stages, referring to appropriate grade level standards (Andrade, 1999; Mueller, 2006). As the research has expanded on the use of rubric in writing assessment, its potentials have been cultivated.

Rubric can be created for or well adapted to process writing as well as product. Most rubrics contain qualitative descriptions of performance criteria that work well with the process approach since process approach gives priority to content, purpose, flow of ideas and audience rather than form and structure emphasized in product approach. The use of instructional rubric can, therefore, accelerate the transition period for students to adapt to the process approach, which "is thought to liberate students from the correct grammar and usage based perception of writing" (Kayaoğlu, 2009, p. 48). Instructional rubrics may also become instrumental in helping show students what counts in producing a good piece of writing as the rubrics and process writing allow students to write multiple drafts, making choices and decisions and working on feedback not only from teachers but also peers.

To conclude, together with increasing awareness of the importance of giving feedback (Bansilal, James, & Naidoo, 2010) and involving students in the assessment process, rubrics have changed from being simply an assessment tool to being a potential instructional tool. Likewise, the increasing popularity of process approaches has fostered a variety of feedback options such as real audience and peer group. Students are encouraged to develop a personal voice and also to take part in the assessment process. So, the use of rubrics has turned out to be a technique to make students a part of the assessment process since it provides for consistent and detailed feedback on works in progress and a justifiable grading of the final product. With this in mind, this research aimed to explore the effect of using rubrics as an instructional tool on learners' writing performance in English as a foreign language.

1.2. Research questions

The study aimed to investigate the following research questions:

1. Does the integration of rubrics into the writing course as an instructional tool have any effect on students' writing performance?
2. Can students be liberated from the narrow perception of writing based on the notion of correct grammar?
3. Do rubrics have potential for teachers to make their writing course more productiveArticle structure

2. Method

This is basically a quasi-experimental research designed to answer the question "Does the integration of rubrics into the writing course as an instructional tool have any effect on students' writing performance?", comparing the pre- and post-test essay papers scored by the three raters upon the completion of a four-weeks treatment based on the use of rubrics. In order to see the

interreliability of the scores given by the three raters to the compare & contrast essays, an ANOVA test was used to analyze the raters for the control and experimental groups separately. A t-test was used to compare scores given to both groups by independent raters at the end of the treatment. In addition, a semi-structured interview was employed to explore the process of using a rubric from the students' point of view following the treatment. The interviews were recorded and content analysis of their self-reports was evaluated to see to what extent the internalization process was realized, and more importantly how the students felt about the rubrics as an instructional tool.

2.1. Sample and setting

The participants in this study included 38 university students aged 18-20, attending the intensive English preparatory program at the School of Foreign Languages at Karadeniz Technical University in Trabzon, Turkey. Sixteen of the students were in the treatment group and 22 in the control group, as each class contained that number of students. Their language proficiency in English was identified in advance as intermediate by a placement test designed by the School of Foreign Languages. When the data were collected, the participants had been attending the language program for four months. The convenience sampling technique was used in the selection of the participants (two classes) from fifty-five classes to ensure that both experimental and control groups were taught by the same experienced instructor, and classes were randomly assigned to either experimental or control groups.

2.2. Instruments: The Rubric

An adapted version of the rubric, the ESL Composition Profile, which was originally developed by Jacobs et al. (1981), was used for the current study. As an appropriate tool for any genre of writing, the Profile describes five main components of writing (content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics) which were presented along four levels of performance with detailed descriptions of the concepts at a scale of a 100 points maximum score. The numerical range for each level allows flexibility in scoring and more precise documentation of student growth in writing. The numerical weights given in the rubric were modified in accordance with the research objectives. For reliability and validity matters of the rubric, the findings of the studies by Jacobs et al. were taken as a base. In order to obtain reliable results while scoring the papers through the target rubric, each piece of writing was read by three evaluators.

2.3. Data collection procedures

In the current syllabus, there are four hours of writing instruction a week, which both the control and experimental groups followed. There is a course book, (a text compiled for the writing course), which mainly focuses on five different essay types with multiple exercises. Normally, two weeks are allocated for each essay type. Students are given theoretical information about the target essay type, and various writing exercises at sentence and vocabulary level are carried out during the course. They are also instructed on the use of language which is thought to be necessary for that essay type. At the time of the data collection students were instructed on two essay types: compare and contrast and cause and effect.

The experimental group received training on using a rubric while producing their work. The students in the control group continued their classes without being taught the rubric. The treatment lasted for four weeks in which both the experimental and control groups were instructed on two different essay types by the same instructor.

In the first week of implementation, the students were provided with clear meanings of the words and expressions used in the rubric. In order to increase their appreciation for the qualities of good

writing with a view to helping them internalize the rubric, the students were given exemplary sample works and asked to analyze the samples by professional writers by answering the questions for each category of the rubric in the form of yes-no checklist such as "*Do the ideas flow, building on one another? Are there introductory and concluding paragraphs? Is there a clearly stated controlling idea or central focus to the paper? Are all ideas directed concisely to the central focus of the paper, without digression?"*.

The analysis sessions (done in students' mother tongue) paved the way for fruitful discussion and interaction between the teacher and students. Students were asked many questions covering the categories of the rubric such as to figure out the sentence(s) which were not directed to the focus of the paper, or sentences which spoil the flow of ideas and the sequence of ideas, or which transitional markers were wrong or inappropriate. Following this, students were again given samples of good writing with deliberate defects and they were encouraged to make their own additions to improve the paper according to the rubric. This was followed by the analysis of anonymous student samples from the previous year. These samples were analyzed together with the students. Subsequently, students were provided with a list of topics to choose from and they carried out pre-writing activities related to the chosen topic during the class time. At the end of the first week, students were assigned to write the first draft on a chosen topic in the target essay type.

The second week began with the analysis of first drafts. Before the teacher saw the drafts, peer feedback sessions were organized for as long as time allowed. Students were required to change their drafts with their peers and they were encouraged to give feedback to their peers' essays. In particular; they were asked to state what parts they liked and what parts they found weak using the rubric. Then, the teacher collected the drafts to give feedback. In the last lesson of the second week, students got their drafts back and began to revise their drafts in accordance with the given feedback. At the close of the second week, students were assigned to write the final draft of the essay.

In week 3, the essay type in the syllabus was a "compare & contrast essay." In the first lesson of the week, students were instructed on the general outline and the language of the compare & contrast essay and the same exercises used with the control group were applied in the class. In the second lesson of the week, a perfect model of the compare & contrast essay was introduced to the students. Students were asked to point out the criteria identified by the rubric in the sample. Later, the students were provided a compare &contrast essay sample written by a student-writer; this was an imperfect model. This sample was analyzed in the class by the teacher in order to model how to handle the rubric and to show the teacher's approach to the written work of the students. In addition, the teacher modeled essay writing by focusing students' attention on the criteria in the rubric. After this, students were asked to analyze, judge and score another sample and then to justify their judgment. They were given time to go through the sample essay silently and to make notes for their justifications. Then, each student was given a chance to justify the scores they assigned. During the justification, no interference was made by the teacher; however, the peers were asked to elaborate on the justification whenever they felt the need.

At the end of the first class, students were assigned to write their first drafts of the compare & contrast essay type. Again the students were asked to analyze their peers' drafts, judge and score them according to the rubric. Their peers listened to the justifications for the scores and any advice they had. In week 4 the essay type, according to the syllabus, was the "cause & effect essay". A very similar format was followed for the cause & effect essay as in the previous week. At the end of the treatment, students in both experimental and control groups took an exam on compare & contrast essays as they were instructed by the same teacher. The exam papers were scored by three different experienced teachers. After the exam, the students in the experimental group were asked to reflect on the courses

they attended in relation to the use of rubrics They were asked whether they found the use of rubrics useful for their learning process or not. Depending on the students' remarks during introspection, any difference between experimental and control groups in terms of their writing skills was attributed to the integration of rubrics since the other features (language proficiency, instruction on the essay types, time) were kept the same.

At the end of the treatment, both groups submitted a compare-contrast paper which was evaluated on the basis of the same rubric. To ensure reliable results, three independent raters scored the papers and the results of the experimental group were compared with those of control group to see whether integrating rubrics into the course as an instructional tool improved students' writing performance or not. Following the treatment, ten students from the experimental group volunteered at their convenience and were interviewed individually to measure the students' developmental change in their writing performance in connection with the components (content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics) identified in the rubric.

3. Results

In order to see the interreliability of the scores given by the three raters to the compare & contrast essays, an ANOVA test was used to analyze the raters for the control and experimental groups separately. The result showed that there was no significant difference between the scores given by the 3 raters for the control group; $F(df2)=.942$, $p>.05$. Similarly, the result of the ANOVA test done between the scores given by 3 raters for the experimental group showed that there was no significant difference between the scores; $F(df2)=.216$, $p>.05$. A T-test was used to assess whether the means of two groups were statistically different from each other. The results showed that there was statistically significant difference between two groups in the sense that the experimental group distinctively performed better than the control group in writing composition papers; (experimental group mean (M=74), control group mean ($M = 58$), t(df2)=: 9.987, $p>.05$.

3.1. Qualitative data analysis

3.1.1. Interview results

Ten students from the experimental group were interviewed after completing the final task of writing "compare & contrast" essays using the rubric. Initially, they were asked to comment on the use of rubrics in general. There appeared to be an overall agreement among the students about the benefit of using rubrics in writing process. This is manifested in a very similar manner by the students: "I was always wondering how teachers grade our writing papers. Now it is good to know this" (S1). "Initially I did not know what were the things that I was to pay attention to" (S3).

Knowing how to write papers but not being able to do it accordingly made the task of writing in L2 quite challenging and sometimes a painful process. This requires more practice, trial, and patience. Although a few students expressed the stress-creating element of writing by the standards of the rubric at this level, they also found the use of the rubric very useful in creating a much better quality of writing. One of the respondents remarked:

> *Initially, there was a sort of uncertainty. I did not know on what criteria I was graded and I did not know by what criteria I was to write my composition papers. So I wrote haphazardly. After the introduction of the rubric, I don't say I now can write better but I know well what to pay more attention to and what to consider in writing (S5).*

On the other hand, the use of rubrics at times turned out to be a source of stress and tension among the students because the task of having to produce a piece of writing up to a set of criteria was something very new to them. After internalizing the rubric to some extent, they felt they were in a

position to appreciate the properties of good writing, and they were better able to evaluate their own writing: "It has been three days since I started to write a compare-contrast essay. I have not produced even a half page. So far I have written many drafts but I did not like them at all because I feel it is not good by the rubric, and frankly speaking I was much more comfortable with writing before I used the rubric. This drives me crazy" (S7).

3.1.2. Content

In addition to the overall impact of using rubrics in the writing process, I sought to see how students dealt with each category of the rubric such as content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics. Students were asked to comment on their performance in terms of content.

> *Formerly, I did not have much anxiety for the content. After the rubrics, I became more aware of in particular, audience and purpose. There should be a thesis statement with supporting ideas. In the previous semester, I wrote for quantity. I mean I tried to put as many sentences as possible but now I write for quality (S9).*
> *Unlike the previous semester, I try not to write down any sentence irrelevant to the subject" (S4).*

Students made important progress in recognizing the importance of the interrelationship between and among the pieces of information given in the content area. Consistent with this, students appeared to write more grammatically correct and complex sentences to impress their teachers less. In other words, before the rubrics, there was much more focus on language correctness and the quantity of "beautiful" sentences at the expense of conveying a sense of completeness. This belief was perhaps fostered by the traditional practice of teachers under the influence of product approach. Due to the use of the rubric, the students were able to realize the importance of finding the facts, points and pertinent information concerning the topic.

3.1.3. Organization

What came out as a salient gain from the students' reports in relation to the organization category of the rubric is that there should be an introductory, supporting and concluding paragraph. This is something about which formerly they had only a vague idea, but now the students were found to pay more attention to the overall relationship of ideas within and between paragraphs. The integration of rubrics increased their awareness of the fact that they need to logically develop points in paragraphs and use a sort of sequence as characterized in the quotations below:

> *I'm not saying I can write well organized papers but at least I know what to pay attention to due to the introduction of the rubric, which no one told us about in the past (S2).*
> *At the beginning I start with a topic sentence but immediately I write two or more supporting detail sentences in the following paragraphs. The problem [is] I cannot write more. I mean I do not write long paragraphs, but when compared to the past I feel I am writing better (S3).*

Another student noted:

> *A well-organized paper should have, first of all, a thesis statement, and each paragraph should have its own thesis statement. All these should be related to the main idea in the paper. There must be a reference to the topic sentence in the concluding paragraph. Nevertheless, I'm not saying I can write well organized papers but at least I know what to pay attention to due to the introduction of the rubric, which no one told us about in the past (S6).*

Another student reported:

> *The most important gain of using rubrics in relation to organization category, formerly I used to put all my ideas in my paper without a good organization and sequence. I thought all my ideas were clear and good .but now when I look my previous papers, I can see my wrong and weak points very easily. For instance, I can say to myself that sentence is in the wrong paragraph or I should have said this here….. (S7).*

In addition to these commonly shared points, students were found to highlight, as an important gain from the organization category, the importance of using appropriate transitional markers between ideas and paragraphs as highlighted below:

I did not know that transitional markers had so much magical power to connect ideas and paragraphs. Some sentences and even paragraph became very connected with a very minor change and the addition of appropriate markers (S4).

3.1.4. Vocabulary

As to the effect of the vocabulary category on students' writing processes, almost all of the students reported to have started very frequent use of dictionary to find a variety of effective words in their writing. The practice on vocabulary concepts in the rubric led the students to find out, in their own words, the "strategic" value of using dictionaries more effectively than before. Students used dictionaries to decide the most appropriate words to the given topic.

I spend much more time than ever on dictionaries; I continuously work through dictionary because I did not know that vocabulary was that much important for an effective composition paper. For instance, I used the verb apply instead of appeal for a charity business. Although our teacher understands what I mean, but it does not make our composition look better (S8).

Perhaps the most concrete outcome of efforts to internalize the vocabulary category was to gently switch to monolingual English dictionaries, not necessarily at the expense of bilingual dictionaries. Students appeared to have discovered the great power of using monolingual English dictionaries, which is an unexpected, positive side effect of integrating rubrics into the classroom. In the above quotation, the student, staying dependent on the bilingual dictionary for immediate use and needs as is the case with most our EFL students, wrongly used "apply for money" instead of "appeal for money" because of the bilingual dictionary. Later, s/he was able to correct her/his mistake through clear contextual examples in a monolingual English dictionary. This switch could be painful as it was with some other students in our research because the definitions provided in some monolingual English dictionaries were found quite abstract, multi-layered and too dense to understand, and secondly, many definitions include many other unfamiliar words. This did not necessarily lead to the building of a better vocabulary, nor was it the end, but it turned out to be a pleasurable and profitable habit that enabled students to have the satisfaction of getting their ideas and thoughts across more appropriately and effectively in their writing. So far the students were much more concerned with having larger vocabulary without developing an understanding of what learning and using words meant. Instead of extending their range of vocabulary, the students in our case were observed to develop greater control and thinking over the meanings of the words to be used for a given topic.

3.1.5. Language use and mechanics

When it comes to the category of language use, students appeared to associate language use with the knowledge of grammar. Instead of using simple sentences, students tended to use more complicated sentences. Similarly, the category of mechanics received the least attention from the students for two reasons: first, students use spelling software programs on computers when they hand in their papers; secondly, they consider this a matter of personal attention rather than lack of knowledge. Additionally, this category gets only 5 point out of 100. Many students were found to try to demonstrate mastery of conventions and use effective complex constructions as indicated in the quotations:

Instead of using simple sentences all the time, I need to use more complicated sentences such as noun clauses and adjective clauses (S2).

Unlike the previous semester, I am now trying to use different grammatical structures. At least I know what I should understand from language use as we have a rubric in our hand. Nevertheless, I am not sure how much I can put all this into practice (S3).

The category of language use did not make contribution to my knowledge of grammar. But I am trying to use more effective and different structures. Now I find my previous composition papers boring and dull. In that sense Language Use category has a positive effect on me (S6).

In the first semester our writing teacher also told us to use different structures and avoid repetitive sentences and structures. For some reason, we did not take it very seriously but we have a written criteria in our hand. We are now paying more attention to language use (S7).

The category of mechanics received the least attention from the students for two reasons: first, students use spelling software programs on computers when they hand in their papers; secondly, they consider this a matter of personal attention rather than lack of knowledge. Additionally, this category gets only 5 point out of 100.

4. Conclusion

The integration of the rubric into the general flow of writing courses served us in planning and shaping instruction by breaking the writing course into measurable observable components and directing students towards manageable learning targets. The ultimate goal of using rubrics as an instructional tool is to empower students by awakening a sense of appreciation for what makes good writing in an EFL setting. Students are, in turn, expected to be able to develop their own writing skills in the long run. The use of rubrics in this present study made it clear that students, once provided with these clear criteria for quality in advance of completing the assignment, can consciously apply them to their work and become increasingly proficient in writing skills. It was quite interesting to observe that students got involved in feedback which was not necessarily limited to the correction of errors. During feedback sessions in the study, students were encouraged to recognize the merits and shortcomings in their own and peers' writing performance, understand the reasons for these shortcomings and negotiate with their peers and teachers possible improvements. This led students to develop a more visible individual voice and tone in their writing endeavor.

One of the concrete results from this research is that there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups in the sense that the experimental group outperformed the control group in writing composition papers. This obviously indicates that rubrics have potential for teachers to make their writing course more productive. The second major result worth mentioning here is that students felt that they would be able to produce better pieces of writing in English when the teaching approach emphasized writing as a process rather than writing as a product after having internalized the rubric. It is, however, hard to say that the use of rubrics liberated students from the burdensome specter of the teacher's authority since the traditional product-oriented approach to writing in the EFL setting appeared to transmit fixed cultural and linguistic behavior. Students are likely to continue to suffer from lack of genuine audience and sustained motivation in view of the fact that teachers remain their primary audience. It can be said, however, that students were virtually liberated from the narrow perception of writing based on the notion of correct grammar.

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Dereceli Puanlama Cetvelinin (rubric) Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Dersinlerinde Öğretim Aracı Olarak Kullanılması

Öz

Bu çalışma, bir öğretim aracı olarak rubric (dereceli puanlama cetveli) kullanmanın, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin yazı performansları üzerindeki etkisini incelemektedir. Çalışmanın ana amacı öğrencileri, İngilizce yazarken çokça kendisini hissettiren sadece doğru gramer nosyonuna dayanan yazma algısından kurtarmaktır. Karma yöntem yaklaşımı kullanılarak, uygulama grubuna (s 16) iyi yazı yazmanın kurallarını içeren bir rubrik verildi. İki farklı deneme yazısı yazarken yazım süreçleri izlendi ve kendilerine rehberlik edildi. Kontrol grubundaki öğrenciler (s22) de aynı tip deneme yazıları yazdılar fakat onlara her hangi bir rubrik verilmedi. Veriler, öğrencilerle yapılan görüşmeler ve aynı rubriği kullanan üç bağımsız notlandırıcı tarafından değerlendirilen öğrencilerin yazılı metinlerinden elde edildi. Elde edilen sonuçlar, yazım sürecinde rubrik kullanan öğrencilerin kontrol grubundaki öğrencilerden daha üstün bir performans sergilediklerini ortaya koydu. Öğrencilerle yapılan görüşmelerin analizi, daha önce biraz zor gibi gözükmüş olsada, rubriklerin derslere entegrasyonunun, öğrencilere iyi yazının özelliklerinin neler olduğunu anlamada ve kendi yazılarında daha başarılı olmaları için uygun stratejiler kullanmada yardımcı olduğunu ortaya koydu.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Rubrik, öğretim aracı, dil eğitimi, yazma

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Graphic novels: An alternative approach to teach English as a foreign language[1]

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Abstract

This article reports the findings of a study that investigated the role of graphic novels in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) to International Baccalaureate students (aged 15-16) in TED Ankara College Foundation Private High School. Two intact 10th grade classes were randomly assigned to the control and experimental groups who studied the play of *Macbeth* for various in-class activities. A questionnaire, semi-structured interview and achievement test (post-test) were employed to gather data from the participants. The findings revealed that there was a significant difference in the scores of the participants in the experimental and control groups, with the graphic novel playing a significant role in understanding (i) literature elements such as symbol, setting and foreshadowing, (ii) inference and (iii) vocabulary. However, it did not play a significant role in answering comprehension questions, discussing quotations, and analysing comparison-contrast or cause-effect relationships. Furthermore, the findings revealed that graphic novel greatly shaped and influenced the critical thinking and literary devices, and vocabulary learning skills of participants. The present study calls for integrating graphic novels into the syllabi of the relevant schools as these materials appeal to the students' visual senses and yield more insights compared with traditional plain literary texts.

Keywords: Graphic novels; literary texts; critical thinking; EFL; motivation

1. Introduction

Teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) has always been a painful process for teachers due to the factors that inhibit a healthy learning environment free from "affective filters" and empowered by motivation. In seeking the best way to teach a second or foreign language (L2) with the rising demand of language learning in a short period of time, a wide variety of interpretations and applications have come up. Marckwardt (1972, p.5) called this duration of searching for the best method for language teaching as "changing winds and shifting sands" since every quarter of a century, a new approach appeared and each new approach or method escaped from the old but took with it some of the positive aspects of the previous practice. Thus, the use of visuals has been one of the positive outcomes of the previously applied methodologies that have never lost their effective role in language teaching. Indeed, using visuals has always had a facilitative power in the process of language learning and become an indispensable part of it.

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When first introducing the term "graphic novel", Eisner (1985) defined it as "sequential art, the arrangement of pictures or images and world to narrate a story or dramatize an idea" (p. 5), arguing that graphic novels have the potent to improve the L2 skills of learners struggling with foreign language learning. Reasonably, the illustrations in the novels support readers by providing them with the necessary contextual clues that appeal to their senses through imagery techniques. Emphasising the benefits of graphic novels for young EFL learners or those who have lower reading levels compared to their peers, Krashen (2004b, pp. 59-60) states that "the simple sentences, visual or context clues, and educated guessing allow them to comprehend some, if not all, of the story". This assertion suggests that a taste for reading can be developed through reading light materials such as comic books.

Similarly, Schwarz (2006) points out that graphic novels sharpen and deepen visual literacy. Derrick (2008) maintains that a graphic novel is the combination of written text and visual literacy, including the visual symbols and shorthand that comics use to represent the physical world. Consequently, EFL teachers can easily use graphic novels in their classrooms. Bearing in mind that an EFL teachers' goal is also to teach EFL reading so as to develop learners' reading skills in terms of understanding grammar, vocabulary and inferential deduction, reading is considered an essential part of L2 instruction. However, language learners have become too reluctant to read, understand, analyze and synthesize these days since there are distracters such as console games. Yet, it is not too late to reshape the young reader again. Knowing the fact that the modern students are fond of computer games which include all the visual images that appeal to their senses, teachers should benefit from this opportunity by engaging their students in reading texts with graphics.

Needless to say, L2 instruction is also based on the productive skills-speaking and writing – and receptive skills – reading and listening. Success in all these four skills can be achieved through the use of graphic novels. Graphic novels play a very significant role in both foreign language education and one's life because they enhance comprehension, vocabulary and language skills, as well as critical thinking skills that can be applied to other areas where productive skills are needed. Learners properly introduced to reading materials could develop their metacognitive strategies as to become autonomous learners and eventually successful self-actualized individuals (Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1987). Therefore, it has become the urge of teachers to build up these skills in the best and most permanent ways. It has always been teachers' aim to create the successful language learner and many teachers and experts have conducted many kinds of studies to find an applicable strategy or method. Thus, this study was designed to investigate the role of graphic novels in teaching English as a foreign language.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Graphic Novels and Foreign Language Learning

Researchers within educational circles use various definitions for a graphic novel. Weiner (2010, p. 5) refers to it as "sequential art, comics, photo-novels, graphics, paperback comics novels (whatever name one wants to use)" whereas Cary (2004) describes it as "the longer cousin of the comic book" (p.10). He further states that "graphic novels span many literary genres and are often full-length books containing many of the literary elements that are found in the traditional text-only books such as novels'' (p.11). Similarly, Carter (2004) defines it as "a book-length sequential art narrative featuring an anthology style collection of comic art, a collection of reprinted comic book issues comprising a single story line (or arc) or an original, stand-alone graphic narrative" (p.1). Notwithstanding its various descriptions, graphic novels serve as visual tools to motivate readers with illustrations.

Graphic novels are also recognized as a very supportive medium for visual learners since they link images with texts to increase comprehension (Hassett and Schiebe, 2007). Also, students can decode

unfamiliar vocabulary items with the scaffolding effect of the visual context clues (Pennella, 2009). Thus, what reluctant L2 learners definitely need is the graphic novel to boost up their reading skills. Graphic novels are undoubtedly read for fun and it seems reasonable to give students the opportunity of extensive reading since it would be unrealistic and unwise to force a person to read something that does not appeal to his/her interest and the same counts for a teenager as s/he will always be willing to look at comics (Goldsmith, 2005). Furthermore, graphic novels certainly appeal to the senses of visual learners. Given that young learners at a younger age are more exposed to illustrations so that they can learn better, it is not unreasonable when graphic novels are accepted and recognized as a bridge for the transition to written texts (Gorman, 2003).

On the other hand, graphic novels can serve as a means for presenting sociocultural issues in language learning. For example, *The Four Immigrants Manga* (Kiyama, 1999) depicts the life of four Japanese immigrants in San Francisco, California from 1904 to 1924. Not only is this graphic novel funny to read, but it also gives the reader deeper insight and understanding of the struggles of these immigrants in terms of economic and social issues. EFL learners reading these types of novels could learn language and culture simultaneously.

Integrating graphic novels into the reading syllabus is viewed as one of the most applicable scaffolding types by many experts in the field of ELT. Krashen's (2004a) *Comprehension Hypothesis* (CH) adds additional perspective on the issue of whether and how to use the student's first language in foreign language education. Based on Krashen's CH conceptualization, the information provided in the first language can help the same way pictures and realia help make input comprehensible, supporting the use of graphic novels with L2 students. Krashen (2004b) too maintains that graphic narrative materials are an excellent means of reducing the affective filters of anxiety and lack of confidence blocking student pleasure in learning L2. He further indicates that they can spark student interest, thus, increasing L2 acquisition and invigorating kids to become autonomous acquirers. Briefly, graphic novels have proved to enhance L2 acquisition by removing some psychological obstacles such as affective filters that might moderate on effective language learning.

2.2. Graphic Novels and Motivation

Motivation is one of the most important psychological reasons for a student's reaction and behavior in terms of both engagement in and resentment of an activity during English lessons (Dörnyei, 2005). Using graphic novels in English classes could trigger students' intrinsic motivation. Students do not feel forced to read something, study it and be successful in the exam. However, kids love comics and they never feel forced when looking at the pages. They enjoy solving problems and carrying out the required skills. When students start to learn because of their intrinsic motivation, they will definitely benefit both academic success and fun. Hence, graphic novels contribute to the four perspectives of intrinsic motivation which are *competence, curiosity, autonomy,* and *internalized motivation* (Carr, 2004; Harmer, 2001; Rubin, 1975).

According to Cary (2004), English learners "may find clues in the pictures that help demystify the text and increase comprehension" (p. 3). With this overpowering feeling of competence, they become more motivated as they start to believe that they can make competent language learners. Similarly, Rubin (1975) points out that "the good language learner may be a good guesser, that is, he gathers information in an efficient manner so it can be easily retrieved and that he may actively look for clues to meaning-in the topic, setting, or attitudes of the speakers" (p.43). Graphic novels are shorter and have more illustrations than words which may draw the students' curiosity so that they will approach the task more eagerly. Likewise, illustrations are far better in showing hints and clues than words. This makes students

feel more engaged in the story. Therefore, raising curiosity through graphic novels has the potential to shape language learners willingness to undertake leaning tasks.

Children are assumed to be willing to read the graphic novels and have the feeling of independency while going over the script and illustrations. This can play a vital role in transferring them into autonomous learners. Students can infer hidden messages, guess meanings of vocabulary through pictures and get an overall idea about what the novel is without asking the teacher or constantly looking up the words. This feeling of independency and autonomy is crucial to educational effectiveness and empowers learners, providing them with the necessary impetus to master the language on their own. Harmer (2001) points out that "intrinsic motivation plays by far the largest part in most students' success or failure as language learners" (p.4). Calo (2010) argues that by reading graphic novels, engaging in rich analytical discussions, and participating in activities that further extend and deepen students' understanding of the texts, all students learn to be strategic readers and critical consumers of information. Thus, graphic novels can be used as a tool for teaching English and empowering the learner with language skills, as well as dealing with social issues.

2.3. Graphic Novels and Language Learning Strategies

It is true that graphic novels function as a scaffold and that they ease understanding, promote guessing and linking words to possible meanings. Yet, this might not be sufficient to achieve optimum success. Students will get completely autonomous when they are taught to build up their own learning strategies. This can be achieved by using graphic novels as their illustrations will promote the learners' usage and competence of language learning strategies, defined as "external skills often used consciously by students to improve their learning" (Ellis, 1978, p. 9) and "easier to teach and modify" (Oxford, 1990, p. 12). Thus, if teachers use the appropriate lesson materials and assign students useful tasks, students will be more successful.

Graphic novels support students in building up language learning strategies. Students will find it easier to understand graphic novels and because of the illustrated situations and dialogues they will be able to focus on the learning strategies that the teacher presents them. All students regardless of their proficiency levels in reading can participate in discussions about the visuals within the novel. In this regards, Calo (2010) asserts that "graphic novels can help the learners to become strategic readers in pre-reading, while reading and post-reading activities". She further points out that the students can "develop new insights, think deeply, carefully and critically about what they see an read, make interpretations, pose and answer questions and think and act creatively" (p.8). These skills can be mastered by going through the pages and observing the illustrations in graphic novels.

On the other hand, graphic novels are also excellent materials to build up cognitive learning strategies (O'Malley et al., 1985) because there are lots of tasks to be carried out that involve problem solving, analysis, transformation or synthesising. Students can do activities based on *clarification/verification, guessing/inductive, inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization* and *monitoring* (Rubin, 1987). In addition, comics establish an opportunity to practice metacognitive learning strategies because they sparkle autonomy in such a way that the learners get involved in a variety of processes such as *"planning, prioritising, setting goals, and self-management"* (Rubin, 1987).

2.4. Graphic Novels and Learner Types

Many factors such as gender, age, social status, motivation, attitude, background or culture play a significant role in language learning. These factors mark individual differences and make a person unique. Therefore, using graphic novels can arouse interest in most students as these types of materials

appeal to various learning styles such as the *auditory learner, visual learner, tactile learner, kinaesthetic learner, group learner* and *individual learner*. A tactile learner, for instance, can easily draw a comic strip about the theme that takes place in the graphic novel. Likewise, the tactile learner can build a small model of the setting taking place in the graphic novel. Furthermore, some actions of the graphic novel can even be acted out. Using graphic novels, teachers can easily engage their students in tasks by getting them to prepare interviews, do role plays or pantomime some facial expressions of the characters in the graphic novel.

Graphic novels also appeal to both *group learners* and *individual learners* (Reid, 1995). Given the different types of learners and learning styles, it becomes a more challenging task for teachers to reach and appeal to all types of learners. However, Graphic Novels aid learning in that they can provide basis for all learner types. Graphic novels appeal to the individual differences as they include visuals and texts that draw the attention of the verbal and visual learners. Furthermore, these visual texts can be mimed or played by spatial and kinaesthetic learners as well. These individual differences play a significant role in L2 reading comprehension or other skills.

2.5. Studies Done on Graphic Novels in Language Teaching

Graphic novels have changed considerably over the years. Studies conducted so far to explore the nature of foreign language learning and its problems have pointed out and highlighted the necessity of integrating them into language learning programs. For instance, Jones (2010) conducted a study to rate Japanese students' attitudes towards reading in both their L1 and English. The findings of Jones' study indicated that using comic books had an overall positive effect on the students. The results of post-project survey were also promising. 11 out of 25 participants claimed that the use of illustrations was very helpful in acquiring the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary, while 12 participants indicated that they had experienced no changes in their attitudes. However, they pointed out that they had enjoyed the graphic novels and, as a result, were highly motivated to read more books in English. In this respect, Jones (2010) asserts that contextual illustrations and context help enable participants' schema formation and general comprehension of text. This implies that schema formation results in less reliance on distracting dictionary use and, hence, less split attention effect.

Frey and Fisher (2004) explored the effect of graphic novels on the improvement of the written communication of students from divergent backgrounds and found that the students began to write more complex sentences, and that the mean sentence length increased from 11.2 to 12.89 words, yielding high levels of self-confidence and self-reliance among students. Referring to *Manga* specifically, Carter (2007, p. 50), observes that "Manga is to teachers today what music videos were a generation ago: something of import to students that we shouldn't ignore, even if we might not ever 'get' it".

Numerous studies (Krashen, 2004b; Worthy, 1996, and Worthy et al., 1999) report that when adolescents choose materials that truly interest them and read for pleasure, the benefits include gains in vocabulary, reading fluency, a greater effort, motivation, and a more positive attitude towards reading. Although the study on Graphic Novels is mainly confined to its usage in FL, it cannot be denied that Graphic Novels have the power to motivate and thus create a feeling as if the students were reading voluntarily or freely. Thus, Krashen (2004c) suggests that parents and teachers should create opportunities and "provide access to light reading such as comic books, and graphic novels" (2004c, p. 134). He further points out that current comic books have 2.000 words each and that a student will have covered 500.000 words yearly (if read daily).

Despite research studies done on graphic novels so far, there still exists an empirical research gap in the field of ELT in Turkey. Given that graphical novels have the potential to promote teaching and learning English as a foreign language, the researchers felt obliged to conduct an empirical study and

determine possible effects of graphic novels on foreign language learning. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the role of graphic novels in foreign language teaching. For these purposes, the following research questions were formulated:

1) What are the students' perceptions of the role of graphic novels and literary graphic novels in foreign language teaching?
2) Is there a significant difference between experimental and control groups' performance in reading graphic novels?
3) Considering the role of graphic novels and literary graphic novels in EFL, are there any differences between experimental and control groups?
4) Do the groups differ significantly in terms of a) critical thinking skills and literary devices, (b) vocabulary learning skills, and (c) reading and writing skills?

3. Method

This study used a mixed-methods research design, a procedure for collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative research methods in a single study to understand a research problem (Cresswell, 2009). Mixed method approach combines the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative research, thus providing more insight about the problem (Dörnyei, 2007). In this section, participants, instrumentation, and data collection and analysis procedures are presented.

3.1. Participants

A total of 56 10th grade International Baccalaureate (IB) students enrolled in TED Ankara College Foundation Private High School participated in the study. Two intact 10th grade classes were randomly assigned to the control (N=30) and experimental (N=26) groups. Their age ranged from 15 to 16 and had the same English proficiency level, as the school requires a final grade of "4" out of "5" in English in Prep-IB grade 9 to continue in Prep-IB 10. Also, students were familiar with literature as the school's English curriculum mainly involved literature teaching, aligned with the IGCSE (International General Certificate of Secondary Education) program.

3.2. Instrument

The study sequentially used three instruments for data collection: a questionnaire, semi-structured interview and achievement test (post-test). A survey instrument was employed to gather quantitative data about the participants' reading preferences, habits and familiarity with graphic novels. It included 37 five-point Likert type items ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The questionnaire was adapted and further developed from English's (2012) graphic novel questionnaire. The necessary adaptations were made in the inventory to meet the requirements of the study. An exploratory factor analysis using varimax rotation was conducted to statistically determine the quality of items and the construct validity of the scale. The result of Barlett's Test of Sphericity ($P<0.01$) confirmed that the scale was appropriate for the factor analysis. The original scale contained 47 items. After factor analysis, the items with a factor load value <.27 were removed from the analysis. In other words, item numbers 4, 5., 7., 33., and 34 which had a factor load value <.27 were removed from the scale. Cronbach's alpha for the 37 item scale was .82. Moreover, prior to the main study, a pilot study was carried out with a group of 59 (N=59) students in order to foster its reliability. The pilot study showed that the scale was clear enough for the students to understand. Additionally, a semi-structured interview consisting of 7 questions was conducted with the participants in the experimental group to

find out how they felt about their experience of reading the graphic novel Macbeth, and whether they would also want to experience it in the future. Finally, a post-test consisting of 10 questions was administered. Each question was aimed to test a specific aspect of the play.

3.3. Procedures for Data Collection and Analysis

The data for this study were gathered using a questionnaire, a semi-structured interview followed by a post-test in TED Ankara College Foundation Private High School. Both control and experimental groups were randomly chosen as they were all confirmed to have a proficiency level of 4 (70-84 out of 100) in English. The treatment began along quantitative data collection and lasted for five weeks, namely 15 hours in total. During the process of reading, both the control end experimental group did the same pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading activities. After the treatment, the second quantitative data was collected. A semi-structured interview was administrated to the experimental group. This study attempted to find out some more sincere explanations of the participants' attitudes, awareness and preferences of reading literature. More information about the participants' profiles was obtained through structured interview. The interview questions were structured parallel to the sections in the questionnaire. There were 7 questions in English addressing the participants' preferences of reading texts and reading graphic novels in class. The participants did not have any difficulties in understanding the questions and the interview was thus accepted to be satisfying. The post-test was given to both groups. There was no pre-test as two intact classes were chosen. In other words, 'the post-test-only two randomized experimental' design was used for data collection here. The scores of post-test representing the general achievement of the participants in reading graphic novels were computed and evaluated based on the following dimensions: *Knowledge of Symbolic Meaning, Knowledge of Setting, Understanding of Foreshadowing, Understanding of Inference, Vocabulary Skills, Comprehension Skills, Understanding of Quotations, Compare/Contrast Skills, Cause and Effect Skills,* and *Understanding of Concept.*

Data analysis was performed to address the research questions formulated for the present study. Data collected from the sample were fed into the computer and statistical analyses were carried out using MS Excel and IBM SPSS Statistics 20. The Independent Samples t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' performance. The independent-samples t-test is employed when the two groups or sets of scores whose means are being compared are independent of each other (Mackey and Gass, 2005; Field, 2009). To characterize and analyze the data drawn from the sample and provide preliminary information about the participants' ratings, descriptive statistics such as mean, frequency and percentage were also computed.

4. Results and Discussion

This section presents the results of the current study in terms of descriptive and inferential statistics as well as analysis of the findings. First, the descriptive results of participants' perceptions on the effectiveness of graphic novels are given, followed by inferential statistics representing the results of using graphic novels in foreign language learning.

The results of descriptive analysis for the participants' attitudes towards literary texts revealed that students tend to have a positive approach towards reading in the target language. The results further indicated that the highest mean score (M=4.26; SD=0.90) was obtained for item 2, suggesting that more than 9 in ten (92.30%) of the participants perceive that reading literary texts, stories and novels raises and shapes their critical awareness, whereas the lowest mean score (M=2.22; SD=1.12) was received for item 16 (Table 1). The close examination of the results showed that only 19.23% had difficulty understanding literary texts, while 61.50% found it easy to understand them. This implies that using

graphic novels makes the reading tasks and understanding of the literary texts easier and ultimately contributes, to a great extent, to better language learning.

Table 1. *Descriptive statistics for approach towards reading literary texts*

Item	Item Description	N	Mean[a]	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1	I enjoy reading literary texts/stories/novels.	26	3.89	0.97	0	1	5	13	7
2	Literary texts / stories and novels shape people's critical awareness.	26	4.26	0.90	0	0	2	12	12
8	I find reading literary texts/stories/ novels difficult.	26	2.48	1.19	5	10	4	6	1
9	I can understand problematic words which a lot of people find hard to understand and remember while reading literary texts.	26	3.07	1.17	1	8	6	8	3
11	I might find it easy to interpret gesture/facial expression in a graphic novel.	26	3.33	1.18	1	5	6	10	4
13	I can understand what literary texts are about when I read them.	25	3.96	1.00	0	1	4	12	8
14	I can easily catch contextual connection to the written texts while reading graphic novels.	26	3.37	1.11	1	3	9	9	4
16	I find it hard to understand literary texts.	26	2.22	1.12	8	8	5	5	0
21	I have to look up for the meanings of the words quite often while reading a text.	26	3.07	1.04	2	4	8	12	0
25	I find reading literary texts/stories/ novels boring.	26	2.44	1.09	4	11	6	4	1
26	I don't feel confident while reading plain literary texts.	26	2.74	1.16	3	8	8	5	2
27	I can't remember the events and details in a text easily after having read a literary text.	26	2.41	1.01	3	13	6	3	1
30	I like reading literary texts without illustrations.	26	3.15	1.20	2	4	10	6	4
36	In a dialogue/text, I can easily recognize the meanings of the words.	26	3.44	1.19	1	3	9	7	6
37	I have no difficulty in interpreting gesture/ facial expression described in a story.	26	3.48	0.98	0	2	11	9	4

[a] *Means are based on a 5-point scale: 1, Strongly agree; 2, Agree; 3 Neither agree nor disagree; 4, Disagree; 5, Strongly disagree.*

Regarding the participants' perception of reading comics and graphic novels, the results of descriptive analysis revealed that although students tend to have a positive approach towards reading comics and graphic novels, the mean scores obtained for the items were low in comparison to their perceptions of reading literary texts (Table 2). The results indicated that the highest mean score (M=3.85; SD=0.95) was obtained for item 33. This indicates that nearly 70% of the students perceive that illustrations in a graphic novel help them remember the events and details in a literary text. Conversely, the lowest mean scores were received for items 15 (M=2.22; SD=.97) and 3 (M=2.62; SD=1.20). As item 15 is a reversed-coded item, this indicates that only 7% of the participants do not enjoy reading texts with visuals, while 54% of them enjoy reading them. Surprising as it may seem, 50% of them (M=2.62; SD=1.20) stated that they did not usually read comics, and 26.92% were neutral. Thus, only 23.18% were familiar with such materials. These findings showed that a great majority of the students did not read any comics at all.

Table 2. *Descriptive statistics for participants' perception of reading comics and graphic novels*

Item	Item Description	N	Mean[a]	SD	1	2	3	4	5
3	I usually read comics.	25	2.62	1.20	3	10	7	2	3
6	I can easily pick up meanings illustrated by visuals.	25	3.58	0.95	0	2	7	13	3

7	I like studying texts with visuals.	25	3.69	1.16	1	0	10	6	8
15	I don't enjoy reading texts with visuals.	26	2.22	0.97	7	7	10	2	0
18	Literary texts/stories/ novels would be more appealing with pictures/ graphics.	26	3.59	1.25	0	6	4	8	8
19	I would like to read a graphic novel instead of a plain literary novel.	26	3.33	1.14	2	1	11	8	4
20	Graphic novels enhance students' critical awareness.	26	3.63	0.93	0	1	9	12	4
24	I can diagnose the literary meanings of words with / in visuals.	26	3.41	0.84	0	2	10	13	1
28	I can find out the literary meanings in visuals.	26	3.63	0.88	0	0	11	11	4
29	Reading a novel illustrated by pictures/graphics sounds fun.	26	3.67	1.27	3	0	3	14	6
31	Graphic novels may challenge me to think how stories, true and fictive, are told and unfold.	26	3.22	0.89	1	1	14	9	1
33	Illustrations in a graphic novel help me remember the events and details in a literary text.	26	3.85	0.95	0	0	8	11	7
34	I like associating pictures with the dialogues in a text.	26	3.35	0.98	0	3	11	8	3

[a] *Means are based on a 5-point scale: 1, Strongly agree; 2, Agree; 3 Neither agree nor disagree; 4, Disagree; 5, Strongly disagree.*

As for the familiarity with comics and graphic novels, the results of descriptive analysis revealed greater discrepancy among the participants. The results, as shown in Table 3, demonstrated that the highest mean score (M=3.59; SD=.89) was ascribed to item 32 (a reverse-coded item), suggesting that nearly seven in ten (61.53%) of the participants were not familiar with graphic novels, while only 3.84% were familiar with those novels. In contrast, the lowest mean score (M=1.19; SD=.48) was observed in item 12. None of the participants agreed with the statement and 96.16% of the students said that they had not had the opportunity to read the Pulitzer-prize winning holocaust narrative "Maus".

Table 3. *Descriptive statistics for familiarity with comics and graphic novels*

Item	Item Description	N	Mean[a]	SD	1	2	3	4	5
4	I know that graphic novels show "tolerance and respect for other people and cultures."	26	3.04	0.98	2	1	17	4	2
5	I know the difference between comics and graphic novels.	26	2.37	1.08	7	5	10	4	0
10	I know what "manga" means.	26	2.89	1.67	8	4	2	5	7
12	I've read the Pulitzer-prize winning holocaust narrative "Maus".	26	1.19	0.48	22	3	1	0	0
17	I know that graphic novels are about issues such as racism, war, poverty, and gender rights.	26	2.89	1.22	2	8	9	3	4
22	I've seen a graphic novel.	26	2.85	1.35	5	5	6	7	3
23	I can name and suggest some famous graphic novels.	26	2.07	1.21	11	7	2	6	0
32	I'm not familiar with graphic novels.	26	3.59	0.89	0	1	9	13	3
35	I've never read a graphic novel.	26	3.15	1.23	1	7	8	5	5

[a] *Means are based on a 5-point scale: 1, Strongly agree; 2, Agree; 3 Neither agree nor disagree; 4, Disagree; 5, Strongly disagree.*

Given the results of descriptive analyses regarding the participants' perceptions of the three factors examined in the study, i.e., approach towards reading literary texts , reading comics and graphic novels, and familiarity with comics and graphic novels, it can be concluded that the students had positive attitudes towards reading in general. They believed that reading is central for language learning as it shapes their knowledge, way of thinking and appreciation of the world. On the other hand, it is quite obvious that a great majority of them were not familiar with graphic novels. However, the results showed that they were willing to experience one.

The results of qualitative data analysis indicated that the majority of the participants enjoyed reading the graphic novel version of *Macbeth*, believed in its advantages and were willing to experience a graphic novel again. Before introducing the graphic novel, a large number (51.54%) of students stated that they were not familiar with Graphic Novels and 9 students (34.62%) were neutral. After their experience with *Macbeth,* however, a great majority of students perceived graphic novels as entertaining and beneficial in terms of understanding the plot, characters, setting and helping them to imagine and remember the story. The interview results showed that the students had become familiar with the graphic novels and also believed that the use of graphic novels would help them better understand literary devices.

To compare the performance of the students, both control and experimental groups, in dimensions of reading the graphic novel and plain text of the play *Macbeth*, a post-test was administered. The results of t-test revealed significant differences between experimental (M=7.42; SD=1.41) and control (M=6.24; SD=1.24) groups in their *knowledge of symbolic meaning*, $t(54)=2.309$,$p=0.025$,$p<0.05$, *knowledge of setting*, experimental group (M=8.04; SD=.916) and control group (M=5.47; SD=.973), $t(54)=6.194$, $p=0.000$,$p<0.05$, *understanding of foreshadowing*, experimental group (M=8.08; SD=.744) and control group (M=6.87; SD=.937), t (54) =5.294, $p=0.000$,$p<0.05$, *understanding of inference*, experimental group (M=7.62; SD=.941) and control group (M=6.53; SD=1.07, $t(54)$ =3.979, $p=0.000$,$p<0.05$, and finally in *vocabulary skills*, experimental group (M=9.35; SD=1.04) and control group (M=7.20; SD=2.88, $t(38.670)=5.227$, $p=0.000$,$p<0.05$. However, no significant difference was found between experimental and control groups with respect to their *comprehension skills*, $t(54)=1.31$, $p=0.195$, $p>0.05$, *understanding of quotations*, $t(54)$ =1.122, $p=0.267$, $p>0.05$, *compare/contrast skills*, $t(54)$ =-0.194, $p=0.847$, $p>0.05$, *cause and effect skills*, $t(54)$ =-1.731, $p=0.890$, $p>0.05$, and *understanding of concept*, $t(54)$ =1.109, $p=0.272$, $p>0.05$ (Table 4).

Table 4. *Comparison of experimental and control groups' performance in dimensions of reading graphic novel*

Areas of EFL	Groups	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
Knowledge of Symbolic Meaning	Experimental	26	7.42	1.41	2.309	54	0.025
	Control	30	6.24	1.24			
Knowledge of Setting	Experimental	26	8.04	.91	6.194	54	0.000
	Control	30	5.47	.97			
Understanding of Foreshadowing	Experimental	26	8.08	.74	5.294	54	0.000
	Control	30	6.87	.93			
Understanding of Inference	Experimental	26	7.62	.94	3.979	54	0.000
	Control	30	6.53	1.07			
Vocabulary Skills	Experimental	26	9.35	1.04	6.255	39.700	0.000
	Control	30	7.20	2.88			
Comprehension Skills	Experimental	26	7.85	.92	1.131	54	0.195
	Control	30	7.53	.86			
Understanding of Quotations	Experimental	26	7.23	1.24	1.122	54	0.267
	Control	30	6.90	.96			
Compare/Contrast Skills	Experimental	26	7.38	1.09	-0.194	54	0.847
	Control	30	7.43	.77			
Cause and Effect Skills	Experimental	26	7.31	1.12	-1.731	54	0.890
	Control	30	7.77	.85			
Understanding of Concept	Experimental	26	7.46	.85	1.109	54	0.272
	Control	30	7.23	.67			

*Significant at 0.05 level

The results, as determined by t-test, indicated that there was statistically significant differences, $t(54)=3.379$, $p=0.001$, $p<0.05$, between experimental (M=28.73; SD=5.43) and control (M=26.43; SD=4.92) groups in the role of graphic novels in EFL. By the same token, the results revealed a significant difference, t (54) =4.810, $p=0.000$, $p<0.05$, between experimental (M=23.54; SD=2.76) and control (M=19.93; SD=2.83) groups in relation to the role of literary graphic novels in foreign language teaching. Likewise, the results demonstrated that there was a significant difference, t (54) =4.840,

p=0.000, p<0.05, between critical thinking skills and literary devices of experimental group (M=23.54; SD=2.76) and critical thinking skills and literary devices of control group (M=23.54; SD=2.76). Also, a significant difference, t (38.670) =5.227, p=0.000, p<0.05, was found between vocabulary learning of experimental group (M=8.35; SD=.84) control group (M=6.10; SD=2.17). The results of participants' overall performance indicated that there was a significant difference between experimental group (MD=76.73, SD=8.43) and the control group (M=69.43, SD=7.72), suggesting that the experimental group outperformed control group in reading the Graphic Novel Macbeth and performing related tasks. However, the findings of the t-test showed no significant difference, t (54) =0.350, p=0.365, p>0.05, between reading comprehension and writing skills of experimental and those of control group.

Table 5. *The Role of graphic novels in EFL*

Variables	Groups	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
The Role of Graphic Novels in EFL	Experimental	26	28.73	5.43	5.379	54	0.001
	Control	30	26.43	4.92			
The Role of Literary Graphic Novels in EFL	Experimental	26	23.54	2.76	4.810	54	0.000
	Control	30	19.93	2.83			
The Role of Graphic Novels in Reading / Writing	Experimental	26	27.23	4.51	0.350	54	0.365
	Control	30	36.87	3.34			
The Role of Graphic Novels in critical thinking / literary devices	Experimental	26	27.23	4.51	4.840	54	0.000
	Control	30	26.47	3.71			
The Role of Graphic Novels in Vocabulary Skills	Experimental	26	8.35	.84	5.227	38.670	0.000
	Control	30	6.10	2.17			
Overall Achievement in Reading Graphic Novels	Experimental	26	76.73	8.43	3.379	54	0.001
	Control	30	69.43	7.72			

*Significant at 0.05 level

Drawing upon the statistical analyses of the post-test data and the results of analyses regarding the role of graphic novels in various areas of foreign language teaching and learning it can be concluded that:

- The graphic novel played a significant role in understanding 1) literature such as symbol, setting and foreshadowing, 2) inference, and 3) vocabulary.
- The graphic novel did not play a significant role in answering comprehension questions, discussing quotations, analyzing compare/contrast or cause/ effect relationships. In other words, the graphic novel did not play a significant role in empowering reading and writing skills. However, the scores in these areas proved to be successful as well.
- The findings also revealed that the use of graphic novel was overall effective in foreign language teaching.
- The findings showed that the literary graphic novel *Macbeth* was also effective in learning English as a foreign language.
- The results regarding critical thinking skills and literary devices conveyed that the graphic novel played a significant role in teaching English as a foreign language.
- The results showed the undeniable role of the graphic novel in vocabulary learning.
- When considering all the outcomes altogether, one simple result of significance can be deduced. The role of the graphic novel in teaching English as a foreign language is the *motivation* that it provides for the students. The motivation brought about by recognizing and understanding Graphic Novels made learning possible for all the students.

There is a strong body of evidence in the literature (Tuncer, 1993; Chun and Plass 1997; Fiske, 1999; Ruggieri, 2002; Schwarz, 2002; Krashen, 2004c; Penella, 2008; Callahan, 2009, Jones, 2010; Frey, 2010) that suggests that the use of graphic novels rather than the plain texts has the potential to contribute, to a large extent, to foreign language teaching and learning. Tuncer's (1993) study, for instance, unfolded the reasons why children favour reading graphic novels. The present study also revealed that the participants developed positive feelings regarding graphic novels and showed their willingness to read even more.

Moreover, the findings showed higher scores because they thought illustrations to be useful in the retrieval process. In the same vein, Chun and Plass (1997) explained that readers of books could retrieve and visualize words or produce definitions easily when they remembered a corresponding visual retrieval clue such as pictures. In addition, Fiske's (1999) report points out that texts enriched with art and culture engage students. The same effect could be seen in the current study as well since the students felt highly motivated during the reading classes and shared their opinions during the interview.

The results of the present study revealed that graphic novels played a significant role in the enhancement of participants' critical thinking skills in the English classroom since they scored quite high in questions requiring critical thinking. It was also found, during the interview process, that illustrations had helped them a lot in developing critical thinking among participants. By the same token, Ruggieri (2002) showed that students could go beyond ordinary reasoning, suggesting that the use of graphic novels improved critical thinking skills among students.

The findings also indicated that through the study of graphic novels, the participants could gain a good understanding of themes and characterization. The importance of setting in terms of historical background was also highlighted by the participants. Not only did the post-test scores indicate the students' knowledge on these issues, but also their self-report and their responses during the interview showed a similar attitude. Likewise, Schwarz (2002) showed that reading graphic novels provided the opportunity to have fruitful speaking classes about social issues, culture and human life in general.

The findings of this study did not reveal any relationship between graphic novels and writing skills. In other words, after weeks of treatment, the results showed no instances of improvement in participants' writing skills, whereas some other studies (Frey and Fisher, 2004) showed that graphic novels improved writing skills. Although the current study did not show a significant differences in the cause-effect (experimental group (M=7.31); control group (M=7.77) or compare-contrast (experimental group (M=7,38, control group (M=7,43)) type of writing styles, the scores were high enough to be accepted as satisfying since the means were very close.

Krashen (2004c) suggests that students should read graphic novels as they reduce the affective filters and promote pleasure in learning that results in students becoming autonomous acquirers. The current study also demonstrated that students became motivated and willing to participate in the lessons. Penella (2008) argues that graphic novels help students accomplish success in vocabulary by using images to support words. She further states that students may derive meanings of unfamiliar words, through pictures associated with that particular panel. The present study (post-test) also showed that the students were more successful in the vocabulary part. Likewise, the results of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis indicated that the students felt more comfortable in learning vocabulary as the pictures functioned as a scaffolding.

The participants of the present study rated more positively in the literary types of questions. Similarly, Callahan (2009) showed that 64% of the teachers have positive attitudes towards using graphic novels in English classes. Frey (2010) suggests that graphic novels promote students' understanding of literary devices and thus aids writing. Finally, Jones (2010) found that contextual

illustrations and context help students' schema formation and general comprehension of text. This finding can be supported by the present study as it also suggests that the participants developed a better understanding and skill to infer implications of the text.

To sum up, this study showed that the graphic novel study was a success. The graphic novel played an important role in increasing reading motivation by stimulating visual reading. It also increased participation in the reading classes as the students were more involved in literature discussions and able to function independently during the reading of *Macbeth*. Due to the visual clues, the students' motivation increased and resulted in a better understanding and appreciation of literature. As a consequence, the students' reading stamina improved and they became more autonomous readers. On the whole, language is related to words and since it is believed that a picture is worth a thousand words and the use of graphic novels brought along many benefits, graphic novels should be considered as a useful material in the foreign language teaching process and thus be implemented in the syllabi of similar schools.

5. Conclusions and Suggestions

The purpose of this study was to explore the role of graphic novels in English language teaching. The target population was the learners of TED Ankara College Foundation Private High. The findings of the study revealed that there was a significant difference of achievement in reading graphic novels between the control and experimental group. Although it was found that graphic novels had a positive role in learning the target language in general, it was also seen that they play an important role in shaping one's language. The results further revealed that the students showed more success in the interpretation of the literary devices and techniques. The students that used the graphic novel could easily recognize the foreshadowing, symbolic language, comment on the setting and infer deeper meaning. Thus, graphic novels should be implemented as literary reading materials and teachers can be urged to prepare more materials on literature. Although the effects of the traditional way of teaching prose and using literary texts cannot be surely denied, the introduction of graphic novel and its implementation has brought an undebatable effect as well.

Graphic novels foster students' motivation to a great extent. They can also easily discourage the student in reading when a graphic novel does not meet a certain criteria. The teacher should be careful in choosing the graphic novel as it must be organized, easy to follow, not too long, and appeal to the age and level of the students. The graphic novel in this study motivated the students to a great extent and, thus, a significant difference between the control group and experimental group could be seen. The lower scores in the control group happened just because the students were reluctant in reading the plain text of the play. Furthermore, the themes and concepts of both reading texts and graphic novels should meet the students' intellectual maturity; otherwise, the students would get lost in all the words or pictures and would end up having not learned or benefitted at all. Last but not least, graphic novels can be taught in foreign language teaching departments at universities, and pre-service teacher trainees can be informed about the use of graphic novels.

This research was administrated in a private high school in Turkey. Further studies in state schools, especially on students with less proficiency in English might provide more useful insights. Instead of using a literary graphic novel, another type of graphic novel can also be used. *Macbeth's* level was very challenging as it was exposed in Shakespearean language. Thus, simpler language style could be used instead. A graphic novel with more illustrations, less text or graphic novels about certain historical issues are examples among a long list of variety future researchers can conduct studies on. Finally, with smaller groups graphic novel reading hours could be implemented during elective courses chosen only by volunteers with high motivation. Students will have the opportunity to do the reading both at home and

in class and then discuss the graphic novels with their peers with less guidance from the teacher. In that sense a study of the effect on voluntarily reading with graphic novels can be carried out.

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Çizgi Romanlar: İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretiminde alternatif bir yaklaşım

Öz

Bu çalışma TED Ankara Koleji Vakfı Özel Lisesi Uluslararası Bakalorya öğrencileri (15-16 yaş) için İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretiminde çizgi romanların rolünü inceleyen bir araştırmanın bulgularını sunmaktadır. Daha önce herhangi bir çizgi roman çalışması yapmayan 10uncu sınıf öğrencileri "Macbeth" oyununu çeşitli sınıf içi etkinliklerle çalışmak üzere kontrol ve deney grupları olarak rastgele seçilmişlerdir. Katılımcılardan veri toplamak amacıyla anket, yarı yapılandırılmış mülakat ve başarı testi (son test) kullanılmıştır. Kontrol grubu ve deney grubu bulguları çizgi romanların (i) sembol, uzam ve izlek gibi anlatım yöntemlerini anlama, (ii) çıkarım yapma ve (iii) kelime bilgisi gibi alanlarda önemli farklılıklar göstermiştir. Fakat okuduğunu anlama etkinliklerinde, alıntıları tartışmada, karşılaştırma ve neden-sonuç ilişkilerinin analizinde önemli farklılıklar görülmemiştir. Ayrıca, çizgi romanların kritik düşünme ve anlatım yöntemleri analiz becerisini ve kelime bilgilerini önemli ölçüde etkilediği ve şekillendirdiği bulunmuştur. Bu çalışma çizgi romanların öğrencilerin görsel duyusuna hitap etmesi ve geleneksel edebi eserlerle karşılaştırıldığında daha verimli olduğunu ve bu romanların ilgili okul müfredatlarıyla bütünleştirilebileceğini göstermektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Çizgi roman, edebi eserler, eleştirel düşünme, İngilizce öğretimi, motivasyon

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Teachers of Turkish grammar in the eyes of high school students[1]

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Abstract

This study sought to understand how students in Turkish grammar classes at three state high schools in Turkey perceive their teachers and the classroom interaction. A total of 142 students were asked to form metaphorical expressions to describe their teachers. A total of 124 metaphors were produced, an examination of which revealed that almost half of the students had fairly negative perceptions of their teachers. Teachers were also described to render roles of a teacher centred/fronted position. With metaphors mostly denoting passive roles for students and control oriented classroom management strategies for teachers, this study concludes that it may be conductive if teachers could revise their classroom management strategies.

Keywords: Metaphors; classroom interaction; classroom management; concept of teacher; discipline; Turkish classes

1. Introduction

Teachers are often reported to hold a number of different roles within the classroom (Harmer, 2007). Such roles often reflect their approach to in-class teacher-student interaction as well as classroom and learning management (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Further, teachers' dominant role and their interaction with students are likely to impact the classroom climate (Mainhard, Brekelmans, Wubbels, 2011), contributing to the nature of student-student interaction as well as students' psychological development (Farmer, McAuliffe-Lines, & Hamm, 2011).

Teachers can take a number of different roles. Harmer (2007, pp. 107-118), for example, summarizes these as teacher as (1) *controller*; (2) *prompter*; (3) *participant*; (4) *resource*; and (5) *tutor*. He asserts that effective teachers need to be able to switch from one role to another depending on the requirements of the context and activities being done in the classroom. *Controller* teacher is someone who prefers to take control of everything that goes on in the classroom. Such a teacher prefers a teacher-fronted class where most of speaking and thus interaction takes place in a teacher-student manner. Transmission of knowledge is of paramount importance. *Prompter* teacher does not take the full charge but prefers to encourage students to take initiative and control. Student-teacher, student-student interactions are encouraged. *Participant* teacher is fully involved in the learning process and acts as a natural member of the group who gives up the authority for greater student involvement. *Resource* teacher often acts as a provider as such a teacher tends to give away all the information needed for successful completion of

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[1] The data used in this study were initially collected by the second author. The first author reanalyzed and reinterpreted the data for this paper.

educational tasks or activities. *Tutor* teacher is one who combines the roles of prompter and resource to provide students with guidance and establish some kind of learner autonomy.

Roles preferred by teachers naturally reflect their philosophy of teaching and their approach to classroom and learning management (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). An understanding of such an attitude can shed light at least upon some parts of teacher cognition. One way of learning how one perceives certain concepts is resorting to metaphors, which are often defined as imaginative expressions of a perspective to elucidate and explain an abstract or complex concept (Boost Rom, 1998). Metaphors are especially helpful to verbalize one's mental representations in an indirect manner as one may not always be equipped with "the language" to express their feelings or may feel unwilling to do so directly (Visser-Wijnveena, Van Driela, Van der Rijsta, Verloopa & Visserb, 2009). To this end, metaphors are especially versatile as they assist to express something in the form of another (Lakoff & Johnson 1980). Therefore, metaphors can be helpful tools to elicit one's ideas on matters that are difficult to measure directly. Saban (2004, pp. 317-618) puts this very clearly when he asserts "if we (teacher educators) examine metaphors of teaching, we might be able to gain a good understanding of how teachers see themselves, their teachers, and their work..."

A number of studies have so far been conducted on teacher metaphors (e.g. Mahlios & Maxson, 1998; Gurney, 1995; Saban, 2004). As rich as they can be, metaphors as qualitative tools can present rich findings that may not be readily comparable across different studies. Alger (2009), to do the service, summarizes categories of teacher roles as identified in some teacher metaphor studies. She groups teacher metaphors under the headings of *guiding, nurturing, moulding, transmitting, providing tools,* and *engaging in the community.*

Of teacher roles, some may be more popular than others. Saban (2004), for example, in the Turkish context found that most frequently produced metaphors portrayed teachers as active shapers/producers/moulders. He reports that the most frequently articulated metaphors were *gardener, water, sun, sculptor*, and *farmer*, all reflecting a dominant and resourceful disposition of the teacher. He then groups teacher metaphors as teacher as a *source of information* (e.g. sun, book, seed, etc.); *shaper* (e.g. baker, cook, sculptor, architect, etc.); *healer/remedy* (e.g. doctor, psychologist); *entertainer* (e.g. theatre player); *supporter of development* (e.g. farmer, gardener, soil, parent, harbour, etc.); and *guide* (e.g. compass, bridge, coach, etc.). Of these, metaphors relating to teacher as a source of information, shaper, and supporter of development took up an impressive 85% of all metaphors produced. Similar results were also reported in a following study by Saban and his associates (Saban et al. 2006) with a larger sample of pre-service teachers, only refining existing ones and adding new categories. These were teacher as *super authority* (e.g. brain, captain, shepherd, etc.); *agent of change* (e.g. designer, script writer); *role model* (e.g. dedicated spirit, parent etc.); and *co-operator/leader* (e.g. conductor, coach, guide, etc.).

Ideal they may be, perceived teacher roles by teachers themselves may not always match what actually happens in the classroom. This is because teachers' perception of their roles may change overtime or they may not always teach as they would like to (Alger, 2009). This is of significance as the teacher's degree of engagement can exert a substantial influence on what happens during classroom activities as well as on student-student and student-teacher relations (Farmer et al., 2011). Therefore, data from real classroom could be informative to see what actually happens and how *teacher,* being one of the key actors in the classroom, is actually perceived by students. This is especially important as studies into teacher metaphors generally explored the phenomenon mostly from teachers' perspective. Metaphors are often referred to understand a developing (e.g. Saban, 2004), persisting, or changing teacher identity (see Alger, 2009 for a summary).

Teacher as a significant figure in the classroom is very likely to influence classroom climate (Mainhard, Brekelmans, & Wubbels, 2011) and very well be perceived and described by learners as something teachers themselves believe they are not. However, studies into students' conceptions of teachers are very limited ((Nikitina & Fruoka, 2008). It is highly probable that such studies may reveal contradicting metaphors (Oxford, Barcelos, Harrington, Lavine, Saleh, & Longhini, 1998) to those produced in teachers' self-conceptions of themselves (e.g. Mahlios & Maxson, 1998; Gurney, 1995; Saban, 2004; 2006).

Oxford and her associates (1998) report that, in one of their categories (e.g. moulding), for example, teacher is likened to a social engineer whereby he/she can be seen as a *hanging judge* or *mind and behaviour controller*. In a similar vein, Oktay and Vancı-Osam (2013) report that teachers and students preferred different metaphors as their primary metaphors for the concept of teacher. Supporting Oxford et al.'s contention, their data also revealed that no teachers chose the metaphors of teacher as *a judge* or teacher as a *puppeteer* to avoid any authority connotation while these were favoured by some students. Further and even worse, students' metaphors may portray teachers as radically negative figures. Karadağ and Gültekin (2012), for example in the Turkish context, found that, although majority of metaphors represented a positive image of teachers (e.g. teacher as mother/father), primary students also produced some extremely unfavourable teacher metaphors (e.g. *angel of death, bug*, and *beating machine*), implying that undesired teacher-student interactions and negative perceptions of teachers could take place. Therefore studies of students' metaphors concerning the concept of teacher within or beyond the classroom can generate useful information as to how students perceive what happens in the classroom. With scarce studies (Nikitina & Fruoka, 1998) of students' perspectives, this is especially important for the teacher who is the leader of classroom interaction and climate (Harmer, 2007). There is room for further research into how the teacher is perceived by the learner. As Oxford et al. (1998, p. 5) quite rightly maintain "[i]dentifying and fully understanding these contrasting views can heighten “perspective-consciousness”, increase tolerance and understanding, and make the ... classroom a more welcoming environment for students and teachers alike."

This study, then, with limited studies of students' metaphors of teachers available in the literature and the possibility of contradiction between students' and teachers' conception of the concept of the teacher, aims to contribute to our understanding of how teachers are portrayed within the classroom by students from a Turkish context. To do this, the following research question was formulated:

How are teachers perceived by their students in Turkish grammar classes?

2. Method

This study aimed to understand classroom interaction and teacher roles as perceived by a group of high school students in Turkish grammar classes. The study also intended to explore the nature of classroom climate and interaction with reference to students' metaphors of the concept of teacher. Qualitative in nature, this study was conducted through a survey instrument which included open ended questions. What follows is a description of the research methodology pursued in the study.

2.1. Participants and Setting

This study was conducted in three state high schools in a North-western costal city in Turkey. 142 students responded to a survey instrument with some open ended questions. Of these students, 29 were English preparatory year students, 34 were in Grade 9, 68 were in Grade 10 and 11 were in their final year at high school.

Teaching of Turkish grammar, according to the curriculum for Turkish courses (MEB, 2006; 2009), is mostly done during the first eight grades, which continues into Turkish language and Turkish literature

courses (MEB, 2011). In these later classes, mostly previously learned topics are reinforced within limited number of hours, usually two hours weekly. Of primary concern for this study are these later classes. As these do not primarily aim at teaching new topics but strengthen previously learned subjects, how teaching is done and how what happens in the classroom is perceived by students constitute the main focus of the study.

2.2. Instrument

A survey instrument was designed for this study. Four open ended questions sought how students perceive themselves, their teachers, their class and materials used for the class. The participants were asked to complete the following prompter sentences:

Please try to find something that you, your Turkish teacher, your Turkish class, and the materials used in your Turkish bear a resemblance to:

In the Turkish grammar class, I am like a.....

In the Turkish grammar class, my teacher is like a.....

The Turkish grammar class itself is like a.....

The material used in the Turkish grammar class is like a.....

2.3. Data Analysis

Students' metaphors were examined in relation to one another to better understand the underlying message. For the research purposes in this study, only teacher metaphors were examined. To verify the underlying construct in teacher metaphors, metaphors generated for other components were also referred to. For example, a combination of student (flower), teacher (gardener), class (garden), and the course book (water) can be interpreted as teacher being perceived as somebody who is giving care, nurturing, and possibly helping the growth of students. At an adverse angle, a combination of student (sheep), teacher (shepherd), class (sheep herding), and the class (pasture) clearly denotes an authoritarian teacher, teacher fronted class and more of classroom control rather than learning management and thus pointing to a teacher as a model of super power.

Those metaphors without clear reference to other components were excluded from the corpus data as they were not possible to make any sense of. Such meaningful combinations, then, represent the nature of classroom interaction by referring to similar interactions among different components of a scenario (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980) and thus remedying possible lack of necessary language or hesitations about expressing feelings and opinions overtly (Visser-Wijnveena, 2009).

Qualitative and subjective in nature, analysis of metaphors was undertaken through a constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 2009), initially identifying anchors followed by forming concepts and categories. After various cycles of constant comparison of thematic units (sets of class, teacher, student and course-book metaphors) and instances of metaphors in each set, common concepts were identified, which were then clustered into broader categories. Further, each metaphor was assessed as to whether it bears a negative or positive connotation.

Inter-coder reliability was conducted by getting the thematic metaphor units recoded by an independent expert. A 90% agreement was established between the two coders as to the nature of interaction depicted in the metaphor combinations and whether this relationship denotes a positive or negative teacher-student interaction and/or teacher role.

3. Results

Of 142 participants, 124 students generated a form of teacher metaphor that can be interpreted within a meaningful unit. These metaphors were later categorized into different thematic categories which appeared to assign different roles to the teacher and describing various scenarios in the classroom climate. These categories were teacher as a 1) *source of fear and anxiety*; 2) *source and transmitter of knowledge*; 3) *super authority*; 4) *co-operator, leader and guide*; 5) *care giver, shaper, and moulder*; 6) *figure of despise*; 7) *role model and engaging in the society*; and 8) *entertainer*. Some of these metaphor categories clearly revealed a negative perception of the teacher while, of course, there were also some positive metaphor groups. Table 1 below presents frequency counts in a descending order for clarity.

Table 1. Students' metaphors concerning the concept of teacher of their Turkish grammar class and their connotations

Metaphor category	# of metaphors	% of the total	-a	+b
A source of fear and anxiety	29	23.4	29	0
Source of knowledge	21	16.9	1	20
Super authority	20	16.1	17	3
Co-operator, leader, and guide	15	12.1	0	15
Care giver, shaper, and moulder	14	11.3	0	14
A figure of despise	13	10.5	13	0
Role model	7	5.65	0	7
Entertainer	5	4.03	0	5
TOTAL	124	100	48.4%	52.6%

a: number of metaphors with **negative** connotation

b: number of metaphors with **positive** connotation

A closer examination of these metaphor categories highlights that some categories were quintessentially negative in nature. Typically, teacher as a source of fear and anxiety, a super authority, and a figure of despise constituted characteristically negative clusters of metaphors. Categories with negative connotations will be examined first as the largest group of metaphors in this study they appear to attach an explicit negative connotation to the concept of teacher.

Firstly, the largest group of metaphors concerned the perception of *teacher as a source of fear and anxiety*. A total of 29/124 different teacher metaphors were placed in this group taking up almost a quarter of all teacher metaphors (23.4%). Expectedly, all metaphors were negative in nature and conveyed some degree of dismay and apprehension sourcing from the teacher. Students interestingly described their teachers as something/somebody they are afraid of or feel anxious about, highlighting a negative perception of their Turkish teacher. Most frequently generated metaphors in this group included *monster (4), witch (3),* and *judge (3).* others were *chilli pepper (1), fisherman (1), big white shark (1), executioner/hangman (1), jackal (1), big shout (1), sea (1), submarine (1), Gargamel, an antagonist character in the Smurfs cartoon (1), torturer of the chamber (1), biter (1), foreign language speaker (1), murderer (1), punisher (1), fighter (1), pistol (1), vampire (1), cat (1), prison warden (1).* In almost all these representations, teacher was portrayed as somebody with a power he/she is prepared to use to punish students. Of these metaphors, executioner (hangman) was the harshest of all.

Many of the metaphors in this group are self-explaining in nature and disclose the negative meaning they are loaded with while some are not as such explicit. Teacher metaphors, for example, such as teacher as a *judge*, a *fisherman*, and a *foreign language speaker* do not, at first, sound at all negative. However, when coupled with and interpreted with reference to their accompanying metaphors of the

student in Turkish grammar classes, their negative denotation reveals itself clearly. This is because teacher as a judge metaphor is often associated with and accompanied by student as an innocent convict awaiting his/her verdict; or the fisherman catches the naive fish, and the foreign language speaker speaks a language that students do not understand.

Another negative set of metaphors denoted a sense of disrespect for the teacher as the teacher in this set is often construed as a figure of despise, constituting a negative perception. There were 13/124 such teacher metaphors in this group making up a 10.5% of all metaphors generated by students. These representations highlighted that students do not always recognize their teachers to be of some value and therefore do not respect them. Such metaphors signifying lack of respect included *nothing (1), office stock (1), politician (1), badger (1), bath attendant (1), ingenious (1),* and *flying elephant (1)* while the teacher was described as somebody/something that they dislike as expressed in *alien (1), detonator (1), pompous (1),* and *(someone) who has a thin, pointed moustache (1),* as well as vulnerable objects as in *lamb (1)* and *kid (goat) (1)*. Of these, lamb and kid, at first, may sound positive as their initial connotation involves innocence of young animals. However, their accompanying student metaphors (i.e. *fox* and *jackal* respectively) depict the teacher as defenceless against possible menace from the student, denoting a possible hostile and undesired relationship between the two parties within the classroom.

A third group of teacher metaphors denoted teacher as possessing *super authority* and assigned teachers to a role of control and discipline. Most metaphors in this category, too, carried a negative meaning. This group was one of the largest groups of metaphors and held 20/124, almost one sixth of all metaphors (16.1%). Indeed, *Shepherd (9)* was one of the most frequently generated metaphors (cf. gardener in the teacher as a caregiver, shaper and moulder category) and was always accompanied by a student metaphor of a sheep in a herd, clearly signifying a very passive role of students and placing all the power on the teacher. Other metaphors in this category, too, symbolized the explicit power granted to teachers to discipline the class. Metaphors *Apartment block administrator (4), Elevator operator (1), Brain (1), Referee (1), Director (1), Commander (1), Police (1), Boss (1)* all had to do with teachers' efforts and/or power to control the class and discipline students into desired behaviours. However, positive exceptions to these metaphors could be teacher metaphors such as *elevator operator* to assist students in their ascendance to higher levels of knowledge, a *brain* for the body (students), and a *referee* for the game (class) and players (students).

Teacher, in another set of metaphors, was portrayed as a *source and transmitter of knowledge*. Source metaphors clearly displayed close resemblance to entities that are vital for those who are dependent on them, many of which assign a positive role to the teacher and indicate a caring relationship between the two parties. For example, teacher was thought to be *water (4)* and thus a source of life and a *battery* (1) as a supply of energy, signalling an indispensable need for the teacher. There also seemed to be a part/whole or cause and effect relationship between teacher and student metaphors in which the teacher was seen as the whole where he/she was depicted as a *tree* (3) that bears fruits (student), forest (1) that harbours young saplings (students) until they are fully grown trees, and a *rose tree* (1) which blossoms (students). Teacher was also shown in this group as a *walking library (2),* an *articulate book (1),* and a *computer (1)* that stores knowledge. Apart from being a source, the teacher was also cited as a supplier of knowledge in that he/she was thought to be a *narrator (4)*, a *panellist* (1), and a *transmitter* who passes knowledge onto their audience (students) as well as a *salesperson* (1), who tries to market the knowledge. Of these, only the salesperson metaphor seemed to convey a negative denotation as, distant from the whole concept of education, it portrayed the teacher as a cunning marketing figure.

Another category of metaphors noted the teacher as *a co-operator* whom the students work together and seek guidance from. All metaphors in this group were noted to be positive. As such, the teacher in this group was portrayed to be a *lighthouse (2),* a *moon (2),* and a *tourist guide (1)* that helps us navigate our way effectively. The teacher also takes the responsibility for students' development like a *pilot (1)*,

a *driver (1),* and a *naval captain (1).* Further, he/she helps us perform more effectively by showing us how to and organizing the whole conduct in that the teacher is a *trainer (3),* a *director (1),* a *mouse* (computer) *(1), a conductor (1)*, and a *craftsman* (1).

The teacher is responsible for who the students are and their well-fare for he/she also takes up a role of *care giving and shaping and moulding* students for their future. Such a perception of the teacher was evident in yet another positive category of metaphors where the teacher was often presented as a *gardener (9),* which was one of the most frequently produced teacher metaphors (cf. *shepherd* in the teacher as a super authority). The gardener was most often associated with flowers, fruits, and saplings that need to be taken care of. Apart from being a gardener, the teacher can save lives in that he/she is a *lifeguard (1),* also implying a sacred role assigned to teachers. A second concept in this category identified the teacher as shaper and moulder of students. To this score, the teacher is a *pedagogue (1)*, who educates kids, a *cook (1)* who turns raw materials into delicious dishes, a *chisel (1)* that carves the stones, and a *panel beater (1)* who reshapes and repairs dented panels of vehicles.

Another clear and positive role that appeared to be assigned to the teacher was that of an *entertainer*. The teacher was believed to keep the students entertained in the classroom through his/her effective performance. Teacher metaphors in this category included concepts of quality of voice and possibly of compliment and admiration as illustrated in metaphors of *nightingale (1) and singer (1),* and ability to express oneself efficiently as illustrated in metaphors of teacher as an *eloquent speaker (1),* a *presenter (1),* and a *showman (1).*

Finally, the teacher was portrayed to be a role model with a duty of *engaging in the society*. Students thought their teacher was a *close friend (2)* with whom they can share their problems, an *idealist (2),* a *role model (1)*, a *gentleperson (1),* whom they can follow, and *a lawyer (1)* whom they can trust. As is clear from the metaphors in this category, this group, too, consisted of positive metaphors.

4. Discussion

This study sought to understand roles attributed to teachers of Turkish grammar and explore the nature of classroom interaction and climate in these classes through students' metaphors. Findings of the study point to several significant issues in student's perception of their teachers. Firstly, frequency analysis of metaphors shows that almost half of teacher metaphors generated by students were negative. Although the other half of metaphors were positive, observing such high proportions of unfavourable metaphors is of some pedagogic concern.

There were three such negative groups of metaphors, in order of frequency, teacher as a source of fear and anxiety, as a super authority, and as a figure of despise. The second largest group of such metaphors correspond to what Oxford et al. (1998) describe as social order metaphors. Such metaphors highlight a degree of external reinforcement employed by the teacher to shape students into desired forms and represent a form of a teacher-centred approach to classroom and learning management (Alger, 2009), relegating students to a less active role (Harmer, 2007). Further, external force over students in the classroom may contradict with adolescents' preference for autonomy (Emmer & Gerwels, 2006), possibly resulting in characteristically negative interactions and thus unfavourable metaphors.

What is of more serious concern are categories where the teacher was portrayed as a source of fear and anxiety or as a figure of despise. The picture is even more pessimistic when considered that one-third (33.9%) of metaphors described teachers to be frightening or valueless entities. As much as undesirable they might be, such findings are in keeping with what has been reported in the literature where the teacher is sometimes depicted as a hanging judge (Oxford et. al., 1998); a pupeteer (Oktay & Vancı-Osam, 2013) and even an angel of death (Karadağ & Gültekin, 2012).

Teachers' behaviours are very likely to influence the classroom climate as well as students' perception of what is happening in the classroom (Emmer & Grewels, 2006; Mainhard, Brekelmans, & Wubbels, 2011). Teachers sometimes prefer to take on a role of controlling the classroom (Harmer, 2001). Further, the class size can be a factor on perception of students' of what is happening in the classroom (Shamim, 1996). Teachers' frustration for control of discipline can aggravate when the class size increases, which is often the case in Turkish high school system with a mean number of 31 students inclusive of all types of schools, with classes at state schools accommodating more students than classes at private schools (MEB, 2012). It is therefore possible that teachers, concerned with maintaining classroom control, may be resorting to strict acts of coercive management behaviours, which may transform into efforts of pure classroom management, establishment of discipline and punishment of misbehaviours in the classroom (Lewis, 2001). This may have reflected in negative metaphorical illustrations of the teacher of participants of this study.

A second notable observation in this study concerned teacher-centeredness/frontedness highlighted in students' teacher metaphors. Metaphor groups identified in this study resonate with those found in the literature (e.g. Saban, 2004; Alger, 2009). Those negative categories discussed above were illustrations of how teachers were dominant figures in the classroom striving to establish their authority or control the class discipline. Other categories also involved a very teacher-centred teacher outlook and thus teacher-fronted classroom interaction. Roles assigned to the teacher by students in categories teacher as a source and transmitter of knowledge, super authority, and care giver, shaper, and moulder all denoted a very active teacher and passive students. Alger (2009), quite rightly classifies such metaphor categories as teacher-centred metaphors. Concepts of nurturing, moulding, transmission of knowledge, figure of authority all bear overly emphasized status of teachers in the learning context. This may be due to several reasons. Firstly, large class sizes may be entailing an active role for the teacher (Shamim, 1996). This may result in a forced choice of a relatively easily manageable teacher role in the classroom, which lends itself as a teacher-fronted classroom. Secondly and combined with the first reason, traditionally teachers tend to take on an active role while reserving a more receptive role for the learners (Harmer, 2001), thus often preferring a lecture style of teaching. Such a preference may limit teacher-student interaction and may exert a negative impact on the employment of other possible alternatives of classroom interaction. Finally, teachers are highly respected in oriental cultures (Kılınç, Watt, & Richardson, 2012) and are often nominated by the learners themselves as the main cause of their achievement or failure in many attribution studies (e.g. Gobel & Mori, 2007; Peacock, 2010; Mori, Gobel, Thepsiri & Pojanapunya, 2010; Erten & Burden, 2014), placing most of the credit or responsibility for what is happening in the classroom. This may be due to a combination of above reasons for a teacher-centred classroom, which seems to place the teacher on a more central role in the classroom while relegating the student to more peripheral or passive position during the course of Turkish grammar classes.

5. Conclusions and implications

This study sought to understand teacher roles and the nature of classroom interaction through student metaphors of the concept of teacher in Turkish grammar classes at high schools in Turkey. Before making any conclusions, it needs to be noted that this was a small scale study, findings of which cannot readily be generalized to the population. However, findings that are in keeping with the relevant literature allow the researchers to conclude that teachers in Turkish grammar classes are not always, unfortunately, perceived as positive classroom figures. They are likely to get engaged in acts of coercive classroom management in search of better classroom control, which in turn may be perceived as sources of discomfort in the classroom. The researchers also feel at the liberty to conclude that student metaphors point to highly teacher-centred/fronted Turkish grammar classes.

There are several pedagogical implications of this study. Firstly, the study calls for more investment in developing better classroom management strategies on teachers' part. Instead of resorting to acts of coercive discipline, they might want to use more classroom discussion of good behaviour and or take on more student-centred teacher roles. One of the responsibilities of classroom teachers is to help students to develop a comfortable environment and sense of belonging (Williams and Burden, 1997). Therefore strategies that will help them to get engaged more with the classroom community can also be conducive to learning among students. Secondly, the class size may need to be revised as they are likely to negatively affect classroom climate and therefore management of learning and class. Finally, studies into student metaphors of teacher and related concepts can be informative. Larger scale studies linking such metaphorical description to achievement levels of students can help us better understand the relationship between such factors and achievement as well as students' well-being in the classroom.

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Lise öğrencilerinin gözüyle Türkçe dilbilgisi öğretmenleri

Öz

Bu çalışma lise öğrencilerinin Türkçe dilbilgisi öğretmenlerine ve sınıf içi etkileşimin doğasına ilişkin algılarını araştırmayı hedeflemektedir. Toplam 142 öğrenciden öğretmenlerini tasvir etmek için metafor üretmeleri istenmiştir. Bu öğrenciler toplamda 124 metafor üretmiştir. Bu metaforların içerik analizi öğrencilerin öğretmenleri ile ilgili olarak oldukça olumsuz algıya sahip olduklarını ortaya koymuştur. Öğretmenlerin ayrıca daha çok öğretmen merkezli roller benimsediği gözlemlenmiştir. Metaforlar yoğun olarak öğrencileri daha edilgen rollerde öğretmenleri de daha kontrol odaklı sınıf yönetimi stratejilerini benimsemiş olarak betimlediğinden bu çalışma öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetim stratejilerini gözden geçirmeleri gerektiği sonucuna varmıştır.

Anahtar sözcükler: metafor; sınıf etkileşimi; sınıf yönetimi; öğretmen kavramı; disiplin; Türkçe sınıfları

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The Turkish aorist and progressive: Present tense, future tense, or what?

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Abstract

This paper investigates the uses of the aorist and the progressive tenses in spoken Turkish and the extent to which they are used interchangeably. Demo version of Spoken Turkish Corpus was analyzed using EXMARaLDA software. The tokens were divided into the categories of uses. Results indicate that there were a total of 206 tokens of the aorist and 628 occurrence of progressive tense. Assumptions and commitments are the most common uses and they account for the 56% of the uses of the aorist. These functions have indefinite future meaning. Three functions of the progressive, namely progressive (event), progressive (state) and repetitive/habitual, on the other hand, account for 96% of all its uses. Of these, repetitive/habitual is used 19.26% of the times. When interchangeable functions are considered, analysis revealed that 76% of them are expressed in the progressive tense. Results have implications for curriculum and materials development and teaching practices.

Keywords: Turkish language, aorist, progressive tense, corpus studies, spoken Turkish corpus

1. The Aorist

The Turkish language has five simple tenses, as well as additional compound tenses. As in other languages, similar functions may be realized in different tenses and forms in Turkish. Among these tenses, *geniş zaman* may refer to reference points in the past, present, and future. This tense is usually known as the aorist in English, but some refer to it as present tense (e.g., Underhill, 1976, p. 145) or muzari (e.g., Reichenbach, 1947/2005, p. 73). In Turkish, however, the word *geniş* means "wide" or "broad" and is used to denote that the Turkish aorist transcends the boundaries of a time frame. Nakipoğlu-Demiralp (2002) argues that "the Turkish aorist -Ir, as far as its function is concerned, lies on the boundary of tense, aspect and modality. That is, in addition to functioning as a present tense marker, -Ir takes a habitual aspect and an epistemic modal meaning" (p. 137). Likewise, Yavaş (1979) suggests that "the aorist of Turkish indicates aspect or mood more than tense; thus, any attempt to analyze along the lines of a real time line would lead to an inadequate treatment" (p. 41).

The term aorist, as Lewis (2000) explains, comes from Greek grammar and "means 'unbounded' and well describes what the Turks call *geniş zaman* 'the broad tense', which denotes continuing activity" (p. 115). In Turkish grammar, the aorist is characterized by –(X)r, which is used in three different ways. After vowel-stems, -r is added (e.g., *oku-* "to read" becomes *okur*). After monosyllabic consonant-stems, the vowels a/e precede –r (e.g., *yap-* "to do" becomes *yapar*), with the exception of 13 verb stems including *al-, ol-, öl-, bil-, bul-, kal-, gel-, var-, ver-, vur-, dur-, gör-, san-* (Lewis, 2000, p. 116). After

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polysyllabic consonant-stems, the vowels i/ı/u/ü precede –r, according to vowel harmony (e.g., *kullan-* "to use" becomes *kullanır*). Regarding the aorist suffix –r and the vowels before it, Tekin (1995) asserts that "the aorist suffix in Turkic was only –r originally" (p. 176) and the vowels before –r in aorist suffix in Old and Middle Turkic are in fact a relic of the lost stem-final vowels in Proto-Turkic. According to his view, stem final vowel in disyllabic stems in Proto-Turkic was initially lost and later reappeared in the aorist suffix. He also maintains that "many monosyllabic OT verbs lost their older and perhaps original aorist forms in {-Ur} in the 11th century and took the new aorist forms in {-Ar}" (Tekin, 1995, p. 173). On this issue, Johanson (1989) says that "in Old West Oghuz Turkic, as we observe it in Old Anatolian Turkish (OAT) texts, the classes of consonant stems seem to have been reduced to two. It is generally assumed that monosyllabic stems take –A(r) … whereas polysyllabics and a few monosyllabics take –U(r)" (p. 99). He further says that there is a strong similarity with Ancient East Turkic in terms of distribution of vowels with only a small number of verbs taking {–i(r)}. Regarding the development of {–i(r)} class, he says that the class formed as a result of a phonetic centralization creating "phonetic shifts from [u, ü] to [ə]" (Johanson, 1989, p. 100). This centralization phenomenon let to "a tendency towards the modern fourfold harmony system, which manifests itself in the morphophoneme {X}, now written i, ı, u, ü" (Johanson, 1989, p. 101) in Turkish. These linguists' opinions shed light on the development of aorist suffix in affirmative sentences.

Its negative form is rendered differently, however. Unlike other tenses in Turkish, the negative of the aorist does not use the characteristic of its positive form. Instead, the negative suffix –mA is used for first-person singular and plural, and the suffix –mAz is used for other persons. In negative questions, -mAz is used for all persons. However, there does not appear to be a consensus among linguists, on the construction of the negative form of aorist, as to what constitutes the suffixes in the negative construction. There are two opinions on which morphemes constitute the negative of the aorist -- one which accepts that there is a single morpheme with its variations (i.e. –mA, -mAz), and another which suggests that –mA is the negative suffix and –z is the aorist suffix added for second- and third-person singular and plural constructions (Alyılmaz, 2010, p. 111).

Yavaş (1979) notes that the aorist and the progressive are considered as if they are almost synonymous and she argues against this treatment, asserting that "the aorist has the effect of characterizing the entity in question while the progressive reports certain behavior of the entity" (p. 45). Refer to the examples given below:

Murat geç yatmaz.

[Murat does not go to bed late.]

Murat geç yatmıyor.

[Murat does not go to bed late.]

As mentioned above, the aorist expresses tense, aspect and modality. This is also true for progressive tense. Since lexical aspect of the verb is the same for both sentences (i.e. the verb yatmak [to go to bed; lie down] would be in the category of achievement which is non-durative and telic), the distinction in meaning arises from the distinction between the grammatical aspects of the sentences, the former being unbounded and the latter bounded (see Dilaçar (1974) and Benzer (2008) for a discussion and examples of lexical and grammatical aspects in Turkish). While both 1 and 2 above mean that Murat does not go to bed late, the sentence in aorist indicates that Murat is the type of person who does not go to bed late, whereas the sentence in progressive indicates a more habitual behavior of Murat rather than a characteristic of his.

However, the aorist and progressive forms could be considered nearly synonymous, and thus, could be interchangeably used to entail certain meanings:

Tatlı sevmem.

[I do not like desserts.]

Tatlı sevmiyorum.

[I do not like desserts.]

The examples in 3 and 4 do not create a distinction in meaning such as the one between 1 and 2. The lack of distinction in meaning between these sentences is likely because of the lexical aspect of the verb used. Since the verb "to like" expresses state that involves no change rather than other lexical aspects that involve change, both sentences carry the same aspectual meaning. The possibility of interchangeable use, however, is not limited to verbs with this lexical aspect.

For situations where the choice of both the aorist and the progressive tenses is possible, Underhill (1976) observes, "in the spoken language, the progressive –Iyor is in the process of replacing the present in its habitual or 'aorist' sense. In letters, conversations, and other informal texts, one normally finds the progressive used" (p. 149). By focusing on this issue of a shift in usage, the current paper aims to investigate the functions of the aorist and the progressive tense in current spoken Turkish, as well as the extent to which progressive tense is chosen over the aorist, in cases where both are possible.

1.1. Functions of the aorist

Aorist has been conceptualized in a variety of ways by linguists. These functions of the form varies from tense and aspect to modality. Göksel and Kerslake (2005) group the functions of the Turkish aorist into two categories, namely, generalizations/hypotheses and volitional utterances. Under the former, they list: (a) statements of permanent or generalized validity, (b) hypothetical and counterfactual situations, and (c) assumptions. Additionally, under the category of "statements of permanent or generalized validity," they list: (i) scientific or moral axioms, (ii) normative or prescriptive statements, (iii) generic statements about the characteristic qualities or behavior of a class, and (iv) statements about the characteristic qualities or behavior of an individual. The second aorist category, volitional utterances, is further broken down into (a) requests and offers and (b) expression of commitment. As can be seen, these functions include differing functions of tense, aspect and modality (p. 283-316).

However, Lewis (2000) characterizes the functions of aorist as: (a) habitual statements, (b) characteristics of a person, (c) requests, (d) promises, (e) stage directions, (f) proverbs, (g) as a vivid present, and (h) permissions (p. 116-117).

Öztopçu (2009), in his textbook for learners of Turkish as a foreign language, lists the following functions: (a) willingness, intention, or promises to carry out actions; (b) habitual, customary, or repeated actions; (c) predictions, guesses, and doubts; (d) general validity, truths, or proverbs; (e) telling stories or jokes; (f) polite requests, questions, or offers and invitations; and (g) common expressions (p. 71-72).

The following list summarizes the functions of the aorist, as set forth by the above authors:

Scientific or moral axioms, general validity, truth

Dünya kendi çevresindeki dönüşünü 24 saatte tamamlar.

[The earth completes a revolution around its axis in 24 hours.]

Normative or prescriptive statements

İnşaat sahasına baretsiz girilmez.

[No entry into the construction zone without a helmet.]

Generic statements about the characteristic qualities or habitual, customary, and repeated action or behavior of a class

Japonlar çok çalışır.

[The Japanese work hard.]

Statements about the characteristic qualities or behavior of an individual or habitual, customary, and repeated action of an individual

Sinan araba kullanmaz.

[Sinan does not drive.]

Hypothetical and counterfactual situations

Bunu yapma, pişman olursun.

[Don't do this, you will regret it.]

Assumptions, predictions, guesses, doubts

Derbiyi Fenerbahçe kazanır.

[Fenerbahçe will win the derby.]

Requests, offers, invitations

Su verir misiniz?

[Will you give me water?]

Expression of commitment such as promises or willingness to carry out an action in the future

Seni havaalanına ben bırakırım.

[I will give you a ride to the airport.]

Proverbs

Armut dalının dibine düşer.

[The apple does not fall far from the tree (lit. The pear falls near the base of its branch.)]

Vivid present as in telling stories or jokes

Kapıyı açar, içeri girer.

[He opens the door and gets inside]

Permissions

A: *Akşam maça gitmek istiyorum. Olur mu?*

[I want to go to the game tonight. Is that all right?]

B: *Olur*.

[Fine.]

Common expressions

Teşekkür ederim.

[Thank you.]

In addition to the above functions, the aorist can also have an abilitative meaning. For example, when someone challenges another person's ability to do something, as in the following example, it entails an abilitative meaning:

A: *Buradan atlayamazsın*. [You can't jump from here.]

B: *Atlarım*. [I can jump.]

In this example, the challenge is in the abilitative mood, but the answer is in the aorist. However, it can be argued that this type of usage is, in fact, used to express a characteristic quality or behavior of an individual (function 4 in the summary list), as the above sentence can be interpreted as, "I am the sort of person who can jump (from here)." This function was not seen in the corpus that will be described below. It is, of course, essential to note again that these variations in functions are conceived not only by tense but also aspect and modality as well. Thus, some of the functions above expresses aspect while others express tense or modality.

1.2. The Aorist in the spoken Turkish corpus

The demo version of the Spoken Turkish Corpus (STC) was used for analysis because "there are no large-scale corpora of either Standard Turkish or Turkish dialects, consisting of richly annotated naturally occurring spoken data" (Karadaş & Ruhi, 2009, p. 311). In fact, even the first large-scale written corpus of the Turkish language, i.e., the Turkish National Corpus, comprising about 48 million words, emerged as a demo version only in late 2012 (for more information, see Aksan et. al. 2012). The STC has "44,962 words" (Ruhi, Schmidt, Wörner & Eryılmaz, 2011, p. 204), and when it is completed, it will include "at least one million words" (Karadaş & Ruhi, 2009, p. 312). STC includes transcripts from chats, service encounters, lectures, and television and radio programs (Ruhi, 2010, p. 464). When searching a spoken corpus, the question of how local dialects and accents are annotated is a legitimate concern. In STC, when a linguistic variation is commonly observed in the normal population, it is annotated in standard Turkish. When a feature is observed regionally, it is coded in standard Turkish in one tier and with regional features in the tier below it (Hatipoğlu & Karakaş, 2010, p. 448-453), thus allowing for searches in standard Turkish.

The analysis of the corpus revealed 206 tokens of the aorist suffix distributed across 11 functions of the aorist. In this analysis, only 206 aorist suffixes that appear as simple tenses were used. Aorist suffixes in compound verbs and modal expressions were excluded.

Table 1. Distribution of the functions of the aorist

Functions	Tokens	Percentage
Assumptions	81	39.32
Commitment	34	16.50
Individual behavior	20	9.70
Common expressions	18	8.73
Truth	14	6.79
Requests	13	6.31
Vivid present	10	4.85
Class behavior	6	2.91
Permissions	5	2.42
Hypothetical	3	1.45
Proverbs	2	0.97
Total	206	100

As Table 1 shows, two of the functions, namely, assumptions and commitments, account for more than half of the aorist usage in the corpus. Although this form is often paralleled with the simple present tense in English, it is interesting to see that the most common functions of the aorist entail future meaning rather than present, which accounts for 56% of the usage. It is true that the aorist transcends the borders of any time frame, yet it may not be incorrect to approach this tense as more of a future tense, rather than a present one, especially in spoken Turkish. However, it is important to remember that Nakipoğlu-Demiralp (2002, p. 137) asserts that the usage, categorized as assumptions in the current paper, have an epistemic modal meaning, rather than a tense.

2. The progressive tense

Some of the uses of the aorist, as mentioned above, could be interchangeable with the progressive tense in Turkish, although Yavaş (1979, p. 45) argues that there is a difference in meaning between the two tenses while expressing similar meanings, such as the characteristics of an individual. Progressive tense, which Lewis (2000, p. 106) and Göksel and Kerslake (2005, p. 286) refer to as present tense, is called *şimdiki zaman* in Turkish. *Şimdi* means "now" in Turkish, and *şimdiki zaman* could be understood as "the current time." In Turkish, the suffix for progressive tense is –(I)yor, and this suffix always has a high vowel before -yor. After consonant-stems, a high vowel is added (e.g., *bit-* "to finish" becomes *bitiyor*). When the suffix is attached to verb stems ending in A or E, they are replaced with a high vowel based on vowel harmony (e.g., *dinle-* "to listen" becomes *dinliyor*). Finally, when the progressive-tense suffix is attached to stems ending in other vowels, -yor is directly attached to the stem (e.g., *oku-* "to read" becomes *okuyor*).

2.1. Functions of the progressive tense

Like the aorist, the progressive tense has also been conceptualized in a variety of ways by linguists. In addition to tense, the form conveys aspect as well. In their book, Göksel and Kerslake (2005) describe these functions of the progressive tense: (a) scheduled or fixed future, (b) progressive (event), (c) progressive (state), (d) habitual, and (e) generalizations based on one's experience. However, Lewis (2000: 107) lists three functions for the progressive tense: (a) actions in progress, (b) actions envisaged, and (c) actions that began in the past and are still ongoing. In contrast, in his book for Turkish-language learners, Öztopçu (2009: 106-107) says progressive tense can be used to express: (a) actions in progress or about to be performed, (b) actions to take place in the near future, and (c) repetitive or habitual actions (p. 287-297).

The following list summarizes these classifications:

Progressive (event)

Şu an ders çalışıyorum.

[I am studying at the moment.]

Progressive (state)

Bilmiyorum.

[I don't know.]

Habitual or repetitive actions

Her hafta sonu maç seyrediyorum.

[I watch a game every weekend.]

Planned future events

Yarın geliyorum.

[I am coming tomorrow.]

Generalizations based on experience

Bu ülkede hiçbir şey değişmiyor.

[Nothing changes in this country.]

Actions that began in the past and still going on

Üç yıldır Houston'da yaşıyorum.

[I have been living in Houston for three years.]

Like in the aorist, these functions of the progressive tense also emerge from tense and aspect. While the first function indicates tense, the second function indicates lexical aspect and the rest convey grammatical aspect.

2.2. Progressive tense in the spoken Turkish corpus

The data in the corpus were grouped into these six categories. A total of 628 tokens of progressive tense were retrieved. As with the aorist, only progressive suffixes in simple tense were used. Compound structures were excluded, as they become a different grammatical form when combined with other verb forms. The distribution of the progressive-tense usage is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Distribution of the functions of the progressive tense

Functions	Tokens	Percentage
Progressive (state)	270	42.99
Progressive (event)	212	33.75
Repetitive/Habitual	121	19.26
Planned and near future	13	2.07
Generalization	7	1.11
Past to present	5	0.79
Total	628	100

Table 2 reveals that the progressive form is much more common in spoken Turkish than the aorist form. In fact, it is three times as common. This may confirm Underhill's (1976, p. 149) assertion that the progressive is preferred over the aorist in spoken Turkish. However, to confirm this fully, the usage in written Turkish needs to be investigated to see if distribution of functions differs in written Turkish corpora. Without the analysis of written data, one cannot claim that the progressive form replaces the aorist one in spoken Turkish. Another aspect that is evident at first look is that three of the functions (i.e., progressive [event], progressive [state], repetitive/habitual) account for 96% of the uses of progressive tense. It may be also interesting to note that some of the common uses of progressive tense can best be translated to English using the simple present tense. In fact, 63% of the progressive usages in the corpus would be expressed in simple present tense in English. Those usages fell into several function categories: progressive (state), repetitive/habitual, and generalizations. Again, this tense transcends the boundaries of the time of speaking and can express a "broad" time frame, as well as both past and future.

3. Interchangeable functions in comparison

As mentioned above, some of the functions of the aorist and progressive tenses may be interchangeable. For example, in the aorist, (a) statements about the characteristic qualities or behavior of an individual, (b) generic statements about the characteristic qualities or behavior of a class, and (c) general validity or truth usages can be interchanged with progressive 3statements about (a) habitual actions and (b) generalizations. See the examples below.

The Aorist	The Progressive
1a) *Babam tatlı sevmez.*	1b) *Babam tatlı sevmiyor.*
[My father does not like desserts.]	[My father does not like desserts.]
2a) *Türkler çok ekmek yer.*	2b) *Türkler çok ekmek yiyor.*
[Turks eat a lot of bread.]	[Turks eat a lot of bread.]
3a) *Soğuk hava cildi kurutur.*	3b) *Soğuk hava cildi kurutuyor.*
[Cold weather dries the skin.]	[Cold weather dries the skin.]

In the above examples, there is no essential difference in meaning between the statements in the two tenses. However, 2b and 3b may entail specific meaning, conveyed in relation to the context of speaking. When expressed as a generalization, they are close in meaning to 2a and 3a, except that 2b and 3b convey that the generalizations are based on speaker's personal observations, rather than expressing a valid truth. As mentioned earlier, the reason why there is not a distinction in meaning between 1a and 1b is because of the lexical aspect of the verb, which is durative and does not change. Thus, this strong lexical aspect of the verb prevents a distinction in meaning. However, grammatical aspects of the other examples, while still very close, lead to a slight distinction in meaning. However, since they are nearly synonymous, the incidence of these types of usages in the STC are given in Table 3 and Table 4.

Table 3. Interchangeable functions in aorist

Aorist		
Functions	Tokens	Percentage within aorist
Individual behavior	20	9.70
Truth	14	6.79
Class behavior	6	2.91
Total	40	19.40

Table 4. Interchangeable functions in progressive tense

Progressive Tense		
Functions	Tokens	Percentage within progressive
Repetitive/Habitual	121	19.26
Generalization	7	1.11
Total	128	20.37

In the data, 40 uses for the aorist and 128 uses for the progressive were retrieved. These numbers account for approximately 20% of the uses of both tenses. However, general validity or truth usages in the aorist are more frequent than generalizations in the progressive. Table 5 shows the percentages in relation to each other.

Table 5. Relative percentages of interchangeable uses

Tense	Tokens	Percentage
Aorist	40	23.80
Progressive tense	128	76.19
Total	168	100%

Added together, 168 tokens that have interchangeable uses were detected. The numbers indicate that the progressive tense is used much more frequently than the aorist to express repetitive or habitual characteristics of people or groups. This finding is important, as it is the aorist that is normally associated with this function, not the progressive, and it is the aorist that is likened to English simple present tense.

Table 6. Examples in aorist from concordances tables

o saatte vücut az çok alış	ır.	
aynı anda kasılıp gevşe	r.	Antagonist.
kaslar zıt çalış	ır	
in Luther King günü olarak kutlan	ır.	
çok hareketli ol	ur	lar
r karar almaktan daha fazla çekin	ir	ler.
dinde sorun olanlar çok ee şey ol	ur	ya/
anna bak. ِben paylaşmayı sev	er	im.
bişeyi öğrenmeyi sev	er	im.
mesela ben iste	r	im benim kullanmadığım
e e em hep yapay gel	ir	Biliyor musun bana bu. ِbiriyle ben biş
ben orayı katarak kullan	ır	ım.
O da sürekli enişte min oraya gelip dur	ur	
kendi kendime yolda düşün	ür	üm işte.
afları kesildiği zaman kan püskür	ür.	filmlerinde de var o.

Table 7. Examples in progressive tense from concordances tables

genelde ((0.8)) yani gişe filmeri ol	uyor	ve iyi de kar (götürüyor).
((0.2)) ((inhales)) ben de az yat	ıyor	um da öğlen az yatayım diye az yatıyorum.
m mı? ((0.5)) onun havlusuyla yüzümü yık(a)	ıyor	um eğer kendiminkini bulamazsam. ((0.6))

run ((0.5)) bendeki bişeye o ihtiyaç duy	uyor	. tabi bende bilgisayar var. ((0.1)) ond
ne yap	ıyor	lar mesela anne oğul? ((0.1)) ki/kim ne
tamam. ـkırk yılda bir ol	uyor	.
yani te/telefonlaş	ıyor	uz haftada bir iki. ((inhales)) sınırlı
ela birlikte çarşıya gidip alışveriş yap	ıyor	lar.
ha! bazen maç yap	ıyor	lar büyükler.
((0.1)) anne! ـhiçbişey değişm(e)	iyor	ki burda. ((0.6)) hiçbişey değişmiyor.
rkiye'de diye. ((0.3)) yani kimse güvenm(e)	iyor	Türkiye'deki eğitime pek herhalde.
((0.1)) biz hep yeni kalk	ıyor	uz anam. ـkız var artık.
((0.5)) hep ol	uyor	ya böyle televizyonlarda.
((0.2)) böyle lap lap söyl(e)	üyor	um. Sonra ne oluyor? A
((XXX)) ((0.2)) sabah ((0.3)) vakti gi(t)	iyor	lar. ((0.2)) dörtte beşte geliyorlar.

3.1. Verbs used in interchangeable functions

The verbs themselves that were used in these functions were also investigated. Seven verbs were used in both tenses in the interchangeable functions. In addition to these 7 that were used in both tenses, 39 other verbs were used only in progressive, and 15 others were used only in the aorist. Of the 39 verbs used in the progressive, only one of them, *güvenmek* [to trust], is a verb representing mental states or feelings, while 6 of the 15 verbs used in the aorist are such verbs, namely, *bilmek* [to know], *çekinmek* [to be shy, to abstain], *düşünmek* [to think], *istemek* [to want], *sevmek* [to love, to like], and *sıkılmak* [to be bored]. It is important to note that the verbs mentioned above do not represent the full corpus, but rather, they are the verbs that were retrieved in the functions that can be used interchangeably between the progressive and aorist. With this limited sample in these functions, and without examining the rest of the corpus, it is not possible to propose that mental-state verbs are more commonly found in the aorist. For example, it may be more common to use mental-state verbs in the progressive (state) function of the progressive tense (e.g. *Bilmiyorum* [I don't know]) than in its repetitive/habitual and generalization functions.

4. Discussion

In conclusion, analyses of the data in the STC showed that the two most common uses of aorist in spoken Turkish are to convey assumptions and commitments, and these functions refer to a point in the future. These uses, which compose about 56% of the aorist uses in the data, are expressed using simple future tense in English (e.g. *Seni hava alanına ben bırakırım*. [I will give you a ride to the airport.]). Interestingly, 63% of progressive uses in the STC are best expressed in simple present tense in English. This finding underscores that direct parallelism between tenses in these two languages is not possible. Looking at the tenses in Turkish through English tenses, as these two tenses show, would be misleading. Any attempt to draw direct parallels would result in misconceptions of the meanings of different tenses in Turkish.

In addition to the above, the comparison of these two tenses showed that habitual meaning is expressed much more frequently in the progressive tense, rather than in the aorist, contrary to what one might expect as habitual aspect is considered to be a feature of the aorist. The analyses showed that there is fluidity in the uses of these tenses in spoken Turkish because most of the functions of these tenses express grammatical aspect rather than tense. Thus, one may raise the questions, "Is the general assumption that the aorist is a present tense misleading?" or "Should we focus more on the functions of the aorist that refer to future as evident in the corpus?" Likewise, "is progressive tense the same as a simple present tense?" is another question to raise because the meaning grammatical aspect induces has reference to different times other than the primary assumptions about the meanings of these tenses, at least in spoken Turkish as evidenced from STC data outlined above. However, categorizing these two tenses as such is likely not possible. What is important in this situation is not to redefine the tenses in Turkish, but rather, to gain a clearer understanding of how the tenses are actually used by native speakers of the language. This new knowledge will help guide publishers, textbook authors, curriculum developers, and language teachers in a productive direction, toward providing learner materials that model authentic and natural use of the language. For example, knowing that a solid function of the aorist is to convey the indefinite future, and that expressing it with another tense is not possible, language teachers can expand their lesson plans when covering future tense to include both the future (*gelecek zaman*) and aorist (*geniş zaman*). In light of the current findings, the teaching of future tense would not be complete without referring to the functions of the aorist. It is because the future tense (*gelecek zaman*) only expresses definite future. Likewise, knowing that the progressive tense is used much more frequently to convey habit than previously supposed will help guide teachers of the Turkish language to expose their students to more examples of this particular function of the progressive tense.

However, the current analyses only reveal spoken aspects of the Turkish language using a small corpus. Making stronger global judgments will only be possible after analyzing larger corpora. In addition, analyzing written corpora in the future is also important as the distributions may look very different from the spoken corpora. If Underhill's (1976, p. 149) assumption is true, that progressive tense may replace the aorist in spoken Turkish, we may expect more frequent usage of the aorist to express habitual or repetitive actions and generalizations in written Turkish. Thus, this study is only a preliminary attempt to describe the uses of two tenses, as a few of them can be interchangeably used, with certain meanings. Also, deep analysis or elaboration of categories of verbs in terms of tense, aspect and modality has not been made since the purpose of this study is to determine different functions or uses of these tenses in actual use in spoken Turkish. Nevertheless, in spite of these limitations, this study allows insight into the usage of the aorist and progressive verb tenses in naturally-occurring speech and suggests that our conceptions of grammatical functions need to be revisited, with their actual usage in mind.

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Türkçede geniş ve şimdiki zaman: Şimdi mi, gelecek mi ya da ne?

Öz

Bu çalışmada Türkçe konuşma dilinde geniş ve şimdiki zamanın kullanımlarını araştırmak amaçlanmıştır. Bu amaçla, Sözlü Türkçe Derlemi deneme sürümü, EXMARaLDA programı kullanılarak, incelenmiştir. Toplamda geniş zaman 206 kez ve şimdiki zaman da 628 kez kullanılmıştır. Geniş zamanın en yaygın ilk iki kullanımı varsayımlar ve sözler kullanımların %56'sını oluşturur ve bu iki kullanımın anlam olarak gelecek zamanı ifade eder. Şimdiki zamanın %96'sını da üç işlev oluşturur. Bunlar, sürekli (olay), sürekli (durum) ve alışkanlıklar ifade eden kullanımlardır. Bunlardan, alışkanlıklar, şimdiki zaman kullanımlarının %16,26'sını oluşturur. Bu iki zamanın birbirlerinin yerine kullanılabildikleri durumlarda ise bu tür kullanımların %76'sının şimdiki zamanda olduğu görülmüştür. İlk bakışta düşünülebilenin aksine, bu tür anlatımlar geniş zamandan çok şimdiki zamanda kullanılmıştır ve geniş zaman da en çok geleceğe gönderim yapan anlamlarda kullanılmıştır. Sözlü Türkçe ile ilgili bu bulgular önemlidir ancak kullanımlar yazılı Türkçede farklılık gösterebilir. Sonuçlar, müfredat ve materyal geliştirmeyle öğretim uygulamaları açısından önemlidir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Türkçe, geniş zaman, şimdiki zaman, derlem araştırmaları, sözlü Türkçe derlemi

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The impact of language play-oriented tasks with planned focus on form on Iranian EFL learners' accuracy in controlled writings

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Abstract

Language play and its effects on second language learning have been addressed by many scholars in recent years with instances of language play being identified both inside and outside the classroom. However, only a few have integrated language play with classroom tasks, and they just sufficed to the qualitative analyses of the learners' interactions. The present study investigated the possible effect of language play-oriented tasks with planned focus on form on Iranian EFL learners' accuracy in controlled writings. Employing a pretest-posttest design, the participants of the study were introduced to a series of meaningful tasks focusing on particular linguistic features. The tasks were accompanied by language play types such as semantic play, creation of imaginary scenarios, oral narrative play, syntactic play, pragmatic play, linguistic play and verbal dueling during a 12-week adult English class in a private language school. Field notes were taken as well as occasional audio-recordings of the instances of tasks and episodes manifesting the given treatment. The findings demonstrated the supremacy of playful tasks over non-playful language learning activities with the items in playful tasks being recalled better. The present study calls for integration of playful language tasks along with planned focus on form in EFL classes and provides EFL teachers with a good set of such tasks to create an enjoying and relaxing atmosphere in their classes.

Keywords: Language play; second language learning; task-based teaching; focus on form; humour

1. Introduction

Second language study is usually undertaken for different purposes around the world and many models of second language teaching have been offered in the field of second language learning and teaching. However, some scholars have recently drawn attention to a pedagogy that integrates language play with second language learning (Bell, 2012; Belz & Reinhardt, 2004; Broner &Tarone, 2001; Cekaite & Aronsson, 2005; Cook, 1997; Forman, 2011; Warring, 2012). It is established that language play facilitates both children and adult second language development but the research in this area has mostly been restricted to the qualitative analyses of the learners' interactions and few have explored this phenomena quantitatively (Bell, 2012; Lucas, 2005; Tocalli-Beller & Swain, 2007). Most research studies in this regard analyze language play as it emerges spontaneously in the classroom interactions of the learners and they just suffice to show that playing with the language is effective in second language learning. Moreover, the source of language play and humor are the learners themselves in most of these studies and the teacher or the researcher is just an observer.

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Therefore, the present study further illuminates the role of language play on the students' second language learning by investigating the effect of language play-oriented tasks accompanied by planned focus on form on Iranian elementary EFL learners' accuracy in controlled writings by putting the teacher on the spotlight as the initiator of language play in the classroom.

2. Literature review

2.1. Language play

The concept of "play" has been defined by many scholars in the field of second language acquisition. Garvey (1977) defines play in terms of enjoyment, intrinsic motivation, spontaneity, active player engagement and a systematic relation to non-play. Vygotsky (1978) defines play as "a novel form of behavior liberating the child from constraints" which has its own "internal rules". In his view, these rules are accepted by their relevant "actions" in play situations which he terms as "imaginary situations" (p. 95). He maintains that as the child develops cognitively and psychologically, he becomes more proficient in play. He emphasizes the role of play in child development by stating that play creates a zone of proximal development which enables the children to act beyond their current abilities. Peck (1980) refers to play as a mode, a way, a manner of doing any activity and argues that ludic language play provides opportunities for the learners to practice the target language forms and it also increases the affective climate in the language classroom. Deci and Ryan (1985) believe that play has a role in increasing the learners' intrinsic motivation towards learning. Cook (1997) defines play as "a behavior not primarily motivated by human need to manipulate the environment (and to share information for this purpose) and to form and maintain social relationships _ though it may indirectly serve both of these functions" (p.227). He divides language play into two types of formal level and semantic level. Belz and Reinhardt (2004) offer their own learner-sensitive form-based definition for play. They state that play is the conscious repetition or modification of linguistic forms such as lexemes or syntactic patterns (p. 328). Pomerantz and Bell (2007) believe that play is a skill that needs to be developed. They argue that the learners should know when to play with language and they consider it as a communicative choice that a learner has a head when engaging in interaction with others.

Language play is considered to be fun and amusement by Cook (1997) and is defined in terms of rehearsal and practice of target language forms by Lantof (1997). Taking an interpersonal view, Cook divides language play into two types of formal level and semantic level. Formal language play deals with playing with sounds or with letter shapes to form rhyme, rhythm, assonance, consonance or alliteration and playing with grammatical structures to produce parallelisms and patterns. Semantic language play includes playing with units of meaning and mixing them to create fiction. However, Lantof takes an intrapersonal stand to second language play and analyzes it within the framework of Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory by discussing that language play is a kind of private speech which acts as a rehearsal and practice for the learners and helps them to produce language silently to themselves in the zone of proximal development and thus behave beyond their average daily behavior. He provides examples of language play such as the learners' talking out loud to themselves, repeating phrases to themselves silently, making up sentences and words creatively in the foreign language, imitating sounds to themselves and having random snatches of the foreign language pop into their head.

Taking these two perspectives into account, a large body of research is carried out concerning the role of language play in second language learning. It is adhered that language play reduces the learners' affective state and creates an enjoyable learning environment for them (Forman, 2011; Tarone, 2000) so that the learners could do the teacher-assigned tasks better because they are not

concerned with avoiding incorrect answers and saving face (Bushnell, 2009; Forman, 2011) and they participate in the classroom activities more (Katayama, 2009; Pomerantz & Bell, 2007; van Dam, 2002). Consequently, the learners may provide assistance to each other while playing with the language during the teacher-assigned tasks (Ohta, 2001). That is why some researchers contend that language classrooms should be accompanied by fun and enjoyment because in this way the learners become interested in language classes more and they could build their own "preferred worlds, preferred identities and preferred voices" and they could change the "authoritative discourse" of the classroom into an "internally persuasive discourse" for themselves (Lin & Luk, 2005, p. 94). Likewise, the learners may change the dominant discourse of the classroom into an enjoyable one by enacting situational, relational and personal identities in the classroom (Warring, 2012). Situational identities are specific to situations or relationships like teacher, parent, student, son or nurse; relational identities refer to a kind of relationship a person enacts with a particular conversational partner in a specific situation, equal or unequal, close or distant and personal identities include personality, attitude or character. Also, the learners may engage in pragmatic play during the class and play with different identities (Vandergriff, 2009).

It is also believed that language play improves second language learning by creating zones of proximal development for second language learners to improve their linguistic repertoire (DaSilva Iddings and McCafferty, 2005) because when the learners work collaboratively on language tasks by employing language play, their metalinguistic awareness is increased which in turn paves the way for the learners to understand the lesson better (Lucas, 2005). Furthermore, some researchers see language play as a means of learning grammar (Belz & Reinhardt, 2004) by positing that language play could cause extended repair sequences and help the learners to distinguish the correct language forms from the incorrect ones which could act as informal language lessons (Cekaite & Aronsson, 2005). Language play is also believed to play a crucial role in developing the learners' interlanguage system by helping the learners to produce utterances that do not conform to the accepted language norms and this "destabilize the language system" and therefore acts as an "opening to development" (Broner & Tarone, 2001, p. 375). Bell (2005) contends that language play is an indicator of learner proficiency because the more the learners use the linguistic resources in creative ways, the more proficient they are in second language. She argues that language play leads to better recall of the language items by the learners (Bell, 2012).

2.2. Language play and humor

Closely related to the concept of language play is "humor". Bell (2002) defines humor as something that makes a person laugh or smile. She sees humor as a specific communicative mode in which something is uttered with the intent to amuse (Bell, 2012). Humor has been investigated from the three categories of repression-based, aggression-based, and incongruity-based. The first category focuses on the relationship between the speaker and the hearer and their attitudes toward one another. The second one is concerned with the emotions of the hearer of an amusing quip in which laughter is viewed as the result of social constraints. In the last category, humor is created because something does not meet our expectations or is inappropriate to the context due to the fact that two incongruent elements are juxtaposed (Bell, 2002).

The role of humor in the process of second language learning and teaching has been investigated by many scholars from different perspectives. A number of research studies focused on the role of humor in facilitating the recall of the second language. For example, Keenan, MacWhinney and Mayhew (1977) say that the unusual or emotionally laden sentences are remembered more than the mundane ones during incidental learning. Bates, Kintsch, Fletcher and Guiliani (1980) conclude that bizarre language in natural context is more remembered in intentional learning environment. McDaniel,

Einstein, DeLosh, May, and Brady (1995) say that bizarre sentences are remembered more than common sentences. McDaniel, Dornburg, and Guynn (2005) believe that bizarre and common sentences should be mixed to be recalled better. Martin, Preiss, Gayle, and Allen (2006) contend that humor has a positive effect on the recall of lectures. Strick, Holland, van Baaren, and Van Knippenberg (2010) posit that humor has a good effect on memory. Some researchers explored humor in relation to face-work and face-threatening acts. For instance, Zajdman (1995) focuses on self-directed humor and posits that this kind of humor presents an appealing self-image of the learner to others and saves face. It also shows the learners' superiority over others. In a similar vein, Holmes (2000) contends that humor has a positive effect in mitigating face-threatening acts. Pomerantz and Bell (2012) argue that humor acts as a safe house that changes the monotonous, culturally insensitive or face-threatening classroom practices. And some others like Schmidt and Williams (2001) believe that humor facilitates learning both in incidental and intentional learning environments. And finally, Davis (2003) contends that the ability to participate in jointly-constructed joking episodes improves the communication among the learners and increases the rapport.

2.3. Language play and focus on form

According to Ellis (2001), and Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2002) focus on form is divided into two types of incidental focus on form and planned focus on form. The former contains spontaneous attention to form which emerges during meaning focused activities and it is considered to be difficult to be assessed because pre-test and post-test cannot be utilized to measure individual learning (Loewen, 2005). The latter involves the use of focused communicative tasks to elicit the use of a specific linguistic form in the context of meaning-centered language use.

Since the assessment of student learning was difficult in incidental focus on form, some researchers decided to identify language related episodes (LRE) in the students' interactions. LREs are defined as any part of a dialogue where the students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or correct themselves or others (Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Bell (2012) focuses on playful language related episodes (PLREs) and compares them with the learners' non-playful language related episodes (LREs) and concludes that PLREs help the learners to recall the bits of language better. Language related episodes are also important in form-focused tasks since the learners interact with each other while doing these kinds of tasks.

Thus language related episodes are an important part of the learners' conversational interaction in the classroom. The learners' conversational interaction is considered to be an indicator of the learners' language development (Mackey & Goo, 2007). Conversation helps learners to get information about language, to gauge what is and is not possible in the L2 and practice and test their own hypotheses about L2 forms (Gass & Mackey, 2006). According to the sociocultural theory, learning occurs in interaction with a more competent speaker. When the learners converse with each other, they notice the gap in their own knowledge and a more proficient L2 user and they try to compensate for this gap (Lantof & Thorne, 2007). Language play could be one of the ways to help the learners to notice this gap in their own knowledge while interacting with each other during the classroom activities. Bell (2012) considers play as one form of interaction that "may draw learners' attention to form-meaning relationships" which in turn could increase the depth of language processing (p. 241).

2.4. The present study

Most of the studies reviewed above concerning second language play seem to favor the contention that language play has an enormous effect on second language learning. Few of these studies have explored this phenomenon quantitatively and the researcher or the teacher had a passive role in the

creation of language play because he/she was just an observer or recorder of the playful discourse of the learners. Furthermore, few studies have drawn attention to the effect of language play on form-focused tasks. Thus, the present study investigates the role of language play on the learners' accuracy during planned focus on form quantitatively by tackling the following research questions:

1. Do language play-oriented tasks with planned focus on form affect Iranian EFL learners' accuracy in controlled writings?
2. Does language play have an effect on the recall of the items by the learners?
3. Is there any significant difference in attitudes of elementary Iranian EFL learners towards planned focus on form with playful and non-playful language-oriented tasks?

3. Method

3.1. Participants

The participants of the study included 41 elementary female learners of English in a private language institute in West Azarbayjan, Iran. Their age ranged between 15 and 18, and they were in their first, second and third year in high school. Two intact classes were selected and the participants in both classes took Cambridge Young Learners English Flyers test to ascertain their initial homogeneity regarding their general English language proficiency and the outliers were identified and were excluded from the study.

3.2. Instruments and materials

3.2.1. Language proficiency test

The participants took Cambridge Young Learners English Flyers test to ascertain the initial homogeneity of the learners in two groups concerning their general English language proficiency. The test consisted of four parts: listening, reading, writing and speaking. The listening section had five parts and it included 25 questions which lasted approximately 25 minutes. The reading and writing sections had seven parts. There were 50 questions and the test lasted 40 minutes. The speaking test had four parts and it lasted about eight minutes.

3.3.2 Pre-test

The pre-test consisted of 35 multiple-choice questions and the items of the test were constructed according to the grammatical structures addressed through planned focus on form during playful and non-playful task-based activities. The test was piloted before the study began on a similar group of participants and its reliability was calculated to be 0.85 using Kuder-Richardson Formula 21.

3.3.3 Post-test

The post-test was comprised of several parts with each section focusing on a separate grammatical point which was dealt with during the classes. In this test, the participants filled in the blanks, wrote short responses to the questions, asked questions about the underlined words and phrases, completed a story and provided answers to the questions related to some pictures. This test was piloted on a similar group of learners and its reliability was 0.83 using Kuder-Richardson Formula 21.

3.3.4 Language play-oriented activities

The tasks for the present study were selected from *Games for Grammar Practice* by Zaorob and Chin (2001) and then language play was implemented in these tasks. The following table summarizes these tasks and their language focus.

Table 1. Tasks selected from *Games for Grammar Practice*

Activity	Language focus	Activity type	Topic	Time (minutes)	Language output
A day at home	Present continuous	Board game	Activities done at home	10-20	A: What are you doing in the living room? B: I'm watching TV in the living room.
Looking for a flatmate	Present simple	Interview	Habits and routines	20	A: Do you have a pet. B: Yes, I do. I have a cat.
Making friends	Wh-questions with present simple	Find someone who	Personal information	10-20	A: When is your birthday? B: My birthday is on June 5th. A: Really? My birthday is in June too!
Come one, come all	a/an v. some	Board game	Food	15-20	A: Would you like a hot dog/ some cake/ some strawberries? B: Yes, please. / No, thanks.
Rain or shine	It as subject	Tic-tac-toe	Weather conditions	10-15	When it's foggy, it's dangerous to drive on the motorway.

Language play types which were integrated with these tasks included semantic play, oral narrative play, syntactic play, pragmatic play and linguistic play. Semantic play refers to playing with the units of meaning (Cook, 2000) such as referring to an "apartment" as a "togetherment" (Forman, 2011). In oral narrative play, the learners narrate a story playfully by creating imaginary scenarios (Sullivan, 2000). Syntactic play includes playing with the grammatical order of the sentences (Belz, 2002). For example, the sentence "I must myself now shower, in order to afterward time to have, the paper to read and breakfast to have" illustrates syntactic play where the learner plays with the grammatical order of the sentence. One type of pragmatic play includes playing with the identity and is defined by Vandergriff (2009) as a type of pretend play that allows the speaker to take on a different identity and speak with the voice of someone else. And finally, during the linguistic play, the learners play with the language through rhyming, rhythm, assonance, consonance or alliteration (Cook, 1997).

3.3. Data collection procedures

To achieve the aims of this study, a semi-experimental design was employed. Two intact classes were selected. At first, the participants in both groups took Cambridge Young Learners English Flyers test to ascertain the initial homogeneity of the learners at the beginning of the study. Then both groups received a pre-test at the beginning of the study in the form of multiple-choice to homogenize the learners concerning their grammatical accuracy. Then, in the experimental group, the teacher introduced language play-oriented form-focused tasks. Field notes were taken as well as occasional audio-recordings of the instances of tasks and episodes manifesting the given treatment. The students'

interactions with their teacher and their peers were transcribed and analyzed as qualitative measurement to further shed light on the findings of the study. In the control group, the teacher focused on the same topics through non-playful tasks. Finally, both groups received a written post-test. Later on, the attitude of the students towards form-focused tasks was investigated in both groups.

3.4. Data analysis

The quantitative data gathered through pre-tests and post-tests were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 19.0. To compare the performance of the learners in both groups, an independent samples t-test was run.

The qualitative data included the audio-recordings of the learners' interactions with their teacher and their peers in the classroom and the learners' comments regarding the tasks in the classroom in both groups. The audio-recordings were transcribed and analyzed and the learners' written comments regarding focus on form during playful and non-playful tasks were used to further support the findings of the study.

4. Results and discussion

4.1 The impact of language play-oriented tasks on the learners' accuracy

The first research question in this study dealt with the effect of language play-oriented tasks with planned focus on form on Iranian EFL learners' accuracy in controlled writings. To answer this question, both groups were given a written test at the end of the course and the results are as follows:

Table 2. Descriptive results of the participants' controlled writings

	LP treatment	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Posttest	Control group	18	35.73	3.081	.796
	Experimental group	20	38.44	3.881	.970

Table 3. Independent Samples T-Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
participant's score	Equal variances assumed	.510	.481	-2.139	29	.041	-2.704	1.264	-5.290	-.118
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.155	28.263	.040	-2.704	1.255	-5.273	-.135

The table above demonstrates that there is a statistically significant difference between two groups regarding their grammatical accuracy at the end of the study: $t(28.263) = -2.155$; $\rho < 0.05$. The experimental group performed better than the control group. This may be attributed to the fact that

language play helped the learners to learn grammar better through fun and enjoyment. The overall effectiveness of language play on the grammatical accuracy of the learners corroborate the findings of Belz and Reinhardt (2004) who see adult foreign language play as a means of learning grammar. Similarly, Cekaite and Aronsson (2005) contend that language play causes extended repair sequences which act as informal language lessons focused on formal aspects of language. Further support comes from Pomerantz and Bell (2007) who argue that language play leads to linguistic practice and the manipulation of the linguistic forms and provide opportunities for more varied forms of language use. In a similar vein, Bushnell (2009) concludes that through language play the learners are able to manage the pedagogical tasks in the classroom better. Additionally, Forman (2011) finds that language play provides practice opportunities for the learners. For example, in the following extract about "*The giftsday*", the grammatical focus of the task is on *wh-questions with present simple* and the students are supposed to look at the pictures and ask wh-questions. When the learners ask these questions for some time, they become tired of this dry practice. At this moment, the teacher tries to add spice to the classroom by initiating semantic language play and asks one of the learners about her "giftsday". The learners don't get the meaning of this new word at first but when the teacher explains about it, they like it because it is against the routine classroom practice and at the same time it is funny and enjoyable.

Extract 1: The giftsday!

T: when is your *giftsday*?
SS: huh huh huh huh huh
S1: tea:cher (.) u:m(.) what *giftsday*?
T: when you get a lot of presents in your birthday, it is your giftsday. Isn't it?
SS: ☺ ha ha hahhh ☺ yes huh [that's right yes ha huh]
S2: ☺ my giftsday u:m is in July.
T: how many gifts do you get in your giftsday?
S2: I get *ma:ny* gifts.
T: you get *many* gifts, lucky you! For example, what kind of gifts do you get?
S2: I have..ehh.. I get scarf, eh t-shirt, money, gold.
S3: I get a *ca:r* in my gifts day.
SS: ☺ ha ha huh huh he he
T: you get a: ca:r in your giftsday?! *Wo:w*!
SS: ha ha huh huh he he
T: such a bi:g gift!
S4: maybe it is a heehhh *toy* ca:r?!
SS: ha ha ha huh huh huh
S5: tea:cher, eh(.) giftsday also u:m partyday he he huh huh because we have a party in our birthday
T: *Yes*. It is also a party day ☺ very good!
S5: teacher u:m huh I get an apa:rtment in my partyday
SS: ha ha ha he he he
T: O:h you are very lucky!
S3: my gifts are very bi:g ha huh er always
S6: my family no:t mm-hm genere…
T: generous?
S6: *ye:s* my family not generous they don't buy I bi:g gifts
SS: he he he he he he
T: ok, what else do you get in your giftsday?
S7: I get toys eh (.) dolls u:m
T: you get toys in your birthday?!
SS: ha ha huh huh

S3: Are you *ba:by*?!
SS: ha ha ha ha ha

For instance, one of the students says that she gets a car for her "giftsday" and another student asks in a funny way whether it is a toy car and the whole class burst into laughter. Another learner says she gets an apartment for her birthday. The students engage in a kind of competition about the gifts. Then one of the students complains that her family is not generous and they don't give her big gifts in her birthday. After responding to the teacher's play with the word "birthday", they try to create more examples of this kind of play. For example, one of the students says that the birthday can also be called a "partyday" because they have a birthday party on that day. The learners follow the teacher's footsteps and start asking wh-questions by playing semantically with this new word. Therefore, this kind of play gives the learners a practice or a "rehearsal" (Lantof, 1997) in the second language, which is learning how to ask wh-questions.

Furthermore, while doing the language play-oriented activities, the students collaborated with the teacher and with each other to produce more examples of language play. For instance, the oral narrative play initiated by the teacher in the following example about "*A day in the forest*" changed the practice of a serious focus on form activity into a playful narrative which enriched the teacher's lesson with a verbal pleasure accompanied by lively practice of grammar (Sullivan, 2000). This kind of play is very similar to the creation of imaginary scenarios but it may or may not contain the element of fiction in it.

Extract 2: A day in the forest!

T: It was Friday. We went to a picnic. It was very exciting. The weather was hot and sunny. The jungle was…
S1: Sca:ry!
S2: Ni:ce.
T: The weather in jungle was…
S3: COLD!
S4: No!, ha ha ha huh huh it was *warm* ! Cold weather not good?! ☺
SS: ha ah ah huh huh huh
T: haha huh huh what did you do in the jungle?
S5: made *ba:rbecue*
T: After the lunch, suddenly the weather got angry!
SS: huh huh huh huh huh huh huh huh
T: the sky started to cry!☺
SS: huh huh huh huh huh huh huh huh , ☺ (all as a chorus) it rains!

In this example, the learners continue the story and they do it in a funny way. They seem to compete with each other in answering the teacher's questions. From time to time, the teacher intervenes and asks more questions to secure that all the learners have a say in continuing and writing an end to the story. The teacher engaged the whole class in a language play activity and the students collaborated with each other to continue this play. "The students try to use all their ingenuity", believe Cekaite and Aronsson (2005), "to secure the attention and maintain the interest of their co-participants" during collaborative language play. These researchers maintain that when the students help each other in constructing a playful activity, they practice the language forms.

4.2 The impact of language play on the learners' recall of the grammatical items

The second research question addressed the recall of the items by the learners in playful and non-playful language-oriented activities. As the written post-test illustrated, the participants in the experimental group did better in the post test than the other learners in the control group. It may imply

that the learners in the experimental group recalled the items better than the learners in the control group. This may imply that language play helped the learners to recall the items for a long time. This is in agreement with Bell (2012) when she says that the learners retain a particular linguistic point for a long time when they focus on it playfully.

This better recall of the items through language play may lead to the conclusion that language play helped the learners to notice the gap in their own knowledge (Bell, 2012). As the sociocultural theory posits, when the learners interact with each other, they notice the differences between their own linguistic knowledge and a more proficient L2 user and they try to compensate for this gap in their knowledge and as they intend to do so, they become more proficient. Language play could be a useful tool in attracting the learners' attention to this gap. Bell's (2012) findings lend support to this claim when she considers language play as a type of interaction that draws the learners' attention to form-meaning relationships. She is of the opinion that language play shows learner proficiency and the more proficient learners are engaged in language play more than the other learners (Bell, 2005).

This better recall of the items in the experimental group could further be connected to the element of humor in this class. The presence of fun and humor during these activities might have helped the learners to remember the items better. Some of the language play-oriented activities such as syntactic play included strange and bizarre structure of words and this was funny for the learners. It might have helped them to remember the items better. This is in line with Keenan, MacWhinney, and Mayhew (1977) say that the unusual or emotionally laden sentences are remembered more than the other types of sentences. The effect of humorous sentences on the recall of the items could be further supported by Bates, Kintsch, Fletcher and Guiliani (1980) who conclude that bizarre language is more remembered in intentional learning environment. Also, Mc Daniel, Einstein, DeLosh, May, and Brady (1995) say that bizarre sentences are remembered more than common sentences. The following extract calls the learners attention to the syntactic play about "*The dinner*" and the language focus of the task is on the *present simple tense.* Syntactic play includes playing with the grammatical order of the sentences (Belz, 2002). In this example, the teacher initiated this kind of play by asking this question "As the clock thirty after 6 shows, do you get up?" instead of asking "Do you get up at six thirty?" and thus played with the order of the question. Later, the teacher encouraged the students to ask questions in the same way and play with the structure of the language.

Extract 3: The dinner!

S1: What time do you have dinner?
S2: As the clock, ehh, a quarter after one shows, should I have dinner.
T: (surprised) at one o'clock! You eat dinner? It is interesting!
S2: Ye:s! ha ha huh huh
T: (asks other students) do you eat dinner at one o'clock too?
S3: ha ha huh huh NO, we sleep at one o'clock ☺
SS: ha ha ha he he huh huh
S4: ha ha huh huh u:m tea:cher I watch TV at one o'clock.
T: huh huh☺ instead of studying your lessons, you watch TV?! ha ha huh huh ☺ don't you have exams?!
SS: ha ha huh huh huh
S4: but it ha ha huh huh enjoyable u:m to watch TV when you have exams he he he

Following the teacher, the learners try to play with the language syntactically. The first student asks the other one about the time she has dinner and the second student answers by changing the order of the sentence.

It may be concluded that language play is beneficial in better recall of the items in terms of grammar. It may imply that teachers need to subscribe to language play in their classes more.

4.3 The learners' attitude toward playful and non-playful form-focused tasks

The third research question was concerned with the attitude of the learners toward planned focus on form in playful and non-playful activities. To answer this question, the learner's opinion toward focus on form has been investigated in both groups.

The learners written comments illustrated that the students in the experimental group showed more interest for focus on form activities and enjoyed it more whereas the learners in the control group found these activities boring and difficult to manage. For example, one of the students in the experimental group stated:

"I didn't have stress when I was finding the answers to the activities, I was relaxed and I was not afraid of saying the wrong answer."

Another student said:

"I didn't like grammar at first but when we did the activities together in the class by playing with the words, I wanted to do more of these activities because playing with the words was interesting and funny."

While the learners in the experimental group showed satisfaction for language play-oriented tasks, the learners' comments in the control group on these tasks were not in line with that of the experimental group. For instance, one of the learners in the control group said:

"I think we have enough exercises for grammar and they are difficult enough, so we don't need extra exercises for grammar."

Some other students stated that they didn't like grammar in general and they don't want to do exercises related to them.

"Thanks for coping and bringing these tasks to the class but I don't like grammar, it's boring, it's not your fault!"

The learners' comments in the experimental group showed that they had a positive attitude towards form-focused tasks.

It could be argued that one of the immediate effects of language play in the learning environment is that it reduces the anxiety of the students and creates a warm and relaxing atmosphere for their learning. For example, the language play initiated by the teacher in the present study changed the role of the teacher and the students and in this way, the social distance between the teacher and the learners diminished and the students felt free to talk and to participate in classroom activities. This echoes Tarone (2000) when she posits that language play lowers the affective factor in the learning environment. Language play in the present study helped the teacher and the students to free themselves from the dominant discourse prevalent in most of the language classrooms (Forman, 2011). This finding is also in harmony with what the teacher did in Sullivan (2000) by changing a dry classroom practice into an interesting activity. The same thing happened in Pomerantz and Bell (2007)

where the teacher and the students collaborated with each other by playing with the boring conversation topic and created emotionally charged, linguistically rich discussion in the class.

Additionally, language play reduced the learners' anxiety in the experimental group by giving other identities to the learners and helped them to save face. Concerning this issue, Vandergriff (2009) argues that through language play, the learners gain new identities and interact with their friends with that identity. In this way, they can interact with others with the fake identities they have created for themselves and save face. Along similar lines, Warring (2012) believes that when the learners are given situational, relational and personal identities, they enter another universe which is not restricted by defined roles and classroom setting. She discusses that the learners have an equal participation when play is included in the conversation. For example, in the extract presented above about the pragmatic play of the learners during this study, the learners feel free to talk in a relaxed way with each other, they practice the present continuous and they play with the language but they take a different identity and this makes them feel comfortable. The following example represents pragmatic play which is about "*The place of foods*". One type of pragmatic play includes playing with the identity and is defined by Vandergriff (2009) as a type of pretend play that allows the speaker to take on a different identity and speak with the voice of someone else. For instance, in the task that focused on *the present continuous*, the teacher took the role of the father of the house and asked the students playfully "What are you doing in the TV room?" thus talking to the learners with a different voice while making a connection between the living room and watching TV semantically. Or the teacher asked the students "What are you doing in the restaurant of the house?" by taking the role of the mother as another different voice. The teacher encouraged the students to take the role of other family members as different voices and engage in pragmatic play.

Extract 4: The place of foods!

S1: What are doing in the *place of foods*?
S2: I talk huh huh huh with the foods ☺
T: (surprised) You talk with the foods?! What do you say?!
SS: he he he huh huh huh ☺
[say ha ha which one of you huh huh u:m delicious?!] ☺
S2: ha ha huh huh I say I come and EAT you
T: ☺ so you say to the foods "I will come and I will eat you!"
S2: Yeah ha ha I say I am eating you!

Following the teacher's example, the leaners play with the language pragmatically. One of the students takes the role of the mother of the house and refers to the kitchen as "the place of foods". The second student answers playfully by saying that she is talking with the foods. Pragmatic play like parodying or double-voicing, believes Vandergriff (2009), frees the learners from a pressure dominant in language learning classes and is considered to be a comic relief. Warring (2012) echoes the same opinion by arguing that stepping outside one's current situational identity upgrades the laudability of his/her language performance.

Furthermore, language play increased the learners' intrinsic motivation. As was stated by one of the students in the experimental group, the learners wanted to do grammar exercises more because they were playing with the language and it was funny for them. The following extract shows a type of language play which is called the creation of imaginary scenarios and it is about "*The toothbrush in a rush*". In this type of play, imaginary worlds of fiction are created which are not real (Cook, 2000). In this extract, the learners ask *wh-questions* related to the picture of a toothbrush. First the teacher asks one of the students about the time that her toothbrush is in a rush to brush the learner's teeth.

Extract 5: The toothbrush in a rush!

T: when is your toothbrush in a rush to (the students' laughter interrupts the sentence)
SS: ha ha ha huh huh huh
S1: heeehhh tea:cher can toothbrush *hurry*?!
T: ☺Ye:s ha ha ha why not?! ☺
S2: huh huh I no brush my tee:th
SS: ha ha ha ha ha
T: Lucky toothbrush! So it is always resting?!
SS: ha ha huh ☺
[always on a picnic]
T: ok, how about others? When is your toothbrush in a rush to brush your teeth? Imagine that you are running and the toothbrush is following you and it says plea:se brush your teeth
SS: ha ha ha ha
Huh huh huh [playing hide and seek with the toothbrush!]
S3: my toothbrush is in a rush *every* day
S4: my toothbrush u:m is in rush huh huh *one* time a year
SS: ha ha ha ha huh huh huh
T: ☺ interesting! ☺you brush your teeth only *once* a yea:r?! poor your teeth!
SS: ha ha huh huh huh
S4: ☺ yes huh huh once a year
S5: tea:cher I chew a gum eh no need for brush.. so my toothbrush is not in ru:sh huh huh huh
SS: ha ha ha huh huh huh
T:☺ it is so strange! ☺ but we need to brush our teeth every day, don't we?
S6: ha ha ah NO eh we put perfume on teeth ☺
SS: ha ha ha huh huh huh
T: Come o:n! It's not a good idea?!
S6: ye:s it is very good smell
T: (surprised) *Really*?!
S6: No, I ha ha huh huh u:m I am joking

Upon hearing this question, the whole class burst into laughter. Then, one of the students asks whether it is possible for a toothbrush to be in a hurry. Then another student responds to the teacher's question by saying that she doesn't brush her teeth. The teacher regards her toothbrush as lucky and says that her toothbrush rests all the time. Another student says that her toothbrush is in a rush once a year. One of the students contends that chewing a gum is enough and she doesn't need to brush her teeth and finally, another student suggests that using a perfume can make the teeth smell good.

As is seen in the above extract, learners were motivated to continue the story and do more exercises. Deci and Ryan (1985) consider play as one of the main features of intrinsically motivating behavior. Similarly, Bushnell (2009) points out that language play acts as a motivator and facilitator in learning a second language. It is argued that the learners don't negotiate for meaning in the classroom because it is a face threatening act for them but when they engage in language play, they create a non-real world for them and they can negotiate for meaning easily. In this way, language play plays a role in improving the grammatical accuracy of the learners by motivating the learners to practice more.

Also of note is the fact that language play helped the learners to socialize better in the second language and to participate more in the activities. As the playful interactions of the learners illustrated, the participants interacted with each other and with the teacher during these activities and played with the language. Forman (2011) points out that the teacher-led language play may have a positive impact upon students' engagement in the learning process. Also, according to Bushnell (2009), language play provides affordances for learners to engage in social interaction.

As the results illustrated, language play improved the grammatical accuracy of the learners during the present study, it also helped them to recall the language items better and finally, it caused the learners to have a positive attitude towards form-focused activities in the classroom.

5. Conclusions

The present study sought to determine the effect of language play-oriented tasks with planned focus on form on Iranian EFL learners' accuracy in controlled writings. The effect of language play on the learners' grammatical accuracy was measured through a post-test. In addition, the learners' classroom interactions were recorded and transcribed as a qualitative measurement to further shed light on the findings of the study. Moreover, the attitudes of the students toward planned focus on form was investigated in playful and non-playful form-focused tasks.

The results showed that language play could be employed in language classes as a means of teaching and learning grammar. In the present study, the teacher used language play-oriented activities to help the learners to understand the grammatical points better. Also language play acted as a provider of feedback to the learners, as a useful tool of initiating collaboration among the learners and the teacher, was considered to be an aid to memory by helping the students to retain the items for a long time, reduced the participants' anxiety during the class, saves their face, increased their motivation and helped them to socialize better in the classroom.

6. Implications

The first implication of the present study concerns EFL teachers and learners in Iran. Education in Iran is without fun. When observed, teaching grammar is considered a boring activity by many teachers and learners in the classroom. Most of the students get bored after some routine teaching and start talking with their classmates or they play with their mobile phones. Teachers and material designers should find techniques to address the attention span of the learners. One of these ways may be the inclusion of language play and fun as a spice in the classroom. Teachers could employ language play in almost all the activities they do in the classroom. In this way, language play could help to keep the students involved in the class and it may lead to peer-assisted noticing of language forms.

Furthermore, to be able to communicate efficiently in the second language, the learners need to be accurate grammatically but most of the school students in Iran do not like grammar and they consider English classes as boring and exhausting. However, to be accurate and fluent in a second language, the students need formal instruction and the teachers have to be loyal to the school book and teach it to the learners without using any other material in the class. The language teachers may make the teaching of grammar funny and humorous for the learners by integrating the activities present in the school's book with language play types without the need to another source other than the school's book.

Another implication of the present study to the field is that language play and fun could become an integral part of textbooks and material developers may embed language play types in the books as a major activity. As a consequence, the books will not be boring and routine for the learners and they will enjoy learning.

Finally, the present study is a new contribution to the line of research on focus on form in the EFL context of Iran. The effect of language play on focus on form activities is an under - researched area in Iranian EFL context and it is hoped that the present study could pave the way for further research in this area.

7. Limitations and suggestions for further research

One of the factors that posed limitations on the generalizability of the present study was that some participants were not engaged in language play activities or produced a few instances of language play and this factor limited the generalizability of the study. This might be due to the fact that these students are accustomed to serious language learning environments and when they are exposed to this kind of learning, they do not feel comfortable and prefer to be silent in the class. It is well-known that students have different learning styles. Some students learn in a serious setting and some others learn by joking, fun and games in the classroom. Bell (2012) relates this to the different personality and learning styles of the learners. Another reason could be the fact that the learners were not familiar to each other at the beginning of the class and it took them some time to get used to each other and start playing with the language in their pair-work activities. The learners avoided joking with new acquaintances because they did not want to be misunderstood (Bell, 2012) or they might simply had a strong desire to save their public face. It is suggested that future research on language play be carried out with only interested learners in language play by giving them a questionnaire and investigating their interest in games and the presence of humor in the learning environment.

Another limitation of the present study is the sample because it was carried out with only two elementary classes in a private language institute where most of the learners were motivated to learn English and it was not an obligatory subject for them. It is possible that more clear results would be obtained if the present study is replicated with school students whose language classes are mandatory for them as part of their education. Although the students took language proficiency test at the beginning of the treatment, the classes were intact and no random selection of the participants were done.

Also, the present study was done with only female participants and gender was a control variable in the present study. It calls for further research to examine the effect of language play-oriented tasks on the grammatical accuracy of male and female learners during focus on form activities.

And finally, it was not possible to record the pair-work interactions of the learners individually because of the policies of the language institute in which the study was carried out and the whole classroom session is recorded. The researcher relied on field notes when transcribing the learners' interactions with their peers and with their teacher. Future research may record the classroom interactions of the pairs and it may yield better results.

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Appendix A. Transcription conventions (Bell, 2012)

. sentence final falling intonation

, clause-final intonation

! animated tone

? rising intonation

- glottal stop: sound abruptly cut off; self-interruption

italics emphatic stress

CAPS much louder

° words° much quieter

: after a vowel indicates elongated vowel sound

/words/ in slashes indicate uncertain transcription wo[rds overlapping speech

[words

= latching

• intake of breath hhh aspiration

HHH aspiration/laughter while speaking

(quietly) description of voice quality or non-verbal action

(. . .) intervening turns at talk have been omitted

(.) pause of $^{1}/_{2}$ second or less

(7) pause of this many seconds

☺great ☺ smiling voice quality

Planlanmış Biçim-Odaklı Öğretime Dayalı Dil Oyunu-Yöneltimi Görevlerin İranlı İngilizce Öğrencilerin Denetimli Yazma Üzerindeki Etkisi

Öz

İkinci dil öğreniminde dil oyunu ve etkilerine son yıllarda birçok bilim adamı tarafından, hem sınıf içi hem de sınıf dışı olarak tanımlanmış dil oyunu örnekleriyle, dikkat çekilmiştir. Ancak çok az bir kısmı sınıf içi etkinliklerle birlikte dil oyunları ile bütünleştirilmiştir ve bu çok az kısım sadece öğrenen etkileşimlerinin nitel analizleri için yeterli olmuştur. Bu çalışmada, planlanmış biçim-odaklı öğretime dayalı dil oyunu-yöneltimi görevlerin İranlı İngilizce öğrencilerin denetimli yazmaya olan etkisi incelenmiştir Ön-test son-test yöntemi kullanılarak, çalışmanın kullanıcılarına özel dilsel özelliklere odaklanmış bir dizi anlamlı görev uygulanmıştır. Dil oyun türlerinden anlamsal oyun, hayali senaryoların oluşturulması, sözlü anlatım oyunu, sözdizimsel oyun, edim bilgisi oyun, dilsel oyun ve sözlü düelloyu kapsayan görevler özel bir okuldaki İngilizce öğrencilerine ile birlikte 12 hafta boyunca yürütülmüştür. Alan notlarının yanı sıra verilen uygulama yöntemlerini gösteren görev ve bölüm örneklerinin, zaman zaman kayıt altına alınan, ses kayıtları da alınmıştır. Bulgular dil oyunu görevlerin dil oyunu olmayan dil öğrenimi aktivitelerine karşı üstünlük taşıdığını, oyun görevlerin daha iyi hatırlandığını gösteren öğelerle ortaya koymuştur. Bu çalışma İngilizce sınıflarında dil oyunu görevlerinin, tasarlanmış biçime odaklı öğretim ile bütünleştirilmesini gerektirir ve İngilizce öğretmenlerinin bir dizi buna bezer görevlerle birlikte sınıflarında eğlenceli ve rahatlatıcı bir atmosfer oluşturmalarını sağlar.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Dil oyunu; ikinci / yabancı dil öğrenimi; görev temelli öğretim; biçime odaklanma; mizah

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