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## THE EFFECT OF PRACTICUM ON THE DISCIPLINE ORIENTATIONS OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS

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### Abstract

This study aimed to examine the classroom discipline perceptions of pre-service language teachers both before and after the student teaching experience. Before going to their practice schools and immediately after completing their full-time student teaching experience, pre-service teachers (N = 104) from three state universities in the Turkey completed a discipline belief questionnaire identifying their preferred model of classroom discipline. The results indicated that although the student teaching experience in practice schools increased beginning teachers' preferences from a humanistic discipline model to a more assertive discipline model, this increase is not significant. These results show that the student teaching experience does not create a difference in previous perceptions and beliefs of pre-service teachers. The results of the study also suggest that student teachers' preconceptions regarding the profession will not change despite the practical experience gained during practicum.

*Keywords:* classroom management, discipline, pre-service teacher, practicum experience

### 1. Introduction

Classroom management is a multi-faceted part of teaching, including instructional management, people management and behavior management (Nancy, Zenong & Beatrice, 1998). To Doyle (1986; in Zuckerman, 2000), it refers to the process of establishing and maintaining social order so that instruction and learning can occur. Nevertheless, we see that the term is usually equated with discipline, the treatment of misbehavior, behaviors teachers regard as disrupting or threatening to disrupt instruction.

One of the frightening issues for teachers is to deal with the misbehaviors of challenging students in the classroom. Although confrontations do not take place every day in every classroom, most teachers have to deal with a student acting aggressively and speaking in the classroom. For the sake of responding to student misbehavior and creating a more supportive classroom climate, the mission of preparing effective teachers is becoming harder for pre-service teacher education programs (Kaya, Lundeen & Wolfgang, 2010). Discipline is generally believed to be necessary for students to be successful in education, especially during the compulsory education period (Kilimci, 2009). Pre-service teacher education students are concerned with discipline-related problems in schools. Therefore, perceptions of discipline influence preservice teachers in many different ways as they go about making decisions regarding management, discipline, and career choices (Young, Snead & Sutarso, 2013).

## **2. Relevant Research**

Weinstein (1998) believes in the importance of helping prospective teachers develop broader, more inclusive notions of both caring and order. According to the results of her study in which one hundred forty-one teacher education students think about achieving order mainly in terms of management rather than pedagogy or interpersonal relationships.

Tartwijk et al. (2009) tried to find an answer to the question “Which elements of practical knowledge underlying classroom management strategies, are shared by teachers who are successful in creating a positive working atmosphere in their multicultural classroom?” In their interviews, teachers mostly referred to the importance of providing and enforcing clear procedures and sound rules, and implementing those procedure and rules in way that no escalation occurs with negative consequences for the classroom climate.

Again another study with a different multicultural perspective was conducted by Lewis et al. (2008). They investigated the extent to which students from three diverse countries (Australia, Israel, and China) report that their teachers’ classroom disciplinary behavior affects their attitudes towards schoolwork and the teacher. Regarding the results of six strategies (Punishment, Discussion, Recognition, Aggression, Involvement, Hinting), they found that a) both punishment and aggression have a reasonably strong association with distraction and negative affect towards the teacher, b) the use of recognitions and discussions with students, were found to relate to less distraction, greater liking of the teacher and c) more hinting and involvement of students in decision making related to a stronger belief that the discipline actions taken by a teacher are warranted.

The findings of the study investigated by Buyukkarci and Genc (2007) indicate that Turkish student-teachers generally prefer an interactionist approach towards students’ (mis)behaviors. Although their attitudes may differ depending on the condition they come across, they tend to be in more interaction with their students.

According to the findings reported by Bada and Genc (2008), prospective teachers’ perceived problems mostly originated from students. Of primary concern for the participants was observed to be the issue of discipline in classroom. Most of these solutions were categorized into three main groups: interventionist, interactionist, and non-interventionist. The obtained data from this study illustrates that interventionism was the most favoured classroom management approach (51%). Interactionism, with 38%, was by all means found to be an effective way in dealing with discipline problems, and non-interventionism, by 11%, was not found to be an influential way in responding to classroom management problems.

Research on teacher beliefs during the pre-service period of teaching preparation remains a major focus for those wishing to understand, educate, and train beginning teachers. The main question that drives this research is how the discipline perceptions of pre-service teachers develops and changes over time. Therefore, this study aimed to reveal the changes in beliefs about discipline as a result of the situation-specific student teaching experience.

## **3. Methodology**

### **3.1. Participants**

The sample consisted of 104 teacher candidates enrolled in English Language Teaching programs (ELT) at three different universities in Turkey: 57 pre-service teachers from Gazi University, 27 from Cukurova University and 20 from Inonu University. ELT programs in the three universities were similar in terms of course contents and applications. After completing similar, state-mandated pre-requisite courses, all pre-service teachers took courses such as Approaches to Language Teaching I-II, Teaching Language Skills I-II, etc.

Prior to the full-time student teaching experience, pre-service teachers in all three universities also completed a course on classroom management, which emphasized management techniques, discipline models, ethics, and legal issues.

### 3.2. Research Questions

In this study we have tried to find answers to the following research questions:

1. Are there any differences among ELT students from different universities in Turkey in terms of their discipline orientations?
2. Are there any differences between male and female ELT students from different universities in Turkey in terms of their discipline orientations?
3. Does the practicum study have any effect on the discipline orientations of ELT students in Turkey?

### 3.3. Data Collection

In order to evaluate student teachers' beliefs on classroom discipline, this study used the "Beliefs about Discipline Inventory", as developed by Glickman and Tamashiro (1980, cited in Kaya, Lundeen & Wolfgang, 2010). The inventory has three subscales: Relationship-Listening; Confronting-Contracting; and Rules and Consequences. It was administered at two specific points during the study: prior to entering the classroom for the student teaching experience and immediately after the student teaching semester. Data was collected at the universities during meetings with the university supervisors. Participant anonymity was kept safe by means of numeric coding practices. The participants were given 12 dichotomous choices between two value statements representing one of three discipline-philosophical view points:

- (1) Relationship–Listening (RL); (2) Confronting–Contracting (CC); and (3) Rules and Consequences (RC).

The participants were told to choose between two competing philosophical value statements and then to locate responses for each numbered question on the self-scoring record that was included with the inventory. The following are examples of the statements presented in the inventory:

*(1) The books and similar classroom equipment are being misused, soiled, and at times destroyed. I will most likely:*

*a. Hold a class meeting, show the damaged books to the class, and ask them how we may solve this problem, including what action should be taken toward a student found to be misusing books. (Confronting-Contracting).*

*b. Physically remove or limit the number of books available and observe closely to see who is misusing the books. I would then tell that student how such action was affecting other students and how I felt about the loss of such books. (Relationship-Listening).*

Subscale scores for each of the three discipline models were obtained by adding response scores in three sets of pairwise comparisons (RL, CC, and RC). Comparisons among RL, CC, and RC were each described by four items where eight responses fell under each subscale. Thus, scores on each subscale range from zero to eight. A score of zero on any subscale shows that the participant does not approve the underlying discipline model for any of the items. On the contrary, a score of eight points out that a preference toward that discipline model is reaffirmed for every item. The subscale with the highest score indicates the preferred discipline model represented.

The validity and reliability of the Beliefs about Discipline Inventory was previously established. Kaya, Lundeen & Wolfgang (2010) field-tested the instrument with 220 teachers. They reported the alpha reliability coefficients of subscales as 0.73 for Relationship-Listening, 0.84 for Confronting-Contracting, and 0.76 for Rules and Consequences.

### 3.4. Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics for the subscale scores of RL, CC, and RC reported both before and after the pre-service teachers' teaching experience was completed. Using SPSS 16 program, paired-sample t-tests was conducted to examine the score differences among the subscales.

## 4. Results and Discussion

In this section, we discussed the responses given to the items in the discipline inventory by the three groups of participants (Gazi University ELT students, Inonu University ELT students and Cukurova University ELT students). As mentioned in the methodology section, the three participant groups filled out the discipline inventory before the start of practicum and after the completion of the practicum.

**Research Question 1:** Are there any differences among ELT students from different universities in Turkey in terms of their discipline orientations?

In Table 1 below, we have provided the descriptive statistics of three groups' scores for three discipline models applied during the four months (one academic term) to the senior students at three different universities.

Table 1. *The results of descriptive statistics among groups*

		Groups	N	$\bar{X}$	Sd
Pre-Tests	Relationship-Listening (RL)	Gazi	57	4.2632	1.17300
		Cukurova	27	4.2222	1.25064
		Inonu	20	4.9000	1.02084
		Total	104	4.3750	1.18393
	Confronting-Contracting (CC)	Gazi	57	4.9474	1.50500
		Cukurova	27	4.9630	1.22416
		Inonu	20	4.9000	1.20961
		Total	104	4.9423	1.37118
	Rules-Consequences (RC)	Gazi	57	2.7544	1.44272
		Cukurova	27	2.7778	1.18754
		Inonu	20	2.2000	.95145
		Total	104	2.6538	1.30547
Post Tests	Relationship-Listening (RL)	Gazi	57	4.3684	1.38398
		Cukurova	27	4.2963	1.43620
		Inonu	20	4.5500	1.46808
	Total	104	4.3846	1.40255	
	Confronting-Contracting (CC)	Gazi	57	4.5439	1.69105
		Cukurova	27	4.7407	1.65466
Inonu		20	4.9000	1.25237	

	Total	104	4.6635	1.59861
	Gazi	57	3.0877	1.43029
	Cukurova	27	2.9630	1.19233
Rules-Consequences (RC)	Inonu	20	2.4500	1.53811
	Total	104	2.9327	1.40225

As seen in Table 1, in Pre-tests, the average score of RL Inonu ( $X= 4.90$ ) is higher than Gazi ( $X= 4.26$ ) and Cukurova ( $X= 4.22$ ); the mean scores of CC Inonu ( $X= 4.90$ ), Gazi ( $X= 4.94$ ) and Cukurova ( $X= 4.96$ ) are similar; the mean scores of RC Gazi ( $X= 2.75$ ) and Cukurova ( $X= 2.77$ ) are higher than Inonu ( $X= 2.20$ ). In the Post tests, the average scores of RL Gazi ( $X= 4.36$ ), Cukurova ( $X= 4.29$ ) and Inonu ( $X= 4.55$ ) are similar; the mean score of CC Inonu ( $X= 4.90$ ) is higher than Gazi ( $X= 4.54$ ) and Cukurova ( $X= 4.74$ ); the mean scores of RC Gazi ( $X= 3.08$ ) and Cukurova ( $X= 2.96$ ) are higher than Inonu ( $X= 2.45$ ). Although there were some differences in some models of classroom discipline among the groups, the difference in mean scores among the groups was small.

A One-Way ANOVA among groups analysis of variance was conducted to investigate the changes in pre-service teachers' views towards the three models of classroom discipline.

Table 2. *The results of One Way ANOVA among groups*

		Sum of Squares	sd	Mean Square	F	P*
RL	Between Groups	6.856	2	3.428		
	Within Groups	137.519	101	1.362	2.518	.086
	Total	144.375	103			
Pre-Tests CC	Between Groups	.049	2	.024		
	Within Groups	193.605	101	1.917	.013	.987
	Total	193.654	103			
RC	Between Groups	5.110	2	2.555		
	Within Groups	170.428	101	1.687	1.514	.225
	Total	175.538	103			
RL	Between Groups	.773	2	.386		
	Within Groups	201.843	101	1.998	.193	.825
	Total	202.615	103			
Post Tests CC	Between Groups	2.096	2	1.048		
	Within Groups	261.126	101	2.585	.405	.668
	Total	263.221	103			
RC	Between Groups	6.054	2	3.027		
	Within Groups	196.474	101	1.945	1.556	.216
	Total	202.529	103			

\* $p>.05$

According to the results of One Way Anova among groups, as can be seen in Table 2 there were not statistically significant differences among them (in pre tests, RL ( $F=2.518$ ), CC



( $F=0.13$ ), RC ( $F=1.514$ ); in post tests, RL ( $F=.193$ ), CC ( $F=.405$ ), RC ( $F=1.556$ ). In addition, the results of all items revealed that there were not significant differences among the pre-service teachers' preferences in three discipline models after the completion of the full-time student teaching experience ( $p>.05$ ).

*Research Question 2:* Are there any differences between male and female ELT students from different universities in Turkey in terms of their discipline orientations?

One Way ANOVA was again conducted on the scores of participants in order to see whether there is a significant difference between genders.

Table 3. *The results of One Way ANOVA between genders*

		<b>Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b><math>\bar{X}</math></b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P*</b>
<b>Pre-Tests</b>	<b>RL</b>	F	82	4.4024	1.17442		
		M	22	4.2727	1.24142	.207	.650
		Total	104	4.3750	1.18393		
	<b>CC</b>	F	82	4.9512	1.41336		
		M	22	4.9091	1.23091	.016	.899
		Total	104	4.9423	1.37118		
	<b>RC</b>	F	82	2.6220	1.33000		
		M	22	2.7727	1.23179	.230	.633
		Total	104	2.6538	1.30547		
<b>Post Tests</b>	<b>RL</b>	F	82	4.3780	1.47104		
		M	22	4.4091	1.14056	.008	.927
		Total	104	4.3846	1.40255		
	<b>CC</b>	F	82	4.6951	1.52096		
		M	22	4.5455	1.89554	.151	.699
		Total	104	4.6635	1.59861		
	<b>RC</b>	F	82	2.9024	1.34816		
		M	22	3.0455	1.61768	.179	.673
		Total	104	2.9327	1.40225		

\* $p>.05$

As seen in Table 3, there were not any considerable changes in terms of genders on the discipline model preferences of seniors from three different universities ( $p>.05$ ); (in pre-tests, RL ( $p=.650$ ), CC ( $p=.899$ ), RC ( $p=.633$ ); in post tests, RL ( $p=.927$ ), CC ( $p=.699$ ), RC ( $p=.673$ ).

*Research Questions 3:* Does the practicum study have any effect on the discipline orientations of ELT students in Turkey?

A paired-samples t-test was also conducted to compare the scores of pre and post tests including models of classroom discipline and to see the impact of the senior teaching experience during one semester.

Table 4. *The results of paired samples t-test*

	N	$\bar{X}$	Sd	t	Df	p*
preRL - postRL	104	-.00962	1.95828	-.050	103	.960
preCC - postCC	104	.27885	2.14275	1.327	103	.187
preRC - postRC	104	-.27885	1.92307	-1.479	103	.142

\*p&gt;.05

The results of paired samples t-test in Table 4 demonstrated that there were not significant differences between pre tests and post tests, preRL - postRL:  $t(103)=0.050$   $p>.05$ ), preCC - postCC:  $t(103)= 1.327$   $p>.05$ ), preRC - postRC:  $t(103)= 1.479$   $p>.05$ ). According to these findings, there were not any significant changes on the preferences of pre-service teachers in discipline orientations.

In the study conducted with the participation of 220 pre-service elementary teachers, Kaya, Lundeen and Wolfgang (2010) found that the student teaching experience significantly increased beginning teachers' preferences toward a more assertive discipline model (Rules and Consequences) and decreased their preferences toward the humanistic discipline model (Relationship-Listening), which indicates a disagreement between pre-service teachers' prior beliefs and experience in classrooms.

In our study, however, we observed just a slight increase in the beginning teachers' preferences toward a more assertive model and just a slight decrease toward the humanistic model. Having a look the distribution of the participants in our study, we could argue that the difference between the findings of Kaya, Kundeen and Wolfgang and those of our study could be due to the participant student teachers' majors. It seems that language major student teachers display a more humanist attitude toward their students.

Another possible cause for the difference could be the age of the students attending the practicum. Elementary school teachers generally work with younger students. Foreign language education was offered to only the 4<sup>th</sup> grade and older students; therefore, foreign language teachers meet the students who have become accustomed to school rules and a more disciplined life.

One of the most important issues in teacher education programs is the problem of bridging the gap between theory and practice. This problem has long been discussed among educational circles. When we have a look at the questionnaire results, we see that there is just a slight change between the student teachers' prior ideas and ideas following the practicum. One or all of the four suggested causes for the gap between theory and practice can account for this slight change:

- Students' prior knowledge plays a powerful role in their learning process and their beliefs show resistance to change.
- If student teachers do not have personal concerns or have not encountered concrete problems, they do not perceive the usefulness of theoretical knowledge.



- The nature of teaching: Teachers' behaviors in classrooms are influenced by a variety of factors such as curriculum, context and students' way of responding, and teachers have to find concrete answers to situations. Those problems cannot easily be solved by the abstract, systematized and general expert knowledge that student teachers get at their teacher education programs.
- Teacher training programs are generally focused on providing professional knowledge to prospective teachers and display negligence towards feeling and emotions of teachers. However, the problem of dealing with the natural emotional reactions of human beings to the threat of losing certainty, predictability or stability is also associated with promoting fundamental professional change (Korthagen, 2011)

Finally, as with Weinstein's (1998) study, in our study our single data collection instrument was a questionnaire, which, as Weinstein argued, may have influenced findings. Questionnaires have the advantage of involving large number of participants into the study; however, they may produce ambiguous results which lead the researchers to a misunderstanding.

## **5. Conclusion**

Without a doubt the student teaching experience is a crucial period for the career of prospective teachers. Results of this study might suggest that teacher training programs in the field of language teaching in Turkey have quite a liberal approach to teaching in that the students teachers participated in this study revealed a tendency towards 'giving an ear to' students. That there is just a slight change in the student teachers' ideas towards 'rules and consequences' also suggests that the effects of liberal education is so prevailing that a real life experience in a language classrooms is not enough to dissuade the students teachers from their 'liberal' belief.

The results of the current study also suggest the ages of the students affects the way teachers handle discipline problems in the classrooms. When working with a younger group, a teacher might espouse a stricter way of classroom management; while with a relatively older group the teacher might tend to prefer a more relax discipline in the classroom.

Finally, we should always bear in mind that classroom discipline problems may require unique intervention approaches depending on the school and community. We, however, believe that research both on the teachers', student teachers' perceptions and universal principles to solve classroom discipline problems will go on.

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## **BENEFITS OF MULTILINGUALISM IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF BILINGUAL AND MULTILINGUAL GRAMMAR STRATEGIES**

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# **BENEFITS OF MULTILINGUALISM IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF BILINGUAL AND MULTILINGUAL GRAMMAR STRATEGIES**

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## **Abstract**

In 21st century world in which the borders fade away, multilingualism and meeting multilingual individuals is quite a common phenomenon. This study aims to reveal any difference between multilingual and bilingual learners in constructing grammar strategies while learning English as L2 for bilinguals and L3 for multilinguals. It is hypothesized that multilinguals have superior grammar strategies when compared with bilinguals as they have linguistic knowledge for one more language. In this study, 3 groups of bilinguals (2 coordinate- additive bilingual groups and 1 balanced bilingual group) are compared with a group of multilinguals. Linguistic inventory for all bilingual groups include English and Turkish while it is French, Turkish and English for multilingual group. Current study is a quantitative one that includes a 33 item likert type questionnaire on grammar strategies by Kemp (2007). Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the study was calculated as .814 which indicated a high level of reliability. Data obtained from multilingual and bilingual groups were compared through Mann Whitney U Test and correlations are presented to reveal any difference. In the conclusion part, recommendations are given for instructors of multilingual and bilingual classes.

*Keywords:* Multilingualism, foreign language learning, grammar strategies

## **1. Introduction**

### **1.1. Bilingualism and Multilingualism: Definitions and Variations**

Today, bilingualism and multilingualism are quite trendy and important terms for language learning. Reasons for bilingualism and multilingualism range from political factors to natural disasters. Also education, culture, economy and religion are some other defining factors of multilingualism. Due to the changes by such factors, meeting individuals having 2 or more languages are quite natural and common today. This study focuses on these 2; bilingual and multilingual learners.

#### **1.1.1 Bilingualism: definitions and varieties**

The term ‘bilingual’ is common yet complex filled with varying uses in the general media, education, and politics (Sia and Dewaele, 2006). Researchers in second language acquisition, language teaching pedagogy, sociolinguistics, or psycholinguistics, may all be applying different definitions to the concept. As being defined differently by various SLA authorities, bilingualism can be defined as the ability to speak 2 languages or the habitual use of two languages colloquially and bilinguals are the individuals who have that ability in general (Fabbro 1999, Ellis 1994). Likewise, Oksaar (1983) defines bilingualism as the ability of a person to use here and now two or more languages as a means of communication in most situations and to switch from one language to the other if necessary. Similarly, Skutnabb-Kangas (1984) allows for more than two languages to be present in the person she defines as bilingual. The extent of this ability is the native like proficiency for some authorities while



some others see practicality enough. Weinrich (1966) indicates a purposefully open ended general definition by stating that bilingualism is the practice of using two languages. On the other hand, Bloomfield (1933) defines it as the native like control of two languages. In addition, according to Haugen (1953) bilingualism is the ability to produce meaningful utterances in two languages while Diebold (1964) underlines that passive knowledge of L2 is enough for being a bilingual.

Having a vast number of varieties, bilingualism is also an umbrella term for many related terms. As a type of bilingualism, coordinate bilingualism refers to a person's learning of two languages in separate environments. A French learning English at school is a good example for this type. As the learning contexts are different, the mental references for items in each language will be different. As a sub type of coordinate bilingualism, sub coordinate bilingualism is the acquisition of L2 with the help of L1. In contrast to these, compound bilingualism is the learning of two languages in the same environment. A French child who acquired English and French at home simultaneously is a good example for this type of bilingualism. As the learning contexts are the same, items in two languages which have same meanings are coded as one image in brain. More variations of bilingualism are listed by Wei (2000):

**Table 1.** *A variety of Bilinguals*

Type of Bilingual	Definition
Additive Bilingual	An individual whose two languages combine in a complementary and enriching fashion.
Ascendant Bilingual	An individual whose ability to function in a second language is developing due to increased use.
Balanced Bilingual (equilingual) (symmetrical bilingual) (ambilingual)	An individual whose mastery of two languages is roughly equivalent.
Compound Bilingual	An individual whose two languages are learnt at the same time, often in the same context.
Co-ordinate Bilingual	An individual whose two languages are learnt in distinctively separate contexts.
Covert Bilingual	An individual who conceals his or her knowledge of a given language due to an attitudinal disposition.
Diagonal Bilingual	An individual who is bilingual in a non-standard language or a dialect in an unrelated standard language.
Dominant Bilingual	An individual with greater proficiency in one of his or her languages and uses it significantly more than the other language(s).
Dormant Bilingual	An individual who has emigrated to a foreign country for a considerable period of time and has little opportunity to keep the first language actively in use.
Early Bilingual (Ascribed Bilingual)	An individual who has acquired two languages early in childhood
Functional Bilingual	An individual who can operate in two languages with or without full fluency for the task in hand.
Horizontal bilingual	An individual who is bilingual in two distinct languages which have a similar or equal status.
Incipient Bilingual	An individual at the early stages of bilingualism where one language is not fully developed.
Late Bilingual (achieved bilingual)	An individual who has become a bilingual later than childhood.
Maximal Bilingual	An individual with near native control of two or more languages.
Minimal Bilingual	An individual with only a few words and phrases in a second language.
Natural Bilingual (primary bilingual)	An individual who has not undergone any specific training and who is often not in position to translate or interpret with facility between two languages.
Productive Bilingual	An individual who not only understands but also speaks and possibly writes in two or more languages.
Receptive Bilingual (semibilingual) (asymmetrical bilingual) (passive bilingual)	An individual who understands a second language, in either its spoken or written form, or both, but does not necessarily speak or write it.

Recessive Bilingual	An individual who begins to feel some difficulty in either understanding or expressing him or herself with ease, due to lack of use.
Secondary Bilingual	An individual whose second language has been added to a first language via instruction.
Semilingual	An individual with insufficient knowledge of either language.
Simultaneous bilingual	An individual whose two languages are present from the onset of speech.
Subordinate bilingual	An individual who exhibits interference in his or her language usage by reducing the patterns of the second language to those of the first.
Subtractive bilingual	An individual whose second language is acquired at the expense of the aptitudes already acquired in the first language.
Successive bilingual (consecutive bilingual)	An individual whose second language is added at some stage after the first has begun to develop.
Vertical bilingual	An individual who is bilingual in a standard language and a distinct but related language or dialect.

### 1.1.2. Multilingualism: definitions and varieties

Because of its complex nature and researchers' different background, ideology and purposes, definition for the term multilingualism has been a divergent one. Francheschini (2009) defines it as the capacity of societies, groups, institutions and individuals to operate in more than one language. According to McArthur (1992) multilingualism is the use three of more languages either separately or in various degrees of code mixing. Multilinguals may use a number of languages on account of many different social, cultural, and economic reasons. Different languages are used for different purposes and competency for each one varies. On the other hand, Kemp (2009) avoids giving exact language count by defining multilingualism as using a number of languages on account of many different social, cultural, and economic reasons. According to Common European Framework of Reference (2007) multilingualism refers exclusively to the presence of several languages in a given space, independently of those who use them. Hoffmann (2001) and Barnes (2006) conceptualize multilinguals in 5 categories:

1. Multilingual children who are brought up with two home languages which are different from the one spoken in the wider community;
2. Children who grow up in a bilingual community and whose home language (either that of one or both parents) is different from the community languages;
3. Third language learners, that is, bilinguals who acquire a third language in the school context;
4. Bilinguals who have become multilingual through immigration,
5. Members of multilingual communities.

As the categorization asserts, motivational and attitudinal factors may play a more predictable role in the case of groups 3 and 4, while psychological and personality-related factors carry greater importance in the first two groups.

## 2. Multilingual Superiority in Language Learning

The cognitive aspect of the number of acquired languages is a powerful determiner of language learning. It is a common saying that the more languages one knows, the easier it becomes to acquire an additional language. That is to say, multilinguals have already had the access to at least 2 linguistic systems with their lexicons, syntax, phonetics and syntax. Many studies on the effect of multilingualism showed that they are superior to monolinguals and bilinguals in language learning depending on three ways:

1. Multilinguals showed greater flexibility in switching strategies





2. They were more apt to modify new strategies and omit useless ones
3. They are more effective in using implicit learning technologies (Cenoz, 2009)

### **2.1. Cognitive Superiorities**

Multilingual mind have surely cognitive superiorities. Especially, schema theory is quite explanatory in understanding multilingual cognition. As a constructivist theory, schema theory strives to explain how knowledge is created and used by learners. According to schema theory, people organize everything they know into schemas or knowledge structures. People have schemas for everything in their lives including people, places, things, language, and skills. (Tracey&Morrow, 2006). It is important that schemas may develop regarding the characteristics of individuals, such as cook's having a larger schema on cooking. So multilinguals are expected to have larger schemas in their repertoires and this expands the horizons of their cognition. Cognitive superiorities can be listed as:

- parcel up and categorize meanings in different ways in new language;
- be more capable of separating meaning from form;
- have a better ear for listening and sharper memories
- be better language learners in institutionalized learning contexts because of more developed language-learning capacities owing to the more complex linguistic knowledge and higher language awareness;
- learn further languages more quickly and efficiently than their hitherto monolingual peers;
- have increased ability to apply more reading strategies effectively due to their greater experience in language learning and reading in two—or more—different languages;
- display generally greater cognitive flexibility, better problem solving and higher-order thinking skills;
- have improved critical thinking abilities;
- have a keener awareness and sharper perception of language.

### **2.2. Psycholinguistic Superiorities**

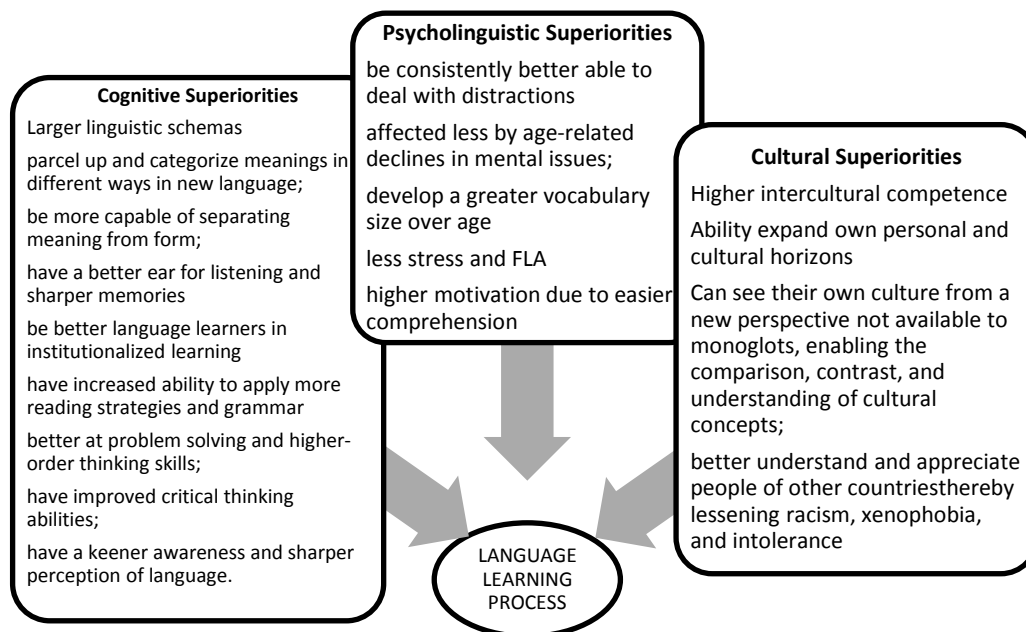
- be consistently better able to deal with distractions, which may help offset age-related declines in mental issues;
- develop a greater vocabulary size over age
- less stress and FLA (Dewaele et al. (2008)

### **2.3. Cultural Superiorities**

Multilinguals are also multicultural individuals who can adapt different cultures more easily. This is closely related with intercultural competence. Intercultural competence is the ability for successful communication with people of other cultures. This ability can be existing already at a young age, or be developed and improved thanks to willpower and competence. (Fantini, 2001). High level of intercultural competence in multilinguals enables multilingual individuals to acquire the target culture easier than bilinguals or monolinguals do.

- develop a markedly better language proficiency in, sensitivity to, and understanding of their mother tongue;
- multilinguals can expand their personal horizons and—being simultaneously insiders and outsiders—see their own culture from a new perspective not available to monoglots, enabling the comparison, contrast, and understanding of cultural concepts;

- better understand and appreciate people of other countries, thereby lessening racism, xenophobia, and intolerance, as the learning of a new language usually brings with it a revelation of a new culture.



## 2.4. Previous Research

According to Lambert (1979) multilingualism fosters third language acquisition as students who have added a second language to their linguistic repertoire have been reported to be better language learners. Likewise, Bild and Swain (1989) also claim that literacy in two or more languages has a positive effect on language learning. Similarly, a study by McLaughlin (1990) asserts that multilinguals use more learning strategies throughout the learning process than bilinguals or monolinguals do. Likewise, Thomas (1992) and Missler (1999) both concluded that the number of languages known defines the frequency of learning strategy usage. Ender (2007) found similar results in terms of learning strategies in his study in France. Moreover, in his study with 144 subjects who know 2-12 languages in Scotland, Kemp (2009) concluded that multilingual individuals showed greater success in grammar as they have more experience of different grammatical systems. This experience enabled multilinguals to apply more learning strategies than bilinguals do. Also Nayak, et al. (1990) studied a group of monolingual and multilingual subjects and concluded that multilingual subjects performed better than monolingual subjects in learning the rules for syntax when instructed that such rules existed, as well as in syntax tasks. Multilingual subjects were also more capable of structuring their strategies to the task, and used a wider variety of different strategies. They concluded that multilinguals have superior flexibility in switching strategies.

## 3. Method

### 3.1. Research Questions

- A. Is there a relationship between number of languages known and grammar learning strategy usage?
- B. Is there a relationship between proficiency levels in bilingualism and multilingualism in terms of building grammar strategies?



### 3.2. Participants

In this study, 99 subjects from ELT and FLT departments participated. Ages of the participants vary between 18- 28. Bilingual participants took English grammar courses in their first year for 2 semesters. On the other hand multilingual subjects took English grammar courses in their 3rd year and are still taking. Grammar courses of both groups can be categorized under pedagogical grammar. Numerical details are presented in Table 2 below:

**Table 2.** *Participants*

SUBJECTS	TOTAL N	FEMALES	MALES	LINGUISTIC VARIETY
ELT FRESHMEN (TUR- ENG)	40	33	7	ADDITIVE COORDINATE BILINGUAL
ELT SENIORS (TUR- ENG)	31	26	5	ADDITIVE COORDINATE BILINGUAL
ELT MA (TUR- ENG)	8	5	3	BALANCED BILINGUAL
FLT SOPHOMORES (TUR- FR- ENG)	20	16	4	MULTILINGUAL
<b>TOTAL N</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>19</b>	

### 3.3. Instruments

The 40 item scale designed by Kemp (2007) to measure grammar strategy construction among bilinguals and multilinguals was adapted by the researcher (see Appendix 1). 40th item of the questionnaire was excluded by the researcher as it was not understood clearly by the participants in piloting procedures. Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the current study is found as .814 which means that the study is highly reliable. Participants were asked to choose a number from five point Likert scale for each item as follows:

- |                         |                      |
|-------------------------|----------------------|
| (1) I never do this     | (4) I often do this  |
| (2) I seldom do this    | (5) I always do this |
| (3) I sometimes do this |                      |

The scale was translated to Turkish carefully to avoid misleading data as multilingual participants may have problems of comprehension. The scale was given to participants in class times and completed at one sitting.

### 3.4. Data Analysis

Data was analyzed through SPSS 20. 39 items are divided into 6 categories as was done in the original study. As data is not normally distributed, non-parametric tests have been applied. The categories for analysis are as follows:

- Memory for Grammar: Memorization techniques for new grammar
- Thinking of Grammar: Importance given to grammar while learning
- Analysis of Grammar : Ability to analyze and divide grammatical patterns
- Communicating using Grammar: Using grammar in all communicative activities
- Organizing Grammar Learning: Error correction
- Using Grammar with other people: New grammar in oral communication

## 4. Results and Discussion

In this part, answers to the research questions are given by referring to statistical data.

#### 4.1. Is there a relationship between number of languages known and grammar strategy building?

It is hypothesized that there is a strong correlation between grammar strategies and number of languages known. As the languages known increase, efficiency in grammar strategies automatically increases. The correlation between these two is shown in Table 3 below:

**Table 3.** *Correlation between languages known and grammar learning str.*

		GS
	Spearman Rho Correlation Coefficient	,366**
languagesknown	Sig. (2-tailed)	<b>,000</b>
	N	99

According to Table 3, there is a strong correlation between languages known and usage of grammar strategies in general (Sig. (2-Tailed) < 0.05). So, statistics indicate that there is a positive correlation between number of languages known and frequency of grammar learning strategies. As the number of languages known increases, the frequency of grammar strategies usage increases. It can clearly be stated that multilingual learners use more grammar strategies more frequently than bilinguals do.

There are also meaningful statistical correlations of subcomponents of grammar learning strategies as presented in Table 4 below:

**Table 4.** *Correlation between languages known and grammar learning str. subcomponents*

	memory	thinkofgrammar	analysis	communicate	organising	usingwithothers
Spearman Correlation Coefficient	,122	,417**	,245*	-,065	,305**	,307**
Sig. (2-tailed)	<b>,230</b>	,000	,015	<b>,521</b>	,002	,002
N	99	99	99	99	99	99

Firstly, statistics show that as the number of known languages increase, grammar is practiced more through new combinations and becomes an automatic reflex in production and turns in to some kind of habit (Sig 2<0.05). Secondly, it is obvious that the ability to analyze and comprehend grammatical patterns develop with the increase in the number of languages known (Sig 2.<0.05). Thirdly, the ability to correct grammar mistakes develops and desire to be corrected throughout the communication gains significance as the number of languages known increase (Sig 2<0.05) Finally, individuals with less languages slightly gave less importance to grammar in mutual conversation and tend to focus more on general meaning rather than structures. On the other hand, multilinguals build up more grammatical awareness throughout oral communication (Sig 2<0.05).

On the other hand, communication and memory are 2 subcomponents that have negative correlation with the number of known languages. Firstly, memorization of grammar



structures through continuous reviews and visualization of them are not affected significantly by the number of acquired languages (Sig  $2 > 0.05$ ). Secondly, grammar throughout the communication process does not gain importance with the increasing number of languages acquired. Multilinguals and bilinguals showed similar tendencies in terms of grammar memorization and grammar inside communication.

To sum up, the number of languages known is a very significant determinant of an individual's view of grammar in general. It can be inferred that grammatical patterns gain importance and grammatical awareness rises as the variety of grammatical input increases.

#### 4.2. Is there a relationship between proficiency levels in bilingualism and multilingualism in terms of building grammar strategies?

It is hypothesized that frequency of grammar strategy usage varies depending on the proficiency level of bilinguals. So a balanced bilingual can use as much grammar strategies as a multilingual can. To support this hypothesis, statistical data is presented in Table 5 below:

**Table 5.** Relationship between GS frequency and proficiency levels

	N	Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney U	188,500
FRENCH.	20	41.08	Wilcoxon W	1008,500
ELT FRE.	40	25,21	Z	-3,317
Total	60		Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	<b>,001</b>
	N	Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney U	169,000
FRENCH	20	33,05	Wilcoxon W	665,000
ELT Soph.	31	21,45	Z	-2,720
Total	51		Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	<b>,007</b>
	N	Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney U	46,000
FRENCH	20	16,20	Wilcoxon W	82,000
eltmaster	8	10,25	Z	-1,729
Total	28		Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	<b>,084</b>

As Mann Whitney U Test in Table 5 indicates, the relationship between proficiency level and grammar strategy usage is not in a linear fashion. While multilingual FLT sophomores use grammar strategies much more frequently when compared with ELT freshmen (Sig  $2 < 0.05$ ), they cannot show the same superiority with the master class (Sig  $2 > 0.05$ ). So it can be inferred that the frequency of grammar strategy usage slowly increases as the level increases. That is, balanced bilinguals use nearly as much GM as multilinguals do. However, mean comparisons showed that even in its highest level, bilinguals cannot use more grammar strategies as multilinguals can. It derives again from multilinguals' having one more grammatical input and experience.

Tables clearly point out that;

1. All 4 groups do not spend extra effort to memorize grammatical patterns

2. Multilingual group practices grammar more frequently and integrates grammar with other skills; reading, writing, and listening.
3. Multilingual group has better understanding of the grammatical mechanisms, they can understand a statement by dividing them into parts.
4. Multilingual learners and ELT master group are more obsessive to grammatical accuracy during oral communication while bilingual groups prefer to guess overall meanings.
5. ELT senior bilinguals do not correct their errors or let others to correct, they ignore them and focus on different ways to express themselves like gestures and body language. Unlike ELT senior bilinguals, multilingual learners have higher tendencies for self correction or being corrected.
6. Multilingual group organize better in grammar learning, especially in formal contexts
7. Bilingual groups never let grammatical problems to interfere with the conversation; they rarely spot grammatical errors of interlocutors and correct them. On the other hand, multilingual learners believe that grammatical problems inhibit oral speech and cognition.
8. Bilinguals became more aware of grammar as their level increases. On the other hand, multilingual learners can show higher grammatical awareness in lower levels.
9. All groups do not focus on grammatical patterns during their oral production.

## 5. Conclusion

As a conclusion, this empirical research showed that there is a strong correlation between the number of languages known and the frequency of grammar learning strategy usage. Even one extra language contributes to the acquisition of new grammar. In addition, current study concludes that multilingual and bilingual individuals use grammar learning strategies in different frequencies. As multilingual learners have one more language in their linguistic storage, they tend to use more grammar strategies and apply them more frequently. Furthermore, proficiency level is also a strong determinant of grammar strategy usage when multilingual and bilingual learners are compared. As the level of bilinguals increase, they get closer to multilingual learners grammar strategy parameters. However it is clear that there is an absolute multilingual superiority in terms of grammar strategies in general. Some recommendations are listed below for teachers of foreign languages teaching bilingual and multilingual learners:

For bilingual learners, teachers should:

1. Apply contextualized memorization strategies in grammar courses, especially low level bilinguals are quite reluctant to memorize new structures
2. Put emphasis on more accurate grammar in oral communication as bilinguals ignore grammatical patterns while talking
3. Avoid teaching through writing structures all the time as bilinguals are unwilling to write down and memorize each grammar structure, instead contextual learning should take place
4. Encourage self and peer correction of grammar mistakes because bilinguals ignore grammatical correction especially throughout conversations
5. Follow learners grammatical progress frequently through portfolios or quizzes as bilinguals are less organized in grammar courses

For multilingual learners, teachers should:

1. Apply contextual memorization techniques for grammar, instead more creative strategies are required





2. Discourage too much obsession for grammatical patterns among multilinguals, cognitive and communicative uses of grammar should be emphasized more
3. Discredit being obsessive on error correction as multilinguals tend to correct their and others' errors all the time. It should be encouraged that too much error correction causes communicative breakdowns.

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## **AN ANALYSIS OF RECOGNITION OF EXTENDED COMPOUND SENTENCES**

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# AN ANALYSIS OF RECOGNITION OF EXTENDED COMPOUND SENTENCES

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## Abstract

The aim of this research study was to clarify whether recognizing extended compound sentences is a problem for the first grade ELT students of Dicle University or not. This study also investigated the effect of remedial teaching on students' recognition of extended compound sentences and gender differences in terms of the recognition of extended compound sentences. The participants were 35 first grade ELT students of Dicle University. A pre-test of 30 questions was implemented to the participants and the same test was implemented as the post-test after 2-week remedial teaching.

*Keywords:* extended Sentence, compound sentence, types of the sentences.

## 1. Introduction

Teaching writing has an important role on Second or Foreign Language teaching because as it is indicated by Harmer (2007), the learners have more time to think while practicing writing than they have during spontaneous conversation. On the other hand, Leki, & Carson (1994) state writing as the most difficult skill to teach to low level learners of English Language, and as effective writing is a complex process, it requires recognition and practice of sentence types (Demirezen, 2012b) and training is required to form a cohesive whole from the sentences (Bhati, 1990; Boshier, 1998; Johns, 1990).

### 1.1. What is a Sentence?

According to Demirezen (1993), 'A sentence is a group of related words that we use to communicate our ideas in speech or in writing.'

Delahunty & Garvey (2010) describe sentence as the largest grammatical unit. Demirezen (1993) states the basic parts of sentences as 'subject' and 'predicate'. The subject usually occurs as a noun or pronoun in a sentence and it stands for the person, thing, or place that is related to the sentence. The predicate consists of a verb and its modifiers or complements. The verb is the most important part of the predicate.

#### 1.1.1. What is an extended sentence?

A simple sentence consists of one main verb, one subject and one predicate, but it may include different kinds of modifiers to be extended. It is stated by Demirezen (2012a) that a simple sentence may be extended by using phrasal elements such as noun phrases, adjective phrases, adverbial phrases, prepositional phrases, appositive phrases, gerundive phrases, participle phrases, verbal phrases, infinitive phrases, and they may precede, come in-mid sentence position, or follow the simple sentence structure.

Examples:

1. **Until the early 20th century**, Istanbul was the capital of the large Ottoman Empire. (Extended from the beginning)
2. Turkey, **acting as a bridge between Europe and Asia**, has asked to become a member European Union. (Extended from the middle)

3. South Korea is a country in East Asia, **officially called the republic of Korea.**  
(Extended from the end)

## 1.2. The Types of the Sentences

It is important to use different types of sentences for using language in an effective way; for example, using simple sentences all the way through the writing would sound monotonous, childish and unsophisticated. On the other hand, knowing the types of the sentences develops a better understanding of different sentence and the ability to demonstrate more sophisticated use of language ( Demirezen, 2012b). The sentences come in a variety of shapes and sizes (Delahunty &Garvey,2010) . Four types of sentences can be realized by classifying in terms of their structures (Demirezen, 1993; Delahunty &Garvey, 2010). These are:

1. Simple Sentences
2. Compound Sentences
3. Complex Sentences
4. Compound-complex Sentences

### 1.2.1. Simple Sentence

A simple sentence is the smallest sentence unit. **In a simple sentence there is only one main clause and no subordinate clauses.** It doesn't have to be very short; other phrases may be added at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the simple sentences (Demirezen,1993).

Examples:

<b>Main Clause</b>
Cyclists should always wear bike helmets.
Mustafa Kemal Atatürk is the founder of Modern Turkey.
Africa is a continent in the south of Mediterranean Sea.
This paragraph is composed of sentences.

(Demirezen, 1993; Delahunty & Garvey, 2010)

### 1.2.2. Compound Sentences

According to Teschner and Evans (2007:220) ,‘A compound sentence is a sentence consisting of at least two clauses, each of which can be separated off into its own independent clause and independent sentence.’’**A compound sentence consists of two main sentences** (Demirezen, 1993). It is often needed to link simple sentences in order to join ideas together. For this reason the following ways are used:

#### 1.2.2.1. Compound Sentences with Coordinating Conjunctions

In a compound sentence, we can't mention about only one main clause with subordinate clauses depending on it. All the clauses of a compound sentence are of equal importance and can stand on their own. They are required to follow a logical order for the coherence of the context (Samancı,2012: 22). In other words, the clauses of a compound sentence are equal in value and **there must be at least two main clauses**(Demirezen, 1993).

Coordinate Conjunctions are listed below with the acronym ‘FANBOYS’ to be kept in mind in an easier way (Samancı, 2012).





For	Or
And	Yet
Nor	So
But	

Examples:

	Main Clause 1	Conj.	Main Clause 2
For	1.Turkish soldiers fight very well in wars, 2.The meeting has to be at noon, 3.I do the shopping on Sundays,	for	they are well-trained. the boss doesn't have much time. I work on the other days of the week.
And	1.A new computer was invented, 2.John and Bill can speak Italian, 3.Mary has gone to England,	and	it caused a sensation. they also know French. She will stay there for a long time.
Nor	1.Most of the students do not like to take oral exams, 2.Mary doesn't like watching baseball,	nor	do they like to write term papers. nor she likes playing baseball.
But	1.The car was quite old, 2.I made that decision for several reasons, 3. It is raining heavily,	but	it still works. I couldn't explain them. the weather is not cold.
Or	1.Are you coming to school with me, 2.You can go to your own house,	or	will you stay in bed? you can stay here.
Yet	1.John plays basketball well, 2.Jack got the job,	yet	his favorite sport is badminton. he couldn't start because of some reasons.
So	1.You are my guest, 2.She is very helpful,	so	it is my turn to pay for the drinks. everybody likes her.

(Celce- Murcia, 1998; Demirezen, 1993)

#### 1.2.2.2. Compound sentences with semi-colon

In formal written English, semi-colon is also used instead of coordinating conjunctions in order to connect sentences. When two sentences are joined with a semi-colon, the second sentence is usually an explanation or exploration of the meaning of the first sentence. In other words, in compounding with semi-colon, the conjunction is mostly omitted if logical relationship may be understood through the context (Demirezen, 1993). Here are some examples:

Main Clause 1	Semi-colon	Main Clause 2
We couldn't take the exam	;	the teacher couldn't come.
I don't live in a dormitory	;	I have a private room.
Turkish soldiers fight very well in wars	;	they are well-trained.

(Demirezen, 1993)

### 1.2.2.3. Compound sentences with correlative conjunctions

As well as coordinate conjunctions, correlative conjunctions have an important role in forming compound sentences. There must be two subjects in order to have a compound sentence by using correlative conjunctions; otherwise, the sentence cannot be accepted as compound sentence. Alexander (1988) listed correlative conjunctions as stated below:

Both.....and  
 Not only.....but also  
 Either.....or  
 Neither.....nor

Examples:

Main Clause 1	Main Clause 2
<b>Either</b> you will confess,	<b>or</b> I will complain.
<b>Not only</b> was the sweater soft,	<b>but</b> it was <b>also</b> warm.
I didn't see the film,	<b>nor</b> did my girl friend.

(Demirezen, 1993)

### 1.2.2.4. Compound sentences with conjunctive adverbs

As Demirezen states (1993), 'Conjunctive Adverbs' are also used to establish compound sentences. There are three types of Conjunctive Adverbs. These are Simple Conjunctive Adverbs, Compound Conjunctive Adverb and Complex Conjunctive Adverbs. There is a special punctuation for them; each conjunction has to be between a semi-colon (;) and a coma (,).

Some of the examples of Simple Conjunctive Adverbs:

Also	however	otherwise	moreover
Then	accordingly	therefore	nevertheless
Thus	besides	consequently	furthermore
Still	hence	instead	henceforth
Meanwhile	similarly	indeed	likewise
next	fortunately		

Examples:

Main Clause 1	Simple Conjunctive Adverb	Main Clause 2
The weather is good in this region;	also,	we don't get much rain here.
I studied for my Japanese exam;	moreover,	I wrote up my term paper on Charles Dickens
This country is not fertile;	yet,.	it has beautiful historical ruins

(Demirezen, 1993)

Some of the examples of Compound Conjunctive Adverbs:

For example	That is
For instance	Of course
In addition	



Examples:

Main Clause 1	Compound Conj. Adverbs	Main Clause 2
A lot of old customs are changing;	in addition,	some of them are disappearing.
Philosophy is a part of our life;	that is,	we cannot omit it.
Highway transportation is developed in Turkey;	for example,	90% of passengers are carried by means of cars, buses, etc.

(Demirezen, 1995)

Some of the examples of the Complex Conjunctive Adverbs

As a matter of fact	In other words
On the other hand	In the mean time
On the contrary	On the one hand

Examples:

Main Clause 1	Complex Conj. Adverbs	Main Clause 2
She looks like a concerned mother;	on the contrary,	she is the most irresponsible mother in the world.
She is a very well-qualified employee;	in other words,	she deserved that promotion.
Smoking has a lot of negative effects on human body;	for example,	it causes cancer and heart attack.

### 1.2.3. Complex Sentences

The elements of complex sentences are not of equal importance. When related ideas are expressed in one sentence, the most important idea is placed in the independent clause and the ideas which are less important are placed in dependent clause. **In the structure of a complex sentence, there must be only one main clause and at least one subordinating clause.** If the main clause is removed from the complex sentence, the subordinate clause cannot stand by its own because it doesn't make sense by itself. Noun clauses, adjective clauses, adverb clauses and conjunctions are used in the establishment of complex sentences (Demirezen, 1993).

Some of the subordinators are given below:

That	whenever	where	as though	unless
Which	whoever	why	though	because
Who	whichever	whatever	although	since

Examples

Main Clause	Subordinator	Subordinate Clause
You mustn't speak	unless	you are spoken to
I cannot imagine	how	it all happened
I quickly shot the lion	before	it could escape

(Demirezen, 1993)

#### 1.2.4. Compound-Complex Sentences

For the concepts which cannot be explained by a simple, compound or complex sentence, compound-complex sentences are used. **In a compound-complex sentence, there are at least two main clauses and at least one subordinate clause.** There can be, of course, more than two main clauses and subordinate clauses (Demirezen, 1993).

#### Examples:

main clause 1	subordinating clause 1	Conjunc.	main clause 2	subordinating clause 2
1. There are times	when one wants to be surrounded by people;	and,	there are times	when one needs solitude.
2. I don't know	why she is behaving in this way these days;	but,	I know	she has a secret in her heart.

(Demirezen, 1993)

## 2. Literature Review

### *The Entrenchment and Balance Hypothesis*

Fossilization is term used for non-progression of learning despite continuous exposure to input, adequate motivation to learn, and sufficient opportunity for practice (Han, 2004). The most intuitive account for fossilization focuses on the notion of entrenchment. When a given skill is practiced thousands of times, it is soon found that it has become automated or entrenched. The more that skill is practiced, the deeper the entrenchment becomes; that is, it becomes more difficult to vary or block the use of the skill. Entrenchment occurs in neural networks when a high frequency pattern is presented continuously in the input training dat. On the other hand, when there is a radical shift in the input to an entrenchment system, neural network system can suffer from 'catastrophic interference.' The catastrophic interference can be solved by systems that emphasize the lexical and item-based nature of second language learning. Moreover, these lexically-grounded systems can also illustrate another important aspect of second language learning. This is the parasitic nature of L2 learning when L1 is already well consolidated. (Han, 2005).

By the time the learner tries to add the L2 form when L1 form is already well consolidated and entrenched, parasitism occurs. But what happens when both L1 and L2 are acquired simultaneously during childhood (Cenoz & Genesee, 2001). In this case, LX and LY forms should compete for nearby territory in the semantic space. In other cases, LY form may be dependent on LX form. In still other cases, the learner may add additional features that distinguish particular prosperities of the words and then enter the two forms in related areas of the map.

## 3. Methodology

The purpose of this study is to analyze students' recognition of extended compound sentences among other types of the sentences.



### 3.1. Research Questions

1. Is the recognition of extended compound sentence a problem for the first grade ELT students at Dicle University?
2. Is there a significant difference between males and females in terms of the recognition of extended compound sentences?
3. To what extent does instruction aid the recognition of extended compound sentences?

### 3.2. Setting

This research was conducted at Dicle University, English Language Education Department.

### 3.3 Participants

Thirty-eight (38) first year students were included in this study, because those were the only students who were present while implementing the tests. Only thirty-five (35) tests could be used as three (3) of them were not seriously answered. The profile of the participants who were included in the main analysis of this research is given below:

Table 1. *The profile of the respondents*

	Number	Percent
Gender	Male: 13 Female: 22	Male: 37,1 Female: 62,9
Age Group	18-22: 26 22-25: 2 25- : 7	18-22: 74,3 22-25: 5,7 25- : 20,0

### 3.4. Instrument

The design of this research is a pre-test/post-test design. A test including 30 multiple choice questions was used as the instrument of this research. There were five alternatives for each question including simple, extended compound, complex and compound complex sentences.

### 3.5. Procedure

Before starting to implement the tests, the questions were checked by three of my colleagues and the parts that might result in problems were changed. Then, necessary permission was requested from the instructor of concerned class. Before the students started to answer the questions, they were informed about the research and it was indicated that the identities and answers of the students would be kept confidential. They were asked to write their full names on the test. The aim was to be able to compare pre-test and post-test afterwards. The students were given 30 minutes to answer the test, but they completed the test in 20 minutes. After implementing pre-test, the students were exposed to a two-week - six hours- remedial teaching. In remedial teaching process, not only compound sentences but also other types of the sentences were taught to the students because the aim of this research was to be able to recognize extended compound sentences among other types of the sentences. Power point presentation and a video were used for teaching and after teaching process the students were given the presentation and video for self-study before implementing post-test. After two weeks, the post-test including the same questions of the pre-test was implemented to the students. The data derived from pre-test and post-test was analyzed in a quantitative way by using SPSS 18.

#### 4. Data Analysis

The data collected from the tests were analyzed quantitatively using Statistical Packages in Social Sciences (SPSS). The reliability coefficient was calculated Cronbach's Alpha. The answers of the participants to multiple choice questions were analyzed quantitatively by using descriptive statistics- frequencies.

One-Sample T-Test was used for pre-test in order to clarify whether the recognition of extended compound sentences is a problem for the first grade ELT students or not. A Paired Samples T-Test was used in order to compare pre-test and post-test, and Independent Samples Test was used to see the gender differences. The data were analyzed in two different ways. After the frequencies and percentages of the correct and incorrect answers were calculated, the number of correct and incorrect answers for each student in terms of pre-test and post-test was calculated; that is, both a question-based and student-based analysis were done. In the following section, data gathered from the tests will be discussed in relation to the research questions.

#### 5. Results and Discussion

First of all, the results of reliability statistics for pre-test and post-test showed that the instrument used for the research is a highly reliable tool (Cronbach's Alpha value = ,955).

##### ***R.Q.1. Is the recognition of extended compound sentence a problem for the first grade ELT students at Dicle University?***

In order to answer this research question, One-Sample T Test was applied. The results of pre-test showed that (see Table 2) the recognition of extended compound sentences is not a problem for the first grade ELT students of Dicle University (M=21,8; SD=8,70). On average, 21,8 questions out of 30 questions were answered correctly by the students; that is, 70% of the questions were answered correctly. The passing grade for ELT Department at Dicle University is 60, so all of the students can be accepted as successful. The result is statistically significant  $t(34)=14,8, p=,000$ .

Table 2. *The mean and percentage of correct answers in pre-test*

	<i>Number</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Standard Error Mean</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
PRE-TEST	35	21,8	70%	1,4	,000

##### ***R.Q. 2. Is there a significant difference between males and females in terms of the recognition of extended compound sentences?***

The difference between males and females in terms of the extended compound sentences was analyzed using Independent Samples Test. The results will be presented both for pre-test and post-test.

Table 3. *Gender Differences in terms of recognition of extended compound sentences*

	<i>Number</i>	<i>Pre- Test Mean</i>	<i>Post-test Mean</i>
Male	13	21,9	28,5
Female	22	21,7	28

As it is seen on the table above, the results of pre-test and post-test in terms of correct answers given by the students are very similar. This shows that there is not a significance



difference between males and females in terms of the recognition of extended compound sentences in pre-test ( $M=21,9-21,7$ ;  $p=,729$ ) and post-test ( $M=28,5-28$ ;  $p=,603$ ).

**R. Q. 3. To what extent does instruction aid the recognition of extended compound sentences?**

In order to answer research questions, the analysis of the data from two different perspectives will be presented in order.

1. The average number of the questions which were answered correctly by each student.
2. The average number of the students who answered the questions correctly.

*1. Student-Based Analysis*

In this section, the number of the correct answers in the tests will be taken into consideration for analysis.

As it is seen on the table given below, the results revealed that the students did better ( $M=28,2$ ,  $SD=4,46$ ) on post-test than they did on pre-test ( $M=21,8$ ,  $SD=8,70$ ). The statistics show that the results are significant  $t(34)=-4,5$ ,  $p=,000$ .

Table 4. *The mean, standard error and significance of the questions that were answered correctly*

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
PRE-TEST	35	21,8	1,4	,000
POST-TEST	35	28,2	,75	,000

In order to see the difference between pre-test and post-test, the following table was prepared. It can be seen how many questions are answered in a correct way in pre-test and post-test for each student.

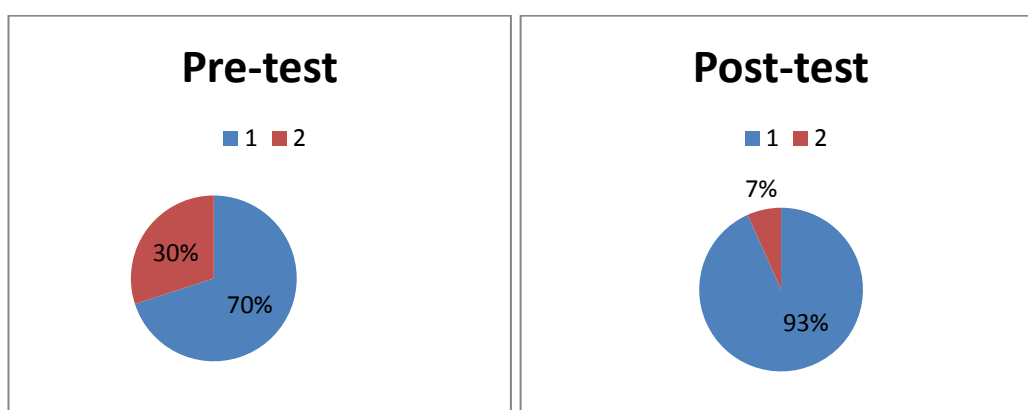
Table 5. *The number of correct answers in pre-test and post-test*

Participants	Pre-test Correct Answers	Post-test Correct Answers
<b>S1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>30</b>
S2	13	18
S3	16	29
S4	14	28
<b>S5</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>28</b>
S6	23	30
S7	29	30
<b>S8</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>29</b>
<b>S9</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>30</b>
S10	21	27
S11	29	30
S12	29	30
S13	12	21
S14	30	30
S15	17	28
S16	28	29
S17	28	30
S18	13	7

S19	24	30
S20	28	27
S21	29	30
S22	20	29
S23	27	30
S24	21	30
S25	25	30
S26	28	30
S27	20	30
S28	30	30
S29	30	30
S30	29	30
S31	28	29
S32	28	29
S33	27	29
S34	30	30
S35	24	30

As underlined above, there is a big difference between pre-test and post-test of four students. The pre-tests of these students were analyzed in a qualitative way. It was seen that complex sentences and extended simple sentences are confused with extended compound sentences.

The graphics given below shows the percentage of the questions answered correctly in pre-test and post-test. As it seen 70% of the questions were answered correctly in pre-test. In order to see the effect of remedial teaching on students' recognition of extended compound sentences, the results of pre-test and post-test were compared. This comparison can be seen on the graphics below in a clear way. At is seen, the instruction effected students' recognition of extended compound sentences in a positive way. The percentage of the recognition of extended compound sentences increased to 93% from 70% as a result of remedial teaching.



1 Correct answers

2 Incorrect answer

## 2. Question-Based Analysis

In this section, the number of the students who answered each question of the tests in a correct way will be taken into consideration for analysis.

The number and percentages of the questions in terms of correct and incorrect answers in pre- test and post-test can be seen in detail in the table given below. It presents the frequencies and percentages of correct and incorrect answers both in pre-test and post-test.



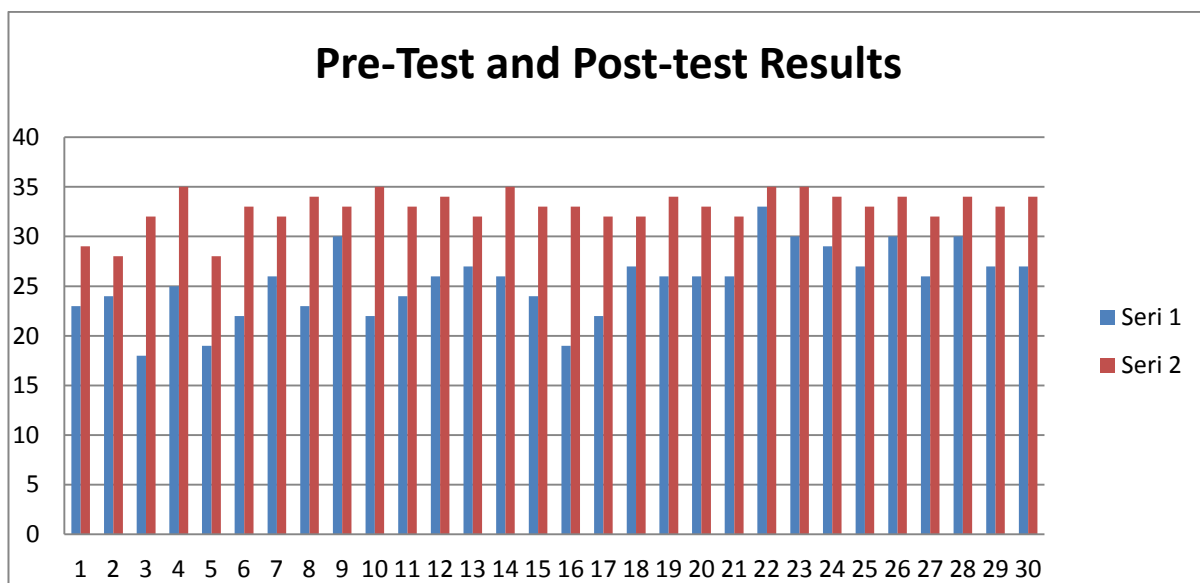
The results show that on average, the number of the students who answered the questions correctly increased in post-test when it is compared to pre-test.

Table 6. The number and percentages of the questions in terms of correct and incorrect answers in pre- test and post-test

Question	PRE-TEST				POST-TEST				Sig. (2-tailed)
	Frequency CORRECT	Percent CORRECT	Frequency INCORRECT	Percent INCORRECT	Frequency CORRECT	Percent CORRECT	Frequency INCORRECT	Percent INCORRECT	
Q1	23	65,7	12	34,3	29	82,9	9	17,1	,110
Q2	24	68,6	11	31,4	28	80	7	20	,292
Q3	18	51,4	17	48,6	32	91,4	3	8,6	,000
Q4	25	71,4	10	28,6	35	100	0	0	,001
Q5	19	54,3	16	45,7	28	80	7	20	,018
Q6	22	62,9	13	37,1	33	94,3	2	5,7	,000
Q7	26	74,3	9	25,7	32	91,4	3	8,6	,012
Q8	23	65,7	12	34,3	34	97,1	1	2,9	,000
Q9	30	85,7	5	14,3	33	94,3	2	5,7	,083
Q10	22	62,9	13	37,1	35	100	0	0	,000
Q11	24	68,6	11	31,4	33	94,3	2	5,7	,002
Q12	26	74,3	9	25,7	34	97,1	1	2,9	,009
Q13	27	77,1	8	22,9	32	91,4	3	8,6	,134
Q14	26	74,3	9	25,7	35	100	0	0	,002
Q15	24	68,6	11	31,4	33	94,3	2	5,7	,005
Q16	19	54,3	16	45,7	33	94,3	2	5,7	,000
Q17	22	62,9	13	37,1	32	94,3	3	5,7	,068
Q18	27	77,1	8	22,9	32	91,4	3	8,6	,096
Q19	26	74,3	9	25,7	34	97,1	1	2,9	,003
Q20	26	74,3	9	25,7	33	94,3	2	5,7	,006
Q21	26	74,3	9	25,7	32	91,4	3	8,6	,032
Q22	33	94,3	2	5,7	35	100	0	0	,160
Q23	30	85,7	5	14,3	35	100	0	0	,023
Q24	29	82,9	6	17,1	34	97,1	1	2,9	,058
Q25	27	77,1	8	22,9	33	94,3	2	5,7	,032
Q26	30	85,7	5	14,3	34	97,1	1	2,9	,044
Q27	26	74,3	9	25,7	32	91,4	3	8,6	,083
Q28	30	85,7	5	14,3	34	97,1	1	2,9	,103

Q29	27	77,1	8	22,9	33	94,3	2	5,7	,057
Q30	27	77,1	8	22,9	34	97,1	1	2,9	,017

The results above are presented with a graphic below. The blue lines refer to the number of the students who answered pre-test questions correctly; the red lines refer to the number of the students who answered post-test questions correctly. As it is seen, more students answered the questions correctly in post-test when it is compared to pre-test.



1.Pre-test

2. Post-test

#### 4. Conclusion

To sum up, at the end of both a student-based and a question based analysis, it is seen that the participants have a high competence (70%) to recognize extended compound sentences before the remedial teaching, so it can be concluded that recognizing extended compound sentences is not a problem for the first grade ELT students of Dicle University. On the other hand, the extent of recognition extended compound sentences increased from 70% to 93% after the classroom instruction.

#### 5. Limitations and Pedagogical Implications

The participants included in this study were only the first grade ELT students of Dicle University. It would be better to include some other participants from another department such as English Language and Literature or Linguistics and compare their results.

On the other hand, intonation of Coordinate Conjunctions (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so) requires a special attention, so it may be studied in another research.

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## **AN INVESTIGATION OF INTERCULTURAL MISCOMMUNICATION EXPERIENCES**

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## **AN INVESTIGATION OF INTERCULTURAL MISCOMMUNICATION EXPERIENCES**

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### **Abstract**

Communication, which has always been one of the basic elements of life, is becoming more and more intercultural in today's world. People are not only transferring goods and technology among nations; they are also transferring their thoughts, ideas, and cultures. As this flow of communication among nations becomes common, intercultural communication problems, which is called as intercultural miscommunication, is becoming common as well. This paper investigates possible reasons of miscommunication among people from different cultures. Twenty-two participants from different nationalities took part in the study, and shared their intercultural miscommunication experiences. The researchers analyzed these miscommunication experiences by classifying them according to the categories suggested in the literature and the categories the researchers themselves suggested. The participants feelings and thought about their miscommunication experiences were also investigated. This study showed that there are many causes and factors that can lead to intercultural miscommunication. Thus, effort, desire and patience is needed a lot to get better mutual understanding and learn more about cultural differences so that we can increase cross-cultural awareness.

### **1. Introduction**

Communication among people from different cultures, which is called as intercultural communication, goes back to the dawn of civilization, when first people formed tribal groups and started to interact with people from different tribes (Samovar et al., 2010). However, as a discipline, intercultural communication has a fairly short history (Xin, 2007). In contemporary society, as a result of globalization and immigration, communication among people from different cultures has been inevitable. Though people are biologically alike, they are mostly socially different as they come from different cultural backgrounds. Different cultural backgrounds and different languages have made it difficult for people to understand one another while communicating. These communication problems have led to the need for understanding the reasons behind miscommunication between different cultures, which is referred to as intercultural miscommunication. This study concentrates on people's intercultural miscommunication experiences, and aims to analyze the causes and facts which are responsible for miscommunication among people from different cultures.

#### **1.1 Research Question:**

- 1- What are the reasons for miscommunication among people from different cultures?
- 2- Is miscommunication resulted by the language, pronunciation, socio-cultural, lexical or any other differences?
- 3- What do interlocutors think about the reasons of intercultural miscommunication?





## 2. Literature Review

In order to understand miscommunication problems between people from different cultures, we should first need to understand the relationship between culture and communication.

### 2.1. The Relationship between Communication and Culture

Keating (1994) describes communication as the competency of sharing your beliefs, values, opinions, and emotions. Among the principles of communication, Samovar, Porter and McDaniel (2010) include being contextual as it happens in certain situations which influence the way we talk to others and what we understand from their expressions. They claim that many of these contextual norms are directly related to the speaker's culture. Culture is described as "the deposit of knowledge, experience, beliefs, values, attitudes, meanings, hierarchies, religion, notions of time, roles, spatial relations, concepts of the universe, and material objects and possessions acquired by a group of people in the course of generations through individual and group striving" (Porter & Samovar, 1994, p.11). Another definition of culture is given by Hall (1977). He describes culture as communication and communication as culture by saying that culture is learnt via communication, and communication is a reflection of the speaker's culture. His definition puts emphasis on the relationship between culture and communication, thus is similar to the anthropologists' view who describe culture as communication (Hall, 1959). Since there is a strong relationship between culture and communication, in situations where the speakers do not share the same culture, some communication problems occur. Xin (2007) calls these communication problems as "intercultural miscommunication".

### 2.2. Intercultural Miscommunication

Intercultural miscommunication could be described as the communication problems among people from different cultures. Different researchers have proposed different sources for the cause of intercultural miscommunication.

Chick (1996) gives five different sources of miscommunication. According to her, the first source of intercultural miscommunication is **sociolinguistic transfer**. Sociolinguistic transfer is the use of the rules of speaking of one's own speech community or cultural group when interacting with members of another community or group (Chick, 1996). This is mostly seen when one or more of the interlocutors is using a foreign or second language but employing the rules of speaking of his or her native language. It can also be seen between people with the same native language, but belong to speech communities that have different rules of speaking. Another source is **differences in the distribution of compliments in different communities**; that is there is frequently interactional trouble when members of one cultural group compliment in situations where compliments are inappropriate for members of other groups. According to Chick (1996) the third source of miscommunication is the **systematic difference in contextualization cues**. Contextualization cues are in the form of verbal and nonverbal messages: lexical, syntactic, phonological, prosodic, and paralinguistic choices; use of formulaic expressions, code switching and style switching; and changes in postural configurations, gestures, and facial expressions. The third source of miscommunication is **intonation**. As different languages have different intonations, speakers may exploit intonation in different ways. Chick (1996) gives having **different politeness strategies** in different cultures as the last source of miscommunication.

Another researcher who investigated intercultural miscommunication is Hu Xin (2007). In his article, Xin (2007) mainly discusses intercultural communication from ideological differences between Eastern and Western cultures. From this point of view, he states that

intercultural miscommunication can be analyzed from four aspects: "**ways of thinking, value system, belief and attitude, and language use and habits**" (Xin, 2007, p. 54). The first aspect of intercultural miscommunication, different ways of thinking, refers to the thinking differences between the East and the West. For example, rationalism in the East tends to be specific. Chinese people like presenting more examples and talking about specific matter while Western rationalism tends to be abstract. Thus, Western people often talk about concepts, methods and principles. Value system, which is the second aspect, is also different between Eastern and Western cultures. The value system of a culture plays crucial role in intercultural communication. Though values are generalized for cultures, it should not be forgotten that not everyone in the same culture has the same values. According to intercultural miscommunication theory, miscommunication and tension begin to mount when the interlocutors are not aware of their differences, or the way members of a different community understand particular behaviors (Hall, 1959). The third reason for miscommunication is different beliefs and attitudes (Xin, 2007). As belief systems are the core of our thoughts and actions, they are significant for intercultural communication. Thus, cultural differences in beliefs and behaviors are viewed as barriers to effective intergroup communication and sources of misperception and distrust. The last reason for intercultural miscommunication that Xin (2007) proposes is different language use and habits. As Sapir (1958, p. 69) states, "no two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality." In this quotation, Edward Sapir emphasizes the strong relationship between culture and language, and somewhat says "language is a reflection of culture, and vice versa" (Xin, 2007, p. 56).

In addition to Chick (1996) and Xin (2007), who investigated the possible sources intercultural miscommunication, Lowell and Devlin (1998) investigated miscommunication between Aboriginal students and their non-Aboriginal teachers in a bilingual school. They found that the effectiveness of classroom instruction is severely reduced due to cultural, linguistic and sociolinguistic differences. Lowell and Devlin (1998) propose the following points as the causes of miscommunication: differences in perspectives, expectations, understandings and interpretations (phenomenological differences). They state that linguistic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic differences between the languages are another reason for communication failure.

Petković and Škifić (2011) who investigated the relationship between miscommunication and identity in Wayne Wang's films state that miscommunication appears even when interlocutors belong to different generations and use the same language. In such a case, the miscommunication originates exclusively from different cultural backgrounds. Other than these sources of miscommunication; individual differences should also be taken into consideration (Chick, 1996).

### **3. Methodology**

#### **3.1. Participants**

Twenty-two participants voluntarily took part in the study to share their own experiences in regard to miscommunication across different cultures (see Table 1). The participants' native languages range from Turkish, Iranian, French, and Hindi to English. Their experience generally took place in the countries they have visited. The miscommunication problems can be observed in a variety of languages such as Turkish, English, Arabic, Irish English, French, Morocco Arabic... Most of the participants (14 out of 22) are from the US. All participants have had experience in relation to miscommunication except the 14<sup>th</sup> one.

### 3.2. Instruments

All participants were interviewed through the program “Skype” and e-mail, and the recordings of the Skype were transcribed to analyze the data easily. The interview questions were sent beforehand so that the interviewees have time to think about their intercultural miscommunication experiences. The Skype interviews took about 10-15 minutes for each person. It started with the demographic information about the participant such as name, education, profession, native language, languages known, the countries visited and the language with which they had miscommunication problems. Then the interviewees were asked to share their intercultural miscommunication experiences if they had any.

### 4. The Analysis of Data

Table 1. *List of coding categories*

1. Sociolinguistic Transfer 2. Differences in contextual clues: (DICC) a. Verbal / Linguistics: lexical, accent, pronunciation b. Non-verbal clues: gestures, mimics 3. Intonation	Chick’s (1996) categories
4. Politeness strategies 5. Individual Difference 6. Thinking 7. Values 8. Beliefs	Xin’s (2007) categories
9. Lack of background information: The lack of knowledge on the general topic, context 10. The delivery of speech: the pace of the speech delivered or responded, how soft the speech was given.	The researchers’ categories

The data was analyzed by the two researchers separately, then the results of both analyses were compared, and a list of categories was reached. The analysis was done through both deductive and inductive methods of analysis. That is, some categories were determined on the basis of the reasons pointed out in Chick’s (1996) and Xin’s (2007) studies, which was a deductive method of analysis, while some emerged during the coding, which was an inductive way. The categories used in this study are given in Table 1 below:

Overall analysis of the demographic information and each participant’s miscommunication analysis can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. *Analysis of the data*

Participants	Experience	Reasons	Native Language	Miscommunication Language	Languages Known	Feeling About Miscommunication
Partic. 1	Jokes	a. Sociolinguistic transfer b. Beliefs c. Values d. Background Information	Chinese	Korean	Chinese, Korean, and English	
Partic. 2	“Gelirim” Tense	Politeness Strategies	Chinese	Turkish	Chinese, Korean, English, Turkish, and	

					Japanese	
<b>Partic.3</b>	Lots of :No specific examples	DICC: Verbal Clues	USA English	UK	English, Spanish, Italian, Turkish	Respectful to all cultures, DICC: Non-verbal clues gesture helped
<b>Partic. 4</b>	Helping out Timing	1.a.Politeness b.Values 2.Values	USA English	German	English, Turkish	
<b>Partic. 5</b>	Foreign Professor assignment Mineral water in Turkish	1.a.DICC: Verbal: Accent b. The delivery of speech: Soft voice 2.Beliefs	USA English	1. English 2. Turkish	English, Turkish	
<b>Partic. 6</b>	Korean directions Directions in French Say Taxi driver : “turn right and left” too soon	1. DICC: Verbal clues: Pronunciation 2. a. The delivery of speech b. DICC: Verbal: limited word 3. Thinking	USA English	1. Korean 2. French 3. Arabic	English, French, Spanish	
<b>Partic. 7</b>	Think-thing Close-clause Casada: married/ cansada: tired	1. DICC: Verbal: pronunciation 2. DICC: Verbal: pronunciation	USA English	1. Arabic 2. Spanish	English, Spanish	Funny, embarrassing, isolated
<b>Partic. 8</b>	Jokes Titanic	1. a. Sociolinguistic transfer b. Values c. Beliefs 2.Background information	USA English	1. French 2. Arabic	English, French, Spanish	
<b>Partic. 9</b>	“Thank you” to shopping cashier	a. Politeness b. beliefs	USA English	Chinese	English, Chinese, Spanish	Suspicious, strange looks
<b>Partic. 10</b>	Direction	a. the delivery of speech b. thinking (spatial perception btw east and western people)	USA English	Turkish	English, Spanish, Turkish	Depressed, dependent on others confident , victorious
<b>Partic. 11</b>	Thank you dog dog	a. DICC: Verbal: Pronunciation b. Intonation	USA English	Thai	English	

<b>Partic. 12</b>	Paper: Barber	a. DICC: Verbal: Accent	USA English	Irish	English	
<b>Partic. 13</b>	Phone lost	DICC: Verbal: Lexical Missing	USA English	Indian English/Hindi	English	
<b>Partic. 14</b>	No Miscommunica tion Problem		USA English		English	Wonderful evening
<b>Partic. 15</b>	1. Not Talk to berbers in French Taxi Driver	1. Thinking, Beliefs, DICC: Verbal: Accent 2. DICC: Non- Verbal: Gestures	USA English	Moroccan Arabic	English	thrilled
<b>Partic. 16</b>	Purchase/ rent a camera	DICC: Verbal: Lexical Missing	USA English	Indian English/ Hindi	English	offensive
<b>Partic. 17</b>	Partner	Beliefs, values	Turkish	USA English	Turkish English	dramatic, embarrassing
<b>Partic. 18</b>	Gerry Mending: Mayor or a term	Background information	Turkish	USA English	Turkish , English German, Latin	embarrassment
<b>Partic. 19</b>	Directions : right and Left	Individual Difference	Iranian	Turkish	Persian - English - Turkish - Urdu	difficult
<b>Partic. 20</b>	Acaba/ abaza Less gosses/ testicles	1. DICC: Verbal: Pronunciation 2. DICC: Verbal: Accent	Canadian (English &French)	1. Turkish 2. French in France	English, French, Swedish, German, Turkish and Portuguese	
<b>Partic. 21</b>	Turkey/ Hindi (in English)/Hindi (in Turkish)	Background Information	Hindi	Turkish	Hindi, English, Arabic, French	
<b>Partic. 22</b>	Turkey / shopping	DICC: Verbal: Lexical Missing	Korean- American	Turkish	Korean (1 <sup>st</sup> language), English (2 <sup>nd</sup> language), Spanish- conversational	hard, uncomfortable

In this table, the second column on the left side gives an indication of the experiences of the participants. Almost all of them have gone through a miscommunication problem except the 14<sup>th</sup> participant. Most of their experiences have occurred in informal and daily life contexts such as while giving directions, shopping, travelling on a taxi or while joking. However, they have different reasons for their miscommunication problems. In order to examine the general patterns on the causes of these miscommunication experiences, the reasons are analyzed in detail in Table 3:

PARTICIPANTS	CATEGORIES									
	Socio-ling. Transfer	DICC*	Intonation	Politeness Strategies	Individual Difference	Thinking	Values	Beliefs	Lack of Background Information	Delivery of Speech
Partic. 1	1						1	1	1	
Partic. 2				1						
Partic. 3		1 (V)								
Partic. 4				1			2			
Partic. 5		1(V)						1		1
Partic. 6		2 (V)				1				1
Partic. 7		2 (V)								
Partic. 8	1						1	1	1	
Partic. 9				1				1		
Partic. 10						1				1
Partic. 11		1(V)	1							
Partic. 12		1 (V)								
Partic. 13		1(V)								
Partic. 14										
Partic. 15		1(V) 1NV				1		1		
Partic. 16		1 (V)								
Partic. 17							1	1		
Partic. 18									1	
Partic. 19					1					
Partic. 20	1	1(V)								
Partic. 21									1	
Partic. 22		1 (V)								
<u>TOTAL</u>	3	<b>13 V</b> <b>1 NV</b>	1	3	1	3	5	7	4	3

\*DICC refers to Differences In Contextual Clues: V refers to Verbal cues, NV refers to Non-verbal clues

As it is clearly seen in the table, most of the participants have undergone miscommunication due to some differences in contextual clues (DICC). To put it another way, most of them have had problems with verbal as well as non-verbal clues in the speech. To illustrate, participant 6 indicated her experience as an example for a DICC: Verbal Difference: Pronunciation

...I tried to understand directions from a Korean friend and I could not understand his pronunciation. I never could find the place he wanted me to find...

The other striking result on Table 3 is that 7 of the participants' miscommunication experience can be attributed to beliefs. This might be because people's understanding different cultures largely rest upon what people attach importance to. For instance, participant 5 has an experience on a communication problem caused by the belief of the waiter in Turkey.

...One of the hardest words for me to say in Turkish is the word for water. I usually have to say it twice, and then the person asking repeats to make sure he or she understood correctly. One time I was the only foreigner with a bunch of Turkish friends, and I ordered mineral water, but the waiter could not understand. My friends said that either it was because I did not say it loud enough or because she was not expecting to understand a foreigner. I find that the case in Turkey sometimes...occasionally people seem to not understand me even though I say something correctly because they are not expecting me to speak Turkish or they are not expecting to be able to understand what I say...

It is seen in the example that the Turkish waiter has a belief in that a foreigner does not speak Turkish, so his prejudice might have hindered his understanding of the participant in addition to some other possible factors such as accent of the foreigner.

In line with the beliefs, some of the participants' (five of them) experience seem to be affected by the values of either themselves or the interlocutors'. Here is an example of the participants' values.

The second major difficulty that I still have is because of the lexical differences. Since American people assign different meanings to the words based on their idiosyncratic socio-cultural characteristics, sometimes I get myself into funny and embarrassing situations. One of these situations occurred when I first arrived in NYC and was trying to get to know my PHD colleagues better. During an informal conversation, one of them, a female, was casually talking about her "partner". She also had a ring on her marriage finger. Therefore, because I wanted to show that I am interested in learning more about them, I happened to ask if she is married and what her "husband" is doing. There were also a few others with us and everybody was silent for a moment. Then, she explained to me, **a bit uncomfortably**, that her "partner is not a he but she" and she was not married because same-sex marriage was not allowed at that time in NYC. After that incident, I have always been very careful with my assumptions and especially with the word "partner" which is used not only by people in homosexual relationship but by heterosexuals as well who want to show their support for LGBT community.



The participant has some values that marriage could be done just by heterosexual people. However, the values in marriage are quite different among all people and largely depend on individual values and principles. Therefore, the value of this specific participant is projected in her first reaction to the word “partner” by asking the “husband” of the interlocutor.

Apart from the categories mentioned in Chick (1996) and Xin (2007), we have found out two more categories: lack of background knowledge and the delivery of speech. Below is an example of miscommunication caused by lack of background information:

...In my classes here in the UAE, I have discovered that many of the lessons in the book are misunderstood because of the local culture and lack of world knowledge. So if a person has no frame of reference to the history or the culture it is easy to misunderstand the message. Students here, for example, do not study much world history, so when there is reference to a historical event they usually don't understand what is being discussed. They didn't know that the Titanic was a historical ship. They thought it was just a story in the movies...

In this example, students are not aware of the reality of the event. That might be caused by their history education or the importance they give to western history in schools.

A Chinese participant also emphasized the importance of the pace/ the delivery of the speech.

...‘X’ nerede? Asking directions in Turkish is easy. At least, it is linguistically easy. Just put the name of the place you are looking for in front of the word ‘nerede’, add a little (not too much) rising intonation – and there you go! The difficulty is in dealing with what happens next.

You asked in Turkish, so you will be told in Turkish! With a barrage of words and lots of gestures. If you are lucky you will understand a few key words such as turn right or left, perhaps the distance, but mostly it will be a cascade of incomprehensible sound that you are so busy trying to decipher that you forget the key points anyway. However, you thank the person who tried to help you and proceed in the direction you think he indicated until you find the next person to ask and hope for someone who speaks more slowly...

As indicated on the table, intonation stands as the least reflected factor among the participants. This result is probably because the meaning in most of these languages such as English, Turkish, or Spanish does not depend on the intonation like Chinese. However, the way people utter the words is of great importance in communicating in these languages. At this point, the DICC was analyzed in depth to reveal the underlying reasons for miscommunication. The analysis of DICC could be seen below, in Table 4:

Difference in Contextual Clues( DICC)			
Non-Verbal Clues	Verbal Clues		
2(Gestures)	Accent	Pronunciation	Lexical items
	9		4
<b>TOTAL</b>	1	13	

Table 4: DICC ( Difference in Contextual Clues)

As reflected in the Table 4, most of the miscommunication problems that participants experienced, with regard to DICCC, could stem from the pronunciation of the word or the different accents. This result is interesting in the sense that both the speakers and interlocutors understand the words or the structures in their own native tongue fully, but sometimes they are not able to make any sense because of the accent or the pronunciation of the word in another culture/country. Even though participant 12 is an American woman, she has undergone a difficulty in Ireland, where English is also spoken largely.

In Ireland, it was really a struggle for me to understand what most of the Irish were saying and I had to concentrate really hard. I had to ask one man to repeat himself four times to realize he was asking me where he could buy a paper (newspaper), but I thought he was looking for a barber. English is the language of both our countries, but our accents couldn't be more different!

This experience shows that, as Chick (1996) points out in her study, the intercultural miscommunication is probable to occur even among the users of the same languages.

While the verbal factors play an important role in miscommunication, the non-verbal features such as gesture and mimics do not seem to impact the communication that much. They rather enabled the participants to overcome the language barriers. Participant 3 illustrates how she coped with the language barrier and any communication breakdown.

I would say I have experienced three main kinds of miscommunication. In most countries I have visited, there has been a language barrier. This has made basic actions like getting around the country a little difficult. However, I have found that ordering food, finding your way around cities, etc. are all controlled by universal body language which makes being understood much easier.

Apart from the strategies of participant 3 to fix possible problems, participant 14 also emphasizes the precautions she has taken to prevent any potential miscommunication.

In Turkey, there were many people who didn't speak English, but that didn't stop us from communicating with the few Turkish words I learned, using lots of smiles and acting out what we meant with our hands. In Malatya, I went home with a woman and her grown daughter – even though neither spoke a word of English. I could tell they were kind and their cousin came over to their home to interpret for us. We had a **wonderful evening and we stay in touch still** today by emailing messages that must be translated on-line.

She attached importance to use her gestures and she seems to be positive towards another cultural dinner. This attitude and using gestures with an appropriate universal way such as smiling worked out for her. At this point, it is clear that people's affective side have a great impact on the prevention of miscommunication. Some other participants (participant 7, 9, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19) pinpointed the emotions or their feelings about the miscommunication. Here are some examples:

Participant 7: It often works very well, but sometimes it doesn't work at all. Sometimes it's **funny and sometimes it is embarrassing**

Participant 9: People often talk about foreigners getting depressed as an aspect of culture shock but I think it may have more to do with the psychological effect of being incapable of doing simple tasks and of being dependent on others

Participant 15: However, the native Berbers in villages were **thrilled** when I said my basic words in Moroccan Arabic

Participant 16:...In some cultures the motions of my hands can be **offensive**

Participant 17: There were also a few others with us and everybody was silent for a moment. Then, she explained to me, a **bit uncomfortably**, that her “partner is not a he but she” and she was not married because same-sex marriage was not allowed at that time in NYC

Participant 18: **To my embarrassment**, in the following week I was told by an American classmate that gerry mending is a political term, not the name of the major

Participant 19: because I was not able to use correct grammar to connect the words communication was **difficult**.

When it comes to the affective side, people seem to have felt really sorry, depressed or embarrassed for their miscommunication problem. However, it is sometimes caused by the reasons out of their control. Participant 10 emphasizes the affective side of miscommunication in her following sentences:

... If it is too difficult to communicate, if your efforts fail on too many occasions, or if people are discourteous when you try to communicate, you find yourself not wanting to try, not wanting to engage with people, or even not wanting to go out to do the necessary things in daily life. People often talk about foreigners getting depressed as an aspect of culture shock but I think it may have more to do with the psychological effect of being incapable of doing simple tasks and of being dependent on others to help with so many things you would like just to do yourself. The flip side is that when you are successful at accomplishing even a small task using the language skills you have, you feel quite victorious. In learning language in the classroom – or on the street, as it were – one needs to build on small successes in order to feel confident, and to feel confident in order to take more and more risks with doing something in another language...

The psychological aspect to communication in a foreign language is emphasized in her sentences. This aspect of communication problems is often overlooked when language is being taught and learned. These comments show the importance of communication skills among people from different cultures, and also the importance of being respectful and understanding to foreign cultures.

## **5. Conclusion**

The literature on intercultural miscommunication has introduced different reasons for miscommunication, most of which were supported by this study as well. The communication breakdown people have experienced in both their native and foreign languages is investigated in this study. The study also examined the reasons for people’s miscommunication problems in regard to sociolinguistic transfer; differences in contextual clues (DICC): Verbal / Linguistic clues such as lexicon, accent, pronunciation, as well as non-verbal clues such as gestures, mimics, and intonation; politeness strategies, individual differences; thinking; values and beliefs. The reasons for the problems are also found in the lack of background

knowledge and the delivery of the speech. In alignment with these categories, the participants seem to have more miscommunication experiences caused by DICC, in particular pronunciation and accent differences. Moreover, beliefs and values also give rise to difficulty in communication. It is also found that in contrast to Chick's (1996) study, non-verbal contextual clues do not cause miscommunication a lot; verbal contextual clues play a more important role while communicating with people from different cultures. Taking all these into consideration, teachers need to be careful with teaching contextual clues, and should make students aware of the different accents. In such a way, they need to be exposed to not only the Standard English but also the other varieties. In addition, the teachers usually pave the way to the attitudes towards different cultures, so they might focus more on different beliefs and values of people to hinder any communication breakdown.

On the basis of the findings reported in this paper, it can be concluded that achieving mutual understanding between cultures is not easy. There are many causes and factors that can lead to intercultural miscommunication. For that reason, we need effort, desire and patience to get better mutual understanding and learn more about cultural differences so that we can increase cross-cultural awareness.

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## APPENDIX

### Interview Questions

Name:

Nationality:

Languages you know (including your native tongue):

Profession:

Education:

Countries you visited:

Have you ever experienced any miscommunication problems while communicating with people from other countries? The reason for miscommunication could be the language, pronunciation, socio-cultural, lexical or any other differences. Please, write your experiences about miscommunication.



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## **OPINIONS OF STUDENTS AND TEACHERS ON USING DIFFERENT FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING ACTIVITIES IN YOUNG LEARNERS' CLASSROOMS IN TURKEY**

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# OPINIONS OF STUDENTS AND TEACHERS ON USING DIFFERENT FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING ACTIVITIES IN YOUNG LEARNERS' CLASSROOMS IN TURKEY

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## Abstract

Current study has been conducted to find out what kindergarten students and their teachers think about using different foreign language teaching activities in young learners' classrooms in Turkey. It also examines which activities (songs, games, drawing) are favored most by the students and what kind of interaction patterns (individual, pair, and group) the students and teachers of young learners favor most. It also compares the opinions of pre-school and primary school students and teachers on the activity types. 52 kindergarten students, 31 primary school students and 10 teachers of young learners participated in this study. The students were interviewed one by one and the teachers were asked to answer a questionnaire including 12 statements. According to the results, both the teachers and the students agree with using different foreign language teaching activities in young learners' classrooms. Students like game most, then drawing and lastly songs. It was also found that there is a difference in the opinions of pre-school and primary school students on the activity types. As for ideas of the teachers, there is not a statically significant difference between the opinions of pre-school and primary school teachers on the activity types. Lastly, the results indicated that both teachers and students prefer pair and group work activities to individual activities.

*Keywords:* young learners, activity types, interaction patterns

## 1. Introduction

As English has become the international language, teaching English as second/foreign language has gained more importance. As a result of this, the questions whether foreign language education should start at earlier ages appeared and a great deal of research has been conducted to be able to answer these questions. Ur (1996) says that in a situation, where there are as many teachers and teaching hours as you want, by all means start as early as you can.

Teaching English to young learners is a new field in Turkey. Until 1998 students took their first English course at 6th grade. In 1998 by means of the education reform, English started to be taught from 4th grade and with the new education system 4+4+4 it has been decided that foreign language education should start in the second year of primary school. However, this is true for state schools. In private schools, foreign language education starts in kindergarten.

According to Cameron (2001) "In many societies, teaching children is seen as an extension of mothering rather than as an intellectual enterprise. However, primary teachers need to understand how children make sense of the world and how they learn". As Cenoz (2003) states teaching young learners is quite different from teaching teenagers or adults. First of all, they have a short attention span; they can easily get bored after 5-10 minutes (Harmer, 2007), so it becomes really difficult to control them. Secondly, as Ur (1996) says "Most adults are learning voluntarily, have chosen the course themselves, often have a clear purpose in learning (work, travel, etc.) and are therefore likely to feel more committed and motivated; whereas most children have little choice in where, how or even whether they are



taught". Actually they do not learn a language on purpose. When they are told that they are learning a language, it means nothing to the children (Bekleyen, 2011). Thirdly, Harmer (2007) says that they learn from everything around them: they learn indirectly rather than directly and he adds that they understand mostly when they see, hear, touch and interact rather than from explanations.

As young learners are different from adult learners, teaching young learners necessitates different methodologies. As they have a short concentration span, they always want change. As they are naturally curious, anything new attracts children's attention (Ekşi, 2009). Ur (1996) states that monotonous, apparently pointless activities quickly bore and demotivate young learners: older ones are more tolerant of them. Because of this, teachers should have a rich repertoire of activities to help young children receive information from a variety of sources and plan a range of activities for a given time period (Harmer, 2007).

Şensoy and Özad (2007) conducted a study to be able to find out the attitudes of teachers toward using different activities while teaching English to young learners in pre-school and in the first and second year in primary schools in North Cyprus. They also tried to find out whether there are differences in the attitudes of preschool and primary school English teachers. According to the data obtained they found that both pre-school and primary school teachers are in favor of using different activities while teaching English to young learners and there is no significant difference between the responses of pre-school and primary school teachers. However, they did not search for opinions of the students. Therefore, current study has been conducted to explore opinions of both students and teachers on using different foreign language teaching activities in young learners' classrooms in Turkey.

## **2. Methodology**

### **2.1. Participants**

The students that participated in the present study were 52 from kindergarten whose ages were 4 to 6 and 31 from the primary school whose ages were 6 to 8. Both the kindergarten and the primary school were private school. Because of this the children had wealthy parents. Almost all of the fathers and more than half of the mothers had license degree. The kids were born and raised in İstanbul.

The teachers who participated in the present study were 10. All of them were female. 4 of them were from kindergarten and the others were from the primary school. 3 of teachers were native speakers of English. One of them was from the U.K. and the other two were from the U.S.A. The other teachers were native speakers of Turkish and they learned English as a foreign language in Turkey.

### **2.2. Settings**

The kindergarten was in Pendik in İstanbul. It was a private school which was converted from a duplex villa. It had a small garden which included a park for the kids. There were 6 classes in the school. Each class includes approximately 10 children. There was a class for 6 year-olds, 2 classes for 5 year-olds and 3 classes for 4 year-olds. The classes were large enough for students to move and go around. The classes were colorful and cheerful.

The primary school was in Pendik in İstanbul, too. It was also private. It was a large and crowded school which included both primary school students and elementary school students. It had a huge garden. The classes were large enough for students to move and go around. The classes were colorful and cheerful as the students were still young learners although they were not as colorful as the ones in the kindergarten.

### 2.3. Data Collection

The teachers were distributed a questionnaire consisting of 12 Likert-scale type questions prepared by Şensoy and Özad (2009) so as to determine what they think about using different kind of activities with young learners. The questionnaire consisted of five choices ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The teachers chose the one that was most suitable for them. As it included only 12 questions it took maximum five minutes of the teachers to complete it.

As the students were very young learners they were not given a written questionnaire. They were asked orally by the researcher to find out what they think about different kind of activity usage and which activities they like most (games, songs or drawing). They were also asked whether they like studying individually, with pair or with groups to be able to find what kind of interaction they favor most.

### 2.4. Research Questions

This study has been conducted to find out the answers to these questions;

1. What do the teachers and students think about using different foreign language teaching activities in young learners' classrooms in Turkey?
2. Which activities (songs, games, drawing) are favored most by the students?
3. Is there a difference in the opinions of pre-school and primary school students and teachers on the activity types?
4. What kind of interaction patterns (individual, pair, and group) do the students and teachers of young learners favor most?

### 3. Data Analysis and Discussion

Data was collected from both teachers and students for this study. The data collected from teachers was analyzed in two steps. First, the data was examined in terms of the averages of the questionnaire items. Then the answers of preschool and primary school teachers were compared with the help of independent sample t test. As for the teachers' interaction pattern preference, the researcher observed the teachers during class hours to be able to find out what kind of interaction patterns the teachers of young learners favor most.

Data collected from students was analyzed in three steps. Firstly, which activity type (game, song, and drawing) was favored most by the students was calculated with the help of frequency. After that the frequency of preschool and primary school students' activity type choice was compared. Lastly, whether students like individual, pair or group work most was examined.

Table 1. *Means of teachers' Responses*

Questionnaire Items	Means
1. English should be taught through songs.	4,4000
2. English should be taught through using language in games.	4,4000
3. English should be taught using symbols.	4,5000
4. Drawing should be used while teaching English.	4,4000
5. Realia should be used while teaching English.	4,5000
6. Pair and group work should be used when teaching English.	4,6000
7. Animation should be used while teaching English.	4,3000
8. Description of photographs should be used in teaching English.	4,0000
9. English should be taught through picture books.	4,0000
10. English should be taught using books that have pictures and some writing.	4,2000
11. Drama should be used in teaching English.	4,5000
12. English should be taught through reading books.	4,1000

The results indicate that the teachers Strongly Agree or Agree with using a variety of activities while teaching English to young children. In other words, they are positive about the use of songs, language in games, visual symbols, drawing, realia, and picture books.

They agree rather than strongly agree with the use of animation, description of photographs and books. Actually young learners like moving all the time. It is really hard for them to sit down and focus on something. While watching animation, some students get bored after about ten minutes while some students want to continue watching it.

Description of photographs is used in the other courses of young learners, too. Because of this, in time, students see the same or familiar photographs and they may get bored. Some students may react “I know this” or sometimes describing the photograph may necessitate the knowledge of previous course. If the child was absent in the previous course, s/he could not participate in the lesson.

According to the teachers, young learners do not like sitting down and listening to something carefully. Although the teacher shows pictures in the book or visualize the story with the help of gestures, showing the photographs in the book to each child is really hard in crowded classrooms. Some students may be out of the circle in time. Such things create classroom management problems for teachers. This may be the reason why teachers agree rather than strongly agree with the use of animation, description of photographs and books.

Teachers strongly agree with use of games, songs, pair/group work activities, drama, realia and drawing. According to the teachers, all of the students involve in games, songs, pair/group work activities and drama because every student is active during such kind of activities. Teachers favor drawing too as nearly all of the students like drawing and involve in drawing activities. Teachers also make use of realia as the students are really interested in concrete objects that they can touch and examine.

Table 2. *Comparison of the means of primary and pre-school teachers' responses*

Questionnaire Items	preschool	primary school
1. English should be taught through songs.	4,3333	4,4286
2. English should be taught through using language in games.	4,3333	4,4286
3. English should be taught using symbols.	4,3333	4,5714
4. Drawing should be used while teaching English.	4,3333	4,4286
5. Realia should be used while teaching English.	4,3333	4,5714
6. Pair and group work should be used when teaching English.	4,6667	4,5714
7. Animation should be used while teaching English.	4,0000	4,4286
8. Description of photographs should be used in teaching English.	3,6667	4,1429
9. English should be taught through picture books.	4,0000	4,0000
10. English should be taught using books that have pictures and some writing.	4,6667	4,0000
11. Drama should be used in teaching English.	4,3333	4,5714
12. English should be taught through reading books.	4,0000	4,1429

On nearly all the items in the questionnaire, there is a great similarity between the means of the responses given by the two groups (pre-school and primary school teachers). In other words, the results indicate that teachers' views on teaching English to very close age groups of young learners show similarities.

Only for the item 7 (Animation should be used while teaching English) there is a statistically significant difference between the ideas of pre-school and primary school teachers (sig. ,000 < ,005). As it has been stated before, kindergarten students may get bored while watching animation and may create classroom management problems, however for primary school children animation may be enjoyable and like a free time activity after taking difficult courses like math etc. This may be the reason why primary school teachers favor using animation.

According to the observation of the researcher both pre-school and primary school teachers favor both pair and group work activity although primary school teachers generally prefer pair work to group work. The classes were more crowded in the primary school than the ones in the kindergarten. So, group work activities may create chaos in the classes of the primary school. This may be the reason why primary school teachers use pair work activities most of the time.

As the age of the students was between 4 and 8, a questionnaire was not given to the students. The researcher just observed them during the lesson and asked questions to be able understand what they think about the usage of different kind of activities. With the help of the observation of the researcher and the answers of the students, it can be said that students like different kind of activities and they get bored when the teacher use the same kind of activity for a long time.

Table 3. *Frequency of activity choice of students*

activity		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	game	42	53,2	53,2	53,2
	song	16	20,3	20,3	73,4
	drawing	21	26,6	26,6	100,0
	Total	79	100,0	100,0	

According to the table 3, students like game most, then drawing and lastly songs. To be able to see whether there is a difference between the ideas of pre-school and primary school students, table 4 and 5 was drawn.

Table 4. *Pre-school students*

activity		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	game	14	36,8	36,8	36,8
	song	9	23,7	23,7	60,5
	drawing	15	39,5	39,5	100,0
	Total	38	100,0	100,0	

Table 5. *Primary school students*

activity		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	game	28	68,3	68,3	68,3
	song	7	17,1	17,1	85,4
	drawing	6	14,6	14,6	100,0
	Total	41	100,0	100,0	

According to the table 4 and 5, pre-school children like drawing most, then game and lastly song although the number of students who like drawing (15) is very close to the number of students who like games (14). Primary school children like games most (28), then song (7) and lastly drawing (6). There is a significant difference between the choice of game and other two activities. This may indicate that primary school children are longing for games. Although they are still very young, they are responsible for studying hard, learning how to read and write, solving mathematical problems and doing homework. This may be the reason why they do not want to do something more with pencil even if it is for drawing.

Table 6. *Interaction patterns*

interaction		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	pair work	9	11,4	11,4	11,4
	group work	65	82,3	82,3	93,7
	individual	5	6,3	6,3	100,0
	Total	79	100,0	100,0	

According to the table 6 students enjoy group work activities most, then pair work and lastly individual. As it has been stated before both pre-school and primary school teachers strongly agree with using activities that necessitates student interaction. So, it is good that both students and teachers share the same idea in terms of interaction patterns.

#### 4. Limitations

The current study was conducted with very young learners. Although the researcher tried to simplify her language by making clear and short sentences, there may be some students especially from 4 year-olds who did not understand the questions and answered the question according to the thing s/he remembered. For example the researcher asked “Which one do you like most in English classes, games, songs or drawing?” the teacher may have said “drawing” not because s/he liked it most but as s/he remembered it. Although the researcher asked the question again by changing the order of activity types when she suspected that the student did not understand the question to be able to hinder such a problem, there may have been some misunderstandings that she could not realize. Additionally, the students were not interviewed in isolation. Although the kindergarten students did not intervene in each other’s answers, some primary school students from second graders commented on their friends’ answers and tried to affect their answers. Although the researcher warned the students to share their own idea no matter what the others think or say, they may have been affected by their friends. Lastly, the first graders were not homogeneous in terms of age. There were some students who were 5.5 years old because of the new 4+4+4 regulation. However, as they were first graders, their answers were analyzed in the category of primary school. This may have affected the results to some extent.

#### 5. Conclusion and Recommendation

52 kindergarten students, 31 primary school students and 10 teachers of young learners participated in this study. The students were asked orally to be able to find what they think about the use of different types of activities, which activity type (game, song, and drawing) and what kind of interaction pattern (individual, pair, group) they like most. The teachers were asked to answer a questionnaire including 12 statements to be able to find out what they think about the use of different kinds of activities with young learners. According to the results, both the teachers and the students agree with using different foreign language teaching activities in young learners’ classrooms in Turkey. Students like game most, then



drawing and lastly songs. Also it has been found that there is a difference in the opinions of pre-school and primary school students on the activity types. While pre-school children like drawing most (15 students), then game (14 students) and lastly song (9 students), primary school children like games most (28), then song (7) and lastly drawing (6). On nearly all the items in the questionnaire, there is a great similarity between the means of the responses given by the two groups (pre-school and primary school teachers). As for ideas of the teacher, there is not a statically significant difference between the opinions of pre-school and primary school teachers on the activity types. Only for the item 7 (Animation should be used while teaching English) there is a statistically significant difference between the ideas of pre-school and primary school teachers (sig., 000 <, 005). While primary school teachers use animation most of the time, pre-school teachers do not favor it that much. According to the results both teachers and students prefer pair and group work activities to individual activities. Although both pre-school and primary school children favor group work activity most, the teachers of primary school prefer pair work to group work.

Different results may be obtained if this study was conducted again by interviewing students in isolation to be able obtain more reliable answers from the students. Additionally, conducting the research again in homogenous first grade classes in terms of age may change the results.

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## **PORTFOLIO ASSESSMENT IN COOPERATION WITH TEACHERS AND STUDENTS IN ENGLISH LESSONS**

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## PORTFOLIO ASSESSMENT IN COOPERATION WITH TEACHERS AND STUDENTS IN ENGLISH LESSONS

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### Abstract

Assessment has gained much importance lately and there are many types of portfolios used in English Language Teaching and Learning. This study takes place in a college and it shows the types of portfolios which are used by learners, learners' attitudes toward using portfolio, the relationship between portfolio and learners' self-confidence, the skills that the learners prefer while preparing their portfolio.

*Keywords:* Portfolio, Assessment

### 1. Introduction

“Do you know English? and Can you speak English?” are the common questions that people encounter in any time or place. When there is a universal event or news, just the people who know English can understand it or if one wants to use Internet, he will definitely come across English. You want to go abroad but you do not know English, then sorry but it will be very difficult for you. Thus, speaking English and communicating in English may be the most important thing in the world nowadays. People should know English to be able to travel, get a job, be a universal person, communicate with the people who live in different countries and share the knowledge that they have. As this is very crucial, parents are very sensitive to their children and they want them to learn or acquire the language.

How do people learn English? Do they really communicate? Is it easy to learn a language for them? Are the techniques used while learning a language important? These may be the most crucial questions for the people learning or trying to learn a language. Moreover, it is a well-known fact that teaching and learning a language is a process in which both the learners and the teachers should be self-denying. Thus, teachers of English have many responsibilities while following the process.

How can learners understand that they learn English? The answer is easy; the learners can understand it when they use it. Thus, while thinking this process, one of the most important things is the assessment of the language. There are lots of techniques for assessing the level of the students. Most of them are traditional ones like exams, tests, quizzes but there are many new-born, authentic techniques, too. Among all types of alternative assessments, portfolio has become a popular technique, currently. Portfolios show students' progress and success in many field of the language. When one looks at a portfolio, he definitely sees the efforts of the students and the student will see the process and achievement in the language (Paulson & Paulson, 1991). Paul S. George stated the purposes of using portfolios as; encouraging self-directed learning, enlarging the view of what is learned, fostering learning about learning, demonstrating progress toward identified outcomes, creating an intersection for instruction and assessment, providing a way for students to value themselves as learners, offering opportunities for peer-supported growth (George, 1995).

Moreover there are many kinds of portfolios that can be used in language teaching. One of them as Kan stated in his paper, process portfolio which gives the process of the student and it shows how the students improve in a specific area of learning. Show case portfolio is



another type of portfolio and it can be used for summative evaluation of the students. In show case portfolio, students put their best works (Kan, 2007). Assessment portfolio is another type and it is widely used in the colleges for assessment. In assessment portfolio, students put all of their works such as; writing and speaking tasks, brainstorming activities, mind maps, dialogs, stories, in short everything that they did in class or at home. Then the teachers give marks for each task and at the end of the year students can see both their process and the marks they had.

Neimon said ‘The main goals of portfolio assessment are ; encouraging learners to become more autonomous, take the control of their learning, make decisions, participate in the evaluation of their own work and solve the problem they may face individually.’ (Neimon, 1999). Moreover, according to Espstein (2005) portfolio assessment transform the role the teacher away from generating comparative rankings of achievement and toward improving student achievement through evaluation, feedback and self-reflection.

### **1.1. The Problem**

There are many types of assessment used in English Language Teaching but it is a question whether the techniques are well-developed or not. The main aim of this study is to figure out the effects of using portfolio in 4th grades English classes and the opinions of the teachers and the students.

### **1.2. Assumptions**

All the participants who take part in the research are the 4th grade students attending TED Kayseri College. The students have been using portfolio assessment system. Thus, the questionnaire done by them is very appropriate for their level.

### **1.3. Limitations**

In TED Kayseri College, portfolio assessment is used in 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grades. However in this study, just the 4th grades are taken part in the research. The whole school may be included to the research.

## **2. Methodology**

### **2.1. Participants**

The participants of this research are 113 4th grade students of TED Kayseri College. The students have been using portfolio as an evaluation system systematically. They start using portfolios when they are attending to 1st grades at the college and this goes on to the graduation from the school. At the end of the year, they give marks for their portfolio, then the teacher gives feedback and they compare the marks and the feedback and make deduction for their process.

### **2.2. Settings**

This study is carried out in TED Kayseri College. Ted Kayseri College is one of the oldest colleges, which gives much importance to English learning and teaching. Students start to the college at the age of 5. All of the students attending to the college have 10 hours English in a week. In each grades, there are 3 teachers. One of them has main course lessons, one has skills. Moreover, native speakers have one hour lesson with each class. All of the students have been using the portfolios an assessment system and the teachers have seminar about using portfolio.

### **2.3. Data Collection and Analysis**

The participants of the study are given a questionnaire. In the questionnaire there are 3 parts. Part A has 8 statements of general attitudes of students to using portfolio, Part B has 5 statements and each one is about a type of portfolio so students find their own type and Part C has 12 statements which are about the skills. Thus, there are 25 statements about using portfolio. Moreover, it was analyzed using SPSS. First, the data was examined in terms of the averages of the questionnaire items and it was calculated with the help of frequency. Thus, the aim is to see students' attitudes for using portfolio.

#### 2.4. Objectives and Research Questions

This study explores the effects of portfolio assessment on English classes. Moreover, the study will find out the answers to these questions;

- Is there any relationship between portfolio assessment and learning a language?
- Do the students like using portfolio assessment?
- Does the portfolio assessment make the students autonomous learners?
- Do the teachers think that it is a good technique to assess the students?

### 3. Data analysis and discussion

Data was collected from students who are attending 4 grades in Ted Kayseri College for this study. Moreover, it was analyzed using SPSS. First, the data was examined in terms of the averages of the questionnaire items and it was calculated with the help of frequency. Thus, the aim is to see students' attitudes towards using portfolio. Moreover, students mark the items as either agree or disagree.

Table 1. *Students' attitudes towards using portfolio*

Question Code	Agree		Disagree		Descriptive Statistics		
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
A1	110	97,3	3	2,7	1,02655	0,161476	0,026
A2	109	96,5	4	3,5	1,0354	0,185607	0,034
A3	105	92,9	8	7,1	1,0708	0,257627	0,066
A4	98	86,7	15	13,3	1,13274	0,340809	0,116
A5	110	97,3	3	2,7	1,02655	0,161476	0,026
A6	43	38,1	70	61,9	1,38053	0,48768	0,238
A7	96	85	17	15	1,15044	0,359097	0,129
A8	19	16,8	94	83,2	1,16814	0,375658	0,141
OVERALL RESULTS for PART A					1,2367	0,10743	0,012

In this table, Part A is taken into consideration and it shows general attitudes of the students and it has got 8 items. The results indicate that students are positive towards using portfolio and they think it improves their English (m=1,2367) but the items will be evaluated by one by below. A1: I improve my English by preparing portfolio. 110 students out of 113 agree with this item so their attitude is very positive (97,3%). A5: I am mostly glad to the studies that I did. Nearly all the students agree with this item so it can be said that students are happy with the things they did(97,3). A2: Effort and time that I spend while preparing are

worth. 109 students out of 113 students agree with the item so students' attitude is positive (96,5%). A3 : My English is improving by applying the works of portfolio. 105 students agreeing with the item thinks that English can be improved by using portfolio (92,9%). A4: Portfolio is a good assessment method. 98 students agree with the statement. Thus, it shows that portfolio assessment can be used as a method for assessment systematically. A7: Preparing a portfolio makes the thing that I learned be permanent. 96 students agree with this item (85%). A6: I come across many difficulties while preparing the portfolio. 43 students out of 113 agree with this statement (38.1%) and 70 of them disagree (61.9%). Thus, it can be said from this result that some of the students have difficulties and problems while preparing their portfolios and it shows that it isn't very easy. A8: Preparing a portfolio has more negative sides than positive one. 19 students agree and 94 students disagree with this statement so most of them think that portfolio has more positive sides.

In Part B, there are 5 statements and each one belongs to 3 different types of portfolio. B1, B2, B3 are related to assessment portfolio but B4 is related to display portfolio and B5 is related to working portfolio. The main aim is to find the type of portfolio that the students use in their school. In the table 2, it is seen that there are frequencies of the items.

Table 2. *Types of portfolio*

Question Code	Agree		Disagree	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
B1	85	75,2	28	24,8
B2	39	34,5	74	65,5
B3	78	69,0	35	31,0
B4	18	15,9	95	84,1
B5	17	15,0	96	85,0

B1: I follow my improvement from my portfolio. 85 students agree with the item and they think they can see their improvement. B3: I put all of my studies into my portfolio. 78 students say that they put all of their studies into their portfolios. B2: All of my studies that I put into my portfolio are evaluated by the teacher. This item is about assessment portfolio but the students don't know that the teacher gives mark to all of their studies so they marked it as disagree. In the table above, B4: I put the best studies I did in my portfolio. Most of the students disagree that they put just the best studies that they did because it is vividly seen that they put all of the studies. B5: My teacher selects my studies that I will put into my portfolio.' 96 students disagree because students put the items they want. The teacher gives this responsibility to the students.

Table 3. *Descriptive statistics of portfolio types*

TYPES	Descriptive Statistics		
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Assessment Portfolio	1,4041	0,2614	0,0684
Display Portfolio	1,8407	0,3676	0,1351
Working Portfolio	1,8496	0,3591	0,1290

As seen in Table 3 that assessment portfolio is used by the students (m=1,4041); however display and working portfolios are not used because their means are nearly. They disagree with the statements about these portfolio types.

Table 4. *Assessment portfolio*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1,00	21	18,6	18,6	18,6
	1,33	51	45,1	45,1	63,7
	1,67	37	32,7	32,7	96,5
	2,00	4	3,5	3,5	100,0
	Total	113	100,0	100,0	

In Table 4, it can be understood that 72 students agree on using assessment but 41 students cannot divide the types of the portfolios. One of the reasons for this is that students do not recognize that the teacher gives marks all of their studies. Thus, they might be disagreed on the second item. Moreover, these 3 statements are directly about assessment portfolio.

In Part C, skills are taken into consideration; the improvement in the skills, the skills that the students like most and the skills that the students think they affect their self-confidence. Thus, this part is divided into 3. C-I shows the improvement in the skills as shown in Table 5.

Table 5. *Improvement in the skills*

Question	Agree		Disagree		Descriptive Statistics		
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
<b>C1</b>	64	56,6	49	43,4	1,4336	0,4978	0,2478
<b>C2</b>	96	85	17	15	1,1504	0,3591	0,1290
<b>C3</b>	99	87,6	14	12,4	1,1239	0,3309	0,1095
<b>C4</b>	100	88,5	13	11,5	1,1150	0,3205	0,1027
<b>OVERALL RESULTS for PART_C-I</b>					1,2058	0,2656	0,0706

C1: I think my listening skill is improved. C2: I think my speaking skill is improved. C3: I think my reading skill is improved and C4: I think my writing skill is improved. The table above shows that most of the students don't think that their listening skill is improved ( $m=1,4336$ ). However, nearly all of the students think that their speaking, reading and writing skills are improved by using portfolio.

Table 6. *The results of the analysis for Part C*

Question	Agree		Disagree		Descriptive Statistics		
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
<b>C5</b>	36	31,9	77	68,1	1,6814	0,4680	0,2190
<b>C6</b>	69	61,1	44	38,9	1,3894	0,4898	0,2399
<b>C7</b>	48	42,5	65	57,5	1,5752	0,4965	0,2465
<b>C8</b>	49	43,4	64	56,6	1,5664	0,4978	0,2478
<b>OVERALL RESULTS for PART_C_II</b>					1,5531	0,2554	0,0652

The items C5, C6, C7, C8 show the skills that the students like most. C5: I like doing listening activities most while preparing my portfolio. C6: I like doing speaking activities most while preparing my portfolio. C7: I like doing reading activities most while preparing my portfolio. C8: I like doing writing activities most while preparing my portfolio. Moreover, it is understood from the table above that students like speaking activities most because 69 of them agree with item C6. The other items show that students don't like the other activities. The overall mean is 1,5531, so it cannot be said that students do not either like or dislike the activities.

Table 7. The results of the analysis for Part C

Question	Agree		Disagree		Descriptive Statistics		
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
<b>C9</b>	75	66,4	37	32,7	1,3304	0,4725	0,2232
<b>C10</b>	94	83,2	18	15,9	1,1607	0,3689	0,1361
<b>C11</b>	91	80,5	21	18,6	1,1875	0,3921	0,1537
<b>C12</b>	92	81,4	20	17,7	1,1786	0,3847	0,1480
<b>OVERALL RESULTS for PART_C-III</b>					1,2162	0,2986	0,0892

The items C9, C10, C11, C12 show the skills that the students think they affect their self-confidence. C9: 'Portfolio studies increase my self-confidence in terms of listening skill.' C10: 'Portfolio studies increase my self-confidence in terms of speaking skill.' C11: 'Portfolio studies increase my self-confidence in terms of reading skill.' C12: 'Portfolio studies increase my self-confidence in terms of writing skill.' When one looks at the table 7, it is very vivid that most of the students think that portfolio increases their self-confidence in terms of all the skills ( $m=1,2162$ ).

#### 4. Limitation

The current study is done with the young learner students. Thus, the students cannot understand the questionnaire although the questionnaire is in their native language. One of the reasons of this can be they do not know the marking system of the college. Additionally, just one grade is taken into consideration but the whole school can be included in the study.

#### 5. Conclusion

This study aimed to find out the effects of portfolio assessment on English classes. In order to reach this aim, students were given a questionnaire. The items in the questionnaire are all about the portfolio and the students agree or disagree on the statements. Some of them are the items about general attitudes of the students towards using portfolio, some of them are put in the questionnaire to find the type of the portfolio that the students have been using and the others are aimed to find the skills that the students like or thought that they have improved by using the portfolio.

When the questionnaire is examined by the help of SPSS, it is seen that the students are very eager to use the portfolio as a general attitude. Moreover, the students specified the type of the portfolio that they have been using as assessment portfolio because they put all of their work in their portfolio and the teacher gives marks to their each work. However, many



students do not know that the teacher gives marks to the each work so they disagree on the item about assessment portfolio. The reason for this might be that they see the marks at the end of the term. To prevent this confusion, the teacher should show the marks immediately after giving them. Moreover, the students think that they follow their process from their portfolio. After they notified the type of the portfolio, the students said their ideas about the skills. Nearly all of them think that their speaking, writing and reading skills are improved by the help of the portfolio. However, some of the students think that the listening activities are not improved and the reason of this probably is that they did not do many listening activities. Moreover, the students like speaking activities and they think their self-confidence in speaking, reading and writing skill increase.

To sum up, the findings of the study shows that students are glad to use portfolio as an assessment system and for a future work, teachers can be included in this study. Moreover, a case study which investigates the effects of using a portfolio can be done.

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## **A DIFFICULTY ANALYSIS OF CLEFT SENTENCES**

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### Abstract

This empirical study was investigated to define how difficult the clefts sentences for the EFL freshman students and to describe the difficulty levels of types of cleft sentences. The study examined to what extent instruction on cleft sentences clarified the EFL freshman students' confusion in cleft structures. The data administrated by 61 freshman students at the Department of English Language Literature (ELL) in a state university in Turkey was collected through the pre-test and post-test design. The results revealed that participants showed a significant improvement in understanding the cleft structures. In addition, there are significant differences among students' level of recognition for each type of cleft structure and the most confusing cleft types for the EFL students are it-clefts, if-because cleft and all-cleft.

*Keywords:* syntactic errors, cleft sentences, dummy subjects, pseudo clefts

### 1. Introduction

Second language acquisition research over the past three decades has generated a wide spectrum of different interpretations of “fossilization”, a construct introduced by Selinker (1972) for characterizing lack of grammatical development in second language learning. The conceptual differences found in the literature have created confusion rather than offering clarification, thereby obstructing a coherent understanding of the theoretical notion as well as empirical research findings. The ultimate goal of second language acquisition research is to come to an understanding of what is acquired (and what is not acquired) and the mechanisms that bring second language knowledge (Gass, 1988). The taxonomy of putative causal factors of fossilization (Han & Selinker, 2005) describes two main factors as external (environmental) and internal (cognitive, neuro-biological and socio-affective).

Fossilization, as then conceptualized, implicated both a cognitive mechanism known as the fossilization mechanism and a performance-related structural phenomenon (Selinker, 1972). As a cognitive mechanism, fossilization was thought to be a constituent of a latent psychological structure that dictates a learner's acquisition of a second language. As a performance-related structural notion, it denoted specifically “the regular reappearance in second-language performance of linguistic phenomena which were thought to be eradicated in the performance of the learner” (1972: 211). The two functions were conceived to be interrelated: “Fossilization is a mechanism that underlies surface linguistic material which speakers will tend to keep in their IL productive performance, no matter what the age of the learner or the amount of instruction he receives in the TL.” (Selinker, 1972: 229)

Further, as a performance-based structural notion, fossilization was indirectly, rather than directly, defined in terms of putative fossilizable structures. “Fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular L1 tend to keep in their IL relative to a particular TL, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL.” (Selinker, 1972: 215) This earliest conception suggests several properties of fossilization. First, fossilizable structures are persistent; second, they are resistant to external influences; and third, fossilization affects both child L2 learners and adult L2 learners alike. Behind these, it is important to note, is the

implication that L2 learners lack the ability to attain native-like competence. And it is precisely this view that accords the construct of fossilization its intrinsic interest; it is what has drawn the attention of many second language researchers and practitioners.

In the analysis of L2 ultimate attainment, the systematic analysis incorporates a macroscopic and microscopic level of analysis by Han (2004). Fossilization is no longer a monolithic concept but rather one tied up with different manifestations of failure in L2 learning. Research attempts to examine failure seem to be occurring on both a macroscopic and a microscopic level. On the macroscopic level, researchers (e.g. those who study critical period effects in SLA) typically look at general failure across adult L2 learners. On the microscopic level, on the other hand, they look at individual learners and focus on the local cessation of learning that takes place in various interlanguage subsystems such as phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicon and pragmatics. Given the emergence of the two mainstream perspectives on fossilization, it becomes essential that researchers make it clear what they understand by fossilization.

Syntactic errors are those which disobey the phrase structure rules and, by this way, violate the formation of grammatically correct sentences. These errors can be exemplified as word order, ungrammatical sentence constructions resulting from faulty use of verbs, prepositions, articles, relative clauses in sentences. These types of errors have captured the attention of a great number of researchers studying in different settings with learners of different backgrounds.

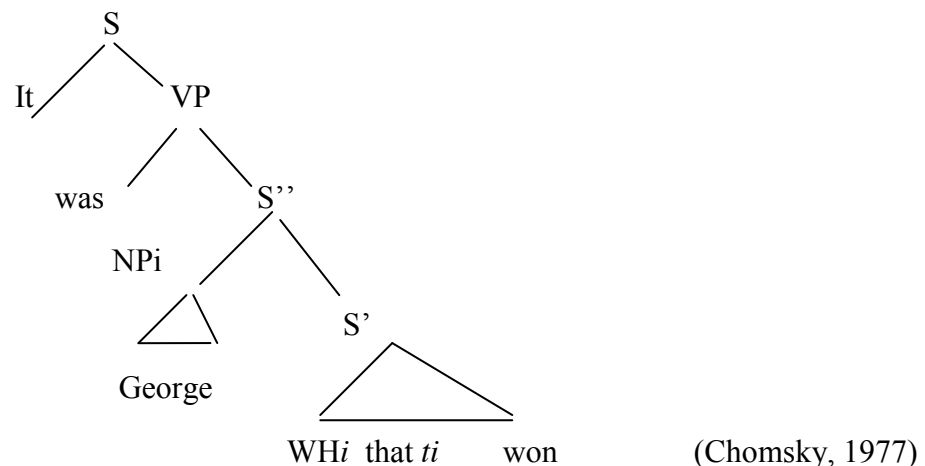
According to Kellerman's (1989) typical-error analysis approach, errors that are characteristic of learners with the same L1 background usually come across at different proficiency levels because of the different typology of languages. It seems inevitable to confront fossilization in temporary cessation of learning. Selinker and Lamendella (1979) suggest that a particular learner had fossilized if the cessation of further L1 persisted in spite of learner's ability, opportunity and motivation to the target language. At that point, corrective feedback approach has a healing effect to demonstrate that a certain interlanguage structure has ceased to develop. However, resistance and persistence of the L1 influence errors and the effect of corrective feedback (Han, 2004).

As one of the typical syntactic errors cleft structure in spite of the explicit explanation and corrective feedback indicate that remedial teaching had little effect on the correct use of cleft structures in different typologies (Han, 2004). Syntactic errors also are defined with Analogy Theory as an alternative mechanism to generative rules for explaining productive formation of structures such as words. Rules are analogies that have become entrenched as standard parts of the linguistic system (Langacker, 1987). Analogies as defined in rhetoric, are a comparison between words, but an analogy can be used in teaching as well. An analogy as used in teaching would be comparing a topic that students are already familiar with, with a new topic that is being introduced so that students can get a better understanding of the topic and relate back to previous knowledge. The steps for teaching with analogies are as follows: Step one is introducing the new topic that is about to be taught and giving some general knowledge on the subject. Step two is reviewing the concept that the students already know to ensure they have the proper knowledge to assess the similarities between the two concepts. Step three is finding relevant features within the analogy of the two concepts. Step four is finding similarities between the two concepts so students are able to compare and contrast them in order to understand. Finally, step five is indicating where the analogy breaks down between the two concepts and drawing a conclusion (Langacker, 1987).

### 1.1. The Structure of Cleft Sentences

Complex sentences consist of one independent clause (main) and one or more dependent clauses (subordinating clauses). There are three kinds of dependent clauses that form a complex sentence; noun clauses, adverbial clauses and adjective clauses (Demirezen, 1995). As a type of complex sentences, a cleft sentence includes a main clause and a dependent clause. Clefts typically put a particular constituent into focus. This focusing is often accompanied by a special intonation.

For the learning of transposition cleft constituent, Chomsky (1977) proposed that the clefted constituent is base-generated in an S'-adjoined 'topic' position, which is coindexed with the gap in the S' via the same 'predication rule' that links relative clauses to their associated heads. He assumes there to be a single structural configuration common to relative clause, cleft, topicalization and left dislocation structures, attributing any differences to surface interpretive rules peculiar to each structure. The focus of Chomsky's 1977 examination of clefts was on arguing that the syntactic relationship holding between the clefted constituent and the gap in the cleft clause observes general constraints on wh-movement. Chomsky formalizes the cleft analysis as follow:



A cleft sentence can be constructed as follows:

*it* + conjugated form of *to be* + *X* + **subordinate clause**

where *it* is a cleft pronoun and *X* is usually a noun phrase (although it can also be a prepositional phrase, and in some cases an adjectival or adverbial phrase). The focus is on *X*, or else on the subordinate clause or some element of it as shown in (1) and (2):

(1) cleft pronoun + copula + clefted constituent + cleft clause

*It* + *is* + *beans* + that I like

*It's beans* + *that I like*.

[main clause] + [subordinate clause]

(2) *It's money* + *that I love*.

[main clause] + [subordinate clause]

A cleft sentence is a sentence that is cleft (split) so as to put the focus on one part of it. The cleft sentence is introduced by *it* (*dummy subject*), which is followed by a verb phrase whose main verb is generally *be*. The focused part comes next, and then the rest of the sentence is introduced by a relative pronoun, relative determiner, or relative adverb. If we

take the sentence *Tom felt a sharp pain after lunch*, two possible cleft sentences formed from it are *It was Tom who felt a sharp pain after lunch* and *It was after lunch that Tom felt a sharp pain.*" (Greenbaum, 1996)

The cleft sentence is a very easy way of highlighting different parts of a clause. The clause is 'cleft' into two components, related in the following way:

- At the beginning is the dummy pronoun *it* followed by a form of the verb *be*
- After the verb comes the focus of the cleft sentence (shown in bold below).
- This is then post modified by a clause containing the rest of the information in the original sentence.

To illustrate this, here is a clause where the elements are in the expected order:

(3) Di read a poem in the cafe last night.

The following clefted options are now available:

- (4) a. It was **Di** who read a poem in the cafe last night.  
 b. It was **a poem** that Di read in the cafe last night.  
 c. It was **in the cafe** that Di read a poem last night.  
 d. It was **last night** that Di read a poem in the cafe.

Not all elements take a clefted focus with equal facility (Crystal, 2004).

Clefts are used to bring particular elements of the clause into additional focus. There are seven types of cleft constructions:

1. **It-cleft:** (5) *It is Jaime for whom we are looking.*

[main clause] + [subordinate clause]

(6) *It's a man I want.* (FICT) < compare: *I want a man.*>

[main clause] + [subordinate clause]

*A man* is focused in this sentence (Biber et al. 2002).

2. **Wh-cleft/Pseudo-cleft:**

(7) *What he wanted to buy was a Fiat.*

(8) *What I want is something to eat, now!* (CONV) < compare: *I want something to eat.*>

[main clause] + [subordinate clause]

*Something to eat* is focused in this sentence (Biber et al. 2002).

3. **Reversed wh-cleft/Inverted pseudo-cleft:**

(9) *A Fiat is what he wanted to buy.*

(10) *A weapon was what I needed* (Sedaris, 1997).

(11) *Buying a new car is what I want.*

[main clause] + [subordinate clause]

4. **All-cleft:** (12) *All he wanted to buy was a Fiat.*

(13) *All I have had in my life is just your love.*

(14) *All I said to him is to be happy.*

[main clause] + [subordinate clause]

#### 5. Inferential cleft:

(15) *It is not that he loves her. It's just that he has a way with her that is different.*

(16) *It is not that John wants to invite her. It's just that she gets worried when she has heard the reality.*

(17) *It is not that I want to go to holiday. It is just that I do not want to break my parent's heart.*

[main clause] + [subordinate clause]. [main clause] + [subordinate clause].

#### 6. There-cleft:

(18) *And then there's a new house he wanted to build.*

(19) *There is a big fish in the aquarium*

(20) *There are quite impressive expressions in the book.*

[main clause] + [subordinate clause].

#### 7. If-because cleft: (21) *If he wants to be an actor it's because he wants to be famous.*

(22) *If Katy wants to go to holiday for this weekend it's because she wants to have a rest.*

(23) *If Andy comes to the zoo it is because he loves animals a lot.*

[main clause] + [main clause] + [subordinate clause].

### 1.2. The Purpose of the Study

In this study, freshmen students in ELL department have been chosen as subjects due to the fact that most of them will be practicing English Teachers in 4 or 5 years. Their level of recognition on cleft sentences has been analyzed and discussed in the present study. The research questions handled within this study are as follows:

1. What is the difficulty level of cleft sentences for EFL university students?
2. What is the difficulty level of types of cleft sentences used by EFL university students?
3. Is there a significant difference in terms of the use of cleft sentences regarding gender?

### 1.3. The Significance of the Study

English language is very rich in cleft constructions; however, not all languages are so rich in cleft types as English (Miller, 1996). Turkish students as learners of English as a foreign language have difficulty of producing the cleft sentences, as well. It seems to be more salient in the observations of the teachers and if difficulties of using the cleft structures in foreign language learning are not overcome, the structure is an area where stabilization, most probably fossilization, can occur. In a similar vein, it is a generally accepted fact that due to the differences between Turkish and English in terms of their cleft structures, Turkish learners of English experience problems in the recognition and production of cleft sentences. The subjects in this research who will be prospective English Language Teachers also have serious problems on this topic.



#### 1.4. The Limitations of the Study

This study has been conducted at ELL department in a state university in Turkey and only freshman students attended the study. The same results may not be obtained in another institution or with other classes studying in Linguistics and English Language Teaching departments. In addition, the recognition of cleft sentences by the subjects has been focused on in this study rather than the production. As far as the production skills are concerned, the results may be different. Finding equal number of gender among EFL students is the most challenging limitation in this research. In the present research, the number of female EFL freshman students is more than the male individuals. It may change the validity of the difficulty analysis of cleft sentence in terms of gender. These facts constitute the limitations of the study.

## 2. Methodology

### 2.1. Participants

The number of the subjects who have participated in this study is 61 (44 females and 17 males). Their ages range between 18 and 26. 10 of the students attended prep classes the previous year. All of the subjects attend the same class in ELL Department at a state university in Turkey. The participants are from different cities in Turkey. The name of the grammar course-book that 10 students have studied in prep class is 'Focus on Grammar Third Edition Level 5' by Maurer (2005).

### 2.2. Data Collection Process

In this study, a pre-test has been prepared to check whether the subjects can recognize the cleft sentences. The 'pre-test' includes 50 multiple choice questions and it has been checked by the researcher. In order to distract the subjects from thinking only about uses of the cleft sentences, each question in the test included five choices including simple, complex and compound sentence forms in English but these items have not been included into the analysis.

The questions in the pre-test and post-test have been gathered from the grammar structure books of Demirezen (1995), Öndeş (2004) and Azar (1998) and Longman Contemporary English Dictionary. In both pre-test and pos-test, the questions are distributed equally according to the types of cleft sentences. As the main focus of study was to analyze the recognition of cleft sentences, 50 questions in the tests were about all types of clefts and the questions for each cleft types were randomly distributed in the test. The distribution of questions is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. *Distribution of questions in pre-test and post-test*

Type of Cleft Sentences	Number of Questions
It-cleft	8 (Questions 3,4,5,6,7,12,14,17)
All-cleft	7 (Questions 1,16,23,25,32,35,47)
Wh-cleft	7 (Questions 8,9,11,13,18,19,24)
Inferential cleft	7 (Questions 10,15,21,22,26,28,30)
Reversed wh-cleft	7 (Questions 2,20,48,34,37,38,39)
There-cleft	7 (Questions 33,40,41,42,45,46,50)
If-because cleft	7 (Questions 27,29,31,36,43,44,49 )

Total: 50
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Following the 'pre-test', the subjects have been provided with a 6-hour intensive instruction on the 'cleft sentence'. Two weeks after the instruction, a 'post-test' that also includes 50 multiple choice questions has been conducted.

### 2.3. Data Analysis

The quantitative data was analyzed through Statistical Package of Social Sciences 19. Descriptive statistics and frequencies were calculated to find out the means and standard deviation of pretest and post test applied to the participants and to see the distribution of normality of both pre-test and post-test. Besides paired samples t-test procedure was applied to reveal differences between pre-test and post-test and to notify the difficulty level of types of cleft sentences used by EFL university students. The reason a paired samples t-test is used instead of an independent samples t-test is because the scores are for the same people, which suggests there is an underlying relationship between the scores. Independent samples t-test was applied to understand the use of cleft sentences regarding gender.

### 3. Results and discussion

In this section, the collected data was discussed separately in relation to the research questions of the study.

#### *R.Q1: What is the difficulty level of cleft sentences for EFL university students?*

EFL freshman students' total pre-test and post-test scores were compared and analyzed using descriptive statistics, Q-Q plot distribution and a paired samples t-test to be able to determine to what extent instruction facilitates acquisition of knowledge of cleft sentences. In addition, the effect size was calculated to get reliable information about the effectiveness of the instruction. The results concerning the comparison of pre-test and post-test results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics

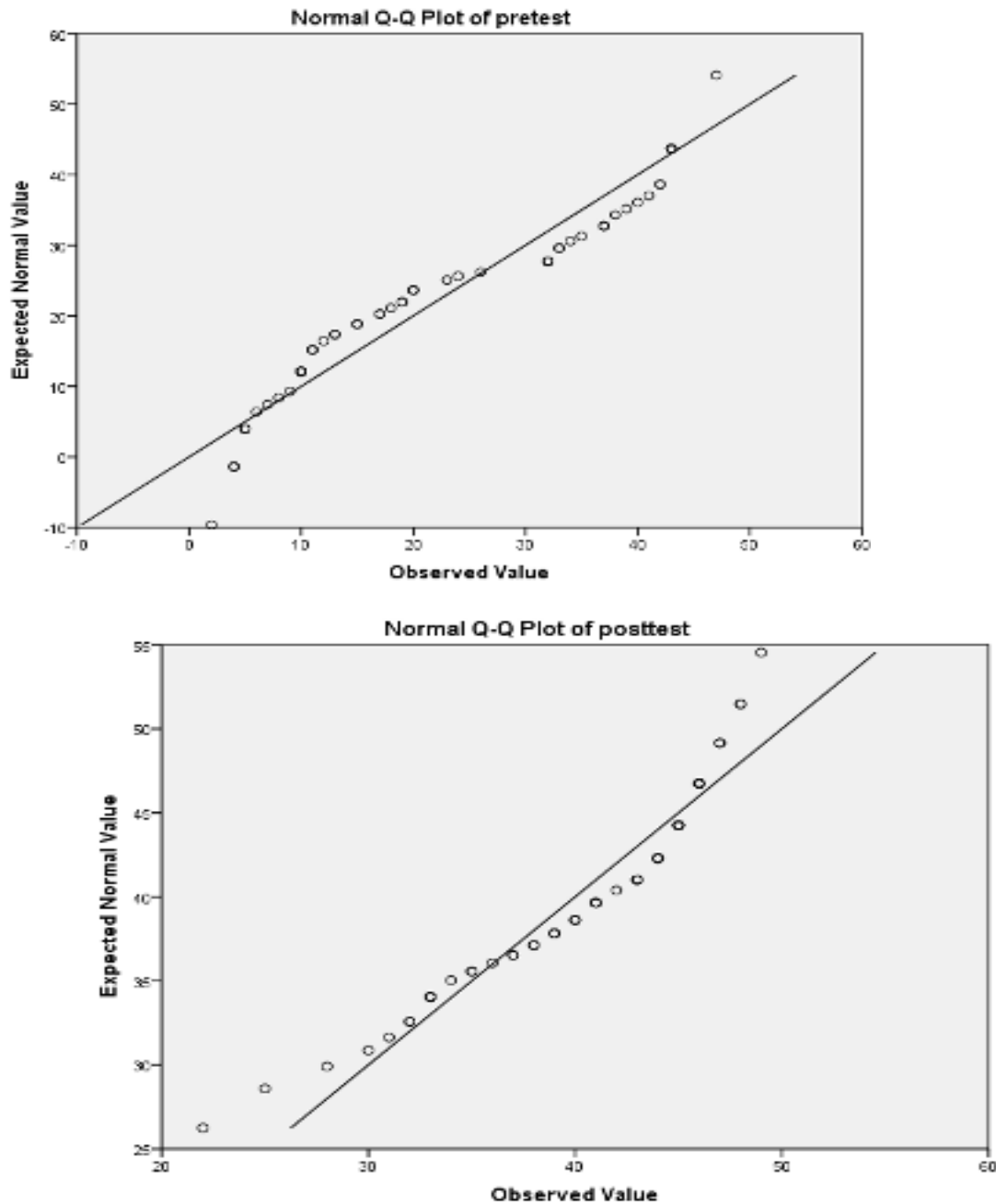
N:61	Pre-test	Post-test
Mean	22.2295	40.3934
Median	19.0000	42.0000
Mode	10.00	45.00
Std. Deviation	13.74093	6.09994
Skewness	.277	-.966
Std. Error of Skewness	.306	.306
Minimum	2.00	22.00
Maximum	47.00	49.00

According to the results of descriptive statistics, there is a significant difference between the results of pre-test and post-test. While the minimum score of the pre-test is 2.00, it reaches to 22.00 in the post-test. The standard deviation shows a decrease from 13.74 to 6.09, which means that cleft sentence structures are quite difficult for EFL freshman students without taking remedial teaching. The difficulty rate of cleft structure is nearly 45% in pre-test compared to the difficulty rate of post-test, 90%, which means that cleft sentences as a type of complex sentences are difficult for understanding of Turkish EFL students without learning it explicitly.

Table 3. *Effect size*

	Mean	Number	Std.Deviation	Sig (two-tailed)	<i>r</i>
					( <i>effect size</i> )
<b>Pre-test</b>	<b>22.22</b>	61	13.74	0	<i>r</i> = .89
<b>Post-test</b>	<b>40.39</b>	61	6.09	<i>p</i> < .05	<i>r</i> = +/- .5

The results indicated that on average, participants did better on cleft sentence structure knowledge at the end of the remedial teaching ( $M=40.39$ ,  $SD= 6, 09$ ) than at the beginning of the course ( $M = 22.22$ ,  $SD = 13.74$ ). ( $p < .05$ ,  $r = .89$ ).

Figure 1. *Normal Q-Q plot of pre-test and post-test*

The normal distribution of both pre-test and post-test supports the reliability of the collected data. In pre-test, the results were mostly between 10 and 30; the scores of post-test

show how the test scores of 61 students increased ranging between 30 and 49, which shows quite high success.

**R.Q2: What is the difficulty level of types of cleft sentences used by EFL university students?**

According to the results of descriptive statistics, the mean values of each student to the pre-test and post-test revealed that they have difficulties in different cleft types as it is stated in the following Table 5.

Table 5. *Distribution of difficulty rate of types of cleft sentences*

Type of Cleft Sentences	Pre-test	Post-test
It-cleft	20%	10%
Inferential cleft	9%	11%
If-because cleft	18%	12%
There-cleft	13%	14%
Wh-cleft	10%	16%
Reversed wh-cleft	12%	17%
All-cleft	16%	20%

As Table 5 shows overall mean scores of cleft sentence types for both pre-test and post-test indicates that there are significant differences among students' responses (diagnosis assessment) for each type of cleft sentences. On the other hand, it seems that the number of incorrect answers for each type of sentence is not parallel with each other in two tests. In pre-test, it-cleft, if-because and all-cleft types are the most difficult cleft sentence types but reversed wh-cleft and all cleft become the most difficult types of cleft sentences. In that point, the post-test rates can be regarded as more reliable than the pre-test rates because each student answer the questions in the post-test after the remedial teaching. Also, the difference among the rates might be because the students have answered the pre-test questions without paying attention as they are not familiar with the word "cleft" and its types.

**R.Q3: Is there a significant difference in terms of the use of cleft sentences regarding gender?**

Statistically measured the difficulty of cleft sentences, it is found that there is not any significant difference considering gender differences in both pre-test and post-test. The significance of each test is noted in Table 6 as there is a significant difference if it is  $p < .05$ .

Table 6. *Independent samples T-Test (significant at  $p < .05$ )*

Pre-test-Post-test / Gender	N 61	S	t	P
Pre-test Female	44	3.9318	-,873	<b>.386</b>
Male	17			<b>.408</b>
Post-test Female	44	1.7518	-,706	<b>.569</b>
Male	17			<b>.487</b>

The analysis of independent samples t-test for Pre-test, the difficulty of cleft sentences do not reveal a significant difference in terms of female ( $p=.386$ ) and male ( $p=.569$ ) students (significant at  $p < .05$ ). Similarly, the result of the independent samples t-test for Post-test shows that there is not a significant difference between male and female students in terms of the difficulty of cleft sentences ( $p=.487$  for pre-test,  $p=.408$  for post-test).

#### **4. Conclusion and pedagogical implications**

In the present study, it has been investigated whether the freshman students in the English Language and Literature Department can recognize the cleft sentences in a given multiple choice test. According to the results of the pre-test, the overall mean score of the EFL students is 45%, which is very low for the candidates who will most probably work as Foreign Language Teachers. On the other hand, the results of the post-test, which has been conducted two weeks after the remedial teaching of the cleft sentence structures, show that their overall mean score has increased to 90 %, which means that the general mean score of students in post-test have referred to 40 points.

The present research has revealed that the structure of cleft sentences is among the micro level errors and basically difficult syntactical errors without instruction. Thus, further research is warranted. From a theoretical point of view, on the one hand, this research directly contributes to a resolution of the developmental problems, the two fundamental issues of EFL research. From a practical standpoint, on the other hand, this continued effort may, in the long run, aid foreign language educators in identifying what is or is not learnable/ teachable, and more importantly, in searching for pedagogical strategies that can narrow the scope, and delay the onset, of fossilization, thereby stimulating and enhancing learning.

Another important point this research has produced is that there is a great difference between the scores of the EFL students in pre-test and post-test in terms of the difficulty rate of types of cleft sentences. Although it-cleft, if-because and all cleft types are the most difficult cleft sentence types in pre-test, reversed wh-cleft and all cleft are the most difficult types of cleft sentences, which creates a question mark in researcher's mind because there is not any parallelism between the difficulty rates of cleft types in both the pre-test and post-test. Therefore, it is possible to suggest this topic for further studies.

As noted by Demirezen (2013) and Han (2004), foreign language learners whose native language are typologically different from the target language. The cleft structures studied in this research can be stated as an example for typologically distant languages. The use of cleft sentences in Turkish language represents a typologically distant context compared with the clefts in English language.

To conclude, assuming that the derivation of cleft sentences is universal for some languages which have such constructions, the present research on difficulty analysis makes certain predictions which are subject to falsification, and therefore provide an interesting empirical test for its validity. This difficulty analysis predicts that cleft sentences will exhibit the properties of difficult complex sentence structure for some EFL students without remedial teaching.

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