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COGNITIVE-CODE LEARNING THEORY AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING RELATIONS

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There are many competing theories on foreign language teaching. Teachers who have been trained in foreign-language education, bilingual education, ESL education, and related fields — such as linguistics — usually have learned about predominant second-language-learning theories and their correlated instructional implications (Fitzgerald, 1994:339). Cognitive -code learning theory (CCLT) is a theory of L1 and L2 studies and research. This view was developed in the 1960s as an alternative to Behaviorism (Richards & S. Rodgers (2014:26). CCLT is said to have briefly replaced behaviorism in the late 1960s. At this time, Chomsky's theory of Transformational generative Grammar, which claimed language is rule-governed and creative, strongly emphasized rule-governed nature of language and language acquisition, rather than habit formation: this trend gave rise to CCLT in which language learners are encouraged to work out grammar rules deductively for themselves.

According to Dulay et al. (1982:140), Chomsky and his followers, with their influential papers, influenced the theory of language, and also the theory of language learning 'overnight.' Chomsky alone started to bombard the background of the Behaviorist Approach by his establishment of a new approach called the Cognitive-code Approach, which, in turn, gave an offspring called Cognitive code-learning Theory within the influences of *Cognitive Psychology*. It was intended as an alternative to the Audio-lingual Method which stresses habit formation as a learn-by-doing-activity (Demirezen, 1988a:161) within the process of language learning; also, it is contrary to Behavioral perspective, the Developmental perspective and the Constructivist perspective. Because of emphasis of Cognitive Theory, which the initiator of CCLT, on studying a foreign language as a system of rules and rule-governed behaviors and knowledge, the cognitive approach is sometimes considered the modern version of the grammar-translation method.

CCLT is a subset of Cognitive- code Approach (Richards & Rodgers (2014). It was also advocated by cognitive psychologists and applied linguists such as J. B. Carroll (1916–2003) and K. Chastain (1971), in the 1960s. J. B. Carroll was an American psychologist known for his contributions to psychology and educational linguistics. CCLT is also based on Gestalt psychology which states learning should be holistic. Carroll and Chastain proposed the cognitive- code approach to the study of a second language as an alternative to the audio-lingual method dominant at the time. They advocated the conscious study of language rules as central to the learning of a foreign language.

CCLT is accepted as a merger of Chomsky's Transformational Grammar and Carroll's Psychology (Carroll, 1965). It is based on Gestalt psychology as well as formational Generative Grammar (Chastain, 1969:98). "...learning a language is a process of acquiring conscious control of the phonological, grammatical, and lexical patterns of the second language, largely through study and analysis of these patterns as a body of knowledge." (Carroll, 1966:102). A



conscious study of language rules as central to the learning of a foreign language. As a theory, it attaches more importance to the learner's understanding of the structure of the foreign language. Rule- deduction is a facility, which develops automatically with use of the language in meaningful situations within meaningful drillings.

By emphasizing mental processes, CCLT places itself in opposition to behaviorism, which largely ignores mental processes. Therefore, CCLT is briefly said to have replaced Behaviorism in the late 1960s. The term “cognitive-code” indicates any conscious attempt to organize foreign language teaching materials around a grammatical syllabus so as to make way for meaningful practice and practical use of language. One of its most important precepts is meaningful practice. Language practice is must be meaningful, then the learner understands the rules involved in practice in relation to the goal of gaining conscious control of the grammatical, lexical, and auditory patterns. Thus, CCLT represents a sharp contrast to the Audio-lingual Method which relies on pattern drills as a means of teaching syntax, with explicit explanation of grammatical rules.

1. Principles of Cognitive-code Learning Theory

CCLT strongly stresses cognition in a foreign language as the hub of conscious and explicit learning of the grammatical rules as codes of that language. The following principles indicate that there are strong similarities between Mentalism and CCLT, both of which emphasized thinking, comprehension, rule-governing, and memory.

1. Learning occurs through cognitive memory structures, which perceive, process, store for short- or long-term recall and retrieve information, located in the brain. Learning occurs through internal processing of information.
2. The central precept of cognitive-code theory is to provide learners with opportunities for a great deal of meaningful practice in a second language.
3. Learning a second language requires explicit instruction and a study of the language as a complex and rule-governed system (Carroll, 1964). Students need to understand the linguistic rules before drilling can be implemented in practice.
4. Learning should be holistic; learning becomes easier when one treats the target as part of a structure or system and understands how it is related to the rest of the system (Gestalt Approach).
5. Learning a second/foreign language is a study of language as a complex system with the goal of gaining conscious control of the auditory patterns (segmental and supra-segmental phonemes) lexical (vocabulary) stock, and grammatical patterns.
6. Thinking, comprehension, and memory must be emphasized.
7. Language learning must be promoted as an active mental process rather than a process of habit formation, or learn-by-doing activity.
8. Classroom activities are designed to encourage learners to work out grammar rules for themselves through inductive reasoning.
9. Content over form must be emphasized.
10. Lessons must be highly structured around a deductive process, often giving “the rule of the day”.

11. The cognitive control works as follows: phonemes are to be learned before words, words before phrases, clauses before sentences, and simple sentences before compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences. This process will assist them anticipate the outcome or make inferences on what may happen next

12. Learners must work out grammar rules deductively for themselves.

13. The learner is an active processor of information processing; s/he is a thinking being.

14. The learner must be firmly at the center of the learning process.

15. Learning will only take place when the matter to be learnt is meaningful to the learner.

16. The conscious study of language rules is central to the learning of a foreign language.

17. Learning a language is a process of acquiring conscious control of the phonological, grammatical, and lexical patterns of the second language, largely through study and analysis of these patterns as a body of knowledge" (Carroll, 1966:102).

Apparently, above- given principles indicate that language learning is determined by the way which the mind observes, plans, organizes, and stores the information in short or long term memories. Building background precepts of CCLT aid the learners tie up the oncoming, new knowledge or experiences with previous experiences or knowledge by enabling them to process more difficult concepts or applications via building on a strong foundation in the target language.

2. Strength of the Cognitive-code Learning Theory

Cognitive-code learning refers to a theory of second language teaching and learning as a ferment of cognitivist psychology, structural applied linguistic, Chomsky's theories developed in the 1960s. CCLT has some advantages over the other foreign language learning and teaching theories:

1. It revived the re-emergence of grammar in the classroom.

2. It put more emphasis on guided discovery of the rules: this is the rule-governed nature of language.

3. It rejected the habit formation of Behaviorist theory. There is language acquisition rather than habit formation.

4. Learning is not a habit formation but requires cognitive processing and mental effort because learners are thinking beings.

5. It stressed on the learning of the rules via meaningful practice and creativity.

6. It liberated the teachers from the strait jackets of Grammar Translation Approach, Audio-Lingualism and Structural-situational methods.

7. It changed the attitude of teachers towards errors. The influence of cognitive-code learning on the subsequent methodological developments in second language teaching was felt in the evolution of error analysis and the need for contextualized grammar instruction (<http://www.elihinkel.org/downloads/cognitivecodelearning.pdf>). It enlightened the foreign language teachers in the treatment of student errors, which were accepted as natural happenings in the process of learning foreign languages. It must be noted that the studies on errors by Corder (1967) came out around this time.



8. With Chomskian revolution (1965, 1976, 1980, 1981a, 1981b, 1982) the attention of foreign language teacher turned to “deep structure” of language within more cognitive learning.

9. The theory attaches more importance to the learner's understanding of the structure of the foreign language than to the facility in using that structure, since it is believed that it provided the student has a proper degree of cognitive control over the structures of the language, facility will develop automatically with use of the language in meaningful situations (Carroll, 1966:102).

10. By means of the Presentation, Practice and Production methodology (PPP) learners gain a clear understanding of a grammatical rule before they practice it in meaningful contexts.

11. This theory emphasizes the role of learning in behavior and admits the possible role of inherited mechanisms. The duality of learning-with-heredity is well-illustrated in the area of language development and learning foreign languages.

12. It practically focuses on the individual student and his/her learning process and progress.

13. It involves very frequent assessments (like pop-quizzes) of the student's learning and retention since new skills and experiences build directly upon previous ones.

A Cognitive-code Approach claims that the process of education a foreign language education process must be one that activates multiple drilling and experiences which lead the students through direct involvement to discovery learning. The student would master the required Mastery of foreign language level before moving on to the next level of cognitive development.

3. Weaknesses of Cognitive-code Learning Theory

It placed a great deal of emphasis on the development of a second language as a combination of skills. At its core, cognitive-code learning represents a theoretical, rather than a pedagogical approach. In part due to the fact that this theoretical proposal met with debate and skepticism (<http://www.elihinkel.org/downloads/cognitivecodelearning.pdf>):

1. CCLT is essentially a theoretical proposal because it did not lead to the development of any teaching method in relation to classroom procedures and activities.

2. There is little use of examples from authentic material.

3. It never took off in a big way; this theory did not gain support over time.

4. Human thinking is said to be an invisible process, and therefore cognitive processes are hypothetical constructs.

5. Human information processing is resembled computers, which perhaps oversimplifies the human mind; human brain is much more sophisticated than computer systems.

6. As a theory, it often ignores past experiences and culture influence while we process information.

7. CCLT does not consider individual personalities of people and how personalities are formed; there is too much emphasis on social context.

8. It is a depersonalized theory; in other words, it does not take into consideration feelings or unconscious actions or reactions.

9. It overlooks the influence of individuals' biology (DNA), learning differences in relation to hormonal processes and brain development.

10. It falls short in the explanation of relationship between two main concepts, which are observational learning and self-efficacy.

11. The cognitive emphasis on rules was taken as behaviorist rote drilling.

12. Another important criticism is that biology, genetics, culture, and past experience have not been sufficiently tested as factors in mental processing.

13. According to Carroll (1966:102), "the theory attaches more importance to the learner understands of the structure of the foreign language than to the facility in using that structure.

14. The cognitive-code approach did not have much appeal to language teachers whose training rarely entailed a detailed familiarity with grammar rules and abstract concepts of syntax (<http://www.elihinkel.org/downloads/cognitivecodelearning.pdf>)

15. Another disadvantage is that it is extremely time intensive on the part of the foreign language teacher or educator, who, acts as a facilitator, has to invest a huge amount of time and effort on a per student basis.

16. The teacher must be constantly evaluating and recording the needs of the students in different skills. S/he has to tailor learning drills and activities that improve the evolving educational needs and levels of the students. Therefore, such a procedure requires a great deal of time, strain, recordkeeping in forms of portfolios, and practicality in adjusting daily, weekly, and monthly in lesson plans.

17. This method had limited as the cognitive emphasis on rules and paradigms proved as unattractive as behaviorist rote drilling. There is also confusion for practitioners, with Nunan (2003:6) ascribing inductive reasoning to it, while Brown (2001:24) notes that proponents of a cognitive code learning methodology injected more deductive rule learning into language classes.

4. and Foreign Language Learning and Teaching

In order to understand the riddle of "how students learn", there are three important preliminary key principles. The following key principles arrange the learner's predisposition towards foreign language learning (<http://www.cdtl.nus.edu.sg/handbook/learn/cognitive.htm>):

- ***Learner readiness***

Motivation is an important part of learning, and instruction must be adapted to the learner's cognitive abilities, experiences and contexts that make the student willing and able to learn.

- ***Spiral organization***

Instruction must be structured such that the learner continually builds upon what he/she has already learned. Revisiting the curriculum by teaching the same content in different ways reinforces and extends learning at different developmental levels.



- ***Discovery learning***

The learner learns by gathering information for himself/herself, testing the information and formulating rules. To do so requires a mind prepared with the necessary declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge. The teacher as guide ensures such learning by engaging in a dialogue that prompts inquiry, as well as structuring materials in such a way as to encourage extrapolation, and going beyond the information given and discovery of important principles.

Jonassen (1991:28–33) states the following instructional design principles, which have clear implications for the design of the learning environment.

- Create real-world environments that employ the context in which learning is relevant; provide multiple representations of reality; represent the natural complexity of the real world; focus on realistic approaches to solving real-world problems.
- Provide tools and environments that help learners interpret the multiple perspectives of the world.
- Present authentic tasks (contextualizing rather than abstracting instruction); provide real-world, case-based learning environments, rather than predetermined instructional sequences; enable context- and content-dependent knowledge construction.
- Focus on knowledge construction, not reproduction; foster reflective practice.
- Stress conceptual interrelatedness, providing multiple representations or perspectives on the content.
- Make learning internally controlled and mediated by the learner; instructional goals and objectives should be negotiated and not imposed; evaluation should serve as a self-analysis tool.
- Support collaborative construction of knowledge through social negotiation.

These are only some of the useful guidelines for instructional design which implies the relation of new experiences to and building on existing mental constructs behind language.

5. How much cognitive theory do English language teachers need to know?

In the genes of cognitive theory, there is a great deal of intuitive appeal to the cognitive approach to teaching. The teachers, no matter native teacher or non-native, are ready to consider cognitive theory as the foundation for teaching if they apply the following issues that distill the theoretical basis of cognitive foreign language learning.

It must be noted that the application of cognitive theory implies a responsibility to teach both content and process. The learner is at center stage; the teacher, educator, or instructor becomes a facilitator of learning, carrying the task of adapting the newly learned foreign language structures to the needs of learners. Cognitive psychology declares that the learners play a crucial and critical role in determining what they get out of instruction whether higher probability of learning is managed or not.

To begin with, diagnosis of mistakes or errors aids foreign language learning. Cognitive theory acknowledges the role of mistakes; therefore, a cognitive-minded foreign language teacher makes learners aware of the rules and should encourage students to create correct

structures in applying the rules. The teachers should make the learners understand the rules and complexity of the rules: the conscious study of language rules as central to the learning of a foreign language. The theory attaches more importance to the learner's understanding of the structure of the foreign language than to the facility in using that structure, since it is believed that provided the student has a proper degree of cognitive control over the structures of the language; facility will develop automatically with use of the language in meaningful situations (Carroll, 1966: 102). They must at the very least allow our students to induce the rules as what Chomsky proposed as the "creative aspect" of language use.

Cognitively- minded foreign language teachers pay attention to assimilation: assimilation of what has already been learnt or partly learnt since how new rules are presented is important. Once again it must be noted that the teachers should make the learner recognize the rules without explicit explanation by being sure that the learners have actually inferred them correctly. Cognitively- minded foreign language teachers should give students time to check on their understanding of the rules. They should detect what kinds of knowledge and experiences students bring to the new learning situation. They must encourage students to create correct applications of the learnt structures; in fact, students learn best under such conditions.

There is a fundamental relationship between language and culture. Foreign Language is at the heart of language teaching and learning. The way the teachers teach language reflects the way how much they have mastered and understood the target language as a profession.

In Cognitive theory, the teaching of grammar must be deductive. The foreign language learner, therefore, is helped by encouraging firstly getting a clear understanding of a grammatical series of rules. Before their practice and use, their applications in meaningful contexts are highly necessary in Cognitive theory.

In developing a professional stance to language teaching, it is important for the teachers to consider the target language as a code and social practice which must be balanced in the curriculum. Understanding the nature of the relationship between language and culture is central to the process of learning another language because culture plays a central role in the way how meanings are interpreted in social interaction; therefore, it is the language in its cultural context that creates meaning. Creation and interpretation meaning is done within a cultural framework in forms of ways of life, social values, beliefs, proxemics, kinesics, and the like. In language learning classrooms, in developing language capabilities in target language and its culture in the learners, there is a deadly need to engage them with the ways in which context affects foreign language learning.

Aiding the motivation of the learner, accommodation, meaningful drills, exploiting various relationships in these drills are needed. Knowledge of the "types of drills is a crucial issue for the teachers. In Cognitive Theory, language practice drills are employed to train learners to talk and to help them master the basic structural patterns of the target language. With small doses of repetition, comparison, contrasts for remedial purposes, many of the learners will succeed without practice and repetition not much learning can be achieved. The dangers of over-generalizing when forming new rules must be handled with care.

Can language learning proceed without conceptual awareness and knowledge of culture take place? One of its most important concepts in Cognitive Theory is meaningful practice, which is achieved when the learner is made to perceive the rules by himself or herself involved in practice. Students should be given the chance to share the concepts of their target language,



cultural world view measures, cultural practices, and its practical goal of enabling self-conscious management of popular risk perceptions. Thus, "cultural cognition" refers to the tendency of individuals to form beliefs about societal dangers, pragmalinguistic, sociopragmatic, and psychopragmatic failures. That's why in foreign language learning, meaningful learning is more than just the code of linguistic structures and rules: it also involves social practices of interpreting and making meanings.

6. Conclusion

CCLT came to the fore when Chomsky stated a severe attack on Behaviorist learning Approach in 1957. Behaviorism and structuralism were rejected by Chomsky's theory of language (1965), which refuses the learning theories of behaviorism. Chomsky argued that humans are born with a wired device, which he called language acquisition device (LAD), where Universal Grammar (UG) operates. CCLT accepts the Universal Grammar of Chomsky, which underlies all Grammars (Hinkel, 2006). Not everyone agreed with the Chomsky's theory of SLA.

Cognitive-code foreign language learning refers to a theory of second language teaching and learning rooted in cognitivist psychology, structural applied linguistics, and Transformational Generative Grammar developed from 1957 to 1960s. In the current perspective on second language learning, CCT is largely seen as an updated variety of the traditional grammar-translation method, with an attendant goal of overcoming the shortfalls of the audio-lingual approach (<http://www.elihinkel.org/downloads/cognitivecodelearning.pdf>). The Cognitive-code view of learning suggests that information is gathered and processed by our brain, and information processing is a cognitive view of learning. CCLT likens human thinking to the way computers process information. By definition, therefore, education must be viewed as a cognitive activity; that's why the term "cognitive" refers to the process of thinking, goal-setting, planning for future activities, solving problems, learning, storing information, and remembering.

Developments in CCT have definitely concrete Implications of for the teaching of a second language. For example, it has had a significant effect on ESP. Students are thought to develop strategies to find out meaning of reading materials in their study areas. CCLT seems to answer many of the theoretical and practical problems raised but not answered by Behaviorist Approach. It is seen as representing a much realistic road map of language and language acquisition much better than that of Behaviorism.

In addition, Richards & S. Rodgers (2014) indicate that *Situational Language Teaching* can be linked to cognitive-code learning. Moreover, PPP (presentation Practice Production) used in situational language teaching can be linked to *cognitive-code learning*, as well as to methods such as the Silent Way (Richards & S. Rodgers (2014: 26).

As it was widely debated in the 1960s, in SLA, the mainstream view still is the cognitive-code processing approach (Long, 1997; Gregg, 1989). But by the mid-1970s, the cognitive-code approach had all but disappeared among other competing theories of second language learning, and more specifically, due to the prominent rise of communicative language teaching (<http://www.elihinkel.org/downloads/cognitivecodelearning.pdf>).

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**"VICTIM OF THE PAST, THE PRESENT AND THE POSSIBLE FUTURE"
BELLADONNA by DAŠA DRNDIĆ**

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“VICTIM OF THE PAST, THE PRESENT AND THE POSSIBLE FUTURE” *BELLADONNA* by DAŠA DRNDIĆ

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The discussion about the war plays not only a central role in German literature of the 20th century, but it also holds a very important and indispensable place in Croatian literature, considering the events of the previous war on Croatian territory (i.e. former Yugoslavia) around 1990. Wars are, as Carsten Gansel says: “similar to revolutions, fundamental disturbances of the social system status, a social ‘state of emergency’” (Gansel 2012: 9-12). Literature as a form of ‘self-observation of societies’ (H. Böhme 1998: 476–485) constitutes a medium, in which ‘fault conditions’ (Gansel 2012: 9-12), caused by wars, can be thematized. The “dualism of offender and victim, observer and combatant, army and civil population, rulers and subjects” (also in socio-political everyday life), find expression in literature, by processing it literarily and discussing it.

In her work, Daša Drndić thematizes exceedingly controversial and lively past and current war discourses in socio-cultural context from the perspective of the past, as well as of the present. Her work, i.e. her texts, can be considered as a cultural form of expression, which “in symbolic presentation provides individual, and/or generation-specific reminiscence of the collective memory¹” (Gansel 2011:11).

Daša Drndić discusses openly and without reservation already controversially conducted discourses about the Second World War, Holocaust, escape, expulsion, camp and destruction, especially after 1945, as well as the roles of the offender and victim not only in the Second World War and the ‘Yugoslavian war’ (civil war, fatherland war) from an – let’s say – own perspective. In her most recent work *Belladonna* (2012)², she even goes one step further, by thematizing and questioning the present everyday life interwoven with experiences, events and stories from the past through illness, suffering, dying, death and being a victim of diverse socio-political and socio-cultural systems until it becomes unbearable.

Daša Drndić, a retired professor of Modern English Literature and author of several award-winning novels, with residence in Rijeka and several study and research periods amongst others in the USA, Canada, Serbia, Germany, Switzerland and Italy, born 1946 in Zagreb, is, besides Slavenka Drakulić, Dubravka Ugrešić and Ivana Sajko, one of the most read and most committed (as well as the most controversial) author of contemporary Croatia.

¹ Collective stories are based on collective memory, which – as opposed to the individual memory - is developed in social interdependency of members of a collective. The individual memory, which is formed by the collective memory of the social-historical environment, builds, however, individual stories. See: Gansel/Kaulen 2011.

² All quotations of the novel *Belladonna* (2012) will be marked/quoted only with ‘*Belladonna*’ and the page number. All quotations have been translated from Croatian into German by the author of this article, as a German Translation of the novel *Belladonna* is not yet available. The novel *Sonnenschein*, which is on a paratextual level very important for this study, is currently being translated from Croatian into German (status: 29.9.2014). The German translation will be presented at the book fair in Leipzig in 2015.

In almost all of her works, as in her newest work *Belladonna*³, she always primarily deals with the theme of war in a socio-cultural context. However, her work is not only characterised by the theme of wars (the First and Second World War and the Yugoslavian war), but the theme of war serves as a scenery for the embedding of collective-individual narratives of victims, which is also the central theme of this article.

In this paper it shall be shown how victims arise through themes of totalitarianism, race hostility, concentration camps in the Second World War, emigration, exile and finally through everyday social and political life. It shall be demonstrated, how Daša Drndić indicates on people's past, present and possible future strokes of fate and how she lets stories of and about victims emerge and speak.

At this point it should be mentioned, that with regard to the narration and stylistics the novel *Belladonna* – as the novel *Sonnenschein* (2007) – is structured in such a way, that there are diverse rooms⁴, which are open for the reader. Those are especially rooms of reminiscence, i.e. places of reminiscence⁵ (camps, prison, psychiatry, hospital, university, etc.). This article deals not only with provided facts and events, but rather with the manner, in which those are illustrated and presented in relation to the theme of victim.

The title of the novel *Belladonna*, in order to briefly present the work, exhibits by means of the specific and particularly poisonous plant species, which is also called *Deadly Nightshade* or *Atropa belladonna*, forgotten events not only from the past, but also events, about which currently (as in future) is not, should not and cannot be spoken about, because it seems inappropriate for socio-cultural reasons. The author revives stories of victims on diverse temporal, spatial and historical levels. This involves not only victims of the war, but all those who in any particular respect (especially in socio-political regards) had to suffer existential and intellectual harm and, nevertheless, are regarded as the weaklings and losers of the social systems and orders. Under victims one can understand outcasts, the injured, sufferers, the sick, the poor and finally the dead, who had to die (often in agony) in favour or because of others. Stories of single individuals are preserved in this work. Drndić actually conserves them, by using an omniscient narrator, who tells the story of the life and suffering

³ *Belladonna* or the *deadly nightshade* (*Atropa belladonna*) is a poisonous plant species. This plant derives from the Solanaceae family, or also called nightshades, and therefore stands in close relation to Greek mythology. You can read the name of one of the three fate gods *Atropos* out of the additional name *Antropa*. In Italian *Belladonna* means beautiful woman. The name *Belladonna* is also connected with the fact, that especially women in the renaissance dripped the sap, which contains atropine, into their eyes, in order to get more beautiful and shinier eyes, that means the plant, although very poisonous, was used for beauty purposes and therefore got an additional name, *Magic Plant*. It's sap enlarged the pupils and caused gradual blindness. Nowadays, this plant is used for medical purposes.

⁴ For the understanding of the rooms of reminiscence as places of the memory see Neumann/Nünnig 2007: 12-13. The demonstration and representation of rooms of reminiscences is not only a reflection of extra-literary places, but a "constructive, often conflictual negotiation about places of the collective memory." See more about that: Rupp, Jan (2001: 182).

⁵ The term "place of reminiscence" is not going to be defined any further in this article. Nevertheless, it should be emphasized, that the term "place of reminiscence" means more than just reminiscence at a specific place. In this study this term should be understood as "a localization of reminiscence in a room". On the other hand, the term "room" should be understood as a collective reminiscence, which is manifested in "a place" (e.g. in the concentration camp in Dachau, children's homes, schools, concentration camp Zasavica next to Šabac, mass graves in Srebrenica etc.) or in a personality (e.g. Andreas Ban, Bertha Pappenheim, Leo Ban, Ema Sass etc.) (See Pierre 2005.) Places of reminiscences endow identity for individuals in a collective. Various social groups (captives, Jews, women, children, sick persons, professors, soldiers on duty etc.) have and build particular places of reminiscence, that can reach differently far into the past, which can be seen in this paper. Places of reminiscence are according to Francois Etienne and Hagen Schulze (2001) "long-living, cross-generational focal points of collective reminiscence and identity."

of the protagonist Andreas Ban. The story of his life is used as a frame story and a basis for the formation of following victim narratives.

The change of media between document, photography, newspaper and language, brings forgotten, concealed and in the society suppressed stories of victims back to life. The protagonist⁶ (Andreas Ban) is at this point, as in the majority of her works, a victim (of past political and current social systems and events). The plot of the novel is primarily bound on Andrea Ban's life. By now he is a 65-year-old psychologist and author, being concerned with his past, family origin, fates of acquaintances and the actions of friends and miserable colleagues. A scientist, who is managing to get by with his miserable pension of a university professor and trying to combat his disease, which is very rare for the male gender, namely breast cancer.

Andreas Ban is a person, whose view over his life is told and commented by an omniscient narrator. The narrator captures Ban's gaze, as a pupil dilating one, and anticipates in this way metaphorically the toxic effects of the deadly nightshade, *Belladonna*, of which consumption the protagonist eventually dies.

What Andreas Ban leaves behind after his death, is a with factitive photos and documents lined fictive fragment, which lists forgotten stories of victims in an unsorted and almost chaotic sequence with exact time specification. The novel ends on page 312 in a fragment of summarized stories of victims, which his son Leo finds. At this point it should be emphasized, that the story about Andreas Ban does not only accept him as a victim on the historical-political and socio-political level of the past wars (the Second World War, Yugoslavian war), but also in the hypocritical academic society and until now ignorance of the proliferating cancer.

Around Ban's life, various other victims' stories are generated, which will be illustrated in the following part of this study.

If you look at the narrative line of Daša Drndić's works, then you also have to regard it as fragmented. The narration in *Belladonna* (as in her previous works: *Sonnenschein*, *April in Berlin*, *Totenwände*, *Leica format*) is interrupted, lined and supplemented with factitive material (documents, photos, testimonies, shorthand reports of audio recordings, letters, encyclopaedic and biographic footnotes) and it leaves the end of a certain stories open.

In *Belladonna* the reader is presented with two long clearly arranged lists of victims⁷. One list consists of over 1700 names of deported Jews from Northern and Eastern Europe as well as Jewish children from the Netherlands in the concentration camp Zasavica (next to Šabac). Behind every name, as Drndić emphasizes in various interviews and to repeat it once more in the context of the work *Belladonna*, stands a story, which needs to be told and there are a number of stories, which attempt to complete and expand the narrative framework of Andreas Ban's story.

The novel begins with an exact time specification:

On Saturday, 16th January 2002, sixty for illegal emigration imprisoned persons stitch up their mouths. Sixty persons with sutured mouths wander around the camp and gaze lifelessly into the sky. [...] Tereza Acosta is a woman, who decided to not remember anymore. Tereza Acosta doesn't remember her childhood until the age of ten. As if she did not exist until then. [...] He (Andreas

⁶ The protagonist is very reminiscent of the author. In various recensions about the work can be read, that it is partially an autobiographical work.

⁷ See also the novel *Sonnenschein* (2007:50).

Ban, as a psychiatrist) could also stop speaking like this. Stop remembering.
(Belladonna: 7-8)

The previous story of the camp institution (psychiatry)⁸, which is told in the prolepsis, is used as a reason to open up further narrative frameworks, but especially Andreas Ban's story. The narrative act is implemented in the plot through three possible time relations (previous, now, later). This involves victims of the great world history, fascism, and Yugoslavian war, the terror that lies on Europe and Croatia, academic nepotism and the invincible diseases. So the stories of victims have all names and are not only told alongside Andreas Ban's course of life, but also his family and world history and they are questioned through factual material from a historical and present dimension.

As a reader, we get to know Andreas Ban in the following way:

His name is Andrea Ban. A psychologist, who no longer psychologises. An author, who no longer writes. A tourist guide, who no longer guides. A swimmer, who no longer swims. There are professions, which are not needed by anyone anymore, especially not by him. He is sixty-five years old, looks relatively well-groomed, as if he is fifty. The earthquake, for which he was ready, for which he had prepared himself (he knows, how it is done, he had prepared (trained/educated) himself for this his whole life), happens in a second, comes unexpected in the very moment, when his half-educated colleague, an extraordinary bureaucrat, an obedient apparatchik, this extremely genteel and reserved colleague, throws the fact into his face in front of the whole collective: that he is no longer needed, because he goes into retirement.[...] You go, I stay.
(Belladonna: 16)

In this scene, in which he is, although still being vital, pulled out of the academic field and released into retirement, the authorial narrator gradually roles up his life. In various temporal prolepses and through the use of diverse factive documents (photos, letter, etc.), the transition from collective histories/reminiscences to individual/personal/private histories and the other way round is emphasized on a narrative level.

On the linguistic level, there are wordplays used, like for example *apparatchick*, to indicate collective as well as for instance individual, intellectual narrowness of some colleagues from the protagonist's working environment, who are incapable or rather too cowardly to question the academic system, as in Andreas Ban's case, and to react accordingly and to take a stand. The passiveness or blindness of such people generates victims (of the academic system).

The academic life and its consequences on the protagonist are reflected through the use of rhetorical stylistic devices, such as sarcasm, irony and cynicism:

There are professors, who, in order to appear very engaged, try to make an effort at meetings of the faculty council, like some women do, by complaining very extensively about missing shelves for handbags and psychological needs in toilets. Furthermore, ninety people in the hall are silent and listen, while the recording clerk writes everything down. Afterwards, arms are raised, which – as soon as a more delicate theme is brought up – withdraw from a concrete opinion/withhold or agree or disagree unanimously. [...] There is wonderful

⁸ In the novel mentioned and partially described camp institution, i.e. psychiatry can be seen as an interspace, which is according to Michel Foucault (1976) a "heterotopia of deviation". Those are rooms/places where people are accommodated, whose behaviour deviate from the average or from the required norms. In these includes Foucault also: sanatoria, mental institutions and prisons. See Gansel 2011: 19.

harmony, solitary union at the margin of life. Those, who revolt, are soon silenced. Everything has to be done according to the rules, establishment, statute and an appropriate gap can always be found. (Belladonna: 17)

Memories in stories, which result in academic life, disease, war, captivity, homicide, mass extinction and death, i.e. which prepare the reader for certain victims, are transformed fragmentarily and retrospectively step by step. The story enhances circularly from the university to common social areas, as follows:

[...] As soon as (within the meeting of the faculty council) a, let's say more important question emerges, then the audience gets tired and the more important the matter/question gets, the more tired gets the audience. The tiredness grows among the teachers in geometrical progression. The teachers get thirsty, hungry and the meeting is terminated, or respectively postponed, in order to not solve anything, or rather everything gets settled in an unclear, lame and ambiguous way. [...] Andreas Ban would like to leave this abstracted collective, he would like to leave those mask carriers, who cover an even bigger whole, and commit himself to more cheerful assignments, which would feed his thoughts and would let them pulsate, but the miserable pension in this small, decayed and big-headed country, in which he lives and which is left by a lot of people [...] takes his life. (Belladonna: 17)

The strokes of fate around Andreas Ban are not conveyed chronologically. In fact, the anarchy provides the option to reorganize the sequence of the victims' events. Through the switching of returns, which recoils past times, the occurred disease can be seen as a preview (in form of a prolepsis), implying the possible end:

Lately, you can read more and more about the body/torso. The body as a geographical map, a body that stores, a body that punishes, fat body, thin body, muscular body, slack body, a body that loves, body cult, the cleanliness of the body, the body and its signals, a body that rules, determines, behaves, revolts. A body that resigns? [...] Andreas Ban is sure, that he and his body are fighting a constant battle [...]. (Belladonna: 33)

His disease gets visible with every progress on the level of the narrated time, because his "body shows strong generative changes" (Belladonna: 33) and his remembrances of previous times and places get more intensive:

Andreas Ban still works in Paris, as Yugoslavia falls apart. He was sent to Paris, because they trusted him, because he was born in Paris after the wars, when his father, a national hero and carrier of the partisan medal, was sent to Paris to establish relations in 1941. Relations in the areas of culture, politics and economy. (Belladonna: 34)

Disturbing⁹ processes of remembrance take form, by processing the individual experiences of the protagonist through meaningful narrations of the collective:

Andreas Ban returned from Paris to Belgrade, where else, as Yugoslavia fell apart. He gets dismissed. He is told: You're a public enemy, a Croat. Being a Croat, is for him an unimportant fact, because he has his name. [...] His savings

⁹ In the novel there are three stages of disorder visible: disturb, unsettle, destroy. See Gansel 2012. The protagonist gets disturbed, as he gets dismissed from the university sector against his will. Afterwards follows an unsettled increase by the breast cancer, in order to eventually get physically and mentally destroyed by the disease and the society.

dissave. Friendships are crowned. Colleagues become Šešelj's supporter. Andreas Ban wanders the streets and visits his graves. (Belladonna: 34)

In a prolepsis, thus "many years later" (Belladonna: 38), an event is continued on a transtextual level¹⁰ (from Daša Drndić's novel *Sonnenschein*), which picks up the factive, in *Belladonna* as the fictive fate of the Italian family (around Haya Tedeschie), and contextualizes in relation to the search of Andreas Ban's further family members. By means of the work *Sonnenschein*, Andreas Ban discovers a lot of forgotten, reportedly fictive names of victims, which point to missing connections in his own family story. Now, since his disease has already progressed, alone, without a job, with a miserable pension, the truth, that had been falsified and kept secret and which he wants to uncover, comes to light. The name Ketz for example from the novel *Sonnenschein*, Carlo Ketz, his brother-in-law and husband of his sister, who died in Ljubljana, sojourns, as Andreas Ban finds out, in the 1970s in Albania and is ready to defend and protect the country from an invisible and never seen hostile power. Haya Tedeschie, the protagonist of the novel *Sonnenschein* "approaches" Andreas and tells him about the self-researched fate stories of Second World War victims.

Single stories are told and connected in an assembly-like manner. The narrative strategies should be understood rather as an aesthetic method than a prominent technical one. Stories of victims are taken through temporal and spatial dimensions on an individual and collective, as well as on a metatextual/transtextual level, as following example illustrates:

Now, as he (Andrea) writes and speaks (and he does it only when he has to), Andreas Ban changes the languages, as they run through his mind. As with Bertha Pappenheim (1859-1936), who Freud, out of discretion, calls Anna O. and doesn't get to know her, about whom he only knows a little.[...] Freud took her, Bertha Pappenheim, in her crisis, named and turned her into Miss Anna O., and withdrew her identity [...], by imposing his picture of her upon her. [...] In her life crisis, instead of learning, travelling and being cheerful, everyone tells her (Bertha Pappenheim) 'stay at home' [...], prepare meals and take care of your dying father. [...] The day after the Kristallnacht on 10th October 1938, the Gestapo orders to burn down Bertha's Neu-Isenburg schools in the entire German Reich and in 1942 all the pupils and staff are deported to the concentration camp in Theresienstadt, where most of them die. (Belladonna: 285)

The dense sequence of events and unexpected turning points on the discourse (how) and historical level (what) (like e.g. the comparison of the protagonist with Bertha Pappenheim's person), that is in the extensively gathered granularity of information, which are told in a breathtaking rhythm, the theme of victims is gradually sharpened, in order to seal it with the use of footnotes (see Belladonna: 61-64), as it is the case in scientific contributions, hence the usage of additional information. Footnotes serve as a guarantor for leading stories of victims.

On a transtextual level the novel *Sonnenschein* becomes a trigger of Andreas Ban's¹¹ diverse thought processes and research work. Uncovering and discovering his past, in order to be able to roll up his life once more, to be able to question the occurred blows of fate and his own actions, whether and to what extent it is responsible for his current existence/state of health, makes him restless. It has become a disruptive factor, caused by staged paratextual conversations with the Jew victim Haya Tedeschie.¹² The protagonist of the work

¹⁰See G. Genette: Paratexte.

¹¹ The novel *Belladonna* is being regarded by Croatian critique as a continuation of the previously published work *Sonnenschein*.

¹² In the novel *Sonnenschein*, Haya Tedeschie leads paratextual conversations with the philosopher S. Kierkegaard. Haya's processes of reminiscence are demonstrated on the basis of these conversations: "Leave me

Sonnenschein informs Andreas Ban about the famous graphic designer Christoph Meckel and his work *Search image: about my father* and *Search image: about my mother*, and about Monika Göth (daughter of the infamous and subsequently sentenced to death SS officer in the concentration camp Plasz).

Due to introduced cuts, breaks and montages¹³, the reality is taken from the past into the present, interpreted and controlled, and in this way the reader learns for example:

In October 2010, at the age of 81, in the clinic in Schönau – Oh, what irony and coincidence, - near Berchtesgaden, with a beautiful view over Obersalzburg [...] and Berghoft, dies the writer and film director Thomas Harlan of pulmonary emphysema. Thomas Harlan is the son of the in the third Reich famous and important producer of the notorious and anti-Semitic film *Jew Süss*. [...] This ‘artistically’ propagandistic product, which sentimentally and melodramatically ends in a bloody Jew execution, attracted masses, and a lot of Croats of the NDH time were keen on it too. (Belladonna: 53)

Individual stories are connected with supra-individual/unknown/collective stories. In the work, stories of the extermination of people pour out plentifully, which do not stop to pour out and constantly open up further stories of victims, through death, homicide, disease, corruption etc. Places of individual remembrance are always mingled with places of the collective memory and end with information/data like:

“Pavelić’s grandchildren are coming to reclaim their fortune. A granddaughter with little grief but a lot determination, a certain Ivana Sheridan-Pšeničnik, expresses herself as loud as her father: Today we lost Bosnia and Herzegovina, the heart of Croatia” (Belladonna: 74). This procedure makes offenders appear as victims, in order to question and illustrate the already delicate issue of being/becoming a victim in even more depth. The author lets victims (as well as offenders) balance along the margin of the events. She marks the paradox situation of the pre- and post-war period and mixes the world wars and the Yugoslavian war.

In the further course, the reader finds out, that the initially furled, but then with the scene of the disease interrupted story, that in 1990 Andreas Ban leaves Belgrade. It comes to existential, political and linguistic problems. He ‘sends’ his 9-year-old son via Ljubljana to Rovinj/Rovigno to his friend. He books an alleged trip to Budapest in a travel agency, to not have to go back to Belgrade anymore. “Andreas Ban arrives in Croatia with a pyjama, three underpants, two shirts, a manicure case and one thousand five hundred DM for an appropriate and desolated new beginning” (Belladonna: 82). His new beginning is a life at the edge of existence. He was just able to enrol his son Leo into school, but Leo did not managed to learn in Croatian ‘to whisper’, ‘to keep silent’, ‘to dream’, neither how to love in a Croatian manner. He graduated from all schools, attended courses for computer design and film. The outcome of this are resigned documentary films. He swims, travels, grows, becomes stronger, studies medicine, completes his studies and leaves. Andreas Ban is left behind, alone, abandoned, devastated, weak and sick. It only remains collecting the remains of his and other people’s life.

This rather oppressed than forgotten pain experience of the protagonist, is a revision of neglected and concealed substories, which by means of inserted quotations (poems), documents, metaphors and personifications, that revive and underline once again forms of violence, pain and suffering. The encounter with his relative from his mother’s side, named

Kierkegaard. I don’t want to talk. [...] My memories aren’t an illusion. My memories aren’t past. My memories are present.” (Sonnenschein: 347). See Zagar-Sostaric 2012: 441-458.

¹³ See Berghan 1980: 270-281.

Clara, whom he, lurching through the streets looking for džezva¹⁴, currently (after ten years) meets and whom he wants to ask about family information, is diagnosed with a brain tumour and dies after six months. He does not know anything about the strictly preserved secrets of the family.

The attempted revision of the past and memories of those can be understood as a sequence of constant catastrophes and attempted new beginnings. On the other hand the italicised narrative I sees past events in the light of the presence. The seeing or rather decoding of the past happens with a survey/questioning of the events and single/individual actions (external focalisation/remembrance of the observer). The higher the process of thinking and questioning, the more frequently changes the focalisation level¹⁵. When Andreas Ban, as a psychiatrist, thinks about e.g. Rudolf Sass, who suffers from depression (see *Belladonna*: 163), then it comes to the surface, that the reason for this disease are suppressed reminiscences of the concentration camp (Dachau, *Belladonna*: 163), police prisons (Rossauerlaende, *Belladonna*: 163), mass graves such as in Srebrenica and the fallen Vukovar.

The discontinuous style of the narration pushes stories from the past into the foreground, conducts them with possible future events over the presence. The more of such impressive, bigger-smaller fragmented, thus never entirely solved life stories are mentioned and explained/described, so the more of such stories Andreas Ban finds out through researching, writing down and rethinking, the weaker and sicker becomes his condition:

After 12 months is he (Andreas Ban) grown together with sever degenerative changes. He has transformed into a degenerative change, which cannot run and climb the stairs anymore. He has become a limping generative change, which only waits for the generative change to ossify, localize, embody in the body, which is becoming more degenerative, until it finally becomes completely degenerative. And then they want to get rid of him. [...] The therapy in Opatija was useless. (*Belladonna*: 88)

The protagonist's degenerative condition exhibits in two ways the decay (i.e. the end): On the one hand it deals with the physical decay, the decay of cells, tissues i.e. organs, caused by cancer. This means, that we can speak about a victim of the disease (physical decay). On the other hand it deals with the decay, which provokes an existential decline and precipice due to long lasting deconstructing of civilisation (existential decay). The expensive therapy, which is not covered by health insurance, but supposedly essential, finally proves to be useless and points to the death of the protagonist. The delay of inevitable examination because of long waiting lists in Croatian hospitals and in addition his small monthly pension became fatal for Ban. The injustice that was inflicted upon him is discussed with a transtextual reference to Herman Broch's foreword to the book *Die Schuldlosen* from 1950:

Hermann Broch observes that political indifference stands in close relation to ethnic expulsion/depravity, i.e. that political innocent people are to a great extent ethnically suspected. They are the culprits in an ethnical sense, emphasises [Broch], that the German bourgeoisie does not feel responsible for, when Hitler

¹⁴ Džezva is a Turkish term for a coffeepot, or rather a term for an ancient coffee cooking utensil. It is a small can, mostly out of cooper, which is, from the Ottoman reign, nowadays still used in many parts of Croatia (and the former Yugoslavia) to cook a proper Turkish cup of coffee.

¹⁵ The focalisation level changes from zero focalisation (the narrator knows more than the figures/the protagonist themselves) to external focalisation (the narrator reports from the perspective of an external observer).

came to power, because they remain apolitically and were in no way connected, with what was happening at that time. (Belladonna: 189)

The distribution of events of disease and war, is questioned, reconstructed and in historical-political correlations networked over the collective to the individual level, because the paragraph continues as following in question: “What about Croatian apolitical citizens, who are selectively apolitical? How do they behave towards what was and is going on around them? No comment. They enjoy the music and the applause” (Belladonna: 189). The heterogeneity of discourses, which by means of erratic and constantly changing use of various (socio-political) stories in diverse time spans with specific time specification, are demonstrated, determine the dense aligned narrative rhythm, which gives the reader the feeling, to assimilate all descriptions, data and connection in one breath. Andreas Ban’s life is illustrated sarcastically, ironically and provokingly and, through the specific use of language, the already tense narrative discourse sharpens by the usage of non-Croatian lexemes (pasoš, lična, talasanje), which underlines the otherness of all those who are different and who cannot i.e. do not want to accommodate in a linguistic, political, social way.

Various transtextual references (among those are also meta- and paratextual references)¹⁶, serve as a medium for self-help and comprehension, that there are still victims: “When it becomes worse, when it becomes worse from the inside, when the inside cannot stand it anymore, then Andreas sings *I still have a suitcase in Belgrade*, although it is a lie”¹⁷ (Belladonna: 104).

Coming to terms with the past and present as well as the physical coping (with the deadly disease) build the narrative frame and form, to sum it up in this way:

1. the search for justice for forgotten, never solved events, which especially took place in the wars, left numerous victims and hence generate at present new victims. (Those are people, who are nowhere at home and who always feel like outsiders)

2. the existent exposure of unfair treatment in social, precisely academic respect. The silence of the mass gives the authorities on all levels of the society more power and allows, that regulations can legally be interpreted illegally, what finally leads to the third current resignation in existential, mental and at last physical regards, which will be continued in the future, as long as the mass keeps silent and tolerates, that the life, memories and acts are in regards extinguished, forgotten and oppressed.

Final Remark

Unexpected discoveries, which the protagonist made through diligent researches after being retired, through re-access in documents, photographs and letters are life stories of and about victims told. By the use of reconstructions of the past, which proceed parallel to the protagonist’s process of remembrance, it is tried to construct a present and future counter-world. Given that the narration cannot endure to bring ‘the individually experienced truth(s)’ into light, this is, as already shown and repeatedly mentioned, ‘compensatory bedight’ with the use of diverse linguistic devices (word plays, sarcasm, irony, Yugoslavisms).¹⁸

The search for the I, as well as for the reasons, which surrender a once wealthy person to the underground, to the nonentity and suspend him unwillingly on the margin of life, is mentioned at the beginning with the furled impacts of the mythical berry *Belladonna*, which is abruptly finished. By consummating those berries an end is put to the sufferings. He also leaves/left his body, with which he cannot identify himself anymore,

¹⁶ See G. Genette, Paratexte.

¹⁷ This is a reference to Marlene Dietrich’s song *I still have a suitcase in Berlin*.

¹⁸ See Leschke: Kriege ohne Opfer.

before the body leaves him. A two paged list of victims, which is attached in the novel *Belladonna*, is used to exemplarily immortalise the theme of victims, because:

Stories and memories can only hardly be extinguished. Stories and memories like to come back. They look under the human skin and enter the cycle. Yes, I have learned: people are connected invisible and they don't know it. They touch each other over the life, which will always remain strange for them. They get into time segments, which they don't regard as theirs. They wander through landscapes, which are only new to them, but they exist for centuries." (Belladonna: 305)

The list, in which on two pages victims of the war (Jewish children from the Netherlands and Jews from Northern or Eastern Europe, killed in the concentration camp Zasavica near Šabac) are listed, they do not only share their name, stories and fates with the protagonist Andreas Bas, but also with many other, still not discovered victims of the previous, present and future wars and socio-political systems. A superordinate and existing knowledge horizon is, as already mentioned, conveyed through an omniscient narrator (zero focalization). However, the end of the novel is told from the point of view of the experiencing I (Leo). He 'sees', 'questions', tries to 'decode' (external focalisation/remembrance of the observer) the past (the writing and research, the life of his father). The apartment, in which he arrives, is lifeless and empty. Leo's room "remains untouched" (Belladonna: 301). There is only a black folder with the title *Belladonna* on his desk. It is a fragment, in which life stories of and about victims are in an unsorted and chaotic way bond together, they are for all: "[...] those who entered the mirror, those who entered the frame of the mirror and for those for whom the time outside no longer exists, because when the death arrives, it risks, that there is nobody to be found" (Belladonna: 306).

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THE EFFECTS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING ON INTERCULTURAL AWARENESS OF NON-NATIVE EFL TEACHER TRAINEES

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Biodata

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Abstract

This research focuses on the impact of teacher trainees' professional education in English Language Teaching (ELT) program on their perceptions of the intercultural diversity and awareness. It attempts to understand the relationship between foreign language learning as a part of foreign language teacher training and the development of personal intercultural perspectives. The paper argues that intercultural awareness would contribute to the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teacher trainees' personal development and future teaching performance in terms of development of global dialogue. The main assumption in this research is that foreign language instruction affects ELT teacher trainees' intercultural awareness in a positive way by the exposure it offers, and such an awareness may increase their contribution to global social behavior and interaction. In this vein, foreign language teachers play an important role in the construction of intercultural and international dialogue. The subject group's being ELT department teacher trainees in a non-English speaking country makes the results of the study more significant since the great majority of English teachers are not native speakers.

Keywords: intercultural awareness, learning and teaching English as a foreign language, teacher training, teacher trainees

1. Introduction

A successful foreign language learning experience enables the individual to speak a new language but this is not the only development to be observed. Foreign languages facilitate the exposure to the entire world. The personal improvement promoted by this exposure may be unlimited. Such a disclosure may be more important when one is learning to teach a foreign language. The main concern of this paper is to observe the progress of this sort in the sample teacher trainee group that may result from the acquisition of the English language. This way, they may contribute to the development of global communication. Bennet (1998) raises the discussion of how people come to mutual understanding when they do not have shared cultural experience. Yesterday it was diplomats', emigrants', and occasional international travelers' responsibility to answer this question. Citizens of the global village face this question every day. It is clear that matters of intercultural understanding require responses to other complex questions such as "How will the atmosphere of respect be realized in intercultural situations?"

1.1. Lingua Franca for Global Dialogue

The discussion of global social dialogue centers on communication, specifically intercultural communication. The ever growing international relations and the communicative performance it requires necessitate a medium of communication which will mediate



intercultural interaction. In this vein, English is used by millions of non-native speakers all over the world as a lingua franca. For most regions of the globe, the existing lingua franca which is English seems to be the most popular and affordable medium of cross cultural communication at the present time. Alptekin (1996) points at the weaknesses of the argument which underlines the impossibility of learning a foreign language without its culture base. English as a lingua franca includes numerous social contexts and cannot be associated only with its native settings. When there is a mismatch, the sound way is to build up conceptual bridges between the culturally familiar and unfamiliar by referring to the universal concepts of human experience. According to Blommaert and Verschueren (1991) it would be an illusion to claim that successful intercultural interaction could be achieved simply by accommodating to each other's style, or by taking shelter in a neutral language.

1.2. Foreign Language Learning as a Social Process

Learners' perception and knowledge of the world will not be limited to what is available locally after the acquisition of a foreign language. They do not have to limit their process of global perception mostly to the translated discourse. By using the target language, as practiced in foreign language lessons, through speaking, listening, reading, and writing they are exposed to the literary, scientific, social and cultural topics created by distant communities. There will be fewer boundaries for them in perceiving the world. Such a freedom enables them to review all sorts of materials and interact with each other without borders. This way, they have access to the cultural diversity and sets of values of far away societies. Such a familiarity and knowledge about distant cultures elevated by the ability of speaking foreign languages will help teacher trainees develop an understanding of respect for other cultures. Moreover, it may play an important part in curing the universal pathology suffered in cross cultural interaction. Sercu (2005) states that teaching a foreign language in the classroom connects students to a culturally different world. Consequently the aims of foreign language teaching (FLT) include teaching intercultural communicative competence as well as communicative competence.

1.3. Self Development, Social Behavior and Intercultural Diversity

Learning a foreign language, the struggle it necessitates and the acculturation it brings to the learner are multidimensional matters to look into. The learner is to acquire a very complicated system and has to use it in social interaction. The learning course itself is a long and graded task. It requires adopting new learning strategies and nurturing them intensively. The learner has to operate many linguistic and non-linguistic systems at the same time, consciously and automatically. Due to their characteristics, foreign language learning activities foster the development of intrapersonal and interpersonal confidence. Throughout the learning process the individual's self image and self confidence in interaction may increase significantly. The learner who is a teacher candidate, as in this research, can develop the mental faculty of processing the new intake into universally positive output.

1.4. The Issue of Culture

It is impossible for any methodologist or foreign language teaching practitioner to avoid the subtle matter of culture in the classroom. Nevertheless, the place of culture in FLT is still a controversial issue; at least its dose creates debates. When we look into dispute of this sort, we encounter opposing ideas. Some argue that language and culture are inseparable and must be treated so in FLT. Others think that the native speaker based model is not feasible and not realistic but there are other ways to deal with cultural differences that lead to communication breakdown.

Every individual's culture may represent reality differently. For this reason, Cultural clashes across the world are inevitable and it causes weakening of international and intercultural dialogues. The foreign language teaching and learning may linguistically help the consistent softening of dissimilar societies to understand each other. Blommaert and Verschueren (1991) argue that in order to approach intercultural or international communication from the view point of linguistic pragmatics, it must be clarified whether the distinctions in communicative properties are universally definable, or culture specific, or merely individual.

The representation of the target culture in ELT programs and materials may require serious attention in different teaching settings due to the priorities of the local culture and the perception of the world by its people. Problems of cultural mismatch may not occur in geographically close and culturally similar societies. Nevertheless a mismatch of this sort is very real in many parts of the globe even in geographies labeled as "developed." A sound intercultural awareness approach which promotes intercultural communicative competence may be useful in solving linguistically the intercultural accidents and chaos.

Davcheva and Sercu (2005) investigate the dimensions of culture in FLT materials and state that international respondents claim to be satisfied when the cultural content in course books matches learners' interest. Information about the variety of customs and traditions, historical aspects, geography, religion and cultural heritage of the country are among the valued. Alptekin (2002) criticizes the native speaker based notion of communicative competence since English cannot function as a lingua franca this way. The notion of communicative competence should be redefined accordingly to conceptualize English as a world language. Blommaert (1991) briefly defines culture in intercultural communication as a heterogeneous phenomenon which manifests itself in various shapes both at a very formal level as well as at a situation dependent level. In this vein, intercultural communication theories that focus mainly on one of the various aspects of the phenomenon run the risk of oversimplifying a very complex matter.

2. ELT Programs

ELT programs can serve as tools for the contextualization of the teaching of intercultural dialogue. Unbiased and universally balanced thematic presentation of issues in the ELT program provides suitable environment for teaching social dialogue as well as the target language. Such a program design is rather demanding for the native speaker designers who may prefer the contextualization based on the native speaker mindset. Alptekin and Alptekin (1990) discuss that non-English-speaking countries should launch culturally neutral, non-elitist and learner oriented EFL programs where less attention is paid to instruction models based on native-speaker norms and values.

2.1. Teacher Training Programs

English language teacher training programs in non-English speaking countries have two main goals. The first one is to teach English to trainees through language skills based courses. The second goal is to train them as foreign language teachers. To learn a foreign language and to learn how to teach it as a foreign language are demanding academic experiences which require the integration of theoretical and applied studies. From the perspective of intercultural awareness, ELT teacher trainees are advantageous because they may study various topics about different geographies and cultures in obligatory courses like literature and reading. They may participate in thematic discussions and talk about many shared, or distant, or controversial cultural features. The close link between FLT and intercultural

awareness is an important issue which cannot be overlooked in foreign language teacher training.

2.2. ELT Teacher Trainees

As discussed above, teacher trainees in non-English speaking countries have a complicated action plan during their training. They will learn a foreign language at university, and they will learn how to teach it in local, formal education. However, when they start teaching they need to convince their students that learning a foreign language is vital for their future life and career. This is a challenging task where the target language is a completely foreign language and it is only one of the subjects in the curriculum. Students barely use it outside the English classes.

Ryan and Sercu (2005) discuss that if foreign language teachers prepare students for future intercultural contact situations and assist them to better comprehend their own cultural identity, they should understand target cultures as well as their own besides the general understanding of foreign cultures.

Teacher trainees should be aware of the global diversity and fundamental differences between communities stemming from different cultural backgrounds and life experiences. In this respect, teacher training should have an intercultural awareness raising component so that teacher trainees can think about the reasons for intercultural communication breakdown and success in terms of linguistic pragmatics.

Stern (1983) discusses that it is not possible to teach a language for long without coming face to face with social context factors that have influence on language and language learning process. He highlights the assumption that speech varies in different social settings and that there are speech varieties within a single speech community. Frick et al (2010) discuss that the transition from higher education to real teaching is a discouraging experience for pre-service teachers who often think that they are ill-prepared for the challenges, uncertainties and realities they face. Schoeman and Mabunda (2012) argue that the endeavor to become a teacher is a complicated and responsible process and requires a real personal revolution.

3. Method

The research focuses on the effects of foreign language learning on intercultural awareness of ELT Teacher Trainees. The subject group consists of teacher trainees who attend an English language teaching department to become instructors in primary schools and high schools. The research was conducted in Ankara.

3.1. Research Questions

The first part of the scale attempts to find answers to the following research questions:

Do the teacher trainees deal with intercultural topics in their main language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) activities? Do they deal with them in contexts where all language skills are used in an integrated fashion?

The second part of the scale seeks answers to the following questions:

Does intercultural awareness expansion affect their personal and interpersonal development, and knowledge of the world? Can they carry out better social dialogue in intercultural settings?

Furthermore, the research looks for meaningful differences between the findings obtained from both parts of the research and the demographics about the trainee group such as the type

of high-school they graduated from, their year of education in college, education and income levels of their parents, and their having been abroad.

3.2. Instrument

“The Effects of Foreign Language learning on Intercultural Awareness of ELT Teacher Trainees” scale includes 30 questions and all items have been developed by the researcher. For the responses the five item Likert-type scale has been used. It has two main parts as described above. The statistical analysis has been displayed in eleven tables below. The research also contains demographic data about the subject group and their parents.

3.3. Participants, Administration of the Scale

A sample of 201 teacher trainees enrolled in the department of English Language Teaching (ELT) participated in the first administration of the scale. To check the construct validity of the scale, an exploratory factor analysis was applied. The orthogonal technique Varimax (maximum likelihood) has been used in this study (Çokluk, Şekercioğlu ve Büyüköztürk, 2010). The factor loadings of the items obtained by the exploratory factor analysis have been analyzed. The 30 item scale has two factors. Two items of the scale had factor loadings less than .30. Hence these items were removed from the scale, and factor loadings were re-calculated. At the end of the analysis, it was found that 5 of the 28 items loaded in factor one, and 23 of them loaded on factor 2. The KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) value of the scale is .88 and Barlett’s test value is 2670.56. The factor loadings of the first factor vary between .453 and .774 and factor loadings of the second factor vary between .451 and .716. The variance explained by the first factor is 33.62 % and the variance explained by the second factor is 8.65%. The total variance explained by the scale is 42.27%. The Cronbach’s Alpha value of the scale for the first factor is .81 and the same value for the second factor is .83. The Cronbach’s Alpha value for the whole scale is .86. The results of the exploratory factor analysis are given in Table 1.

Table 1. *Exploratory factor analysis results of “the effects of foreign language learning on intercultural awareness of EFL teacher trainees” scale*

Item Number	Factor Loadings		Communalities
	Factor 1	Factor 2	
M1	.774		.62
M2	.739		.55
M3	.639		.43
M4	.752		.57
M5	.755		.58
M6	.453		.29
M7		.462	.33
M8		.631	.44
M9		.669	.47
M10		.716	.51
M11		.654	.44
M12		.707	.51
M13		.681	.53
M14		.658	.44
M15		.632	.44
M16		.640	.45

M17	.592	.36
M18	.581	.38
M19	.451	.29
M20	.584	.35
M21	.571	.34
M22	.570	.32
M23	.552	.34
M24	.602	.39
M25	.563	.32
M26	.600	.40
M27	.542	.39
M28	.463	.32
%33.62		%8.65

4. RESULTS

This section contains detailed discussion and interpretation of the findings questioned in the scale.

Second Administration of the Scale and the Data Obtained

After the first application, the number of the items in the scale was reduced to twenty eight. Two questions were deleted as described above. The sample group in the second administration consisted of 257 ELT department teacher trainees who attended second, third, and fourth years of their education. The administration was carried out in classrooms by their lecturers. The data about age, gender, academic average, academic year attended, whether they had traveled abroad, education levels of students' parents, type of the high school they graduated from, and monthly income level of the family were also collected. The

In this application, the KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) value of the scale is .94; Barlet test is 4181.00. The Cronbach's Alpha value of the scale for the first factor is .84; the Cronbach's Alpha value for the second factor is .95. The Cronbach's Alpha value of the whole scale is .95.

Gender Distribution of the participants:

Thirty six (% 14.0) teacher trainees (ELT students) are male and 221 (%86) are female.

Age Distribution of the Students:

The data show that 11 (% 4.6) students are at the age of 19, and 57 (% 24.1) students are at the age of 20. Ninety (% 38.0) students are at the age of 21, and 54 (% 22.8) students are at the age of 22. Seventeen (% 7.2) students are at the age of 23, and 4 (% 1.7) students are at the age of 24. Three (% 1.3) students are at the age of 25 and 1 (% 0.4) student is at the age of 28.

Distribution of the Participants' Education Year in College:

The data indicates that 63 (% 24.5) students are in the 2nd year of college, 99 (% 38.5) students are in the 3rd year and 95 (% 37.0) students are in the 4th year.

Distribution of the Participants' Mothers' Education Levels:

According to the data 121 (% 47.5) teacher trainees' mothers are primary school graduates, 35 (% 13.7) are secondary school graduates, 56 (% 22.0) are lycee (high school) graduates and 43 (% 16.9) are university graduates.

Distribution of the Students' Fathers' Education Levels:

Seventy (% 27.3) of the students' fathers are primary school graduates, 40 (% 15.6) are secondary school graduates, 70 (% 27.3) of them are lycée (high school) graduates and 76 (% 29.7) of them are university graduates.

Type of High School They Graduated from:

According to the data 101 (% 39.9) students are Teacher Lycee graduates, 92 (% 36.4) students are Anatolian Lycee graduates and 10 (% 4.0) students are (regular) lycee graduates.

Distribution of the Income Levels of the Participants' Parents:

The income levels of 14 (%5.6) students' parents are high, 215 (85.3) of the students' parents' income levels are middle, 21 (8.3) have low income levels, and 1 (0.4) student's parent's income level is very low.

Table 2. *Frequency and percentage distribution of the students' foreign language learning and intercultural awareness (1 strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 undecided, 4 agree, 5 strongly agree)*

Part 1 In foreign language learning classes						
Item	Degree	1	2	3	4	5
1-I read about international and intercultural topics.	f	4	32	56	130	35
	%	1,6	12,5	21,8	50,6	13,6
2-I listen to international and intercultural topics.	f	6	37	59	125	30
	%	2.3	14.4	23.0	48.6	11.7
3-I write about international and intercultural topics.	f	38	100	72	39	8
	%	14.8	38.9	28.0	15.2	3.1
4-I speak about international and intercultural topics.	f	9	38	68	110	32
	%	3.5	14.8	26.5	42.8	12.5
5-the International and intercultural topics I discuss in foreign language classes arouse my attention	f	7	21	44	137	48
	%	2.7	8.2	17.1	53.3	18.7
6-I use integrated foreign language skills for developing my knowledge of the world.	f	47	199	1	0	10
	%	19.0	80.6	0.4	0	0.6
Part 2 After learning a foreign language						
	f	5	9	26	115	102
7-my desire to develop my knowledge of the world has increased.	%	1.9	3.5	10.1	44.7	39.7
8-I appreciate myself in a more reflective way.	f	3	6	66	127	55
	%	1.2	2.3	25.7	49.4	21.4
9-I learn more about myself and my capacity.	f	2	6	28	144	77
	%	0.8	2.3	10.9	56.0	30.0
10-my self-confidence develops.	f	3	6	23	142	83
	%	1.2	2.3	8.9	55.3	32.3
11-my intrapersonal confidence develops.	f	4	10	33	140	70
	%	1.6	3.9	12.8	54.5	27.2
12-my interpersonal	f	4	6	29	144	74

confidence develops.	%	1.6	2.3	11.3	56.0	28.8
13- my intercultural	f	3	10	46	135	63
confidence develops.	%	1.2	3.9	17.9	52.5	24.5
14-I can easily interact in	f	3	18	83	104	49
multicultural environments.	%	1.2	7.0	32.3	40.5	19.1
15-I feel that I can be	f	3	10	70	121	53
intersocially successful						
depending on my acquisition						
based on the foreign language(s)	%	1.2	3.9	27.2	47.1	20.6
I speak.						
16-I feel and will always feel	f	4	12	75	109	57
better and be well equipped in						
intercultural situations and	%	1.6	4.7	29.2	42.4	22.2
settings.						
17-I can better analyze and	f	2	14	45	152	44
understand new intercultural	%	0.8	5.4	17.5	59.1	17.1
and social topics of all sorts.						
18-my life skills have been	f	2	4	39	142	70
developing.	%	0.8	1.6	15.2	55.3	27.2
19-my power of imagination	f	2	10	34	129	81
develops and I become more	%	0.8	3.9	13.3	50.4	31.6
creative						
20-I can flexibly and better	f	2	6	57	127	64
analyze the happenings around	%	0.8	2.3	22.3	49.6	25.0
me.						
21-I can react to the	f	2	12	51	135	57
happenings around me flexibly.	%	0.8	4.7	19.8	52.5	22.2
22-I learn to be more open to	f	1	11	44	127	74
criticism.	%	0.4	4.3	17.1	49.4	28.8
23-I can see the differences	f	3	8	19	126	101
and similarities between	%	1.2	3.1	7.4	49.0	39.3
cultures.						
24-I try to figure out	f	3	9	50	120	75
different concepts in other	%	1.2	3.5	19.5	46.7	29.2
cultures.						
25-I can better react to hot	f	5	15	86	113	38
intercultural issues.	%	1.9	5.8	33.5	44.0	14.8
26-I can better carry on	f	3	14	64	136	40
social dialogue in intercultural	%	1.2	5.4	24.9	52.9	15.6
settings.						
27-I understand and respect	f	2	7	28	143	77
intercultural diversity.	%	0.8	2.7	10.9	55.6	30.0
28-I think that intercultural	f	3	4	28	110	112
awareness and language						
competency is important for						
intercultural and global conflict	%	1.2	1.6	10.9	42.8	43.6
deterrence and it is necessary						
for global harmony.						

Table 3. *Descriptive statistics: results for the relation between “in foreign language learning” classes and “after learning a foreign language” parts and the students’ education year*

	Education Year	n	\bar{x}	S
In foreign language learning classes	2 nd Year	63	3,24	,67
	3 rd Year	99	3,50	,65
	4 th Year	95	3,51	,78
After learning a foreign language	2 nd Year	63	3,82	,47
	3 rd Year	99	4,12	,47
	4 th Year	95	3,94	,68

Table 4. *One Way Variance Analysis (ANOVA) results for the relation between “in foreign language learning classes” and “after learning a foreign language” parts and the students’ education year*

Parts		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Scheffe
In foreign language learning classes	Between Groups	3,244	2	1,622	3,263	,040	---
	Within Groups	126,260	254	,497			
	Total	129,504	256				
After learning a foreign language	Between Groups	3,740	2	1,870	6,019	,003	* meaningful difference between 2 nd and 3 rd year teacher trainees
	Within Groups	78,921	254	,311			
	Total	82,661	256				

*p<.05

Although there is a significant difference “in the foreign language learning classes” part in the variance analysis, the conducted post hoc test (Scheffe test) showed that there is not a significant difference (F:3,263; p>.05) between the two parts. In the second part which focuses on the data “After learning a foreign language” a significant difference has arisen in the analysis. Post hoc test (Scheffe test) was conducted to identify in which years the differences had occurred. According to the findings, a significant difference was revealed between the second and third year students (F: 6,019; p<.05).

Table 5. *Descriptive statistics: results for the relation between “in foreign language learning classes” and “after learning a foreign language” parts and the students’ graduated high school type*

		Graduated High School Type	n	\bar{x}	S
In foreign language learning classes		teacher lycee	101	3,6040	,67283
		Anatolian lycee	92	3,3768	,71221
		private lycee	10	3,2333	,76255
		Lycee	50	3,2700	,73377
After learning a foreign language		teacher lycee	101	4,0716	,49778
		Anatolian lycee	92	3,9670	,58103
		private lycee	10	3,9273	,64397
		Lycee	50	3,8564	,64671

Table 6. *One Way Variance Analysis (ANOVA) and Scheffe test results for the relation between “in foreign language learning classes” and “after learning a foreign language” parts and the type of high school trainees graduated from*

Parts		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Scheffe
In foreign language learning classes	Between Groups	4,955	3	1,652	3,342	,020	-----
	Within Groups	123,045	249	,494			
	Total	128,000	252				
After learning a foreign language	Between Groups	1,647	3	,549	1,715	,164	-----
	Within Groups	79,725	249	,320			
	Total	81,372	252				

Although there is a significant difference “In the foreign language learning classes” part according to the high schools graduated from in the variance analysis, the conducted post hoc test (Scheffe test) showed that there is not a significant difference (F:3,342; $p>.05$). In the second part which focuses on the data “After learning a foreign language” a significant difference has not been noted according to the high schools graduated from in the analysis (F:1,715; $p>.05$).

Table 7. *Descriptive statistics: results for the relation between “in foreign language learning classes” and “after learning a foreign language” parts and the trainees’ mothers’ education level*

		The Student’s Mother’s Education Level	n	\bar{x}	S
In foreign language learning classes		primary	121	3,3815	,73580
		secondary	35	3,3952	,73218
		Lycee	56	3,5565	,63188
		university	43	3,5078	,71728
After learning a foreign		primary	121	3,9343	,63643
		secondary	35	4,0831	,40797
		Lycee	56	4,0722	,46377

language	university	43	3,9249	,58848
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Table 8. *One Way Variance Analysis (ANOVA) results for the relation between “in foreign language learning classes” and “after learning a foreign language” parts and the trainees’ mothers’ education level*

Parts		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
In foreign language learning classes	Between Groups	1,439	3	,480	,950	,417
	Within Groups	126,764	251	,505		
	Total	128,203	254			
After learning a foreign language	Between Groups	1,228	3	,409	1,274	,284
	Within Groups	80,639	251	,321		
	Total	81,867	254			

Both “In the foreign language learning classes” and “After learning a foreign language” parts a significant difference has not been viewed in terms of their mother’s level of education ($F: .950$; $p > .05$; $F: 1,274$; $p > .05$).

Table 9. *Descriptive statistics: results for the relation between “in foreign language learning classes” and “after learning a foreign language” parts and the trainees’ fathers’ education level*

	The Student’s Father’s Education Level	n	\bar{x}	S
In foreign language learning classes	primary	70	3,3595	,64745
	secondary	40	3,4125	,70810
	Lycee	70	3,4452	,76018
	university	76	3,5307	,71942
After learning a foreign language	primary	70	3,9774	,54699
	secondary	40	4,0705	,60029
	Lycee	70	3,9519	,56423
	university	76	3,9719	,57525

Table 10. *One Way Variance Analysis (ANOVA) results for the relation between “in foreign language learning classes” and “after learning a foreign language” parts and the trainees’ fathers’ education level*

Parts		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
In foreign language learning classes	Between Groups	1,110	3	,370	,733	,533
	Within Groups	127,170	252	,505		
	Total	128,279	255			

After learning a foreign language	Between Groups	,385	3	,128	,397	,755
	Within Groups	81,483	252	,323		
	Total	81,868	255			

Both in the foreign language learning classes and the after learning a foreign language part a significant difference has not been viewed in terms of their mother's level of education ($F_{:,733}$; $p > .05$; $F_{:,397}$; $p > .05$).

Table 11 *Descriptive statistics: results for the relation between "in foreign language learning classes" and "after learning a foreign language" parts and the trainees' having been abroad*

Part	Having Been Abroad	N	\bar{x}	S	sd	T	P
In foreign language learning classes	Yes	47	3,67	,65846	244	2,437	,016*
	No	199	3,39	,71363			
After learning a foreign language	Yes		4,17	,53490	244	2,509	,013*
	No	199	3,94	,56324			

* $p < .05$

A significant difference has been revealed between the "In foreign language learning classes" part and the trainees' having been abroad ($t=2,437$; $p < .05$). A significant difference has also been revealed between the "After learning a foreign language" part and the trainees' having been abroad ($t=2,509$; $p < .05$).

5. Discussion

According to the findings, going abroad and exposure to diverse environments play an important role in perceiving the importance of intercultural awareness. This significant difference appears in both parts of the scale. Many teacher trainees take part in international exchange programs, teaching assistantship programs, and other similar activities. They interact professionally and socially in these environments. They also attend work and travel programs in distant geographies. Experiences of this sort are precious and very influential in terms of improving intercultural awareness and global, social dialogue as well as intrapersonal and interpersonal development (see table 11).

In the third year of the teacher training program, they take the most intense ELT methodology courses. This heavy academic demand and intense microteachings they perform and heavy exposure to ELT experiences of all sorts may have caused the difference illustrated in table 4. This is a stage where they pass from theory to intense methodological practice.

In the first part of the scale, more than half of the participants state that they read about intercultural and international topics. Fourteen percent stated that they have not read such topics. Almost twenty two percent are in between. However the exposure to intercultural themes can be increased. About sixty percent think that they listen to international and intercultural topics. Seventeen percent do not do so. Twenty three are undecided. When the

importance of this skill is considered, the need for more listening activities reflecting intercultural differences can be observed. The situation in writing is critical because only eighteen percent write about such topics. Writing is the detailed disclosure of what we think. For this reason it requires urgent attention from the perspective of intercultural awareness. Fifty five percent speak on intercultural topics. Almost eighteen percent do not speak and twenty six percent are undecided. As the most critical skill for intercultural communication speaking requires definitely more attention. The international and intercultural subjects arouse the attention of seventy two percent of the participants. This is an encouraging rate. Nearly all participants state that they do not use integrated foreign language skills for developing their knowledge of the world. This serious reminder signals that, in ELT programs, there should be more integrated skills activities designed for this purpose. The activity range should naturally include international and intercultural interaction through all means available including exchange programs, teaching assistantship programs, youth projects, travel, and other activities through current means of communication. Briefly the items in this part suggest that many ELT teacher trainees deal with international and intercultural matters in four main foreign language skills activities in a disintegrated manner.

The second part of the questionnaire focuses on the participants' perceptions "after learning a foreign language." Almost all believe that their desire to develop their knowledge of the world has increased. Although they cannot nurture this by using integrated foreign language skills for the present as discussed above, their eagerness is worth discussing. This may be an accelerating factor in international and intercultural awareness development activities. Seventy one percent claim that they appreciate themselves in a more reflective way on the other hand the three percent stated that they do not think so. Such an appreciation helps eighty six percent of the participants learn about themselves and their capacity. Eighty six percent of the students stated that such an appreciation develops their self confidence. Additionally, eighty one percent think that after learning the foreign language, their intrapersonal confidence developed. These achievements in turn eventually developed the interpersonal confidence of the learners drastically, as claimed by eighty four percent of the participants. Such a self reflection and development in self confidence may help teacher trainees to behave better in intercultural interaction.

The experience of foreign language learning developed their intercultural awareness according to one hundred ninety eight participants out of two hundred fifty seven. This can be considered a good means of developing the desired social sensitivity. Fifty nine percent believe that they can easily interact in multicultural environments whereas thirty two percent have doubts or are undecided. Nevertheless, sixty seven percent of the participants feel that they can be intersocially successful depending on their acquisition based on the foreign language(s) they speak, twenty seven percent are unclear, and only five percent disagree. The term intersocial represents, in this study, solely the socially interactive domain in international, intercultural settings. The percentage of the participants who feel and will always feel better and are well equipped in intercultural situations and settings is sixty four. Six percent do not think so, and twenty nine percent are still undecided. When they have more exposure to such settings, the positive rate may increase since they will be able to use the foreign language for effective communication. This finding shows that they need exposure to international settings.

Seventy six percent of the teacher trainees state that they can better analyze and understand intercultural and social topics of all sorts. Only six percent do not think so, and seventeen percent are undecided. As a conclusion, eighty two percent believe that their life skills, which construct personal social immune system, have been developing after learning the foreign language. This outcome is extremely important for it raises their hopes for a better

life thanks to the intersocial and intercultural awareness enhancement it provides. Eighty two percent believe that their power of imagination develops and they become more creative. Only thirteen percent of the sample are undecided. This finding shows that learning a foreign language develop learners' power of imagination by providing intercultural variety and scenes provided in the lessons. Seventy four percent think that they can more flexibly analyze the happenings around them. Against disagreeing five percent, seventy four percent of the sample say that they can react to the happenings around them flexibly. Seventy four of the teacher trainees think they learn to be more open to criticism, only four percent disagree. These findings indicate that the foreign language learning experience develops their metacognitive skills and critical thinking skills in interpersonal and intrapersonal domains which are essential in intercultural interaction.

The last six items of the scale focus on the perceptions of the sample on intercultural awareness. Eighty eight percent say that they can see the differences and similarities between cultures, and seventy eight percent try to figure out different concepts in other cultures, only four percent claim that they do not do so.

Fifty nine percent of the teacher trainees feel that they can better react to hot intercultural issues, almost eight percent do not think so, and thirty three percent are undecided. The uncertainty may be due to the inadequate international exposure during the university years. As for the ability to successfully carry out social dialogue in intercultural settings, sixty eight percent of the sample feel ready, twenty five percent are undecided, and only six percent is not ready. The uncertainty in this item may also result from the insufficient personal intercultural interaction. Eighty five percent of the participants state that they understand and respect intercultural diversity, eleven percent is neutral, and three percent do not think so. Finally eighty six percent of the sample think that intercultural awareness and language competency are important factors in coping with intercultural and global conflicts and they are necessary for global harmony. Only two percent disagree and eleven percent are undecided. The last two findings show that learning foreign languages and the intercultural exposure it supplies play an important part in fostering the global peace. (See table 2)

6. Conclusion

Foreign language teaching and intercultural awareness are interrelated topics. As the findings indicate in this research, the teacher trainee group is well aware of the fact that exposure to international and intercultural topics in EFL classes is crucial for developing awareness. The trainees deal with such topics to some extent while practicing language skills. This exposure can be expanded. Nevertheless, they do not seem to use "integrated" foreign language skills for developing their knowledge of the world in the learning process of the target language. This finding shows the necessity for the creation and use of activities where the target language is used with all its dimensions for this purpose. Practice in one language skill in isolation is not enough in a globalized world.

Upon learning the target language, the sample group experiences a significant increase in the desire to develop self confidence, self development, intercultural awareness, and interpersonal confidence in evaluating, responding and carrying out intercultural interaction. Moreover a new language enables them to perceive and understand cultural differences better and respect diversity.

The findings indicate that education levels of trainees' parents do not make any difference in their views about the statements in both parts of the scale. Neither do the types of high schools they graduated from cause significant differences in their perceptions.

In geographies where the target language is a completely foreign language and is not needed much in daily life, both learning English and learning how to teach it are methodologically demanding tasks. Teacher trainees go through both courses of action in four or five years at college. Meanwhile as the research discloses they have the opportunity to deal with and to think about the topics related to distant cultures. The mutual understanding of this sort developed by learners in foreign language lessons all over the world contributes to the global social dialogue. On the large scale, the work force who speak foreign languages will enhance the progress of the economies of developing geographies as well as the developed ones and increase the resources allocated for the rehabilitation of their education systems.

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LANGUAGE BIOGRAPHIES OF TWO CROATIAN LECTURERS: COMPARISON OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

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LANGUAGE BIOGRAPHIES OF TWO CROATIAN LECTURERS: COMPARISON OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

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Foreign language acquisition research based on language biographies is a relatively new research method. A new explicit form was created in the mid-nineties of the last century, whereas the interest in researching personal experience of language and language acquisition has existed even earlier, as for instance can be seen in Obler, L.; Fein, D. (1988): *The exceptional brain*. Language biographies can basically be described as biographical method established in social sciences, where war biographies and women's biographies are generally known as research methods to study and describe certain topics. Language biographies are used to portray personal experiences on the topic of language acquisition and language repertoire based on interviews and/or questionnaires. Language acquisition and language usage differ from person to person, depending on their social, historically-biographical surrounding, heavily depending on their personal living situation. Languages are linked to certain biographical situations, i.e. family relations and/or other places where people get in contact with language(s) (see: Krumm: 18). Moreover, language acquisition is not a linear process; social and situational influences as well as personal attitudes and individual language contacts have a big impact on it, thus it is a necessity to focus research on individual language identity concepts. Inspired by an article under the title „Als Kind, im Ausland oder nie“¹ (As child, abroad or never) written by Heinrich Stalg this contribution focuses on the analysis of second/foreign language acquisition of two Croatian lecturers at the University of Rijeka based on differences in their language biographies. The author of the above mentioned article states that a foreign language is learned as child, abroad or never, striking me as a central question which is being followed-up in the course of the research and analysis of the two language biographies. As a result, the hypothesis of Stalg that a language is learned “as child, abroad or never” should be confirmed or destroyed based on analysis of the language biographies of the two lecturers which were recorded in a questionnaire and an additional interview.

This study is not meant to be holistic and representative, it is merely an insight into two different language biographies, varying in the way the second/foreign language was acquired based on different life situations, analyzed and described from the point of view of the two interviewees. Furthermore, the study concentrates on acquisition of German as a second/foreign language and other foreign languages are mentioned but not taken into consideration in the analysis.

1. Objective and Starting Position of the Study

A main objective of the study was to find an answer to the question if there is, or rather to prove *that* there is a difference in where a foreign language is learned, as well as to analyze if there are advantages in acquiring a second/foreign language abroad, i.e. in the country where

¹ Stalg, H., Handbuch für ausländische Studienbewerber, Kap. X, Manuskript

this language is spoken as mother tongue. A further aim was to detect if age is playing a role as a factor for acquiring a second/foreign language based on statements of the interviewees.

The main difference between the two language biographies lies in the fact that one of the lecturers (Lecturer A) was born and raised in Germany, she went to kindergarten and school there. After her school-leaving examination (A-levels) he moved to Croatia in order to study German and French language and literature at the university in Zadar. By comparison, the other lecturer (Lecturer B) was born and raised in Croatia and learned German in school in Croatia. Later on she studied German and Croatian language and literature at the university in Rijeka, sometimes she went for a visit at her relative's in Germany.

By analyzing the language biographies of these two lectures in the end should give an answer to the question if learning the second/foreign language abroad, i.e. in the country where the language is spoken, is easier and results in higher language competency concerning pronunciation, grammatical correctness and last but not least language awareness.

The assessment of language competencies is based on self-assessment of the two lecturers.

2. Research Issues

In order to answer the above leading question it was necessary to pose further questions concerning the language acquisition process in the two language biographies, which are listed below:

How did the two lecturers learn the German language?

What do their language biographies look like?

How do the lecturers assess their language competencies?

How did the mother language influence the second/foreign language acquisition, or did it influence second/foreign language acquisition at all?

Which differences occurred regarding second/foreign language acquisition in the two lecturer's language biographies?

Was second/foreign language acquisition easier for the lecturer living in Germany and if yes, why so? Or, if not, why not so?

Is there a difference in language competencies between the two lecturers? And if yes, why and how do they differ?

2.1. Research Method

A questionnaire and an interview were chosen as research method. General questions concerning place and time period of second/foreign language acquisition of the two lecturers, where they went to school and how they self-assess their language competencies, which other languages they speak in addition to Croatian and German, on which level they speak those languages and how often and in which context they use the other languages (i.e. active or passive speaker) were asked in the questionnaire.

In order to gain a deeper insight in second/foreign language acquisition of the two lecturers and to get an answer to the question if and how the mother language influenced the second/foreign language acquisition, or if second/foreign language acquisition was easier for the lecturer born and raised in Germany and if, why so, as well as to see if the language competencies (due to their self-assessment) differ from each other an additional interview was conducted with the two lecturers.

As there is a lack of technical equipment at the university (there is no dictaphone and the quality of recording with a mobile phone turned out not to be good enough) the interviews could not be recorded but notes on the lecturers' answers were taken during the interviews

and the interviews were transcribed afterwards, i.e. the notes were formulated in order to get a context and not to lose important information.

3. Analysis of the Questionnaires

The language biographies are of two lecturers of approximately the same age, both teaching at the University of Rijeka, German department. Lecturer A is a linguist and Lecturer B is a methodologist for teaching German as a foreign language. In this analysis all foreign languages are mentioned, but in the final analysis and interpretation of results the focus will be only on acquisition of the German language; the other foreign languages will be left out.

3.1. Lecturer A

Lecturer A's mother language is Croatian and spent her childhood and teenage years in Germany. She went to kindergarten and to elementary school in Berlin. Upon finishing elementary school she went to the Gymnasium (grammar school) in Berlin, always having German as language of instruction. She moved to Croatia in order to study Croatian, German and French at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences in Zadar. She refers to Croatian as her mother language, German as her second language, whereas English and French are determined as foreign languages.

Lecturer A assesses her language competency in her mother language as *very good*; equally she assesses her German language competency with *very good*², while she grades her language competencies in English and French with *good*. She does not speak further languages.

Concerning language usage Lecturer A made the following statements:

When it comes to speaking languages, she uses Croatian in her everyday life, with her family and friends, as well as in her job. She speaks German with her own children on a daily basis, sometimes with friends and as exclusive language of instruction in her job as lecturer. French is spoken rarely by her (with friends), and English only in a professional environment.

When it comes to writing, the situation is quite similar: She uses Croatian on a daily basis for written correspondence and for her scientific work. German is also used on a daily basis for written correspondence and scientific work, while she hardly ever uses French and on very rare occasions she uses English.

She reads in Croatian on a daily basis, mostly print media and specialist literature. Reading in German also occurs on a daily basis, both print media and specialist literature, while reading in French and English occurs on rare occasions in the field of specialist literature. Language hears on a daily basis are Croatian (everyday communication and media) and German (also everyday communication and media), whereas she hears French and English on rare occasions in media.

Lecturer A learned English and French in school, English as the first foreign language which was taught from form 4 to 10 two lessons a week and afterwards at the upper secondary level in the Gymnasium (grammar school) more often, as she decided to chose English as her major subject being taught four lessons a week.

In French she was taught two lessons a week from form 7 to 10. At the upper secondary level she chose French as her second major subject which was taught four lessons a week.

² According to the German grading system: very good (1), good (2), satisfactory (3), sufficient (4), deficient (5), fail (6)

Later on, French became her major subject at university so she was taught eight lessons a week in French.

Lecturer A determines Croatian as her mother language which she spoke with her parents but she did never learn this language at school (non-guided language acquisition). As she grew up in Germany she institutionally acquired German (Kindergarten and school) and communicated with German native speakers on a daily basis.

She ranks Croatian and German on position one concerning language competency, followed by English on position three (as she speaks it on rare occasions) and French on position four. Most frequently she uses Croatian and German (on a daily basis), then comes English (on rare occasions), followed by French (hardly ever).

Lecturer A acquired the Croatian language in Germany (from her parents); likewise she acquired German, English and French in Germany (in school).

3.2. Lecturer B

Lecturer B went to elementary and grammar school in Croatia and she studied Croatian and German at the university in Rijeka, Croatia. She considers Croatian as her mother language and German and Italian as her foreign languages. Compared with Lecturer A she labels German as foreign language not as second language.

She assesses her language competency in Croatian with *very good*, her language competency in German also with *very good*, while she assesses her language competency in Italian with *good*. Lecturer B also speaks English, assessing her language competency here with *satisfactory*.

Lecturer B speaks Croatian on a daily basis with her family and friends and in all her daily situations. She speaks German in her professional environment, at work with her colleagues five times a week, at her post-graduate studies when having presentations and in classroom discussions, approximately one to two times a week. In comparison, she uses Italian only when shopping in Italy³, approximately six times a year.

She writes emails in Croatian language to colleagues and friends on a daily basis, while she uses German in written form when writing colleagues or preparing teaching material, approximately five times a week. When it comes to the Italian language, she uses it in written form only to write postcards or greeting cards, approximately two times a year.

Lecturer B reads in Croatian language on a daily basis as she reads a lot of specialist literature, books and newspapers, as well as scientific articles, but she also reads in German on a daily basis, namely journals, specialist literature and scientific articles. She reads scientific articles in English if necessary and she does not read in Italian at all.

The Croatian language she hears on a daily basis on TV or radio, as well in her everyday communication, while she hears German at her working place in everyday communication with colleagues and students nearly on a daily basis. She hears the Italian language two to three times a week on TV (movies and TV shows). She hears English on a daily basis, mainly when watching movies on TV⁴.

³ As Rijeka is very close to the Italian border, many people from Rijeka go shopping in Italy.

⁴ In Kroatien sind Filme nicht synchronisiert, sondern werden mit Untertiteln ausgestrahlt, so dass man sie immer in der Originalsprache hört.

She specifies that she did not learn any language in a not-guided way, i.e. without having had lessons in school. According to her self-assessment she speaks the Croatian language the best, followed by German, then Italian and English on last position.

Lecturer B states that she speaks Croatian the most, expressed in percentage terms set at 100%, followed by German with 50%, Italian with 25%. In this category she did not mention English at all. Lecturer B acquired all her languages (Croatian, German, Italian and English) in Croatia in a guided way.

3.3. Interpretation of Findings

The interpretation deals with the German language only, as it was announced at the beginning, as the other languages (for they are all foreign languages acquired in a guided way in a non-native speaker surrounding) are not relevant for comparing if it is easier to learn a language as child, abroad or never.

The first striking thing when comparing the two language biographies is the fact that the two lecturers label the German language in a different way: Lecturer A who was born and raised in Germany identifies German as her “second” language, while Lecturer B who was born and raised in Croatia identifies German as one of her “foreign” languages. Also, there are differences concerning the usage of the German language. Lecturer A uses German at home, she speaks it with her children and friends, while Lecturer B uses German exclusively in her professional environment, as she teaches German at the university.

There are no differences concerning written correspondence, as both lecturers use the German language to write emails, mainly in professional environment, including their scientific work. When it comes to reading, there are also no differences, as both of them read specialist literature, journals and other print media in German language on a daily basis.

There is a little difference when comparing the frequency of listening to/hearing the German language: Lecturer A who was born and raised in Germany hears the German language on a daily basis, while Lecturer B who was born and raised in Croatia hears the German language five times a week, principally in her professional environment while communicating with her colleagues.

Both lecturers assess their language competency in German with *very good*. There are obvious differences concerning the self-assessment which languages they speak best. Lecturer A puts her mother language Croatian with German on first position, while Lecturer B puts her mother language Croatian on first position and German on second position. Likewise, the ranking of language usage frequency differs in the two lecturers: Lecturer A puts Croatian and German equally on first position, while Lecturer B puts Croatian on first position and German on second position again.

All in all, based on the language biography questionnaire it can be determined that Lecturer A speaks and hears the German language more often than Lecturer B. Furthermore, Lecturer A considers German as her second language, while Lecturer B definitely considers it as one of her foreign languages.

4. Analysis and Interpretation of the Interviews

In order to get a deeper insight in German language acquisition, an interview was conducted with the two lecturers. The main focus in this interview was on how the German language was acquired.

The starting position for acquiring the German language was similar for both of the lecturers: they did not know the German language before they entered the Kindergarten, or

school. However, the process of German language acquisition took place in a very different way as Lecturer A who was raised in Germany learned the German language in a non-guided way when she entered the kindergarten by communicating with other children and adults, i.e. in a native speaking environment. After that, German was a subject in school on mother language level.

In comparison, Lecturer B who was raised in Croatia learned German in a guided way for nine years in school and from time to time she visited her relatives in Germany in order to improve her knowledge of the German language by communication with native speakers. The percentage of grammar was very high in Lecturer B's language lessons, while the percentage of communication was very low; it was not considered a priority. Most of the time communication in lessons was merely based on drilled answering to questions asked by the teacher. As opposed to Lecturer A where communication was the priority in German lessons and grammar was dealt with from the aspect of German as mother tongue, therefore not playing such an important role.

When asked how often there was the possibility to speak in foreign language lessons, i.e. German lessons, Lecturer B answered that this was not very often, as text work and grammar were a priority in lessons. Lecturer A did not answer this question as she had German lessons as mother language lessons.

Lecturer B stated that she noticed interferences from the Croatian mother language when acquiring German as a foreign language, especially concerning gender and word order.

Lecturer A stated that second language acquisition happened unconsciously and that she spoke an interesting mixture of Croatian and German before she started school, not realizing interferences nor conscious code-switching. For instance, she used words like "laufati"⁵.

During foreign language acquisition Lecturer B seldom used the German language while Lecturer A was exposed to the German language on a daily basis, and spoke it everywhere but in her home, where she spoke Croatian with her parents. With her sister she mostly preferred to speak German.

In comparison, Lecturer B did not speak German, neither with her family nor with her friends, but she used the German language in the summertime when friends and relatives from Germany came to visit.

When asked if the two lecturers were shy to use the German language, to communicate with people in German, Lecturer B said that she was very shy in the beginning because she did not want to make any mistakes while Lecturer A could not remember being shy as the second language acquisition and mother language acquisition took place simultaneously. It took Lecturer B several years to lose her shyness to speak German, more precisely till the beginning of her German studies at university, in the course of which she also spend six months in Germany. That is (according to her opinion) what helped her most to get over her shyness.

Both lecturers state that, depending on the topic, sometimes they have problems in articulating certain things in their second/foreign language as they cannot recall a certain word or expression. Nevertheless, usually they are able to paraphrase it. Furthermore, Lecturer A says that she more often has problems in recalling certain words or expressions in her second language when communicating exclusively in her mother tongue for a long time. On the other hand, the same thing happens in her mother tongue when conversing exclusively

⁵ German verb conjugated like Croatian verbs.

in her second language over a longer period of time. Both lecturers state that communication in Croatian language seems more natural to them (as they live in Croatia this is not surprising). If they are to choose in which language to speak with a person who is fluent in both languages, German and Croatian, Lecturer B would prefer Croatian as she could express herself more freely and spontaneously, while Lecturer A would prefer German in Germany and Croatian in Croatia. Both lecturers would recommend a stay abroad when learning a foreign language. Lecturer B explains it with her own experience and thinks that a language can be acquired faster and in a more effective way when being in a native speaking country.

When self-assessing their language competency in German in comparison to their mother language, Lecturer B states that in comparison to Croatian (being stated with 100%) her language competency in German lies at 70%, while Lecturer A puts both languages on an equal level.

Lecturer B considers herself as having an advantage concerning grammar knowledge compared to people who have acquired German as a second language in Germany, but clearly sees a disadvantage concerning her communication skills and vocabulary. Lecturer A did not mention any advantages or disadvantages.

Based on the answers of the lecturers it is evident that the second language acquisition of Lecturer A who was born and raised in Germany was non-guided and unconscious. Mother and second language acquisition took place simultaneously, while it was more difficult for Lecturer B who was born and raised in Croatia to learn German as a foreign language. She could speak it less often and dealt more with grammar than with communication. As a consequence, she was shy to use the language and to speak freely in German. In comparison to Lecturer A, Lecturer B assesses her knowledge of German with 70%. In her eyes there is a big gap between her knowledge of the mother language (100%) and the knowledge of her second language German (70%). She would always prefer communication in her mother language Croatian to communication in German.

5. Conclusion

In summary it can be said, therefore, that after evaluation and analysis of the questionnaires and the interviews regarding the language biographies of the two lecturers the language awareness and the self-assessment of the language competency in their second/foreign language German is much higher in Lecturer A than in Lecturer B.

With regards to the leading question it can be determined that Lecturer A's acquisition of second language German started when she was a child, i.e. when she started to go to the kindergarten and took place simultaneously with the mother language acquisition. She went through the process and the stages of children's language acquisition in both languages, was practically raised bilingually.

Children's language acquisition is self organized in most of the phases they go through. New words and phrases are added to the existing concept and integrated in the existing knowledge. So the existing knowledge is expanded, deepened, rebuilt and linked; thus, the knowledge is repeatedly reorganized and newly structured, resulting in unconscious code-switching. In comparison to Lecturer B who was born and raised in Croatia Lecturer A could actively use the language more often while acquiring it, and more importantly, she was in contact with native speakers all the time, so pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar were acquired unconsciously and not-guided. The content of the language biographies was described in detail in the introduction and the analysis, so at this point it is only to be added that Lecturer A stated that she was raised bilingual, while Lecturer

B considers German as a foreign language she learned in Croatian school and university and during her short trips to Germany, giving proof of what Griebhaber states:

Es ist offenkundig, dass Kleinkinder unter normalen Kommunikationsbedingungen praktisch jede Sprache bis zum Muttersprachenniveau erwerben können, und zwar ohne dass sie dazu Grammatikunterricht benötigen. Auf der anderen Seite fällt es erwachsenen Lernern in der Regel schwer ohne kognitive Hilfen, wie z.B. Grammatikregeln usw. zu lernen. Ebenso offensichtlich ist die Tatsache, dass man etwa ab der Pubertät eine weitere Sprache nicht mehr ohne Akzenteinflüsse der schon beherrschten Sprache erwerben kann. (Griebhaber 2001:20)

Based on the differences shown in the two lecturers' second/foreign language acquisition it is evident that they acquired the language in a completely different way, under completely different conditions. On one side German in a surrounding of native speaker, on the other side German in Croatia as foreign language in school, an artificial atmosphere, as Heinrich Stalg also mentions in his article: "War es nicht eine merkwürdige, künstliche Situation? Sie konnten sich doch über alle Themen viel besser in der Muttersprache unterhalten, aber Sie waren gezwungen, die fremde Sprache zu benutzen" (Stalg: Kap. X). Most of the time communication in the classroom is performed in a way that the teacher asks a question and the students are answering it in order to practice different grammatical structures or phrases, whereby the teacher is talking much more than the students. As a conclusion one can say that it is no wonder Lecturer A assesses language competency in both languages as being on the same level. Frequent usage and exposure to both languages made her learn them simultaneously and "in as natural way" as she herself put it. Regarding the question if and how the mother language influenced the acquisition of the second/foreign language, it can be determined that Lecturer B mentioned interferences from the mother language, while Lecturer A did not realize them, or was not aware of them, but she realized another phenomena: a mixed language, or an interlanguage while she was acquiring both languages simultaneously. She transferred rules and structures from one language into the other. Such a mixed language, the interlanguage, is a language interim system which is developed by learners of second languages:

Beim Erwerb einer zweiten Sprache bildet der Lerner ein spezifisches Sprachsystem (Interlanguage) heraus, das Züge von Grund- und Zweitsprache sowie eigenständige, von Grund- und Zweitsprache unabhängige sprachliche Merkmale aufweist. Das Zusammenwirken verschiedener lernerspezifischer Prozesse, Strategien und Regeln bestimmt die Dynamik der Interlanguage, die als variabel und systematisch zugleich charakterisiert werden kann. (Bausch/Kasper 1979:15)

Nevertheless, multilingual raised children are able to keep apart and to differentiate between several languages from the beginning. According to their statements, Lecturer A and Lecturer B assess their language competency differently. The difference is not small, it amounts to 30% (Lecturer A assesses her German knowledge with 100%, Lecturer B with 70%). This leads to the conclusion that Heinrich Stalg's hypothesis can be confirmed as the Lecturer A speaks German on mother language level while Lecturer B speaks German on foreign language level with a self assessment of 70% compared to her mother language Croatian. However, the second part of his hypothesis cannot be confirmed, as it is possible to learn a language even if not a child anymore and not living abroad in the native speaking country. But I cannot be denied that mostly in adults there is an accent one can hear when they speak the foreign language and communication in the mother tongue seems more natural and is preferred to communication in foreign language.

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LANGUAGE TEACHERS' VIEWS ON CEFR

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Abstract

The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) provides a basis for the mutual recognition of language qualifications, thus facilitating educational and occupational mobility. The document was recommended to the member states to be used by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe. As a result, it has increasingly become a key reference document and valuable tool as it is related to all who are directly involved in language teaching and testing. Teachers play a vital role in the application of this document effectively. This is why they have to be offered training as a first step. However, in order to prepare an effective training related to CEFR, it has to be analyzed that what language teachers know about the document and how they apply the issues stated in this reference tool. For this aim, this study tries to determine what teachers know about the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) document and what they think about the applicability of the document.

Keywords: Common European Framework of Reference, Teacher Training, Council of Europe

1. Literature review

1.1. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

The Council of Europe (Council of Europe, 2001) describes the aim of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR or CEF)* as promoting transparency and coherence in the learning and teaching of modern languages in Europe. Although the word *European* refers to European languages, the CEF has been translated into more than 30 languages, some of which are not European languages, and this has made the CEF accessible to almost everybody in the world. The CEF provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe (Council of Europe, 2001). In this reference tool, language learners' levels are described at six levels: A1 and A2 (Basic Users), B1 and B2 (Independent Users), C1 and C2 (Proficient Users). In the CEF document, each level is described in detail. The description of each level includes competencies needed for effective communication, skills and knowledge related to language learning and competencies, and situations and contexts in which communication takes place (Council of Europe, 2001).

Plurilingualism, which supports that many people show some degree of competence in another language, is the focus of the CEF. According to the view of plurilingualism, the aim of the language teaching is to make people aware of this competence, and to feed and promote this

competence (Morrow, 2004). Thus, the CEF gives importance learner autonomy and self-assessment.

1.2. The applicability of the document

Morrow (2004) includes some insights from the CEF users about the applicability of the CEF. Both positive and negative insights are included in her book. Some criticisms from students are about the length and structure of the CEF: points like “overlaps, and never-ending typologies and lists” (p.10). Some criticisms from academics are about its theoretical background. It is argued that the CEF lacks a “consistent underlying theory and terminology” (Morrow, 2004, p.10). However, despite these criticisms, many teachers, teacher trainers and academics who have used the CEF in their teachings such as Keddle, Heyworth, Komorowska, North, Little and Simpson, Huhta and Figueras, Manasseh, and Wall are of the opinion that the CEF is worth the effort (as cited in Morrow, 2004). They describe the strengths of the CEF as giving emphasis on what the learners are able to do rather than what they are not able to do, developing learner autonomy and self-assessment, effective incorporation of learning skills and strategies into the CEF, and promoting language through diagnostic assessment.

1.3. Role of CEFR in foreign language teaching

The CEF has been important for foreign language teaching because of many reasons. The Council of Europe (2001) describes benefits of the CEF as eliminating the different educational systems in Europe, providing the means for educational administrators, teachers, teacher trainers, course designers etc., providing a comprehensive description of what skills and knowledge language learners have to develop in order to communicate effectively, and enhancing the transparency of syllabuses and courses by providing a common basis for the explicit description of objectives, methods and contents. Heyworth (2004, p.12) also declares the importance of the CEF in his following sentence: “...the CEF provides a comprehensive account of an approach to language education which language teachers, teacher trainers, and academic managers need at least to consider, together with a set of resources which can have practical applications in the planning and delivery of language courses.”

1.4. The CEFR in Turkish Education System

The European Language Portfolio (ELP), which is a part of the CEF, was introduced to the Ministry of Education in Turkey in 2001. By 2004, it had been piloted in 30 schools with 60 teachers and 1357 students nationwide. After the piloting, the ELP prepared by the Ministry of Education in Turkey was presented to the Validation Committee of the Council of Europe and was found appropriate for meeting the standards of the Council. After this validation process, digital copies of the ELP were prepared, and distributed for the use of teachers and students (Demirel, 2005).

In order to see the effectiveness of the CEF in Turkey, a pilot study on the use of the CEF in teaching Turkish as a foreign language was carried by Güneyli and Demirel (2006). The results of the study have shown that the CEF has positive results in terms of students' autonomy and self-assessment, their willingness to learn the language, their self-confidence and motivation, participating actively in the learning process, and learning the target culture.

As for the university level, each university in Turkey follows a different way in foreign language teaching, but a growing number of universities are applying the CEF criteria for proficiency in the target language.

Though developing the CEF-based language teaching programmes is not currently a common practice in Turkey, the pilot studies show its effectiveness, which makes the CEF gain importance in course design, teacher education, and assessment issues. However, the literature on the CEF shows that the biggest common problem about it is that educators and students are not familiar with the reference tool (Elder & O'Loughlin, 2007; Morrow, 2004).

2. STUDY

2.1. Research goals

Main purpose of this study was to determine language teachers's views on the use of Common European Framework. The study aimed to achieve research objectives through following research questions:

- What do language teachers know about CEF?
- How do they apply the issues stated in this reference tool?
- What do they think about the applicability of the document?

As a data collection tool, a questionnaire was developed under the light of research questions. The questionnaire consisted of two parts. First part mainly focused on demographic information about the participants, their knowledge and ideas about the CEF and ideas of participants about the applicability of the document. For this aim, first part included 15 items. The second part of the data collection tool was prepared to learn participants' ideas about the importance of outcomes of a CEF-based teacher training programme. So, second part included 35 items. The questionnaire included both open-ended and closed-ended ones. Data collection tool was distributed through a web site called www.surveymonkey.com after making needed modifications with the help of experts in this field.

3. Results and Discussion

Table 1. *Demographic information*

Gender	Number	Percentage
Female	35	%76.1
Male	11	%23.9

As it is seen from the table, most of the participants (n=35) are female. Male participants consists of only %23.9 percentage of total.

Data was gathered from 46 teachers living in 18 different cities. The names of the cities and the number of the participants are given on the table.

Table 2. *Distribution of cities*

Names of the Cities	Number
İstanbul	11
Karabük	10
Malatya	9
Ankara	3
Aydın	3
Eskişehir	2
Rize	2
Bingöl, Kocaeli, Isparta, Mardin, Konya and Bursa.	1

It can be easily inferred that a wide variety was provided in the study in terms of locations. In other words, the questionnaire was not only distributed to the teachers in İstanbul in order to learn the situation in different cities other than İstanbul.

It was also aimed to reach teachers teaching at different levels and institutions. As a result, 26 instructors working at the university, 11 teachers working at primary school, 7 teachers working at high school and 2 teachers working at private language center participated in the study.

Table 3. *Knowledge in CEFR*

Have you read the common european framework of reference for languages (CEFR)?	
Yes	%57.8
No	%42.2

The table shows that most of the participants read the document. However, still the high number of the participants (%42.2) have not read the document yet.

Table 4. *Level of participation in European studies*

Do you follow the studies of the European Union in Foreign Language Teaching?	
YES	%41.3
NO	%58.7

When the participants were asked whether they follow the studies of the European Union in foreign language teaching or not, %58.7 of the participants stated that they do not follow the studies in the Union.

Table 5. *Opinions on teacher education*

Do you think that the CEFR should have a place in teacher education?	
YES	%88.9
NO	%11.1

As illustrated in table 6, %88.9 of the participants thinks that the CEFR should have a place in teacher education.

Participants also stated comments on the role of the CEFR in teacher education. Totally 32 comments were taken by the participants. The comments were grouped according to the topics shared by the participants.

Table 6. *Reasons for CEF in teacher education*

Topics	Number
Standards	10
Teacher's Knowledge	7
The role of CEFR in Material Development	5
Four skills	4
Total	32

Most of the comments stated by the participants are related to standards in the document. The importance of teacher's knowledge comes secondly. The relation between the document and material development is another most stated issue.



Table 7. *The role of CEFR in teaching*

Do you take the issues stated in the CEFR into consideration in your teaching?	
YES	%33.3
NO	%66.7

Even though most of the participants think that the CEFR should have a place in teacher education, most of the participants (%66.7) do not take the issues stated in the CEFR into consideration in their own teaching.

Participants were asked to write the names of the classes in which CEFR is taken into consideration. These are the classes focusing on all language skills, general English, all classes at preparatory school and speaking. The issues taken into consideration were also examined in the analysis. According to the results, it is seen that participants focus on ELP, common levels, skills, material design, assessment and daily language.

Table 8. *Need in training*

Do you need in-service training on CEFR?	
YES	%82.2
NO	%17.8

It is again most of the participants (%82.2) answered the question of “do you need in-service training on CEFR?” as yes.

35 statements from “European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages” designed by the Modern Centre for European Languages in Graz which aims to provide a guidance both for trainers and trainees were chosen according to the views of experts in foreign language education. Even though the statements were grouped under the titles of “context”, “methodology”, “resources”, “lesson planning”, “independent learning” and “assessment”, they were not given on the questionnaire in an order. Participants were asked “which of the following output statements should be included in a CEFR-led teacher training programme?”. They were supposed to choose among the options of “should include”, “undecided”, “no need to include”.

The items which were agreed to include in a teacher training program by more than %85 percent of the participants were given below.

Table 10. *Views on E-POSTL items*

Items	Should include	Undecided	No need to include
1. Can understand and integrate content of European documents (e.g. Common European Framework of Reference, European Language Portfolio) as appropriate in his/her teaching.	88.9%	11.1%	0.0%
2. Can understand the personal, intellectual and cultural value of learning other languages.	97.8%	2.2%	0.0%
3. Can recognize the organizational constraints and resource limitations existent at his/her school and adapt his/her teaching accordingly.	93.3%	4.4%	2.2%
4. Can create a supportive atmosphere that invites learners to take part in speaking activities.	91.3%	6.5%	2.2%
5. Can help learners to use communication strategies (asking for clarification, comprehension questions, etc.) and compensation	93.3%	4.4%	2.2%

strategies (paraphrasing, simplification) when engaging in spoken interaction.			
6. Can evaluate and select a range of meaningful writing activities to help learners become aware of and use appropriate language for different text types (letters, stories, reports etc.).	89.1%	10.9%	0.0%
7. Can design and select different activities in order to practice and develop different listening strategies.	88.9%	11.1%	0.0%
8. Can set different activities in order to practice and develop different reading strategies according to the purpose of reading.	93.2%	6.8%	0.0%
9. Can evaluate and select tasks which help learners to use new vocabulary in oral and written contexts.	89.1%	10.9%	0.0%
10. Can evaluate and select activities which help learners to develop their socio-cultural competence.	86.7%	11.1%	2.2%
11. Can vary and balance activities to include a variety of skills and competences.	93.5%	4.3%	2.2%
12. Can design activities to make the learners aware and build on their existing knowledge.	95.7%	2.2%	2.2%
13. Can plan for learner presentations and learner interaction.	87.0%	10.9%	2.2%
14. Can be flexible when working from a lesson plan and respond to learner interests as the lesson progresses.	93.5%	6.5%	0.0%
15. Can relate what he/she teaches to learners' knowledge and previous language learning experiences.	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%
16. Can make explicit and help learners to develop appropriate learning strategies.	86.7%	13.3%	0.0%
17. Can encourage learners to use the target language in their activities.	95.7%	4.3%	0.0%
18. Can evaluate and select a variety of activities which help learners to reflect on their existing knowledge and competences.	93.5%	6.5%	0.0%
19. Can assist learners in choosing tasks and activities according to their individual needs and interests.	89.1%	10.9%	0.0%
20. Can deal with errors that occur in spoken and written language in ways which support learning processes and do not undermine confidence and communication.	91.3%	8.7%	0.0%

4. Conclusion

More than half of the participants stated that they have read the document. However, most of the teachers do not follow studies conducted by the EU in foreign language education. It is clearly seen that foreign language teachers need in-service training on CEFR. Therefore, sample lessons taking the issues in CEFR into consideration might be shared with the teachers. In addition, tasks and handouts for the teachers can be prepared to present basic information about the CEFR.



Workshops or conferences on the use of Common European Framework might be also organized for teachers.

Another result is teachers (%33.3) apply the issues stated in the reference tool in four skills, but with a special emphasis on speaking. But the rest (%66.7) of them does not take the issues stated in the CEF into consideration in their teaching. Teachers tend to make use of CEF criteria for assessment, material design, skills teaching, ELP, having common levels, learning daily language. This result indicates that teachers either do not give importance the issues which are strongly emphasized like culture, process-based learning or they are not aware of these issues.

Teachers think that CEF document should have a place in teacher education. So, not only in-service education but also pre-service education should be prepared in a way to include CEFR. When teachers were asked to share their choices on E-POSTL items in order to prepare a teacher training program accordingly, twenty items from the list got higher than %85 per cent. This shows that teachers at practice also believes in the necessity of the items suggested in European Portfolio for Language Teachers. This fact which can be regarded as a kind of needs analysis has to be taken into consideration before designing a CEFR based teacher training program.

It can be concluded that teacher training programs (both pre-service and in-service) should educate teachers on CEF and teach them how to use the tool for foreign/second language teaching more effectively (such as materials development, assessment, skills teaching, setting objectives, alternative assessment (ELP) etc.).

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