Grammatical, lexical and phonological control by adults learning Turkish: A corpus-based approach to expanding the Can Do descriptors in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

A thesis submitted for the degree of Ph.D. by

Alev Durmaz Yılmaz

2015

Volume 1

Declaration

I declare that this thesis has not been submitted as an exercise for a degree at this or any other university and it is entirely my own work. I agree to deposit this thesis in the University's open access institutional repository or allow the library to do so on my behalf, subject to Irish Copyright Legislation and Trinity College Library conditions of use and acknowledgement.

Acknowledgements

Foremost, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my advisor Dr. Lorna Carson for the continuous support of my Ph.D study and research, for her patience, motivation, enthusiasm, and immense knowledge. Her guidance helped me throughout the research for and writing of this thesis. I could not have imagined having a better advisor and mentor for my Ph.D study.

Besides my advisor, I would like to thank my husband Ali, for his patience and encouragement. You were always there for me. I could not have come this far without you. I also would like to thank my wonderful children Cemal Akad and Elif Aden for always making me smile and for understanding. Sizleri çok seviyorum.

Last but not the least; I would like to thank my family: my mother Bahriye Durmaz and my father Recep Durmaz, the best teachers ever for supporting me spiritually throughout my life.

Summary

This thesis investigates the grammatical, lexical and phonological control of adult Turkish students in order to provide better understanding of the Turkish language development in second language learners. It aims to investigate how the scaled descriptors for spoken production in the Common European Framework of Languages (Council of Europe, 2001) for grammatical, lexical and phonological control could be expanded specifically for learning Turkish at A1 and A2 beginner proficiency levels. Finally, in turn it suggests an adapted set of learning scales specifically designed for Turkish language learners regarding grammatical, lexical and phonological control based on the empirical data collected amongst Turkish language learners over an academic year.

In this study, emerging Turkish language use by adults was collected and studied through the use of audio classroom recording which took place in the extramural Turkish language classes in Trinity College, Dublin between September 2012 and April 2013. These recordings were transcribed and formed the basis of a corpus of some 30,000 words of Turkish language use. A second instrument was also used in order to provide information regarding the research population, background questionnaire was administered.

Chapter One describes the Common European Framework of References for Languages and its relevance for the study. Some examples of impact of the Common European Framework of References for Languages on assessment are described including some country-specific examples. Then, some perceived limitations of the Common European Framework of References for Languages are discussed. Further, regarding Turkish language, the relevance of the Common European Framework of References for Languages in curriculum design for Turkish as a second/foreign language is discussed. The chapter ends with explanation of the rationale for this research project.

In Chapter Two second language acquisition in adults is discussed. First, second language acquisition in adults is defined as an area of research. Then, researching second language acquisition in adults is explored. As the next point, main linguistic features of Turkish language are described. The main linguistic features of Turkish language learning which were investigated in this study are described. This section is followed by some external and internal factors to be considered when investigating the Turkish language learning process in this study. Chapter Three explains the research design. Firstly, a mixed method design utilized in this study is explained followed by the description of the research context. Then, some information is provided regarding the Turkish language programme at Trinity College. Key aspects of conducting ethical research are also discussed. After discussing the ethical research, classroom audio recording is described as the primary data collection tool. Then, the background questionnaire is presented, the secondary data collection tool. It follows by data piloting and data collection and then data processing and analysis are explained. The coding system which was used in this study and data analysis and speech tagging are described in detail.

In Chapter Four all data collected through audio recording and through the background questionnaire are presented. In Chapter Five, some findings arising from the background questionnaire data are discussed followed a detailed account of the data arising from the TurkishTag corpus related to grammatical control, lexical control and phonological control is explained in detail. Finally this thesis concludes by providing some scaled Can Do descriptors for A1 and A2 proficiency levels based on empirical data, in other words a contribution towards a language-specific curriculum for Turkish as a second or foreign language, and a consideration of some of the limitations of this study as well as future prospects.

Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Abbreviations and descriptions

- Capital letters   vowel or consonant alternations
- I   letter alternations between ı- i- u- ü
- E   e-a vowel alternation
- D   d-t consonant softening
- +   morpheme separation
- POSS   Possessive
- PROG   Progressive
- QES   Question
- 1SG   First person singular
- 2SG   Second person singular
- 3SG   Third person singular
- NEG   Negative
- IE   Indirect evidence
- DE   Direct evidence
- LOC   Locative
- GEN   Genitive
- PL   Plural

Introduction

The Turkish language has been taught all around the world, to members of the Turkish diaspora and in schools and universities as a foreign language. There has been a recent increasing demand in learning Turkish as a foreign language due to recent economic and social changes in the world, where Turkey is seen as a site of growth and of strategic partnerships. This growth demands appropriate and up-to-date materials for learners. However, Turkish language teaching materials have been criticised for lacking the linguistic descriptions for Turkish. It is pointed out by Ungan (2006: 217) that when we look at the front cover of Turkish textbooks, whilst they vary in aspects such as the order of content, they all share the same traditional approach to the teaching of Turkish grammar, and lack learner-oriented linguistic descriptions of the Turkish language. This need for specifically designed language materials based on the experience of learners provides the rationale for this project.

Musaoğlu also mentions the necessity of transparent linguistic descriptions for Turkish language in several articles (2013, 2002, and 2000). In line with this and the current Turkish language teaching situation, there is an evident need for transparent tools which could be used by textbook writers, curriculum designers, examiners, teachers and learners platform in order to ensure consistency in teaching and learning Turkish. The *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment* (henceforth CEFR or the Framework, Council of Europe, 2001) provides a transparent tool for language use and language learning, and could be used as a common basis for the elaboration of Turkish language syllabi, curriculum guidelines, textbooks, etc., especially if adapted to the specific context of Turkish language learning.

The CEFR is resulted from the need to ensure "transparency and coherence in language learning in Europe" (Council of Europe, 2001: 5). It is a reference document to describe "what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively." (Council of Europe, 2001: 1). It describes learner outcomes as 'Can Do' statements. However, the CEFR is a reference document; it is not language-specific. Therefore, there is room for investigation regarding the use of the Framework in different language contexts.

In Turkey, the CEFR has been used by publishers, course book writers and examiners since 2001 when it was first published. For example, TÖMER (Turkish Language Teaching Centre) as one of the leading institutes in teaching Turkish as a foreign language took the initiative and published Turkish language course book series (HİTİT series) in 2009. It was stated in the book that it was designed in line with the competence levels described in the A1 and A2 levels in the "European Language Portfolio for Adults" (Avrupa Dil Portfolyosu) (ADP) which was developed by TÖMER and approved by the Council of Europe in 2004 (TÖMER: 2009 preface). However, translating the learner outcomes into Turkish for A1 and A2 levels described in the CEFR does not necessarily make the learner outcomes specifically designed for Turkish language learners. For instance, these outcomes have not yet been validated for Turkish language learning context through an empirical research. Therefore, in order to use the structures and approach embodied in the Framework in the best possible way, it would be helpful to depict Turkish learning in a systematic way.

Thus, this research aims to provide a better understanding of Turkish language development among a group of adult learners in terms of grammatical, lexical and phonological control of the learners, an understanding which can in turn inform the

15

learning outcomes in the CEFR in a manner specifically designed for Turkish-language learners.

In order to answer the research question 'how can the scaled descriptors in the CEFR for grammatical, lexical and phonological control be expanded for use by adults learning Turkish at A1 and A2 proficiency levels?' and to define Turkish learning process comprehensively, a classroom-based study was chosen to be the most appropriate way to collect evidence of Turkish language development in terms of grammatical, lexical and phonological control.

These aims could be realised by many different choices of research methods. However, the research method is best decided considering the research question. Thus, audio recordings formed the primary data collection tool in this research. Audio recordings were transcribed and tagged using a tailor-made software package, TurkishTag. These transcriptions were then analysed using descriptive statistics to identify emerging patterns of target-like and non-target-like use of Turkish language items. Moreover, inferential statistics-SPSS ANOVA was also employed in order to find out the differences amongst the three learner groups. In order to gain background information on the sample group, background questionnaire was used as the secondary data collection tool. This study demonstrates how corpus and speech-tagging can be employed to investigate language learning outcomes.

A mixed method approach was used when formulating the research design. Dörnyei explains that "mixed method research involves different combinations of qualitative and quantitative research either at the data collection or at the analysis levels" (2007: 24). This strength of mixed method research is relevant to this study. The application of mixed

method here allowed obtaining data in order to provide information regarding the exact nature of grammatical, lexical and phonological control.

The context of this research is the extramural programme in Turkish which offered to learners at three levels: Introduction to Turkish Language and Culture (described as the Beginners, A1 level), Post-beginners Turkish Language and Culture (A1 level) and Intermediate Turkish Language and Culture (A2 level) at the Centre for Languages and Communication Studies (CLCS) at Trinity College Dublin. The research population in this study consisted of twenty-one learners participating in the Turkish extramural classes run on Tuesday (nine participants from the Beginners class), Wednesday (four participants from the Post-beginners class) and Thursday (eight participants from the Intermediate class). These are all evening classes, and run from 6.30pm to 8.30pm to allow people in full-time employment to attend. More information is provided in Chapter Three.

Chapter one provides detailed information about the CEFR and its application in different contexts. In Chapter Two, theoretical models of second language acquisition are discussed, especially those which see language learning as an interactive and complex activity, but points out that very little data is available about adults acquiring Turkish. This chapter also provides an account of the linguistic features of Turkish, Chapter Three describes the methodology, data collection tools, research context and population. It also describes data collection procedures and data analysis in detail. In Chapter Four the dataset is presented. Then, in Chapter Five, the main themes are discussed in an attempt to respond to the research question.

Chapter 1: The Common European Framework of References for Languages and its relevance for the study

1.1. Introduction

This chapter sets out the relevance of the particular approach to language learning, curriculum design and assessment which is contained in the title of this thesis, in other words the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* published by the Council of Europe in 2001 and built upon years of work in specifying language curricula. This has been a groundbreaking document in the European educational context in many ways, and its six common European reference levels for languages have become common parlance. However, its approach to the specification of communicative tasks (and the ensuing design of curricula and assessment) is perhaps under-used, certainly under-researched. This chapter explores what it offers in terms of a taxonomic approach to understanding second language competence.

1.2 The Common European Framework of References for Languages: Teaching, Learning, Assessment.

The *Common European Framework of References for Languages* (CEFR) and its companion piece, the European Language Portfolio (ELP), were developed as a result of the commitment of the Council of Europe to promote and enhance better communication and mutual understanding across its linguistically and culturally diverse member states. The Council of Europe "seeks to promote awareness of a European identity based on shared values and cutting across different cultures" (Little 2007: 646) and is concerned with finding ways to promote and improve the quality of communication among Europeans from different language and cultural backgrounds. Language has always been considered

an indispensible factor in reaching the Council of Europe's objectives, as better communication could bring about better contact and understanding, and therefore closer co-operation between European states (Council of Europe 2001: xii).

The *Common European Framework for References of Languages* – henceforward referred to as the CEFR or the Framework – can be described as a cumulative work of those specialists who engaged for many years in the areas of language teaching, learning and assessment across Europe. Little (2007: 660) pithily describes its impact: "Although not all commentators have welcomed its existence and influence nobody engaged in language education in Europe can ignore the existence of the CEFR". The CEFR has been used as a basis for curriculum design tool in Europe and beyond, such as in Argentina, Colombia, USA, Asia-Pacific, China, Japan, Taiwan and New Zealand (Byram and Parmenter 2012). It could be asserted that there are two major motives apparent in attempts to incorporate the CEFR into existing language education curricula or to design new language curricula using its descriptive approach: (i) the aim of providing a joined-up approach to language teaching, learning and assessment and (ii) the desire to establish internationally recognised outcomes.

The Common European Framework of Reference was developed in order to provide "a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe" (Council of Europe 2001: 1), and "comprises a descriptive scheme for analyzing what is involved in language use and language learning and a definition of communicative proficiency" (Little 2007: 646). It aims to provide a platform upon which modern language specialists may overcome the possible barriers related to communication resulting from various educational systems across Europe. It explicitly describes the objectives, content and methods which should lead to transparent courses, syllabuses and qualifications and eventually international co-operation in the field

19

of modern languages (Council of Europe 2001: 1). The CEFR aims to "facilitate mutual recognition of qualifications, and communication concerning objectives and achievement standards" across linguistically and culturally diverse member countries (Morrow 2004: 7). It intends to provide a detailed reference point for language teaching professionals "to reflect on their current practice, with a view to situating and coordinating their efforts and to ensuring that they meet the real needs of the learners for whom they are responsible" (Council of Europe 2001:1). Covering the interrelated field of needs identification, material development, curriculum design, evaluation and assessment, it seeks to facilitate international co-operation in the field of modern languages as a transparent, coherent and comprehensive tool which can be used to develop and compare language courses and qualifications (ibid.: 1).

The Framework emphasizes the importance of three key features of its descriptive scheme. It aims to be "comprehensive, transparent and coherent" (ibid.: 7). In other words, it delineates as wide a range of language knowledge, skills and use as possible in order to provides us with a detailed topography of communicative activities and competences which can be used in identifying learning needs, defining objectives and informing assessment throughout the language learning journey. Through its taxonomy of scaled descriptors for communicative and language activities, the Framework is deployed in a clearly formulated explicit fashion which aims to cater to the needs of different educational systems (ibid.: 7). However, the CEFR is not a language-specific document. As stated by Little, "it describes, for example, the communicative functions that learners should be able to perform at different proficiency levels but does not specify how those functions might be realized in, say, French or German" (ibid.: 646).

In its description of language proficiency, it depicts language learning outcomes according to six common proficiency levels, within three broad bands (Little 2007: 645). These six

proficiency levels, presented in Table 1.1 below, define the communicative proficiency of a language learner in descriptive scales in terms of communicative functions that the language learner should be able to perform when learning a language.

Basic User		Independent User		Proficient User	
A1	**A2**	**B1**	**B2**	**C1**	**C2**
Breakthrough	*Waystage*	*Threshold*	*Vantage*	*Effective Operational Proficiency*	*Mastery*

Table 1.1: Common European language proficiency levels as described in the CEFR

The CEFR aims to provide a comprehensive description of "what language learners have to learn to do in order to use language for communication" as well as "the knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively" (ibid.: 1). Its descriptive scheme explains the language skills and competences required in order to communicate effectively in the target language at the different proficiency levels it delineates. This scheme defines communicative proficiency in terms of what the learner can do in the target language in different *communicative activities* (i.e. listening, reading, spoken interaction, spoken production and writing), in different *domains* (i.e. personal, public, occupational and educational), and by using different *language activities* (i.e. reception, production and interaction) (ibid.: 24-25, 48). This action-oriented approach is based on the assumption that as learners perform communicative acts, they use a range of strategies to exploit their available linguistic resources (Little 2006: 169).

This action-oriented approach takes the full range of abilities of language learners into account – rather than depending solely on linguistic abilities – as learners are viewed as 'social agents' (ibid.: 9). As such they are "members of society who have tasks (not exclusively language-related) to accomplish in a given set of circumstances, in a specific

environment and within a particular field of action" (ibid.: 9). Each individual performs different roles in the society which together form one's identity. In the CEFR, identity is believed to develop through communication and interaction with other cultures and languages. It also emphasizes the fact that language use necessitates a wider range of individual competences, rather than just language-related competences. The action-oriented approach of the CEFR is embodied in Can Do statements, with descriptors expressed as '*I can...*' statements for each communicative and language activity. These Can Do statements are at the core of the European Language Portfolio (ELP), and are designed to encourage learners to take responsibility for their own progress by monitoring their competences, setting goals and engaging in self-assessment.

Against the backdrop of 'learner as social agent', the notion of plurilingualism (ibid.: 168) permeates all of the Framework's content, defined as:

> The ability to use languages for the purposes of communication and to take part in intercultural interaction, where a person, viewed as a social agent has proficiency, of varying degrees, in several languages and experience of several cultures. This is not seen as the superposition or juxtaposition of distinct competences, but rather as the existence of a complex or even composite competence on which the user may draw.

Within a plurilingual understanding of language learning, individuals can draw on their knowledge of and competences in the many different languages he/she knows by switching from one language to another or from a particular accent to another in order to better communicate in given situations. The same language learner can use the general and communicative language competences of the various languages in their repertoire to understand, say, an article she/he reads or a sentence that she/he hears. By emphasizing the importance of plurilingualism, the CEFR suggests that effective second or foreign language learning is not realized by simply copying or mimicking those with native language skills, but by developing the general and communicative competences necessary to cope in a variety of situations. Therefore, "a given individual does not have a collection

of distinct and separate competences to communicate depending on the languages he/she knows, but rather a plurilingual and pluricultural competence encompassing the full range of the languages available to him/her" (ibid.: 168).

1.3   Implementation of the CEFR

To date, the CEFR has been widely used in European education policy contexts, although within different models and to varying degrees, several of which are described in this section. In Europe, whilst Little points out that "most accounts of its use have emphasized its potentially positive contribution to enhancing the transparency of curricula and examinations in different nation-states of Europe" (2007: 660), Figueras states that the most fruitful discussions and implementations of the CEFR have occurred in the assessment practices (2007: 674). Indeed, as noted by Little, "its impact on language testing far outweighs its impact on curriculum design and pedagogy" (2007: 648).

One early successful example of its implementation can be found in the development of the DIALANG project, funded by the European Commission. DIALANG provided a diagnostic assessment tool for language learners to help them track their strengths and weaknesses in the official languages of the European Union. Through an online portal, learners receive automatic feedback about their proficiency levels derived from assessment of their reading, writing and listening (Little 2006: 186). Feedback was provided in the form of positively worded Can Do statements, and it was claimed to have a pedagogical impact as learner's test performance is reported in a way that aims to help the language users (Huhta and Figueras 2004: 65). Whilst DIALANG was offline for a period due to server issues, it is once again hosted by the University of Lancaster and provides an important language diagnosis service for language educators and learners.

Another example of the CEFR's impact on assessment practices is the work of the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE). Established in 1989, ALTE began life in the area of mutual language certification recognition, and aims to establish common standards for language testing across Europe. Following the launch of the CEFR, ALTE updated its own certification system, making explicit reference to the CEFR, and produced the ALTE CEFR/Manual (http://www.alte.org/projects) to enable its members to share their knowledge of working with the CEFR in examination specification.

The CEFR has also formed the basis of some language curricula, designed on the basis of its descriptive apparatus. One important example in Ireland is the use of the CEFR as the foundation for the design of a new primary ESL curriculum (Little and Lazenby Simpson, 2004: 93), offering a way of providing detailed description of the progression in language learning through its scales. In this ESL curriculum, the CEFR's Can do statements were adapted according to the content of the curriculum, and allowed teachers to specify learner goals as well as to select and order classroom activities and evaluate the learning outcomes (ibid.: 93). The overall aim of the project was to promote the development of English of those students enrolled in formal education as non-English speaking learners so that they could have a smooth transition to English-medium education. The scales of language use and a self-assessment grid were used in tandem with the official primary school curriculum (ibid.: 181). The relationship between the benchmarks derived from the CEFR was the subject of a recent PhD study carried out by Bronagh Catibušic (2011).

The publication of the CEFR in 2001 occurred at the same time as attempts by the French Ministry of Education to accelerate and provide a new perspective on the teaching of languages, based on the results of international comparisons where France was not among the most successful countries with respect to language teaching and learning. The action-

oriented approach in the CEFR, emphasizing the importance of teaching and learning language in order to communicate, was considered to be a means of addressing unsatisfactory outcomes in language education (Castellotti 2012: 45) and in 2005, the Ministry of Education published guidelines laying out its intended use on a national level (Goullier 2012: 37-38). For instance, all official texts used in the teaching of foreign languages are required to reference the CEFR. The CEFR was thereby intended to become the reference document in the areas of language teaching and learning throughout France: (i) to define what is expected from the students with respect to competence level in languages at different levels of school education; (ii) to develop and introduce new types and forms of assessment linked to these competence levels; and (iii) to reorganise the language learning environment in consideration of the actual competences of the learners instead of counting the number of years spent learning a particular language (Castellotti 2012: 46). The most visible impact of the CEFR's adoption in France is in the use of its common reference levels to describe language proficiency and expected outcomes on completion of formal education (B1 for the first foreign language, A2 for the second foreign language) (ibid.: 47). Goullier (2012: 43) points out that the CEFR's introduction in France was a result of a political choice design to better language education in France rather than a 'technical document'. As such, the CEFR was implemented in a top-down manner without any detailed curricular or assessment analysis, or indeed without much reference to reforming approaches to language education pedagogy (ibid.: 39). Even this limited adaptation, however, was effective enough to bring about a valuable awareness of the notion of communicative competence.

Germany presents another example of implementation of the CEFR in the development of educational standards, curricula and materials. In the German federal state of North-Rhine Westphalia (NRW), the launch of the CEFR and the development of the upper secondary grammar school curriculum coincided. The CEFR had a visible influence on the

development process of the curriculum in line with the reference levels for competences, what Rönnepper describes as "the first federal state to devise curricula and syllabi in a systematic way from the CEFR" (2012: 55). In order to develop the curriculum, proficiency levels had to be tailored to the projected outcomes of school-based language learning. These expected outcomes form obligatory educational standards in the core curricula and are described in the form of subject-specific competences. These competences in turn form the criteria for textbook recognition in NRW.

1.4   Some perceived limitations of the CEFR

Such an ambitious tool for language education is not without its critics, and there remains much work to be done in terms of its implementation in language teaching, learning and assessment. According to North (2007: 659) the CEFR has three main aims: to establish a "common metalanguage to talk about objectives and assessment", to encourage practitioner reflection on the analysis of needs, objective-setting and monitor progress, and to agree on a set of "common reference points". North refers to the second aim, the involvement of practitioners and an analytical focus on needs, goals and curriculum content as the most neglected area of the CEFR's implementation (ibid.: 659).

Little draws attention to the fact that although the CEFR's scales and levels were validated through a large-scale empirical project in four phases (2007: 648), the progression in the levels and scales "does not claim to be an order of acquisition, far less a description of the acquisition process itself" (2006: 172). He also notes that, "it is far from clear how much attention has been paid, for example, to empirical findings from 30 years of research into second language acquisition" (2007: 661). Hulstijn also underlines the urgent need for empirical studies related to the CEFR and notes that "the CEFR is not based on empirical evidence taken from L2 learner data" (2007: 666). Alderson suggests that it is vital to build a European learner corpus which can define the second and foreign language proficiency

development, so that the CEFR could be used in language education in general rather than its current use in assessment (2007: 661). In terms of scales, Alderson points out that considering the overlaps and ambiguities, many terms used in the descriptive scales in the CEFR are far from being well-defined and consistent (ibid.: 661). He also finds the language in the CEFR as not easily understandable, often vague, undefined and imprecise and not reader-friendly (ibid.: 661). In a study on working with the CEFR in pre- and in-service teacher education (Komorowska 2004: 55), student teachers were critical of the length of the CEFR as well as its structure, "pointing to overlaps, especially in chapters related to language use, language learning and language teaching", and "they also complained about never-ending typologies and lists" (ibid.: 57).

1.5 The relevance of the CEFR in curriculum design for Turkish as a Second or Foreign Language

Having briefly defined the descriptive apparatus of the CEFR together with some country-specific case studies as well as some perceived limitations related to its elaboration and implementation, this next section explores the relevance of the CEFR to language curriculum design for Turkish as a second or foreign language, specifically with relevance to adult language learners.

Turkish belongs to the Altaic language family. It is typologically defined as agglutinative language, and is spoken not just in Turkey but also in some 35 countries across the world[1] (Extra & Yagmur 2004) as a heritage language. Although it is difficult to agree on exact numbers of second and foreign language learners of Turkish, the numbers of Turkish learners appear to be increasing rapidly, especially amongst adults. This growing interest in learning the Turkish language can perhaps be attributed to two main reasons: (i) Turkey

---

[1] Including Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belgium, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Canada, Cyprus, Denmark, El Salvador, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Honduras, Iran, Iraq, Israel, F.Y.R.O.M., Romania, and Uzbekistan.

has borders with Middle Eastern countries that have been going through rapid political changes recently, which means Turkey is an increasingly relevant political player on the world stage as well as an EU candidate country; and (ii) Turkey's economic growth has been attracting attention, not least as a site of international tourism.

Within Turkey, efforts to promote Turkish as a foreign language teaching and learning have been led mainly by TÖMER (Turkish Teaching Centre) at Ankara University since 1993, a Ministry of Education initiative. Outside of Turkey, Turkish is taught to children of Turkish families by Turkish teachers appointed by the Turkish Ministry of Education alongside the formal school system of the respective countries. Turkish-language instructors are also appointed by the Ministry of Education to teach in university departments across the world as a means of promoting Turkish language and culture, including Trinity College Dublin and the programme which forms the context of this doctoral project. Apart from these Turkish initiatives, there are also educational foundations and associations established and run on a voluntary basis which teach Turkish and act as a cultural bridge between Turkey and the country where they have been established. In Ireland two of these initiatives include the Turkish Irish Educational and Cultural Society[2] and the Turkish Irish Association[3].

As a result of the growing interest in learning Turkish, there is a concomitant demand for appropriate and up-to-date classroom materials and curricula. As mentioned above, TÖMER at the University of Ankara is one of the leading institutes in teaching Turkish to adults and has published the *HİTİT* textbook series for Turkish second and foreign languages learners in 2009. A range of other publishers have developed course books which reflect different approaches in terms of content and teaching methods (e.g.: *Açılım*

---

[2] http://www.tiecs.ie/
[3] http://www.turkishirishassociation.org/

Course Books by Dilset Publishers, *Türkofoni* by Dil Evi Publishers and *İstanbul Yabancılar için Türkçe* Course Book by İstanbul University Centre for Languages).

1.6 Summary

The descriptive, taxonomic apparatus within the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, its action-oriented approach to learning as well as its emphasis on holistic language and plurilingualism represents a readily available tool to support the growth in Turkish language learning. In line with this, this study would also feed into the Framework's proficiency levels in the sense that "it would be worth exploring the relation (if any) between the teaching progression that is reflected in the CEFR's 'Can do' scales and the orders of L2 acquisition uncovered by empirical research" (Little, 2007: 186).

Chapter 2: Second Language Acquisition in Adults

2.1. Introduction

In this chapter, some relevant aspects of the study of second language acquisition are considered. It firstly points to some key differences between child and adult second language acquisition. Then it reviews some of the key theoretical models of second language acquisition in adults. The second part of the chapter addresses the main characteristics of Turkish, and considers the small body of literature on Turkish language acquisition. The chapter continues with possible internal (age, motivation) and external (context of learning, interaction) factors that might have impact on Turkish language acquisition, linking back to relevant aspects of the first part of the chapter and considering these with reference to second language learners.

2.2 The study of language acquisition

As noted in the previous chapter, the observable progression of second language proficiency as embodied in the descriptive scales of the Common European Framework of Reference "does not claim to be an order of acquisition, far less a description of the acquisition process itself" (Little 2006: 172). Given this important disclaimer in the CEFR, and the aim of this particular study to determine how some of these Can Do statements could be expanded or adapted in order to meet the learning needs of adults learning Turkish, it is still nevertheless important to locate this study against a background of the key findings in second language acquisition, especially related to Turkish. The data produced by the learners in this project reflects their internal process of acquiring Turkish – how they make sense of its rules and lexicon. Therefore, in order to deal satisfactorily with the findings and the creation of Turkish-language specific descriptors for spoken production, this chapter reviews some of the salient literature in second language

acquisition (henceforth SLA) research in adults as well as the main features of Turkish language acquisition.

There are some studies related to Turkish-language acquisition in children. However, to date, there has been no empirical study of Turkish-language acquisition in adults. The present study fills some of the gap with respect to mapping what Turkish language learners who have access to both naturalistic and formal settings are able to perform in terms of spoken production.

Although there are some similarities between adult and child acquisition processes, there are essential differences to deal with in adult acquisition which should inform research outputs such as curricula, textbooks and language tests. Cognitive accounts of adult and child language acquisition clearly differ in terms of the process of acquisition. Doughty explains that while children rely on hearing and the signals in language input, adults rely on their own language processing strategies in their native languages (2003: 298). Ellis also points out this difference in the process of acquisition and states that children rely more on implicit processes, highlighting the fact that in children "knowledge of the world and knowledge of language are developing simultaneously whereas adult SLA builds upon pre-existing conceptual knowledge" (2003: 72). Social interaction and learner characteristics have further importance in terms of differences in child and adult language acquisition. Theories that emphasise the importance of social interaction as a prerequisite for language acquisition hold the idea that children do better than adults in an L2 environment. This is partly due to the learning conditions. As mentioned by Lightbown and Spada (2006: 32), children can stay silent until they feel ready to speak. Adults may not be afforded this chance as they may be forced to speak in a class environment. It is also underlined that children in informal settings are exposed to the target language for longer

hours than adults in language classrooms. DeKeyser notes that the cognitive development of adult L2 learners results in preference for explicit learning, unlike children who are more likely to benefit from implicit learning styles (2003: 335).

2.3 Defining Second Language Acquisition in Adults

In order to have a full account of second language acquisition it is important to set the scene and define the term 'acquisition' and the differences between second and first language acquisition. In general terms, acquisition can be defined as the process people go through to comprehend, perceive and eventually produce and use a language to communicate. Our first language (L1), also described variously as the mother tongue, native language or primary language, is defined as the language acquired during early childhood , "as a part of growing among people" who speak the language (Saville-Troike 2012: 4). A second language (L2), meanwhile, "is typically an official or societally dominant language needed for education, employment and other basic purposes" (ibid.: 4). It is acquired by those who already have another native language or languages. It is further pointed out by Sanz that "like their counterparts in the field of first language (L1) acquisition, scholars in the field of second language acquisition need to explain the nature of language and how it is acquired, that is, what is learned and how it is learned" (2005: 3). Second language acquisition in general is a concept subsuming a number of variables that require consideration in describing the process and its characteristics. She accordingly points out the fact that "SLA researchers need to explain the enormous variation found both in the rate of acquisition and in the level of ultimate attainment that characterizes adult language learning" (ibid.: 3).

SLA research therefore refers to language learning by individuals and groups that is subsequent to learning the first language in childhood and also refers to the learning process. Doughty and Long point out that "second language acquisition – naturalistic, instructed, or both – has long been a common activity for a majority of human species and is becoming ever more vital as second languages themselves increase in importance" (2003: 5). People now increasingly live in social environments where they are exposed to different languages to their mother tongue. Thus, "more and more adults are becoming second language or second dialect learners voluntarily for the purposes of international travel, higher education and marriage" (ibid.: 5). It is also noted that "any experience that touches so many people is worthy of serious study, especially when success or failure can so fundamentally affect life changes" (ibid.: 5).

In order to identify the general characteristics of adult SLA, there are three basic questions which should be addressed in understanding the process of acquiring an additional language (Saville-Trioke 2012: 2):

(1) *What* exactly does the second language (L2) learner come to know?

(2) *How* does the learner acquire this knowledge?

(3) *Why* are some learners more successful than others?

The first question mainly relates to knowledge which results in the acquisition process while the second question relates to features in the process itself, and the last question relates to the internal and external factors possibly affecting this process. This project attempts to respond to the first question, what exactly the second language (L2) learner comes to know, through recording, analysing and tagging their production of Turkish as a second language.

Each of these questions requires information gathered from various academic disciplines mainly linguistics and psychology (applied linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and social psychology). Thus, while the first question could be related to cognitive science, the third question could be informed mainly by sociolinguistics. It is therefore generally agreed by researchers that any attempt to study SLA necessitates a multidimensional perspective, and due to the complex nature of SLA, these three questions do not attract answers upon which all researchers can completely agree.

The complex phenomenon of learning a second or foreign language is studied using many different research methods and theoretical models. Historically, as pointed out by many scholars who have provided wide-ranging reviews of the area (Lightbown and Spada 2006; Sanz 2005), three main groups of theories have been put forward which describe and explain adult second language acquisition: namely behaviourist, innatist or nativist and non-nativist (although various new models in, for instance, connectionism, are emerging, see e.g. Loewen and Reinders 2011).

According to Saville-Troike (2012: 26) and Sanz (2005: 17), second language acquisition has two main perspectives since the 1960s: the internal focus and the external focus. Prior to the 1960s, 'structuralism' and the 'behaviouristic' model of learning (Skinner 1957) emphasised the notion of habit formation (Saville-Troike 2012: 26, Sanz 2005: 8). The 'audiolingual method' emerged as a result of these models. In this behaviourist method, the processes in language learning include imitation, repetition and reinforcement of the grammatical structures that are learned. In order to avoid forming bad habits, errors are to be corrected immediately and language laboratories played an important role in this method for language practice through drills.

The introduction of the theory of transformational generative grammar by Chomsky (1965) based on the innatist (e.g. general nativist or nativist) approach suggested that the behaviouristic theory of SLA lacks the capacity to explain the creative aspects of a learner's linguistic ability. This internal focus perspective proposes a language acquisition device (LAD) consisting of innate grammar. The theory of generative grammar led to the development of the 'Principles and Parameters Model' and the 'Minimalist Program' by Chomsky (1995). This theory of UG claims that knowledge of language (linguistic knowledge) includes principles that are universal and fixed in all natural languages; yet, the parameters differ from one language to another. In the Minimalist Program, Chomsky aims to make the distinction between lexical and functional category development which led to the development of 'linguistic interfaces' which claim that some of the different modules of languages may be more problematic for language learners than other areas (Saville-Trioke 2012: 27). Chomsky's claim is that all human beings are born with an innate capacity to learn languages and there are specific properties in languages that are shared and used by all human beings; these constitute 'universal grammar' (UG). Moving forward half a century, the question still remains whether "the adults have full, partial, or no access to their posited LAD", and so the nativist question remains unclear (Sanz 2005: 17).

To describe contemporary research in this area, a set of theoretical paradigms offering a dynamic perspective on SLA known as "non-symbolic psychological theories" (ibid.: 19, 88) or "usage-based theories" (Loewen and Reinders 2011: 173) refer to theories that provide an alternative perspective to traditional nativist approaches. These have emerged as a result of developments in cognitive science. Dörnyei, for instance, claims that traditional symbolic, nativist linguistic theories have failed to reflect the complementary nature of language. This idea is also supported by N. Ellis and Larsen-Freeman (2006:

558). In this regard, Dörnyei states that "in order to be able to reflect this complementary nature properly, we would need a theoretical paradigm that offers dynamic interfaces for the complementary aspects, otherwise, any talk about the interrelatedness of L2 acquisition and use remains superficial" (2009: 19). The role of input is emphasised in these theories. In this respect, language acquisition is considered the result of massive exposure to a language. It is claimed that learning occurs when learners are exposed to input in many different contexts over and over again. As soon as a word is encountered, it is reinforced in the learner's cognitive system and the more match with the newly encountered linguistic items with the previously encountered ones, the stronger the connection between the word and the interlanguage system of the learner becomes.

Connectionism is a general theory of learning in cognitive science, and includes a range of different models to understand SLA that aim to describe how languages are processed and stored. Language is considered as a "network of connections between numerous simple processing units (similar to the way in which neural networks operate in the brain)" (Loewen and Reinders 2011: 39). These connections are strengthened through repeated encounters. Any innate language learning mechanisms are denied. It is also stated that "development has no goal but develops through incidental interactions between subsystems", which runs counter to the UG perspective. Continuing development takes place, which disregards the idea of 'endstates' in UG (De Bot and Makoni 2005: 7).

Within new perspectives to SLA, Chaos or Complexity Theory and Dynamic Systems Theory are worth mentioning here as growing areas of research. Dörnyei describes the Chaos/Complexity Theory (henceforth C/CT) as "a branch of mathematic examining the frequently occurring unpredictable behaviour - termed 'chaos'- displayed by non-linear systems such as weather" (2009: 99). Its relevance to SLA was first emphasised by Larsen-

36

Freeman (1997) who claimed that learning is not domain-specific; rather it is essentially the same process in any domain. Larsen-Freeman points out in her review that "the SLA process was more complex, gradual, nonlinear, dynamic, social, and variable than had been recognized" (2007: 35). It describes and explains the processes in SLA in consideration of social and contextual factors: "the dynamic processes of language change and development need to take into account the variable effects of communicative functions and opportunities, the structural relationships of L1 and L2, the intentions and acts of learners and others, and a host of internal and external factors" (Saville-Troike 2012: 86). Dynamic Systems Theory (henceforth DST) is referred to as "an important theoretical maturation in that it brings together the many factors that interact in the complex system of language, learning, and use" (Ellis, 2007: 23). It is claimed by Ellis that DST, characterising L2 acquisition as an emergent process, marks the coming of age of SLA research (ibid.: 23). De Bot and Makoni define a dynamic system as "a system of interacting variables that is constantly changing due to interaction with its environment and self reorganization" (2005: 5). Considering this dynamic approach and applying the principles of it to SLA, De Bot, Lowie and Verspoor, the lead scholars who applied DST to language acquisition, point out that the linguistic theories recognise the many variables in language learning at different levels, from communication to constructing meaning. However, they claim that "many of such theories still stand apart for lack of one overarching theory that allows to account for these ever interacting variables, non-linear behaviour, and sometimes unpredictable outcomes, a theory that does not regard real-life messy facts as "noise" but as part of the "sound" you get in real life"(2007: 7). Furthermore, it is claimed that as "DST takes into account both cognitive and social aspects of language development, it can provide a coherent approach to various issues in SLA" (ibid.: 7). Moreover, van Geert asserts that "an understanding of dynamic systems is crucial if we want to go beyond the static or structural relationships between properties or variables and wish to understand the

mechanism of development and learning as it applies to individuals" (2008: 197). Van Geert also assumes that each system is a part of another system "going from submolecular particles to the universe" (ibid.: 8). As such, interaction is important. Considering language acquisition from this perspective, language acquisition is believed to emerge "through interaction with other human beings within a social context" which is both "individual learning "and "learning through interaction" (ibid.: 11). The sociocultural perspective suggested by Vygotsky (1978; 1986) places social interaction at the centre of language acquisition. This may provide valuable insights on the impact of social and classroom contexts on Turkish language acquisition in adults, although it is beyond the scope of this particular study which focuses on the outputs of individual learners.

In DST language learning is defined as a "dynamic subsystem within a social system with a great number of interacting internal dynamic sub-sub systems, which function within a multitude of other external dynamic systems" (Van Geert 1991: 14). It is also important to mention the 'butterfly effect' - the effect of the initial conditions which are considered an indication of the development of a second language in SLA. Although studies on SLA cannot be considered sufficient in providing a clear picture of all interacting factors that affect the acquisition process, there are studies that demonstrate that phonological awareness is one of the predictors of reading acquisition in the native language (see, for example, Stanovic, 1998; Sparks, Ganschow and Javorsky, 2000 cited in De Bot, Lowie and Verspoor 2007: 15). Moreover, it is argued that any problems related to phonological awareness in childhood is likely to result in problems with reading which is also likely to affect other areas in second language learning. This chain of interrelated factors may be described in term of the butterfly effect of problems related to phonology.

As outlined above, DST provides a framework and tools to study complex and dynamic systems like SLA. It emphasises the importance of 'change' over time – where change is ongoing and recurrent. It sees language as a complex behaviour that includes skills which develop through use and do not develop, decline or fade as a result of non-use. Iteration is important to keep skills active and ready for use. Creative communication behaviour is described as a result of continuously interacting cognitive, social and environmental factors. The initial state and the external and internal resources determine the developmental process in SLA. Variation is also vital as small differences between individuals at a certain time may have a huge impact in the long run. It denies the need for a pre-existing UG, however, suggesting "a human disposition for language learning" (De Bot, Lowie and Verspoor 2007: 19). This brings us to the nature of interaction amongst those learning a language, which often includes emergent speech with other learners and teachers. Van Geert posits two requirements, defined as follows 1991: 11:

> Internal resources, resources within the learning individual: the capacity to learn, time to learn, internal informational resources such as conceptual knowledge, and motivational resources; and external resources, resources outside the learning individual: spatial environments to explore, time invested by the environment to support learning, external informational resources such as the language used by the environment, motivational resources such as reinforcement by the environment and material resources such as books, and TV's.

In this respect, iteration has vital importance and as the link between many subsystems is considered as equally important, the present growth level – the level of attainment in language learning – "depends on the previous growth level plus the interaction between that level and the resources available at that point" (Van Geert 1991: 13). Considering the various facets of DST, it may be concluded it offers a persuasive theory of complex nature of second language development for adults learning Turkish. Whilst the parameters of this study do not allow an-in-depth exploration of DST, its design acknowledges that capturing

language data is not sufficient, and that other aspects of learners' lives, learning experience and communicative habits have an impact on their possible outputs – in other words what exactly the second language (L2) learner comes to know seems to be connected to a network of internal and external factors.

2.4 Researching second language acquisition by adults

This study focuses on Turkish-language acquisition in adults in particular, rather than in children. It considers how Turkish-language acquisition takes place, which external and internal factors matter and the acquisition process and learner outcomes in relation to the descriptors outlined in the CEFR. An examination of each of these areas must be informed through explanations from different academic disciplines which, relating to SLA, include the linguistic, psychological and social.

As the literature review reveals, in any attempt to study SLA in adults there are fundamental features to be considered that either fall into internal or external factors. This view is also supported by the DST perspective. De Bot and Makoni state that language development relies on "internal resources, resources within the developing individual" (2005: 8). Capacity and time to develop, conceptual knowledge and motivational sources, memory capacity, perceptual and production skills are all considered internal sources. External resources, which refer to the resources outside the individual, consist of the effect of the environment on development, such as the spatial environment such as the language classroom or life experiences in certain places, to explore language development, language used in the environment and material provided by the environment (ibid.: 8). In general, internal factors concerning individual differences such as age and motivation come to the

fore. Concerning external factors, researchers tend to focus input and interaction and context of learning and they were also be the focus in this study.

With regard to internal factors, this study gives particular importance to the age of learners, as the group of Turkish learners consisted of a varied group from 17 years to late fifties. A commonly accepted perception related to the age factor is that where native like language competence is the aim, it is vital to start learning the language as a child. De Bot and Makoni also state that "there is considerable interest in language development in aging, with an emphasis on decline as the normal outcome" (2005: 10). Moreover, it is claimed that "there is general tendency to view the end of puberty as the end of L1 development" (ibid.: 11). However, they do not totally agree with this argument and add that "language as a dynamic system, however, will continue to develop" (ibid.: 11). Dörnyei also points out that "a critical/sensitive period is a common and immensely powerful phenomenon…and some doors do close at some point with regard to L2 attainment" (2009: 248). Yet he also claims that there are multiple processes and factors working in promoting and constraining SLA which cannot be taken for granted. He continues with this argument that the critical period does not exist in L2 learning in a formal schooling context by providing evidence which suggests that young age could be even a disadvantage (ibid.: 249-51).

Singleton and Ryan, on the other hand, suggest two versions of the critical period: the weaker version and the stronger version (2004: 33). The former claims that "in order to proceed successfully, language acquisition must begin within the critical period and the sooner the language acquisition begins after the onset of the critical period, the more efficient it will be" (ibid.: 33). The latter holds the idea that even if the acquisition begins within that period, "it does not continue beyond the end of that period" (ibid.: 33). Sanz also draws attention to the cognitive approach to the 'age' factor and states that "given the

fact that adult L2 acquisition takes place after cognitive development is basically complete, adult language learners need to make the most of their cognitive resources in order to compensate for the limitations that have been imposed both externally and internally (2005: 4).

Accordingly, when age effect is taken into consideration from the DST perspective, it is believed that "aging interacts with many other subsystems, such as perception, memory and emotion and different components of language change over time with aging" (De Bot and Makoni 2005: 3). It is also noted by De Bot and Makoni that age-related physical changes have an impact on cognitive functioning which consequently impacts language processing. Yet the physical system is considered as a variable interacting with three others: life setting, cognitive resources and language use. System development results from the interaction of these variables (ibid.: 11). Furthermore, Hyltensam and Abrahamsson emphasise that age should not be considered a merely biological factor as social and physiological factors such as "motivational, affective/attitudinal, and input factors" also interact in understanding its impact (2003: 563).

Taking motivation as one of the key areas to be investigated in adult language acquisition, it is important to refer to the influential Canadian social psychological approach, especially that of Gardner (1985). Here, learner attitudes towards the community in which the target language is spoken have strong impact on language learning. The more positive the attitude the learner holds toward the language, the more likely she/he is expected to become successful in learning, and vice versa.

In line with this perspective, the learners' goals are divided into two broad categories: the 'integrative orientation' and 'instrumental orientation' (Dörneyi and Skehan 2003: 613).

42

Integrative orientation suggests a positive disposition toward the community that speaks the target language and it reflects the aim to interact and/or to become similar to the members of that community. Instrumental orientation, on the other hand, focuses on the possible pragmatic gains of language proficiency, which could include gaining a higher salary, promotion or better job. The integrative motive consists of three components: (i) 'integrativeness' including the integrative orientation and attitudes towards the community of the target language and willingness and interest in learning foreign languages; (ii) 'attitudes toward the learning situation' which subsumes attitudes toward the course and the teacher; and (iii) motivation concerning desire to learn and attitudes toward learning the language and motivational intensity (ibid.: 613). In line with this motivational model, Clément and Noels present the concept of 'linguistic self confidence' as foreign language acquisition is considered a complex social process (cited in Dörneyi and Skehan 2003: 613). Moreover, it is argued that "self confidence process becomes the most important determinant of attitude and effort expended toward L2 learning" (ibid.: 422). In a meta-analysis by Masgoret and Gardner they revealed that among the five classes of variables "attitudes toward the learning situation, integrativeness, motivation, integrative orientation and instrumental orientation, motivation is more highly related to second language achievement than either of the other four variables" (2003: 158). It is also pointed out by Taylor that "lack of motivation in adults and the absence of a positive attitude toward language learning and the target language and culture may be responsible for the lack of success in most adult second language learning (1974: 33 cit. Singleton and Ryan 2004: 165).

Dörnyei suggests a dynamic perspective on student motivation through the concept of 'time' as an organising principal that offers "a natural way of ordering the relevant motivational influences into various distinct stages of the motivational sequence along a

temporal axis" which can be summarised as 'pre-actional' 'actional' and 'post-actional' stages (2000; 2001). In line with this point of view, motivation is defined by Dörnyei as "the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out" (2000: 524). From this perspective, language attitudes, beliefs and values, which are main aspects of motivation according to the Canadian approach, relate to the 'pre-actional' stage rather than representing the whole process. Motivation should thus be considered as a dynamic process rather than a stable state as suggested by DST. Ellis and Larsen-Freeman conclude that "motivation is less a trait than fluid play, an ever changing one that emerges from the process of interaction of many agents, internal and external, and in the everchanging complex world of the learner" (2006: 563).

In order to integrate the internal factors, Dörnyei also suggests that mainly learner differences such as attitudes, cognitive processing and motivation in SLA, DST offer the best possible approach (2009: 231).

With regard to external factors, input and interaction and task-based learning as a pedagogical implication are considered important in research on SLA. Each of them were discussed in detail below.

Input is defined as "the language data that are potentially available to the learner" (Loewen and Reinders 2011: 91). The data can be authentic or in simplified form. Direct exposure to the target language in SLA rarely has the same effect as it could have for the mother tongue. Mackey and Abbuhl therefore suggest that SLA researchers seek to determine

44

whether their learners can benefit from simplified input (a less complex language to enhance comprehension) or authentic input (unmodified language) or interactionally modified input where the learners receive unmodified input but are given the opportunity to interact with a native speaker to negotiate meaning (2005: 207).

Related to negotiation, Long (1983) suggests that negotiating meaning is vital to make the input more comprehensible. This point of view is also supported by Pica who claims that "interactional modifications of input did, in fact, lead to significantly greater comprehension than conventional ways of simplifying input" (Pica et. al. 1987: 745). Research signifying the benefit of interactionally modified input in SLA draws attention to 'tasks' where some form of learner-to-learner interaction is required. Mackey and Abbuhl suggest that tasks provide learners with opportunities to

(a) receive input in the target language,

(b) produce and modify their own utterances,

(c) shift their attention to form when a problem in comprehension or production arises, and,

(d) receive feedback on their communicative efforts (2005: 219).

Sanz also claims that "an understanding of research on input and interaction and its implications for task-based learning can provide L2 teachers with one more tool in their teaching kits" (ibid.: 220).

Considering both these perspectives and the suggested action-oriented approach in the CEFR – embodied in its Can Do statements which articulate specific communicative tasks in various domains – input, interaction and language learning tasks as a pedagogical

implication play important roles in creating an atmosphere in a classroom where input and interaction take place.

Context of learning is also an important factor with regard to input and interaction and has many variables including learner characteristics and learning conditions. The role of context in SLA tends to be divided into two broad categories: 'naturalistic' which refers to the settings where adults acquire L2 through living in the society where it is spoken, and 'instructed' which refers to a typical classroom environment where the target language is taught as a 'foreign language'. The Turkish learners in this study take the advantage of both environments as many of them have either Turkish relatives living with them in Ireland or have houses in Turkey where they spend summer holidays, enabling access to more naturalistic environments besides the instructed context. The naturalistic context also entails opportunities for 'incidental' learning while the instructed context is more likely to include 'intentional' learning as discussed by Hulstijn (2003). This original dichotomy, which according to Krashen (1982, 1985, cit. Doughty 2003: 258; Singleton and Ryan 2004: 161) led to the term 'acquisition' being associated with naturalistic contexts and the term 'learning' with the instructed context, is now contested, with researchers pointing out that it leaves no room to combine the two. For instance, studies mentioned by Doughty reveal that "untutored and instructed learners follow similar paths in second language acquisition" (see Doughty 2003 for discussions).

In general, all second language learners are considered to have already mastered a language which can be counted as advantageous as they are already aware of some fundamental features of a language. Yet, when it comes to a classroom setting, adult learners "tend to be exposed to a far smaller range of discourse types ... are often taught language that is somewhat formal in comparison to the language as it is used in most social

46

settings" (Lightbown and Spada 2006: 32). However, when it comes to a situation where second language learning takes place outside of classroom, there is more freedom to negotiate meaning and fewer error corrections unless communication is hindered. Yet a child learning a second language in preschool is likely to follow a different path to an adult in a classroom. Both conditions are likely to impact SLA in different ways. As such, Lightbown and Spada emphasise that "a general theory of second language acquisition needs to account for language acquisition by learners with a variety of characteristics in a variety of contexts (ibid.: 33). A definitive perspective is still lacking in this respect, however.

2.5 Main characteristics of Turkish and Turkish language acquisition

Before describing the main characteristics of the Turkish language that may shed light on its acquisition process, it is important to give some historical background to the language and its alphabet. The roots of Turkish can be traced to central Asia with the first written records of Turkish in the form of Orkhon inscriptions dating back 1300 and are now located in Mongolia. There are two main distinct characteristics in the Turkish language: its vowel harmony and agglutinations. Turkish has both Persian and Arabic words and it is widely accepted that if these words were eliminated with the aim of language purification, the language would suffer through the loss of harmony and fluidity. However, from a different point of view, it is also claimed that the existence of Arabic and Persian words creates considerable linguistic confusion. In the Ottoman Empire, there were two different types of Turkish language: that used by educated elites and the language spoken by so-called uneducated or ordinary people in daily life. Following the foundation of Turkish Republic by Atatürk in 1923, the alphabet was changed from Arabic to Latin and in 1928 was named the Turkish alphabet to be used by everybody. It had been previously believed that it would

be impossible to revive the original mother tongue of the Turkish people. In recent discussions on this radical alphabet reform some historians claim that this sudden change resulted in breaking off many historical and cultural ties between Turkey and the Ottoman Empire. This topic is fascinating, but beyond the scope of the present study.

The Turkish language is highly comprehensive on account of its word-building capacity. It provides extensive explanations for anything, from the elements in nature to the full vigour of human feelings. In Turkish, with any one verb root, all possible qualifications of the subject can be expressed - such is the ease of the Turkish language, unlike popular beliefs that it is highly complex. Adjectives can be obtained out of nouns, verbs are obtained out of adjectives or nouns and vice versa. A simple example is given below:

Almak: to take

Alış: taking

Vermek: to give

Veriş: giving

Alışveriş: shopping

Phonetically, the Turkish language is formed as a result of the natural position of the tongue and movement of the lips. The table below shows the phonological representations of Turkish letters in the alphabet:

Turkish		IPA	English Approximation	Turkish		IPA	English Approximation
A	a	/a/	As in cup	M	m	/m/	As in mother
B	b	/b/	As in book	N	n	/n/	As in narrow
C	c	/dʒ/	As in jam	O	o	/o/	As in more
Ç	ç	/tʃ/	As in child	Ö	ö	/ø/	As in urge
D	d	/d/	As in dress	P	p	/p/	As in pin
E	e	/e/	As in pen	R	r	/r/	As in red
F	f	/f/	As in Fast	S	s	/s/	As in soft
G	g	/g/, /ɟ/	As in good	Ş	ş	/ʃ/	As in shift
Ğ	ğ	/ː/, /ˑ/, /ʲ/	No similar sound	T	t	/t/	As in table
H	h	/h/	As in half	U	u	/u/	As in put
I	ı	/ɯ/	As in open	Ü	ü	/y/	As in new
İ	i	/i/	As in feet	V	v	/ʊ/, /v/	As in very
J	j	/ʒ/	As in leisure	Y	y	/j/	As in yellow
K	k	/k/, /c/	As in kitten	Z	z	/z/	As in zoom
L	l	/ɫ/, /l/	As in love				

Table 2.1: Turkish Phonological Alphabet and IPA Representations

There are no mute letters as in "know", "knife", "could", etc. There are no diphthongs as in "either", "cheese", "moon", etc. Each and every letter in every word is pronounced in a single way and exactly as it is written, and with all the letters sounded individually which makes reading very easy once the correct pronunciation has been mastered.

The word order in Turkish is Subject-Object-Verb (SOV), "with concomitant features of suffixed inflections, postpositions, and preposed demonstratives, numerals, possessives, adjectives, and relative clauses" (Aksu- Koç and Slobin 1985: 840). For pragmatic purposes, the word order can exhibit a high degree of variation.

With regard to Turkish phonetics, it is important to describe 'vowel harmony' which constitutes a particular characteristic of the language. The vowels are divided into two groups: the hard or the back vowels (a, ı, o, u) and the soft or front vowels (e, i, ö, ü). Word, adjective, verb and phrase formation are all subject to vowel harmony. When a suffix is added, the last vowel in the last syllable of the word is taken into account. All

suffixes are thus subject to vowel harmony irrespective of their function. For instance, the present continuous sense suffix 'Iyor', can be formed in four different versions - 'iyor', 'ıyor', 'üyor' and ' uyor' - to be in harmony with the last syllable of the stem of the verb:

O geliyor: He/she/it is coming

O kalıyor: He/she/it is staying

O gülümsüyor: He/she/it is smiling

O uyuyor: He/she/it is sleeping

It is also important to note the particular form of nouns in Turkish, of which there are two types: 'definitive combinations' (ilgi hali: (n) in) and 'indefinitive combinations'. They are also referred to as "definite izafet" and "indefinite izafet" by Lewis (2000: 41). In definitive combinations the second noun functions as the complement of the first noun by taking the possessive pronoun suffix, (s) i. of the third person singular to the second noun. The first noun takes the suffix of ilgi hali (n)in – genitive case.

Otobüs: bus

Şöför: driver

Otobüsün şöförü: the driver of the bus (referring to a specific bus and its driver)

"*Günün dedikodu konu – su* 'the gossip topic of the day" (Lewis 2000: 44).

However, in indefinitive combinations, only the possessive pronoun suffix, (s) I, of the third person singular is affixed. Then, using the same bus driver example as above, 'otobüs şöförü' refers to any bus driver and not a specific one. The definitive combination form of the noun is used quite often in Turkish, enabling the speaker and listener to tell and to understand clearer statements:

Polis, otobüs söförünün ehliyetinin yerini sordu

'The police asked about the place of the drivers' licence of the bus driver'

There are other basic rules that affect the way the suffixes are applied. For example, two vowels cannot come together and there are rules to avoid these situations when they occur as a result of other rules. In these situations certain buffer letters (y, ş, s, n) are used:

sobaya

soba + (y) a 'to the stove'

arabanın

araba + (n) + ın 'of the car - the car's'

There are also two rules concerning consonant harmony. The first one is sessiz yumuşaması ('softening of consonants'). It occurs when a suffix that starts with a vowel is affixed to the word ending with one of the letters p, ç, t, k. Then p becomes b, ç becomes c, t becomes d, and k becomes ğ, as in the examples below:

İlaç İlacı

Kitap Kitabı

Dört Dördü

Ekmek Ekmeği

The second rule concerning consonant harmony is 'suffix mutation' or fıstıkçışahap. It occurs when a word ending with one of the letters f, s, t, k, ç, ş, h, p is affixed, and a suffix starting with the letter d becomes t:

sabah +dan   sabahtan 'from morning'

kitap + dan   kitaptan 'from the book'

güneş + de güneşte 'on the sun'.

There are also six different noun cases (ismin halleri): absolute, accusative, genitive, dative, locative and ablative:

yalın hali:	Absolute:	Okul açık:	'The school is open'
I- hali:	Accusative:	Okulu gördüm.	'I saw the school'
	Genitive:	Okulun kapısı:	'The door of the school'
E-hali:	Dative:	Okula gittim:	'I went to school'
DE-hali:	Locative:	Okulda bekledim:	'I waited at school'
DEn-hali:	Ablative:	Okuldan uzak:	'Far from the school'

The same cases are also applied to "pronouns, demonstratives, question words, and derived nouns" (ibid.: 840) Some examples are given below:

Ben + den 'from me'

Şu +(n) + dan 'from that'

Nere +den 'from where'

Yürümek + ten 'from walking'

The same cases are applied to words in the object position in sentences, in line with the different units of the language as explained above.

I- hali: Accusative: Pronoun

Seni seviyorum 'I love you'

DEn-hali: Ablative: Demonstrative

Bundan nefret ediyorum 'I hate this'

In Turkish, actual personal pronouns are not used when conjugating verbs. Rather, the tense suffix is affixed to the stem of the verb and the equivalent personal suffix is added later:

Dün geldiniz 'You came yesterday'

gel   +   di   +   niz

(come)+   (PAST)   +   (2PL)

For this sentence to be formed in the negative, the negative suffix is inserted immediately after the verb stem:

Dün gelmediniz ' You did not come yesterday'

gel   +   me   +   di   +   niz

(come) +   (NEG)   +   (PAST)   +   (2PL)

In general, the interrogative form is placed immediately after the tense suffix and then the personal pronoun suffix is added.

Bugün geliyor musunuz? 'Are you coming today?'

Gel   +   iyor   +   mu   +   sunuz?

(verb stem-come)   +   (PROG)   +   (QES) +   (2PL)

Generally verbal suffixes mark "voice, negation, modality, aspect, tense, person, and number, with person and number affixes bearing much similarity with nominal suffixes for the same functions" (Aksu Koç and Slobin 1985: 840).

veriyorum 'I am giving'

| ver | + | iyor | + | um |
| (verb stem- give) | + | (PROG) | + | (1SG) |

veriyorlar 'they are giving'

| ver | + | iyor | + | lar |
| (verb stem- give) | + | (PROG) | + | (PL) |

In their intensive research on Turkish language acquisition in children, Aksu-Koç and Slobin point out that "even at early ages fairly elaborated strings of verbal affixes are produced by children" (1985: 841). Moreover, it is also stated that "overall, morphological errors are remarkably rare, because the extreme regularity of the language precludes them" (ibid.: 845).

The tense suffixes are marked in past tense (DI and mIş), progressive (Iyor), present (Ir) and future tenses (AcAk). The past tense has two distinct markings: (DI) is used in statements where there is direct evidence and (mIş) is used to express indirect evidence or inference. The latter is also known as 'reported past tense'. More recently, the use of the progressive (Iyor) tends to take the place of the use of the present (Ir) in telling habitual actions. This is described as "aspectual distinction between progressive (Iyor) and habitual (Ir) (frequently referred to as 'aorist' (ibid.: 842; Aksu- Koç 1988: 18-9).

In Turkish there are five additional mood classes defined by Aksu- Koç (1988): obtative (sIn) indicates intention and desire; neccessitative suffix (mAlI) indicates obligation; the potential (AbIl) indicates ability or possibility; and the conditional (sA) indicates wishes or possible/remote conditions (1988: 19). As in the case for tense suffixes explained above, the personal pronoun suffixes are applied after them.

Gelmeliyim 'I should come'

Gel   +   meli   + (y)+ im

Come +   should   + (1SG)

There are particles that occur only between the verb and the suffixes explained above. These particles modify the verb in four different ways and forms:

Passive (Il)

Causative (DIr)

Reciprocal (Iş)

Reflexive (In)

The negative (mE) can also be counted as the fifth particle. In order to further modify the meanings of verbs which already contain the particles listed above, there are three suffixes "to express complex, temporal, aspectual and modal notions" (Aksu- Koç and Slobin 1985: 842). These are past tense suffix of direct evidence (DI) and indirect evidence (mIş) and the conditional (sE). Aksu–Koç and Slobin also draw attention to the importance of the order of these particles to convey meaning (ibid.: 843):

Gel + di + (y) + se 'if he came'

Gel + se+ (y) + di 'if he had come'

55

Relative embedded clauses are used in order to realise complex verbal statements. Participles are used in this respect and some examples are given below:

Present participle (En)

Bekleyen tren 'the train waiting'

Gülen çocuk 'the child who is smiling'

Future participle (AcAk)

Gelecek günler 'the days which will come'

Olacak şeyler 'things which will happen'

Past participle

(DI)

Gezmedik ülke 'unvisited country'

(mIş)

Hazırlanmış yemek 'the food which has been prepared'

Personal participles (DIk)

Tanıdığım bir şair 'a poet I know'

Seyrettiğim film 'a film I watch'

In strings of agglutinated morphemes, each suffix holds its semantic and phonological identity and its position.

Masa 'table'

Masa + lar 'tables'

Masa + m 'my table'

Masa + da 'on the table'

Masa + lar + da 'on the tables'

Masa + lar + ım + da 'on my tables'

As mentioned earlier the word order in Turkish is SOV with the focus on the word in the preverbal position. However, considering the emphasis, the object can also be placed before the verb (OVS) if object is to be emphasized or subject comes before the verb (OSV) if the subject is emphasized in a statement.

Verbal particles or "converbs" (Lewis 2000: 175) are used to join sentences. An example is given below (Ip):

Şapkasını ve paltosunu alıp çıktı. 'He took his hat and coat and went out'.

In this sentence, instead of using two verb stems with the same suffixes (which is direct evidence past tense suffix 'DI' in this case), the converb (Ip) is used. Otherwise, the same sentence would be:

Şapkasını aldı, paltosunu aldı ve çıktı.

Having described the main features of the Turkish language, the main features to be investigated in this study are briefly described in the section below related to grammatical control, lexical control and phonological control by learners.

2.6 Main features of Turkish-language acquisition to be investigated in this study

Language learners vary in respect of their individual features, motivation and the context in which they acquire L2. They also differ in their first languages, which may bring many diverse cognitive and affective factors to the L2 acquisition process. Their previous knowledge of and attitude to learning foreign languages and the society in which the particular L2 is spoken also impact acquisition (as discussed above in section 2.3.). Yet, despite the dynamic features of language acquisition in general, as discussed in section 2.2., observable patterns are present in second language acquisition. Many of these patterns are observed among Turkish children when they acquire Turkish as their mother tongue. In this regard, grammatical development could be considered in terms of a regular and observable development.

In light of this observable feature of grammatical development in L1 and L2 acquisition, I seek to describe and exemplify the acquisitional pathway of Turkish language acquisition in adults. The emergence of different features in grammatical development was considered as indicators which can be generalised in explaining Turkish-language acquisition. Although grammatical development can be said to follow a predictable pattern among both children and adults, it is difficult to apply the same principle to lexical development. Compared to grammatical development, lexical development is strongly related to individual differences such as motivation and learning contexts and is thus subject to many variations. In line with this, internal and external factors are important elements when describing the possible lexical development of adult Turkish learners.

2.6.1 Grammatical control

There are clear developmental stages in first language acquisition among children all around the world. It starts with involuntary crying leading to the preverbal stage, which is followed by single word utterances leading to longer utterances. As children progress in their language learning, predictable patterns are observed. These are described by Brown (1973) in a longitudinal study on the language development of three children. It was revealed in this study that there are certain grammatical morphemes that need to be mastered before others, evidencing the order of acquisition. Moreover, in relation to word order, Brown draws attention to Slobin's (1971) principle: "pay attention to the order of words and morphemes" (cited in Brown 1973: 166).

The development of certain patterns can be described in terms of developmental 'stages' (Lightbown and Spada 2006: 2). The work of Brown was expanded by Slobin (1985) who, in his cross-linguistic studies, also indicated the existence of predictable patterns of morphological development in many other languages besides English, Turkish being one of them. For this present research project, although it focuses on adult language acquisition, Slobin's work, together with his colleague Aksu-Koç (1985), provides valuable information regarding Turkish-language acquisition.

Aksu-Koç and Slobin's study (1985) revealed that the inflectional system in Turkish appears early and all noun and verb inflections are mastered by 24 months, or even earlier, and they are present at the one-word stage as evidenced by the correct use of these inflections in children as young as 15 months (1985: 845). Furthermore, it is also stated that "Turkish children inflect nouns for case (accusative, dative, ablative, possessive, instrumental) and number (plural), and verbs for tense-aspect (past result, ongoing process,

intention), person, negation and interrogation" (ibid.: 845). The acquisition of these particular morphemes in the inflectional system in Turkish were adopted and referred to as patterns of grammatical development to be investigated in this study. Apart from the inflections listed above, the rule for softening of consonants as defined on above was considered an important indication of productivity in Aksu-Koç and Slobin's study (1985). Moreover, it is defined as a suffix which "is not simply part of a rote-learned amalgam" (ibid.: 845).

Aksu investigated the developmental sequence of tense forms in Turkish children (1978, cited in Aksu-Koç and Slobin 1985: 862). Findings revealed that the past tense (DI) emerged to mark "punctual changes of state resulting in immediately observable end states at the time of speech" (Aksu-Koç and Slobin 1985: 863). Later, the progressive (Iyor) was observed to mark "durational events" (ibid.). Aksu-Koç and Slobin also suggest that this acquisitional order is in line with Piaget's observation that "temporal thought for the very small child is characterised by "living purely in the present and assessing the past exclusively by its results" (Piaget 1927; trans.1969 : 284; cited in Aksu-Koç and Slobin 1985: 863).

Evidentiality is studied mostly by Aksu-Koç (1988, 2000; Aksu-Koç and Slobin, 1985) according to whom the acquisition of evidential markers are "not grammaticised in well studied Indo-European languages but marked in Turkish" (1988: 15). In Turkish, direct experience is indicated by the use of 'DI' expressing the speaker's direct access to the knowledge related to all phases of an event "yemek yan- DI"([I saw/ know that] the food burnt)" (Aksu-Koç et al. 2009: 14). On the other hand, the indirect experience indicator,'mIş', implies knowledge as a result of inference from physical evidence "yemek yan –mIş" ([through the smell of the burnt food, I infer that] the food burnt). Her

60

longitudinal studies revealed that the use of 'DI' and 'mIş' emerges between two and three years of age (Aksu-Koç 1988;2009). However, mastery of 'DI' comes between 3-3.5 years and mastery of 'mIş' between 4-4.5 years. Yet perfect comprehension of both cases is reached approximately one year after production due to the plurifunctional nature of 'mIş'.

Word order in Turkish (SOV) cannot be used interchangeably due to grammatical restrictions. This rule-governed feature of Turkish is studied by Aksu-Koç and Slobin (1985) and Erguvanlı-Taylan (1984). Both studies conclude that from a very early age, Turkish children use different combinations of word order in the same way adults do and "Turkish child speech is almost entirely free of error" (Aksu- Koç and Slobin 1985: 854), "remarkable given the range and complexity of possible combinations in both the nominal and verbal systems" (ibid.: 855). Furthermore, Aksu- Koç and Slobin consider the morphological structure to be the main reason behind for ease of acquisition of verbal and nominal systems. This also points to transparent rules related to word order. In her work, Erguvanlı-Taylan (1984) investigates in a particular the case of word order, namely restriction caused by semantic features [+/- definite] and [+/- animate] of Noun Phrase (NP). She takes only two existential constructions used in Turkish for the purpose of her study. The first is the presentative existentials in the form of NP + locative suffix (Loc) + NP+ var/yok:

> *Ağaç - ta bir kuş var.*
>
> NP + LOC+ one bird + exist
>
> There is a bird in the tree.

The second is possessive existential generally formed as (NP + Loc) NP + gen NP + poss var/yok:

Selim + in çok oyuncağ + ı var

NP + GEN + many toy + POSS 3SG exist

Selim has many toys.

Ev + de Selim+ in çok oyuncağ + ı var

NP + Loc + NP + gen + many toy + poss 3SG exist

Selim has many toys at home.

In presentative existentials, the nominative NP is required to be indefinite and to occur in the position only before the predicate. Therefore, *Bir kuş ağaç + ta var* and *Ağaç + ta var bir kuş* are all ungrammatical structures. Unlike presentative existentials, possessive existentials have some variations in the predicates. Related to the sentence above, different variations are possible, as follows:

Ev + de Selim+ in çok oyuncağ + ı var

Selim+ in ev + de çok oyuncağ + ı var

Selim+ in çok oyuncağ + ı var **ev + de**

Ev + de çok oyuncağ + ı var **Selim+ in**

Due to practical reasons the scope of this study is limited to spoken production in Turkish at the A1 and A2 levels as described in the CEFR in terms of communicative acts and activities. It concentrates solely on the possible grammatical, lexical and phonological developments of adult Turkish-language learners at these two levels, mainly due to the time constraints and class availability for other levels. In order to realise this, it is important to set parameters that could shed light on the acquisitional pathway so that learner's development could be monitored. Thus, nine parts of speech (i.e. noun, pronoun,

adjective, adverb, verb, conjunction, particle and interjection) that constitute Turkish language were considered as the reference point in setting the parameters for this research. Adjectives include all the descriptive and indefinite adjectives; adverbs include all the adverbs derived from verbs; conjunctions include coordinative conjunctions (for, and, but, or, so), correlative conjunctions (either...or, not only...but also, may, etc...) and subordinating conjunctions (although, because, before, after, even if, as far as, as long as, even though, in order that, since, unless, until, whereas, while); particles (for, with, because of, like, in order to, about etc.),and interjections include all the exclamations to express emotions and sounds in Turkish. Those nine parts of speech in Turkish were also referred as the major research subjects in the major studies in Turkish-language acquisition as referred above.

In this research, noun and pronoun use of the learners were investigated under the grammatical development. Verbs were also investigated within grammatical development in order to describe the use of tenses amongst the learners. On the other hand, verbs were also considered within the lexical development (see section 2.6.2. below). Moreover, nouns were decided to be investigated according to the use of cases and compound nouns and pronouns were decided to be investigated as possessive and personal pronouns accordingly. In addition to these, buffer letters, negation and plural suffix were also considered as significant reference points in describing the grammatical development as the use of buffer letters is an important characteristic of Turkish language and negation has two different versions unlike English. In line with these, the list of grammatical development for A1 and A2 levels in the CEFR to be investigated in this study are summarised in the table below.

Dative, locative and ablative cases of the noun
Personal pronoun suffixes
Possessive pronoun suffixes
Tenses
Buffer letters
Compound Noun
Negation-mA
Negation-Değil
Participles
Question particle
Plural suffix

Table 2.2: Grammatical control

2.6.2 Lexical control

Communicative language use is the focus of the CEFR. As lexical development is required for communicative language use, it is important in this study to observe the emergence of lexical development coinciding with grammatical development. In line with this, Aksu-Koç and Slobin (1985) suggest that lexical development is better considered together with the cognitive development of children. Social interaction as an element facilitating cognitive development is also assumed to be important for the emergence of certain lexical developments (i.e. the emergence of correct use of *'sen-siz'*, 'tu-vous' depends on the child's social observation and interaction in the language). Furthermore, lexical development as the other main indicator of acquisition is subject to many external and internal variables as mentioned earlier in section 2.4.1.

Since patterns of lexical development in Turkish-language acquisition by adults has not been the subject of any empirical study so far, this aspect of this study relies on

transcriptions. Thus, this project is a starting point in attempting to describe the patterns of lexical development in Turkish-language development by adults. A pertinent example is given below:

In Turkish *A kadar* may mean both **until** and **by** in English.

A – kadar

Sabaha kadar uyumadım.

'I did not sleep **until** morning.'

Saat 7'ye kadar beni araman gerekiyor.

'You must call me **by** 7:00 a.m.'

The development of this particular lexical item (the particle -E kadar) requires more attention which may possibly hinder the communicative use of Turkish by adult learners. At the same time, however, adjective and noun orders are identical in Turkish and English:

Kırmızı+ elbise + güzel.

'Red + dress + beautiful'

'The red dress is beautiful.'

Learners may therefore benefit from the knowledge they already possess in their mother tongue and may apply this in lexical as well as grammatical development.

As mentioned earlier, Turkish has nine parts of speech (i.e. noun, pronoun, adjective, adverb, verb, postposition, conjunction, particle and interjection). Among these nine parts of speech, nouns, pronouns and verbs were investigated within the grammatical control due to the grammatically complex structure of these parts of speech in Turkish. The rest of the

parts of speech in Turkish were decided to be investigated within the lexical control of the learners. In Turkish, postpositions could be considered as particles. Moreover, existentials (var/yok) were also considered as significant subjects due to the multiple meaning of existentials in Turkish (there is/are and have/has). On the other hand, the top 20 most used nouns and verbs were also decided to be highlighted as the target and non target use of those most frequently used verbs and nouns might provide some information for the textbook writers and the curriculum designers regarding the contexts and language functions of the learners at the A1 and A2 levels. Throughout this thesis, by using the term 'target use' it aims to describe the correct meaning/use of the word/structure, correct selection of the form and correct pronunciation of the word. Accordingly, the term 'non target use' refers to incorrect meaning/use of the word/structure, incorrect selection of the form and incorrect pronunciation.

In line with these, below is the list of items used in investigating the lexical control of Turkish language learners.

Items for Lexical control
20 Most Frequently Used Nouns
20 Most Frequently Used Verbs
Existential
Conjunction
Interjection
Particle
Adjective
Adverb

Table 2.3: Lexical control

2.6.3 Phonological control

Communicative language use is at the heart of the CEFR. Phonological control in communication has vital importance for many languages, including Turkish, as mispronunciation of one single phoneme might hinder communication. As already mentioned before in this Chapter, Turkish is an agglutinative language and suffixes play important role in making the language meaningful. However, the knowledge of suffixes all alone cannot guarantee correct phonological production in Turkish.

Vowel harmony is the major rule in Turkish language pronunciation which governs the way the words and suffixes sound. It is described by Altan (n.d):

> vowel harmony can be described as a set of constraints on the co-occurance of vowels that hold both within a morpheme and across morpheme boundaries. It is a process where vowels in a given word tend to be similar that is, they share backness, height, ATR features or rounding.

There are eight vowels in Turkish (a, ı, o, u, e, i, ö, ü). They consist of two groups according to how palatal is shaped when uttered. The first group is called back vowels (a, ı, o, u). The second group is (e, i, ö, ü). Any suffix that is added to a noun, pronoun, adjective etc. has to follow the vowel harmony rule. The application of vowel harmony rule depends on the last vowel in the last syllable in a word and the suffix is added in line with the last vowel in the last syllable to that word. For instance:

Kahvehaneden geldim.

Kahvehane den gel di m

Coffee-shop from came I

'I came from the coffee-shop'

Although there is a back vowel *(a)* before the front vowel *(e)* at the end of the word, it has no effect on the suffix. Therefore, the ablative case suffix *(den)* take the front vowel *(e)* instead of the second option *(dan).* On the other hand there are some exceptions to this rule: *saat* (hour/clock) and *harf* (letter/alphabet). In the word *saat,* although the last vowel is a back vowel, when it is used with plural suffix lEr, it becomes *saatler.* The same applies for the word *harf.* It becomes *harfler.*

Having defined grammatical, lexical and grammatical control, the next section explores some possible internal factors related to Turkish language learning.

2.7 Possible internal factors related to Turkish-language acquisition

As discussed earlier in this chapter, there is a very wide range of individual differences in language learners. From the dynamic systems perspective, internal sources refer to resources within the language learner and external sources to those outside of the learner. Both are constantly interacting. For instance, when a child grows he interacts more with the environment, which provides more demanding tasks resulting in more input and interaction. Similarly, the language input received by an adult changes when he moves to a different country. This may lead to differences in language use and there may be a decline in language skills. De Bot and Makoni describe this interlinked structure of resources as the "cognitive eco-system: each person has his or her own particular cognitive ecosystem consisting of internal as well as external or environmental aspects" (2005: 9 cited in van Geert 1994: 314). Lantolf adds a further aspect, namely 'artifacts' including all physical objects from books to furniture or, put another way, everything that is "socially constructed artifacts that impact how we live and think" (2007: 31). Considering the scope of the study,

I concentrated on two internal factors that are considered the most relevant and observable in individual differences among Turkish learners. Firstly, the impact of age was investigated in detail as the most accurate information that could be obtained from research participants. Secondly, motivation was considered as it relates to social influences beyond the classroom.

2.7.1. Age

The possible effect of age on language acquisition has been mentioned earlier. Age is a particularly relevant factor in studies on second language acquisition in adults and children. Positions range from the view that children are more efficient and effective second language learners than adults to suggestions that adults do better than children in respect of second language as discussed above. It is important to mention Singleton and Ryan's point of balanced position once again that "in situations of 'naturalistic' exposure, while older beginners tend to outperform their juniors – at least in some respect – in the initial stages of learning, in terms of long-term outcomes, generally speaking, the earlier exposure to the target language begins the better" (1995: 2). Moreover, Singleton and Ryan state that in terms of certain aspects of L2 development (phonology in particular) young L2 learners perform better than mature L2 learners, although it is difficult to prove the existence of a strict 'critical period' (see Singleton and Ryan 2004 for reviews of studies). This point of view is in line with the dynamic systems perspective which suggests that development will not last unless the resources end. This study may also provide insights on approaching the effect of age from the DST perspective as learners varied in age from 17 to 50+ years.

From the DST perspective, language development is considered a dynamic system that continues to develop with no endpoint. This counters the idea that the end of puberty sees

the end of L1 development. Many factors that are likely to occur after puberty such as education, job opportunities or requirements, personal relations, new hobbies, or even retirement, may result in post-puberty language development.

In DST, resources are imperative components to keep the systems going and without them the system will not lead to development. In this respect, there are different types of resources in language development in respect of ageing. Among these different types of resources, working memory, inhibition, speed of processing and education come to the fore, together with some social resources such as social and linguistic environment. In line with the basic principles in DST, all these resources interact in defining language use and language skills and they are important elements in describing the decline of language skills and other changes in language use. With age, are peripheral changes in auditory and vision abilities together with critical changes in different cognitive systems. Reduction in working memory results in problems with language production and perception by age. On the other hand, higher educational attainment in adults leads to more advanced linguistic skills in expressing different intentions in communication together with extensive vocabulary.

De Bot and Makoni describe language proficiency as skilled behaviour and claim that skills will decline if 'regular training' is not applied. Language use is also considered as a kind of 'top sport' that requires complex cognitive and physical states of individuals (2005: 135). A result of a decline in working memory or speed in processing may lead to the reduction of the ability in language use. This socio- and psycholinguistic perspective of age in DST is significant in the sense of age being an interrelated feature only to Turkish language acquisition both in classroom context as a foreign language in Ireland and the L2 context in Turkey.

2.7.2. Motivation

Motivation is considered an important element for this study in respect of learners coming from an English-speaking country. The dominance of the USA in economy and culture has resulted in English becoming the global *lingua franca* together with the effect of English-language use in the Internet. This may be considered the reason for limited interest towards different languages in English-speaking countries. In reference to the USA, Falk and Kanach state that "...learning a foreign language is at most an academic exercise without much utility in careers and mature lives sets our citizens off from most other educated peoples on the planet" (2000: 165). They also point out that even if some people have different languages due to their ethnic heritage, they soon forget them in an English-speaking country. This may explain why some people seem to express their surprise at Turkish-language courses being offered to adults in Trinity College Dublin. As the language instructor, I am generally asked about the reasons for Irish adults choosing to learn Turkish. Indeed, the motivation of adult learners coming from an English-speaking country to learn Turkish as a foreign language is important to understand when it comes to Turkish-language acquisition. Marinova-Todd, Marshall and Snow state that "the misconception that adults cannot master foreign language is as widespread as it is erroneous" (2000: 27). However, they draw attention to the impact of motivation and, in relation to lack of success, they conclude that "most adult learners fail to engage in the task with sufficient motivation, commitment of time or energy and support from the environments in which they find themselves" (ibid.). Dörnyei also sees motivation as a tool which "provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain language and often tedious learning process" (2005: 65).

As discussed above, Gardner divides learners' goals into two broad categories: the integrative orientation and instrumental orientation. Dörnyei later reinterpreted the integrative motivation known as 'self system'. The L2 motivational self system proposes the idea of 'possible selves' which "give form, meaning, structure and direction to one's hopes and threats, thereby inciting and directing possible behaviour" (2005: 100). Dörnyei also proposes three dimensions in defining the L2 motivational self system: Ideal L2 self, ought to L2 self and situation specific motives. Ideal L2 self is described as "the L2 specific facet of one's ideal self" (ibid.: 105). In other words, it refers to the person who desires to become like the person who speaks L2. Therefore, having a picture in one's mind as a fluent L2 speaker is a significant motivational factor in learning a target language. As mentioned earlier, this 'ideal L2 self' is also connected to the integrativeness, which refers to the orientation and attitudes to the community of L2 and willingness and interest in learning foreign languages in general (Dörnyei and Skehan 2003: 614). As the second dimension, 'the ought to self' refers to "the attributes that one believes one ought to possess...in order to avoid possible negative outcomes" (ibid.: 105). As it relates more to personal responsibilities and/or obligations, this dimension can be considered in relation to extrinsic motivation and with more instrumental motivational factors. The third dimension is related to the L2 learning experiences and situation specific motives related to the immediate learning environment. Social influences beyond the classroom were also considered under this dimension. Considering the above, motivation was approached in this study's research design (in the background questionnaire presented in the next chapter) from four main perspectives:

a) Integrativeness - general attitudes towards the Turkish language and Turkish culture

b) Direct contact with L2 speakers – motivation and/or attitude of adult learners to have contact with and/or meet Turkish speakers and/or to travel to Turkey to visit or to live there

c) Culture – motivation to have access to cultural products such as films and movies or TV series (the impact of Turkish TV serials on demand for learning Turkish was discussed in Chapter 1)

d) Instrumental reasons – motivations related to pragmatic benefits (occupational, educational, retirement, etc.)

2.8 Possible External Factors related to Turkish-language acquisition

As described in above, various approaches to SLA, including the dynamic system approach in particular, refer to the role of interaction as an important factor in second language acquisition, although they vary in degree. Moreover, as discussed above, individual differences should be considered together with external factors. It is imperative to have this inclusive perspective in order to compare the data obtained from research participants to the benchmarks in the CEFR, which allows for a full account of Turkish-language acquisition by adult learners rather than considering them as two isolated factors. Thus, context of learning and interaction were considered under external factors.

2.8.1. Context of learning

As discussed above, language learning context tends to be seen in two forms, either 'naturalistic' or 'instructed'. In the naturalistic context learners acquire the target language through real life experiences, like in the case of a Hindu software developer in Ireland for occupational reasons. Instructed context refers to the classroom environment where the target language is acquired through instruction, as in the case of an American student learning Spanish in America where Spanish is not spoken in everyday communication

beyond the classroom. Krashen's 'Monitor Theory' originally proposes the difference between acquisition and learning and claimed that acquisition is more associated with naturalistic context and learning with classroom situations (1982, 1985, cited in Doughty 2003: 258; Ellis 2008: 7). Yet this contradicts the idea suggested in the DST that language can be acquired throughout the lifespan. The present study examines adult learners of Turkish in Ireland who benefit from both contexts: they attend Turkish classes at Trinity College Dublin (the instructed context) and most of them have houses and spend most of their holidays in Turkey or they have Turkish relatives living with them in Ireland (the naturalistic context).

The interaction between these different learning contexts is related to two types of learning: implicit and explicit. Explicit learning is defined as "learning that takes place without either intentionality or awareness" (Ellis 2008: 7). However, it is also important to note the importance of awareness and it is claimed that "such an approach....cannot guarantee that the learning took place without awareness" (ibid.). On the other hand, implicit learning is related to inferring rules without awareness. On balance, both explicit and implicit mechanisms can be referred to in L2 development and the amount of use in fact depends on learners' characteristics, age and learning style during development. Ellis suggests the existence of an interface between implicit and explicit learning (see Ellis 2008: unit 11 for discussion). Furthermore DeKeyser points out that "learners with high verbal ability can use explicit learning mechanisms to bypass the increasingly inefficient implicit mechanisms" (2000: 518). In relation to the importance of explicit knowledge, it is also pointed out that "no adults reached a native level of competence in L2 morphosyntax unless they had been able to rely on explicit, analytic, problem solving capacities" (ibid.: 518). In other words, it is proposed that explicit learning is essential in mastering at least some grammatical features, if not all.

Considering the explicit and implicit processes as combinations in L2 development, it may be more appropriate to refer to the terms 'incidental' and 'intentional' as discussed by Hulstijn (2003). From this perspective, instructed context is associated with intentional learning - the classroom setting - and naturalistic context is associated with the means that offer more incidental learning opportunities – for instance, the learners' daily talk with their neighbours in Turkey. If we consider Turkish-language acquisition as a process that benefits from both implicit and explicit learning situations and which may be associated with incidental or intentional learning, it is appropriate to investigate the possible influence of these different learning contexts on such acquisition.

2.8.2. Interaction

The role of communication is mainly highlighted by Vygotsky's socicultural theory (1986), mentioned briefly earlier. He claims that social interaction results in linguistic and cognitive development. He also suggested the term 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD) which is defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (1978: 86). From this point of view, peer collaboration (even though one may be no more capable than the other) is important and may be considered as an environment where learners benefit more than they would from teacher-learner interaction.

In line with DST, this study considers the concept of language use as a means of interaction as an essential external factor in Turkish-language acquisition. The learners in this study need to communicate and interact with each other for academic purposes (mainly in classroom context) and for social purposes (mainly when they are in Turkey).

Therefore, it is relevant to investigate how interaction (oral interaction) may affect Turkish-language acquisition. The natural environment in Turkey, which mainly constitutes interaction for social purposes, is not possible to observe. The investigation was therefore mainly on the classroom context.

In this respect, it is important to consider classroom interaction as the main source of 'input'. According to Gass and Selinker, "the interaction approach accounts for learning through input (exposure to language), production of language (output), and feedback that comes as a result of interaction" (2008: 317). Input refers to "what is available to the learner" (ibid.: 305). This input can be converted to 'intake' by the learners (Corder 1967 originally suggested the distinction between 'input' and 'intake'; see also Gass and Selinker 2008: 305). Therefore, the classroom context is an available situation for learners to convert input into intake by offering communication opportunities to internalise the input. If the input is not integrated into the language system of the learners, it may mean "it goes in one ear and out the other" (Gass and Selinker 2008: 305).

Other research, namely that of Swain (1985), has suggested that input alone is not sufficient for L2 development. She proposed the 'Comprehensible Output Hypothesis' where she points out the importance of output as a tool to stimulate the new knowledge to be internalised through interaction. She concluded that comprehensible input cannot be sufficient alone to claim that the learners reached higher levels of grammatical and/or sociolinguistic competences. Swain suggested that this may result from the limited opportunity to talk in the classroom setting and that learners are not really 'pushed' to produce output as would be in a natural situation. She concluded that learners need to follow a syntactical process in production and they need to pay attention to the form as well. The findings reveal that the relation between input, intake and output in terms of

shedding light on how L2 development takes place in the classroom setting is a complex issue. Furthermore, as pointed out by Ellis, "whether output assists learners to acquire new linguistic forms or only to automatize use of partially acquired forms" is not yet clear (2008: 265). This may be true in the context where output is merely repetition, rather than actual use of a newly learned structure in L

Yet, as Gass and Selinker summarise, "output provides learners the opportunities to produce language and gain feedback" (2008: 345). The received feedback may draw the learners' attention to particular aspects of their speech and this may lead to noticing the deficiency or mismatch between the speech of the interlocutor and their own (ibid.: 345). This may encourage learners to 'focus on form' and thus become more aware of the linguistic structures in the target language. The relation between output and noticing is significant to this study as Turkish, being an agglutinative language, requires attention to form as well as meaning as one single letter ('m' and 'n' in the example below) may change the whole meaning of a sentence:

Kemerim sıkı.

'Belt – 1SGPOSS - tight

Kemerin sıkı.

'Belt – 2SGPOSS – tight

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter has defined L2 acquisition by adult learners from different perspectives offered by various theoretical grounds together with differences and similarities relevant to the present study. I have described the main features of the Turkish language in general and some specific features of grammatical, lexical and phonological development. Lastly, I

have outlined the external and internal factors possibly effecting Turkish-language acquisition by adults in relation to the literature in the field.

Chapter Three: Research Design

3.1. Introduction

The rationale of this study arises from an agreed need to inform the learning outcomes in the CEFR through empirical evidence, in turn enabling the creation of Turkish-language descriptors for spoken interaction. This chapter describes the research design employed in this study. It firstly presents the general research context and sample population. It then goes to explore some of the key features of conducting ethical research. The following section explains the data collection instruments and procedures utilised in this research study. The remaining sections of this chapter provide an account of the data collection procedures and data analysis, together with the limitations and challenges encountered.

3.2. Research Design

The following research aim guided the project's design, data collection tools and analysis:

> *How can the scaled descriptors in the CEFR for grammatical, lexical and phonological control be expanded for use by adults learning Turkish at A1 and A2 proficiency levels?*

This research aims to fill in a gap in the field of foreign language learning and teaching with particular reference to Turkish as a foreign/L2 language. It also aims to provide information for the textbook writers and curriculum designers by shedding light on what the learners are actually able to do in Turkish in A1 and A2 levels. It also aims to base our understanding on what really takes place in a real Turkish language classroom rather than

assumptions based on other foreign language teaching and learning situations (most of which are European languages).

To answer the research question – in other words to find a sound empirical basis for the elaboration of expanded descriptors – required the collection of sufficient data regarding the actual Turkish-language development of L2 learners. A longitudinal study involving audio recordings of Turkish language use in group settings in the language classroom appeared to be the most appropriate way to collect sufficient and valid evidence of foreign/L2 Turkish-language development in terms of grammatical, lexical and phonological control. These recordings were then analysed and mapped against the descriptors contained in the CEFR. The main data collection phase in this study was based on audio recordings of the participants' language use as they performed tasks in the classroom. These classroom recordings were transcribed and analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Background questionnaires constituted the secondary method. This background questionnaire was applied aiming to set the scene in the research and to provide background information about the research participants' profile. The three subgoals of the study were, through analysis of examples of learners' language use, to describe the grammatical, lexical and phonological control of Turkish L2 learners – three core aspects of spoken interaction, and each representing particular challenges for students learning Turkish.

3.2.1. Selecting a Research Method

The choice of methods should be considered in terms of the best way of answering the research questions. Brannen argues that "choice of method is in part linked to the nature of the research question(s) and needs to take account of their epistemological bases" (2005:

11). Whilst two clear historical traditions have emerged of quantitative and qualitative research, Neale and Flowerdew argue that these "two traditions" are complementary (2003: 197). This project collects spoken discourse as well as background information on students, both sets of data are analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The arguments favouring the application of various different types of data collection tools and analytical tools are plentiful (e.g. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004; Dörnyei 2007; Creswell 2009; Tashakkori and Teddlie 2010). Dörnyei explains that "different combinations of qualitative and quantitative research either at the data collection or at the analysis levels" (2007: 24), offer multi-level opportunities for analysis in investigating complex phenomena such as second language learning:

> Words can be used to add meaning to numbers and numbers can be used to add precision to words. It is easy to think of situations in applied linguistics when we are interested at the same time in both the exact nature (i.e. QUAL) and the distribution (i.e. QUAN) of a phenomenon (Dörnyei, 2007: 45).

Particularly in the case for classroom studies which range over many weeks, it appears that a "combination of qualitative and quantitative methods might be appropriate to do longitudinal analysis full justice" (ibid: 88). Ortega and Iberri-Shea specifically encourage the application of mixed research methods in longitudinal research (2005: 37). Indeed, one of the key features here that the combination of quantitative and qualitative data collection methods and analysis may be applied flexibly, especially in terms of how the weight of each type of research tradition (i.e. qualitative over quantitative or QUAL/quan versus quantitative over qualitative or QUAN/qual) is implemented. The second key feature that makes mixed method research a useful tool for capturing data within complex situations is that it allows for methodological triangulation, "the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods and data to study the same phenomena within the same study" (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998: 18). Dörnyei describes triangulation as a concept involving "multiple

methods, sources or perspectives in a research project" (2007: 61). He also suggests that, from the triangulation perspective, mixed methods could offer more comprehensive tools in order to increase the validity and reliability of the research when compared with QUAL or QUAN methods alone as they allow the researchers to gather and analyse information from both qualitative and quantitative data types (ibid: 62).

The mixed method research designs developed by Creswell are particularly relevant to this study. He suggests (Creswell 2009: 209-210) a model described as a *concurrent embedded design*, which serves the aims of the present research. In concurrent embedded design there is a single data collection phase during which all qualitative and quantitative data are collected simultaneously. It includes a primary (or priority) method supplemented by a secondary method (lower priority) embedded in the primary method. These two methods can be either qualitative or quantitative (Creswell 2009: 214). This embedding plays an important role as "the secondary method addresses a different question than the primary method ... the data may also not be compared but reside side by side as two different pictures that provide an overall composite assessment of the problem" (ibid.). This concurrent embedded design enables the researcher to gain broader perspective on a complex subject and to approach different research questions simultaneously. All in all, by offering the use of predominant (classroom recordings) and embedded methods (background questionnaire) simultaneously, this concurrent embedded design provided opportunities to explore the project's research question within the parameters of a classroom study. The section below provides information on the context of the research project.

3.3. Research context

The context of this research is the Turkish language programme run by the Centre for Languages and Communication Studies (CLCS) at Trinity College Dublin. The CLCS was founded in 1979 and is part of the School of Linguistic, Speech and Communication Sciences. It is a centre of research in linguistics, applied linguistics, second language acquisition research, and phonetics and speech science in particular, and provides language courses at undergraduate and postgraduate levels both as credit-bearing and optional modules. The extramural programme in Turkish is an example of one of the CLCS optional evening language programmes offered to members of the general public on a fee-paying basis. Similar programmes are offered in Japanese, Korean and Mandarin Chinese. These extramural evening classes for the general public form part of the university's commitment to lifelong learning, and attract learners from all walks of life and ages. Trinity's wide range of fee-paying evening and short courses includes not just the language courses but also courses in psychology, neuroscience, history of art and so forth. Attendees may be working full-time or part-time or retired, and represent a very diverse student body.

3.3.1. The Turkish language programme at Trinity College

The extramural aspect of the Turkish language programme offers classes for learners at three levels: (i) Introduction to Turkish Language and Culture, (ii) Post-beginners Turkish and (iii) Intermediate Turkish. Turkish extramural classes run on Tuesday (Introduction class), Wednesday (Post-beginners class) and Thursday (Intermediate class) in the evenings from 6.30pm to 8.30pm. The overall aims of extramural Turkish are to introduce some important aspects of Turkish culture to learners, to introduce basic everyday spoken Turkish and to extend learners' communicative capacities to live in a community where

Turkish is spoken. Generally, the Turkish evening classes tend to have more female than male students, and often the students have a Turkish spouse or Turkish relatives living in Ireland. Those enrolled in the Turkish class tend to have properties in Turkey where they spend their holidays.

Class sizes are relatively small, and there is a certain inevitable attrition at the beginning of each year, where learners either fail to attend at all despite paying their fee, or drop out fairly early on in the course. The total number of learners in these courses in 2012-2013 academic year, the year of data collection, is given in the table below. Ten students enrolled in Introduction to Turkish Language and culture module (described henceforth as the Beginner module), with the same eight regular attendees participating on a weekly basis. The Post-beginner module had a similar attrition rate, with six initial registrations and four regular attendees. The Intermediate class had eight regular attendees. These numbers are representative of class enrolment numbers in previous years.

Proficiency level	Registered students	Regular attendees
Beginner	10	9
Post-beginner	6	4
Intermediate	8	8

Table 3.1: Class sizes

The beginner level learners consist of learners who have no or very little Turkish language knowledge before. The post beginner level learners are learners who have already completed beginner level Turkish class in Trinity College or elsewhere. The intermediate level learners consist of learners who have completed post beginner level in Trinity College or elsewhere. On the other hand, when a new learner who has not been enrolled in Trinity College Turkish language course before would like to join Turkish classes, no

placement test is carried out. The placement of the learner depends on discussion with the learner and the teacher. If a learner presents his/her previous Turkish language knowledge to the teacher as none, then the learner with no previous Turkish language knowledge is placed in the beginner level. However, on the occasions when a learner would like join the Turkish classes and claims to have some Turkish language knowledge before, then the learner is invited to take part in both post beginner and intermediate level classes by the teacher for the first week of the term in order to provide him/her a chance where she/he can observe the classroom level and the course materials. During this first week, the teacher also monitors the learner and at the end of the first week, the learners and the teacher discuss the level in each class and the learners' level. After discussing the level together with the learner and the teacher, the learner is placed accordingly. It is important to note that the learners who claim to have previous Turkish language knowledge might find both the post beginner and intermediate level too advanced for their level. Then, these learners are placed in the beginner level in order to prevent any possible feeling of failure when placed in upper levels. This is also done with consultation.

3.4. Data Collection

As my discussion above of the concurrent embedded design employed in this study indicates, there was a single data collection phase during which all the qualitative and quantitative data were collected simultaneously. The primary guiding method was classroom audio recordings; secondary data was gathered through a background questionnaire administered to students. This questionnaire was administered only to provide background information regarding the research participants 'profile, thus the data regarding the questionnaire was treated as such and measured and evaluated aiming to set

85

the research scene only. In this section, I firstly explore some issues relating to conducting research in an ethical manner before turning to account for the data collection procedures.

3.4.1. Conducting Ethical Research

For research projects to be conducted in an ethical manner, they should follow some guiding criteria. The British Educational Research Association (BERA) has recognised five main principles regarding ethics in research. These are:

1. Minimising harm

2. Respecting autonomy

3. Protecting privacy

4. Offering reciprocity

5. Treating people equitably.

Minimising harm is related especially to research among vulnerable groups such as children or the disabled. This principle avoids any possible harm to the participants throughout the project. Respecting autonomy means that during the project the participants have power to make their own decisions, in other words it involves the notion of informed consent. They are free to choose whether to participate or not and are fully informed about the nature of the project and what will happen to the data collected by the researcher. It also includes respect for participants' beliefs, customs and cultures. Protecting privacy is also related to respect for participants, confidentiality of the data and the participants' identities. In research reports necessary measures need to be taken in order to protect privacy of the participants. Offering reciprocity in research allows the participants to have access to data. It also includes providing sufficient time for the participants to read a

document or a questionnaire to respond or what the researcher offers participants in return. In some research projects, the researcher might be in contact with many different groups or individuals during the research and treating people equitably ensures that none of the participants are favoured or discriminated.

Considering this study and the research population, the participants were not a vulnerable group. It was a cohort of adult learners participating in Turkish language course as an extramural course. Therefore, there was no risk of possible harm. The participants were clearly informed in the participant information leaflet that they were free to choose to participate or not to participate and even they agreed to participate, they could always withdraw their consent without any consequences in order to respect the autonomy of the individuals. The participant information leaflet and consent form as well as other accompanying ethics review documents can be seen in Appendix 1. Participants' audio recordings were kept in the researcher's computer with a password. Participants were assigned codes in the transcribed data and the transcribed data was archived using encryption software. It is important to note that there was one case in the intermediate level where there was a Turkish speaking guest, a Turkish exchange student in Trinity College who was invited to class to speak with the learners in Turkish. This Turkish exchange student was tagged as TES in the intermediate level scripts (see Appendix Four for transcripts for all levels) and is not included in the count of participants.

This research was classroom-based, where I was the teacher-researcher. This was a challenging task both for me and for the learners as this represented a potential conflict of interest in the research. A cautious approach was followed in order not to create any discomfort among the learners. For example, before asking for the learner consent to take part in the research, I waited several weeks to ensure the class was up and running

successfully. Learners were informed explicitly that not participating in the project would not impact in any way on their success in the Turkish language programme.

Once research ethics approval was obtained from the School of Linguistic, Speech and Communication Sciences, the learners in the Turkish extramural programme were informed about this study in general. Following a brief introduction by the teacher/research, it was also explained they would all receive an email from a gatekeeper – the extramural programme's academic coordinator – to all levels of Turkish learners, inviting their participation in this project. Students were given one week to respond to this request (see Appendix 1) and were asked to drop a signed consent form into the mailbox of the researcher in the CLCS office. Learners who did not want to participate could simply do nothing.

It was explained in the information leaflet that audio recordings would be organised during Turkish lessons. In the case were some students did not agree to participate, the audio recording device would be switched on only when all the participants who had consented to take part were working together, to be facilitated through teacher-directed pair/group work organisation. The information leaflet also explained that the audio recordings would take place only when research participants were using the target language. Utterances in English would not be transcribed unless found vital in making the transcription meaningful or comprehensible. The audio recordings would take place during regular Turkish class hours in the classroom, and no additional extra time was necessary to participate in the project apart from the time taken to complete the background questionnaire.

By the beginning of October 2012, all consent forms had been returned, and in fact all Turkish learners in all levels agreed to participate in the research project. All participants

were provided with one consent form signed by the researcher and signed by themselves to keep for their files as well as a copy of the information leaflet. Data collection commenced on 22 October 2012 and continued until the end of the second teaching term, the week ending 6 April 2013.

3.4.2. Classroom Audio Recordings

In investigations of L2 learning, samples of learners' language production form the primary source of data, comprising evidence of learning. L2 researchers in general rely on samples of speech and writing in order to describe the outcomes of and milestones in learning process. Ellis and Barkhuizen suggest that "audio recording is likely to provide the best data" for describing the language process (2005:27). Han and Yao used classroom audio recordings in their case study of the bilingual student-teachers' classroom. They suggest that "the actual features of the learners English use in teaching practice, rather than perception based evidence could be captured and analysed" (2013: 122). Catibušic (2011) used audio recordings as the main data collection tool in research on the relationship between pupils' achievement and the learning outcomes specified in the Irish primary curriculum's English Language Proficiency Benchmarks. She explains that in her study "the data should be as representative as possible" and "it should cover a wide variety of learning activities which could then be compared to a comprehensive range of Benchmark descriptors" (Catibušic: 198), similar to the aims of this study. Catibušic and Little (2014) provide a full account of their benchmarking process using learner discourse to determine what learners were able to do. Their design in terms of data collection methods and mapping against descriptors of language use helped shape this study.

Considering audio recording as the primary data collection tool, it was decided to bring the audio recording device into the classroom in every lesson to collect a sufficient body of

data. The aim was to capture as much Turkish language use among learners both within or outside of tasks. The Turkish classes were usually organised in a u-shaped position with the teacher located at the centre. This class organization was maintained during the research project. In order to facilitate the accuracy of the audio recordings, those participants who consented to be recorded would be asked to sit side by side in the u-shape during class hours. In the end, as all students agreed to participate, it was not necessary to re-arrange groups according to students who had consented to take part. A compact, high-quality recording device (Olympus VN713PC) was purchased for the project. This portable digital voice recording device had an integrated calendar that enabled me to move back and forth easily among different classes and dates. Its compact size eliminated any discomfort the participants might feel when being recorded. The u-shape was maintained in the classroom to ensure the quality of the recordings.

3.4.3. Background Questionnaire

The secondary data collection instrument employed in this study was a background questionnaire (Appendix 2), designed to capture some specific information about the learners involved in the project in order to provide detailed information regarding the research participants. According to Nunan, a questionnaire "enables the researcher to collect data in the field settings and the data themselves are more amenable to qualification than discursive data" (1992: 143). Nunan (1992: 143-145) and Dörnyei (2003: 10-14) also draw attention to disadvantages of questionnaires, particularly when they are poorly constructed and administered. Dörnyei warns that "it is very easy to produce unreliable and invalid data by means of ill-constructed questionnaires" (ibid: 10). In order to avoid this, there are certain points that the researcher needs to be careful in designing a questionnaire. For instance, the researcher should be careful about the question wording.

Nunan explains that "questions should not be complex and confusing, nor should they ask more than one thing at a time" (1992: 143). Dörnyei also draws attention to the length and layout of a well-constructed questionnaire (ibid: 17). He suggests that a thirty-minute completion time and four-page limit is about the optimal length for a questionnaire. Regarding the layout, he mentions five main points; booklet format, appropriate density, orderly layout, paper quality and sequence marking (2003: 19-21). He also draws attention to the need to have explicit content specification so that the questionnaire addresses the crucial concepts in the research problem (ibid: 31), in other words so that the questionnaire data can be mapped onto the aims and questions in the main study in a systematic way.

Those points mentioned were considered in designing the background questionnaire. Firstly, information required to shed light on the research participants' profile was considered and the following items were selected for inclusion in the questionnaire:

a) Age

b) Motivation

c) Cultural and social experiences with the target language

d) Previous knowledge of foreign languages

e) Social influences beyond the classroom

f) Turkish language learning opportunities beyond the classroom.

Having decided on the general topics to be investigated via the questionnaire, the questionnaire type was then considered. In relation to content, it was decided to include the possible internal (age, motivation, cultural and social experiences with the target language) and external factors (context of learning and social influences) that might provide information regarding the learners' profile. The questionnaire was thus structured into

three sections. The first one related to general background information about the respondent. The second section included items concerning Turkish culture and the respondents' experiences with this culture. The third section was related to the respondents' Turkish-language learning experiences. The response format was Likert Scale. Finally, the layout was designed in which the questionnaire items and response boxes were shaded in different colours in order to help the respondents to track their responses. The background questionnaire was designed to be nine pages in length and took about twenty to thirty minutes to complete – a little longer than the optimal size described above given spacing, the inclusion of various internal and external factors, and the tabular and open response formats. It was designed on as an electronically distributed questionnaire (www.surveymonkey.com) as well as in paper form. The questionnaire was piloted and edited before administration, as explained below. The background questionnaire that was used in the study can be found in Appendix Two.

3.5. Data piloting and collection

Being the main data collection tool, it was decided to firstly pilot the classroom recording in the same classes where my study would take place. Audio recordings were piloted in the three proficiency levels in March and April 2012. Depending on the context, classroom tasks usually took between 10 and 30 minutes to complete in each session. At the beginning of each session the recording device was placed on a chair in the centre of the u-shape. However, sometimes I found I would have to move to the device whenever it was necessary to stop recordings, thus drawing more attention to it. I therefore decided to hold the recording device in my hand during the tasks as I moved between different groups and it was placed on a desk in the middle of the u-shape for longer tasks only.

Ellis and Barkhuizen, draw attention to two main possible disadvantages of audio recording: (i) learners might be uncomfortable by the presence of a recording device while they speak and (ii) the researcher's presence while the recording takes place (2005: 27). In the first few days of recording, the presence of the audio device in the classroom made the participants more conscious of their language production, which could be interpreted in terms of a less natural language production. However, as suggested by Ellis and Barkhuizen, they soon forgot the presence of the audio recording device and "behaved naturally" (ibid: 27). Catibusic also mentions some challenges of classroom research such as "researcher obstrusiveness" ((2011: 198). Any such disadvantage was eliminated as I was the teacher as well as the researcher in the classroom and this helped learners to overcome any possible discomfort. After two weeks of recording, the device proved to be practical and useful enough to commence with the actual data collection.

The background questionnaire was administered to a class that did not take part in the study. I learned that most participants took about twenty minutes to complete the instrument, and that it was agreed to be clear and user-friendly. No typing errors or inconsistencies were spotted. On completion, learners' responses to the questionnaire were evaluated and analysed. Following discussion with my supervisor, no revisions to the questionnaire were deemed necessary and plans were made for its administration in the three classes which took part in the main study.

The classroom audio recording began on the 22nd October 2012 and continued over two teaching terms in the three extramural Turkish classes. The academic year in Trinity College runs from the end of September to the beginning of April. As mentioned above, following piloting I found that it was most practical to keep the recording device mostly in my hand to stop and to start recording when necessary, focussing only on Turkish language

utterances during group and pair work. Classroom recordings took place during eighteen weeks out of the twenty-two teaching weeks of the year. At the end of the academic year, I had assembled approximately 15 hours of recordings of Turkish language use which was subsequently transcribed and tagged, equating approximately to an hour of speech per learner.

The breakdown of recording times is as follows:

- 288 minutes of recordings or 4.83 hours from the Beginner classes (A1 level)

- 251 minutes of recordings or 4.18 hours from the Post-beginner classes (A1 level)

- 325 minutes of recordings or 5.41 hours from the Intermediate classes (A2 level).

The corpus was based on a total set of recordings which lasted 864 minutes. The corpus contained 29,413 words. Of these, 8995 words were tagged relating to the three categories of interest. Verbal nouns were not tagged for instance, as they were beyond the scope of this study. Teacher utterances were not tagged. Words which were repeated in pronunciation exercises were not tagged if they occurred twice or three times immediately after each other in class where learners were trying to pronounce a particular phoneme. Proper names were tagged for suffixes.

A total of 21 background questionnaires were administered in both paper and electronic copies at the end of the project on 17 April 2013, with 19 responses received. The section below describes the data processing and data analysis in detail.

3.6. Learner corpus, data Processing and Analysis

This research project makes use of a tagged corpus of language learner discourse. As such it draws on corpus linguistics in the way that the data were assembled, organised and tagged and in order to make linguistic analyses. Corpus linguistics is a growing field in applied linguistics and represents a research approach which can yield new and interesting insights into frequency patterns of language use (McEnery and Wilson, 2001). The data which formed the corpus in this project are naturally occurring classroom data. In other words, the corpus is formed from classroom talk – classroom discussions, negotiation of tasks, questions, answers, and so forth. The classroom was not staged in any way for the project, and the recordings were based on the everyday activities in the programme in general, such as small group projects based on authentic materials. The CLCS language programmes all encourage extensive use of the target language from the outset, and use of resources drawn from everyday life as well as textbooks. Classes are designed to promote spontaneous oral communication. In the A1 (Beginner and Post-beginner) level classes, the teacher generally introduces a topic or explains a task in Turkish, translates into English, and then moves into Turkish again to elicit responses or launch the group activity. The classroom recordings were transcribed as soon as possible in order to have as an accurate account as possible, when the class was still fresh in the researcher's mind. Broad transcription techniques were used adopted from Schiffrin (1994). It usually took eight to ten hours to transcribe one hour of Turkish learner utterances. When transcribing the recorded classroom discourse, all the recorded utterances of the participants in Turkish were transcribed whilst use of English was eliminated unless found vital to the meaning of the Turkish. A broad transcription was deemed sufficient for the purpose of the study, and only major pauses (...) and hesitations (~) were indicated. Standard orthography was used. An example of transcribed data is shown below in Table 3.2. This systematically compiled learner corpus of spoken discourse was then manually tagged for the parts of speech

related to the three aspects of linguistic control defined in the study's research questions. This process is described below.

T: biraz uzak. Tamam güzel. Teşekkür ederim. POSTL1, senin evinin karşısında ne var? POSTL1: evimin karşısında park var. T: park var. Evinin yanında ne var? POSTL1: evimin yanında sokak var. T: sokak. Tamam peki evinin yakınında eczane var mı? POSTL1: emm, eczane yok. T: eczane yok. Peki evinin yakınında spor salonu var mı? POSTL1: yok. T: yok. Başka evinin… POSTL1: …ama alışveriş merkezi var. T: aaa alışveriş merkezi var, daha güzel. Tamam teşekkürler. POSTL4, evinin karşısında ne var? POSTL4: aa evinin karşısında yok. T: evinin karşısında ne var? POSTL4: evinin ~ T: senin evinin karşısında ne var? POSTL4: …. evinin~ T: evimin

Table 3.2: Transcription sample

3.6.1. Coding system employed in formal analysis of the transcriptions

In order to prepare the data for analysis of grammatical, lexical and phonological control by the learners, it was important to design and apply a coding system. Considering the amount of the data, purpose-made speech-tagging software was designed. Whilst there are many software tools available for tagging transcriptions in English, TRmorph developed by Coltekin is the only online available Turkish morphological analyser (http://coltekin.net/cagri/trmorph/). However, this morphological analyser provided only target-like use tags (grammatically correct Turkish). For words in a non target-like form (grammatically incorrect use), no tagging was possible. Many e-mails were exchanged between the researcher and Coltekin, but since TRmorph only provided analysis for target-like use of Turkish, this software package could not serve the aims of this research.

Altınyurt and et al (2006: 3) developed similar software, yet unfortunately it was not available for public use. He explained the difficulty of tagging the Turkish language:

> due to the rich derivational morphology of Turkish: a root word may easily be affixed with several derivational (and inflectional) suffixes and change its part of speech. This is a quite common situation in Turkish and hence the tagger, given a word in surface form, should determine the part of speech of the surface form of the word.

Encountering this challenge, it was decided to develop a software program specifically designed for this research project. Thus, a program was designed by the researcher which would address all the grammatical, lexical and phonological items to be included, how to tag different morphemes and which items to make dynamic or static. The program was called TurkishTag. It enabled the researcher to tag the entire transcribed data by hand as target or non-target like use of Turkish by the learners presented in the transcriptions. It took almost two weeks for the researcher to design the software and a Turkish software developer prepared the software in four weeks accordingly. Some minor changes were also made to TurkishTag along the way.

It took almost two months for the researcher to tag the relevant parts of the transcribed data, or an average of four hours per day. Tagging more than four hours in a day was proven to be inefficient and sometimes inaccurate due to the linguistically complex structure of Turkish.

As mentioned earlier, Turkish has nine parts of speech (i.e. noun, pronoun, adjective, adverb, verb, postposition, conjunction, particle and interjection). In TurkishTag, these nine parts of speech were included and categorized as grammatical, lexical and phonological control. The entire list of items used in TurkishTag was listed below in Table 3.3. The abbreviations used are explained at the start of this thesis.

Parts of speech	Tagging abbreviation
1st person singular	p1s
2nd person singular	p2s
3rd person singular	p3s
1st person plural	P1p
2nd person plural	p2Pp
3rd person plural	P3p
1st person possessive	POSS1S
2nd person possessive	POSS2S
3rd person possessive	POSS3S
1st person plural possessive	POSS1P
2nd person plural possessive	POSS2P
3rd person plural possessive	POSS3P
Question particle	Q
Request	Req
If conditional	Con
Adjective	Adj
Word order	Worder
Softening of consonants	SoftCons
Verb	V
Noun	N
Present continuous tense	Tpres
Present progressive tense	Tprog
Past continuous tense	TPastCon
Simple present tense	Tprog
Simple past tense (DI)	Tpast
Indirect evidence (MIŞ)	TInEv
Future tense	Tfutur
Participles	Partip
Existential negative	ExistNeg
Existential	Exist
Negative-Değil	Değil
Negative-mA	NegMa
Locative case of the noun	Loc
Ablative case of the noun	Abl
Dative case of the noun	Dat
Accusative	Acc
Ability	Abil
Necessity	Necc
Adverb	Adv
Conjunctions	Conj
Incorrect use of the noun	Iuon
Reported speech	RepSp
Imperative	Impr
Vowel harmony	Hvow
Pronunciation	Pron
Particles	Part
Plural suffix	Plr
Compound noun	CompNoun
Interjections	Intj

Table 3.3: Tagging abbreviations in formal analysis

An extract of a tagged transcript is available below. The teacher is denoted by the abbreviation T, and students are denoted by their participant codes which equate to their

proficiency level. This learner is part of the Post-beginner class, and was engaged in a discussion with the teacher about the features of their neighbourhood, including some aspects of directions (right, left, etc.).

T: biraz uzak. Tamam güzel. Teşekkür ederim. POSTL1, senin evinin karşısında ne var? POSTL1: evimin karşısında park var. **CompNoun/Loc/N/Exist** T: park var. Evinin yanında ne var? **N/VAR.POSSSG2/ADV/Q/VAR?** POSTL1: evimin yanında sokak var. **CompNoun/Loc/N/Exist** T: sokak. Tamam, peki evinin yakınında eczane var mı? POSTL1:~eczane yok. **N/ExistNeg** T: eczane yok. Peki evinin yakınında spor salonu var mı? POSTL1: yok. **ExistNeg** T: yok. Başka? Evinin--- POSTL1: ---ama alışveriş merkezi var. **Conj/CompNoun/Exist.** T: aaa alışveriş merkezi var, daha güzel. Tamam teşekkürler. POSTL2, evinin karşısında ne var? POSTL4: aa evinin karşısında yok. **CompNoun/Loc/ ExistNeg** T: evinin karşısında ne var? POSTL4: evinin ~ **N/Poss3s** T: senin evinin karşısında ne var? POSTL4: …. evinin~ **N/Poss3s** T:evimin.

Table 3.4: Example of tagged transcription

Six screenshots of TurkishTag are given below to help provide a clear picture of the corpus and how it was manually tagged.
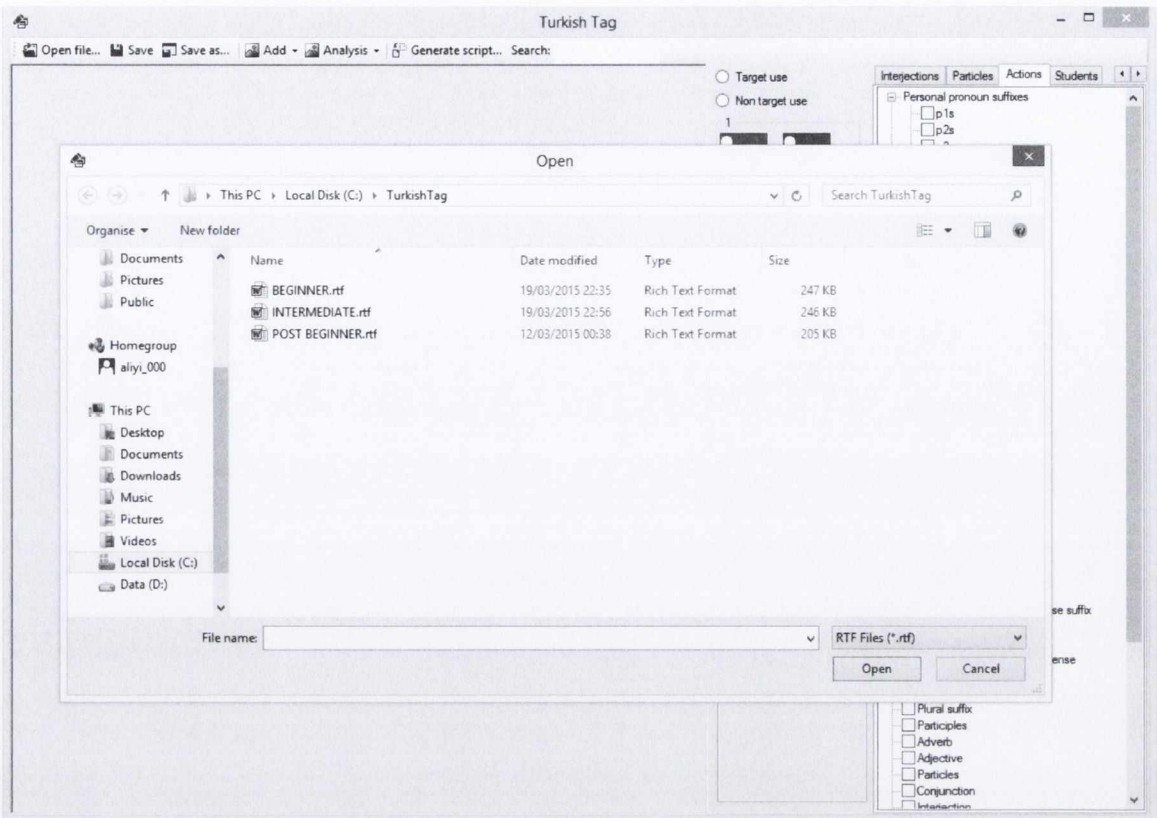
Figure 3.1. above illustrates the three data files of transcribed data according to the three proficiency levels involved in the study. Figure 3.2. below shows how the verb 'gitmek' was tagged as (i) a verb (ii) personal pronoun 'I' and (iii) past tense in the intermediate level data file.

Open file... | Save | Save as... | Add ▾ | Analysis ▾ | Generate script... Search:

Stu6: Benim adım Stu6. Küçüklüğüm Dublin'de geçti. Birbin dokuzyüz altmışdört yılındın yılında ilkokula gittim. Okula nefret ettim. böyle okul bitirdikten sonra kuaför kalışmaya başladım. Kuaförlük seviyorum künkü çok insan tanışıyorum 21 yaşında saç salonda aldım. İkibinbir yılında kuşadasıyda evi aldım. Her yıl üç tatil yapıyorum. Şimdilik bitti.

Stu5: Benim adım Stu5. Bu benim hicayem 5 eylülde dublinde doğdum. Babam annem ve erkek kardeşlerim ve kızkardeşim yaşadım? Yaşıyorum.

T: kardeşlerimle birlikte yaşadım.

Stu5: Bin dokuzyüz altmışaltı yılında ilkokulda gittim. Sonra baldoyle'ın lisesi gittim. Burada basketbol oynamaya başladım ve koşmaya klup başladım. Koşmak seviyorum 1970 yılında mini olimpikste koştum ama kazanmadım. Liseden mezun olduktan sonra bir yıl çalıştım ve çok para biriktirdim. Bir yıldır avrupada yolculuk ettim ve tatil yaptım. İrlanda geri döndüm. NSAD de çalışmaya başladım. Orada benim kocam tanıştım. 1985 yılında evlendik. bir kızımız var. Blackrock'ta ilk evimiz aldık ama sonra Castleknock'ta taşındık. 1996 yılında Wicklow'da ev aldık. hafta sonu eşimle Wicklow dağlar yürüyoruz. 2006 yılında kuşadasında ev aldık. Biz her yaz tatil Türkiye'ye gidiyoruz. Çünkü Türkiye'yi çok seviyoruz. Türkçe dersleri devam ediyorum çünkü Türkçe konuşmayı istiyorum. Türkçe konuşmak istiyorum.

Stu4: Hayatım. Corkta çocukluyum geçti. Orada okumayı ve yazmayı öğrendim. Okulda matematika anlamayı ve çok sevmeye başladım. Sonra üniversitede matematika ve statistika okumaya başladım. Ve üniversite corkta tüm çalışma hayatım istatistika öğretiyordum. Şimdi emekli oldum ve Türkçe öğreniyorum ve benim için çok zor. Türkçe konuşmaya başladım ve bu daha zor. Belki başarılı olacağım uzun gelecekte.

Stu8: ben Stu8. Dublin de doğdum. Clontarfta lisesine gittim. 7 yaşında hokey öğrendim ev çok spor oynamya başladım 1973 beden eğitimi öğretmen mezun aldım Birkok* vıl sonra bir yıl beyunes isananyaya gittim Salamanka

● Target use
○ Non target use

1
○ | ○
p1s

2
○ | ○
Past tense suffix (DI)

3
○ | ○
Gitmek

4
○ | ○

5
○ | ○

6
○ | ○

7
○ | ○

[correct] p1s
[correct] Past tense suffix (DI)
[correct] Gitmek

Interjections | Particles | Actions | Students

Personal pronoun suffixes
☑ p1s
☐ p2s
☐ p3s
☐ p1p
☐ p2p
☐ p3p
Possessive pronoun suffixes
☐ pss1s
☐ pss2s
☐ pss3s
☐ pss1p
☐ pss2p
☐ pss3p
☐ Existential
☐ Existential Neg
☐ Vowel harmony
☐ Consonant harmony
Cases of the noun
☐ dative
☐ locative
☐ ablative
☐ accusative
☐ nominative
☐ Buffer letter
☐ Question particle
Negation
☐ Neg mA
☐ Değil
☐ Preposition
Tenses
☐ Present progressive tense suffix
☐ Simple present tense
☑ Past tense suffix (DI)
☐ Indirect evidence past tense
☐ Past continous
☐ Future tense
☐ Plural suffix
☐ Participles
☐ Adverb
☐ Adjective
☐ Particles
☐ Conjunction
☐ Interjection

Figure 3.2: Tagging data into file

In Figure 3.3. below, the 'Add' menu on the tool allowed the researcher to enter a verb in the verb list file.
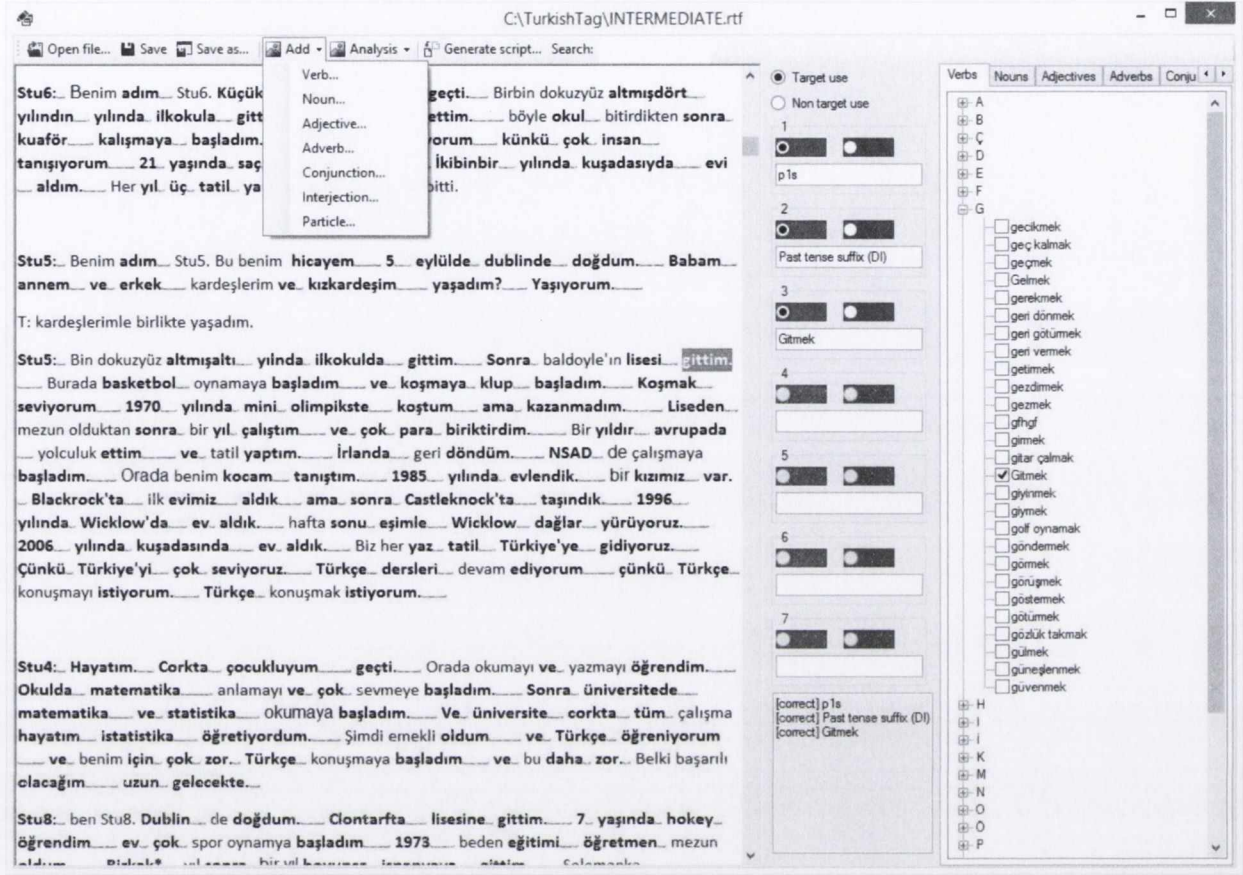
Figure 3.3: Adding verb into verb list file

In Figure 3.4., a verb beginning with the letter 'b' is being entered in the verb list file by using the Add menu on the tool bar. In the list box below, all verbs beginning with the letter 'b' were listed in order to avoid duplicate values when entering a new verb.
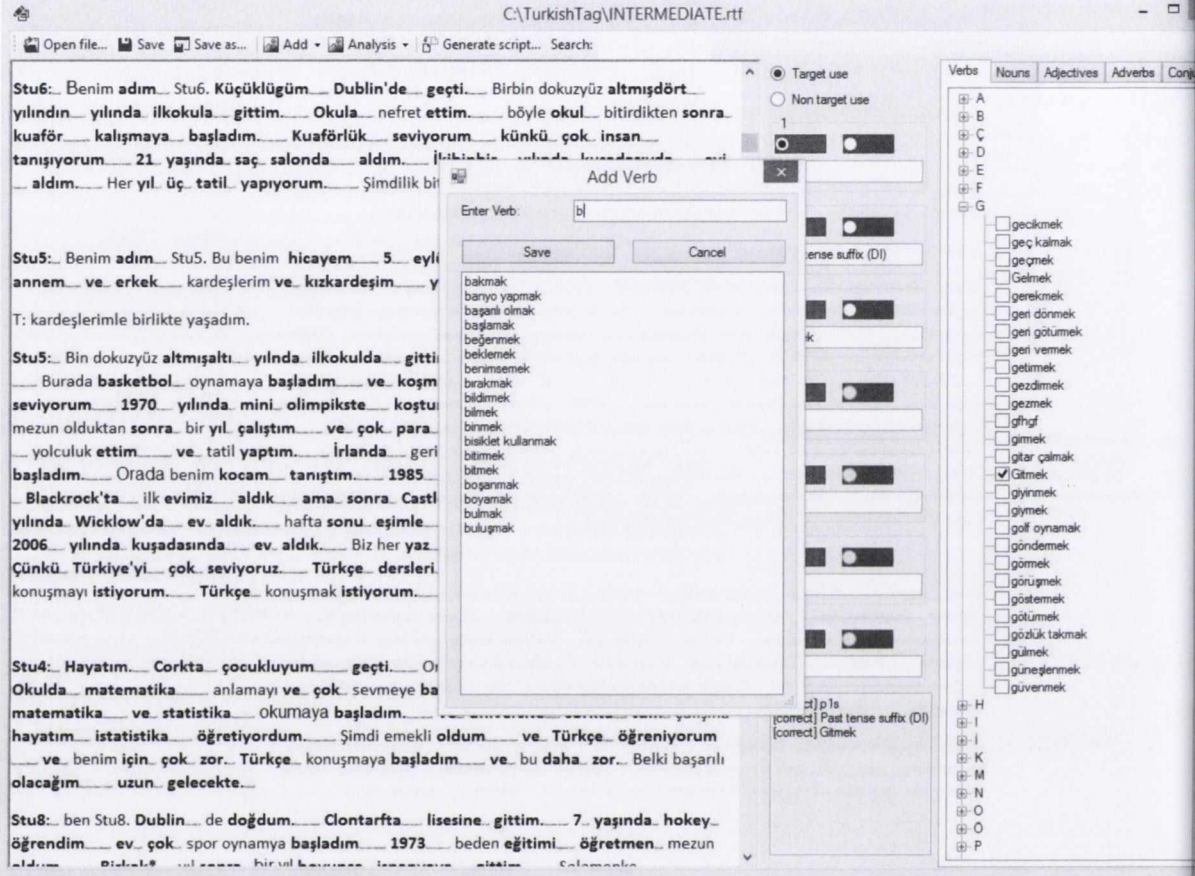
Figure 3.4: Checking duplicate verbs

Figure 3.5. shows how aspects of the corpus were retrieved, for instance I could select all instances of personal pronouns, the most frequently used nouns, or conduct multiple analyses such as locative cases by class level.
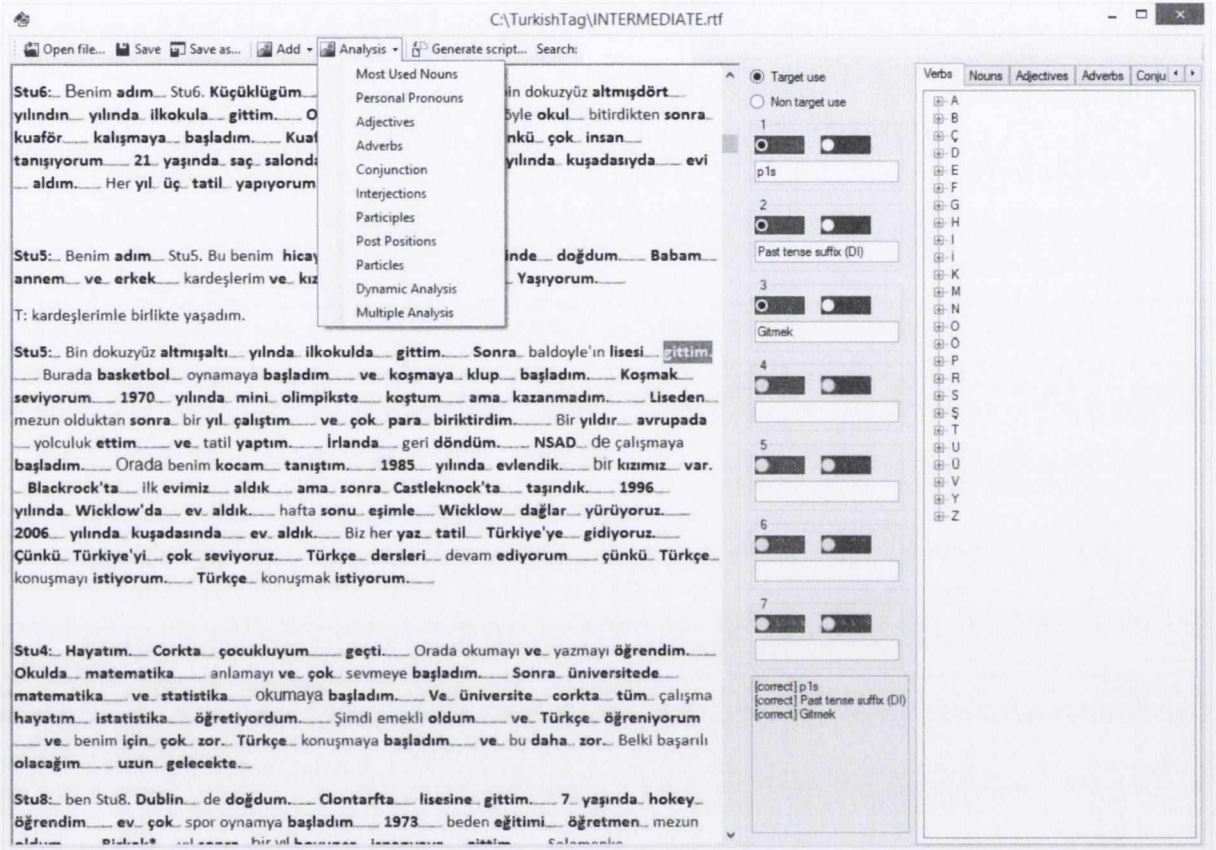
Figure 3.5: Analysis

Finally, Figure 3.6. shows the multiple analysis screen selected for the verb 'gitmek'. It illustrates all target and non-target uses of the verb 'gitmek' in all the forms which occur in the transcribed data.

	Keyword	SubKeyword	Total Use	Correct Use	CorrectUsePerc	IncorrectUse	IncorrectUsePerc
▶	gitmek	p1s	15	13	86,67	2	13,33
	gitmek	Tpast	13	11	84,62	2	15,38
	gitmek	p1p	6	4	66,67	2	33,33
	gitmek	pron	2	0	0	2	100
	gitmek	p3s	9	8	88,89	1	11,11
	gitmek	Tpres	2	1	50,0	1	50,0
	gitmek	Tprog	5	5	100	0	0
	gitmek	partip	1	1	100	0	0
	gitmek	TInEvPast	4	4	100	0	0
	gitmek	necc	2	2	100	0	0
	gitmek	p3p	1	1	100	0	0
	gitmek	NegmA	1	1	100	0	0
	gitmek	req	1	1	100	0	0
	gitmek	futur	1	1	100	0	0

Figure 3.6: Retrieving file of target-non target uses of a verb

3.7. Data Analysis

As mentioned above, the transcribed and tagged data in TurkishTag was analyzed according to three broad categories of grammatical, lexical and phonological control. Table 3.5. below presents the categorization used in data analysis.

Grammatical Control	Lexical Control	Phonological Control
Noun cases	Existential	Vowel harmony
Compound noun	Conjunction	Pronunciation
Personal pronoun	Interjection	
Possessive pronoun	Particle	
Verbs	Adjective	
Tenses	Adverb	
Negation		
Question particle		
Participles		
If conditional		
Request		
Imperative		
Buffer letter		

Table 3.5: Data Analysis Categories

Each item within these three categories was analysed using TurkishTag, allowing me to obtain percentages of target use and non-target use of all items in the table above. This analysis was carried out for each linguistic item for each level separately in order to track the changes in target and non-target-like use percentages. In doing the broad transcription, all spoken utterances in Turkish by learners were written as they were uttered either target use or non target use. Moreover, all the non target use utterances were transcribed as they are pronounced. In Turkish each and every letter has to be pronounced. Therefore, any pronunciation that was in non target use form could be easily detected in the broad transcription while tagging. For example the word umbrella which is 'şemsiye' in Turkish was pronounced incorrect as 'semsiye' by changing the first letter 'ş' /ʃ/ into s /s/. In the broad transcription the word 'şemsiye' was written as 'semsiye' in order to provide the researcher with the correct information regarding the target and non target pronunciation of the words by the learners. Therefore, detecting the target and non target pronunciation of the words by the learners was realized through writing the non target pronunciations as they were uttered while transcribing the recordings.

On the other hand, inferential statistics SPSS- ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was employed after carrying out descriptive statistics in order to find out whether there is any difference among the three learner groups. ANOVA was also used to confirm that depending on their proficiency levels, there is significant difference in the learners groups' Turkish language control in nine parts of speech. In this statistical method, the p-value was taken as 0.05 and any value below this was considered as significant difference.

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter has firstly explained the research design employed in this study, describing the research context and sample population. Aspects related to conducting ethical research were discussed before turning to the piloting process and data collection. The final part of the chapter addressed processing and analysis. The following chapter describes the findings which arose during data analysis.

Chapter Four: Data Description

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the data collected though classroom recordings and in the background questionnaire are presented in two parts. In part one, questionnaire data are presented in three sections: personal information; participants' views regarding Turkish culture and their experiences with this culture; Turkish-language learning experiences. The second part of the chapter deals with the data collected through classroom recordings by proficiency (class) level: beginner, post beginner and intermediate Turkish. Firstly, data regarding grammatical control are presented. Then, data regarding lexical control are presented, presenting the most frequently used nouns and verbs, as well as conjunctions, interjections, particles, adjectives and adverbs are illustrated. Finally, data regarding phonological control are presented.

4.2 Mapping A1 and A2 proficiency levels

This study used the three existing class names to organise data collection – i.e. Beginner, Post-beginner and Intermediate. The language learning activities in these classes can be mapped onto the common proficiency levels of the CEFR at A1 (Beginner and Post-beginner classes) and A2 (Intermediate class). In terms of working towards specific scales of language use, where 80% of learners in the A1 classes produced target-like use of items, these were considered to be at the threshold of A2. In other words, when almost everyone in the class demonstrates mastery of an item at A1 level it is considered to be an A2 level learning goal. Target use below 80% is considered as an A1 scaled descriptor as this means the learners have difficulty in having control.

4.3 Background Questionnaire

As mentioned earlier, the background questionnaire was used as the secondary data collection tool only to provide information regarding the participants 'profile. Whilst background questionnaire was administered last chronologically in the project, it is dealt with first in this chapter in order to provide key information about the participants and their Turkish language learning journeys. Nineteen sets of responses were received. This section presents the data from the questionnaire's three central section: questions about participants' backgrounds; their motivation to learn Turkish as a foreign language, their learning styles, their perception of Turkish speaking people; and thirdly questions related to the participants' experiences with Turkish language and their perceived abilities in using Turkish. The questionnaire can be found in Appendix 2.

4.3.1. Questionnaire Part 1: Background Questions

Question 1 asked respondents how long they have lived in Ireland. Almost two-thirds of respondents (63.16%) were born in Ireland and have always lived here. Three respondents were born in Ireland but not always have lived here, and four respondents have been living in Ireland for an average of four years.

Question 2 asked about the first language(s) of respondents, in other words their native languages or mother tongues. For more than half of the sample, their first language is English (15 respondents). For the remaining four respondents, two share Polish as a first language, one is a native speaker of Latvian, and the remaining respondent is a first language speaker of Finnish and Swedish.

The third question asked respondents whether they speak any other languages. Eleven of the eighteen respondents replied that they spoke Irish. One in three (36.36%) said they spoke Irish at a beginner level; one in three said that they spoke Irish at an advanced level. Half of the respondents were not native English speakers, and so mentioned English as the second language. Besides English and Irish, six participants described their ability in French at a beginner level, and three mentioned beginner level German. Some of them also mentioned that they had learned Spanish. We can say that the responses to this question denote a sample population with some experience of other language learning, but – whilst noting that questionnaires can sometimes lead to under-reporting – most prior language learning ability is not at an advanced level.

Question 4 asked whether respondents were married to or living with a Turkish person. Seven students, or just over one third of the sample population, responded affirmatively, whilst twelve said no to this question.

In addition to finding out whether students themselves were living with a Turkish person, I was also interested in ascertaining whether they had a family member married to/living with a Turkish person. This question was based on my prior experience of students wanting to learn Turkish to communicate with a daughter- or son-in-law or grandchildren. Table 4.1. shows that nine participants had a family member married to or living with a Turkish person.

Participant code	Age	Gender	Other languages spoken known in addition to Turkish and English?	Property in Turkey?	Turkish spouse or partner?
Beg 1	35-44	F	Irish, French	Yes	Yes
Beg 2	45-54	F	Irish	No	No
Beg 3	25-34	M	Irish, French	No	No
Beg 4	25-34	F	German, Polish	Yes	Yes
Beg 5	25-34	F	German, Polish	No	Yes
Beg 6	55-64	F	None	No	Yes
Beg 7	25-34	F	German, Polish	No	Yes
Post 1	55-64	M	None	Yes	No
Post 2	25-34	F	Irish	Yes	Yes
Post 3	35-44	F	Irish	Yes	Yes
Post 4	45-54	M	Irish, French	Yes	Yes
Int 1	35-44	M	French, Spanish, Russian	No	No
Int 2	45-54	M	French, German, Irish	No	No
Int 3	45-54	F	Irish, French	No	No
Int 4	45-54	F	French, Irish	No	No
Int 5	45-54	F	Irish	Yes	No
Int 6	45-54	F	None	Yes	Yes
Int 7	55-64	F	Irish	Yes	No
Int 8	55-64	F	Irish, Spanish, French	No	No

Table 4.1: Information about Research population

Question 7 asked respondents which language(s) they mostly spoke at home. The findings demonstrate that most homes are dominated by English-language use: 84% of the participants always speak English at home. In terms of Turkish language use in the home, only one respondent used Turkish often whilst four respondents sometimes spoke Turkish and three rarely spoke Turkish in the home.

Q7 Which language(s) do you mostly speak at home?

Which language(s) do you mostly speak at home?

	English	Irish	Turkish	French	German	Italian
■ Always	16	0	0	0	0	0
■ Often	2	0	1	0	0	0
■ Sometimes	0	1	4	0	0	0
■ Rarely	1	1	3	0	0	0
■ Never	0	3	2	3	2	2

■ Always ■ Often ■ Sometimes ■ Rarely ■ Never
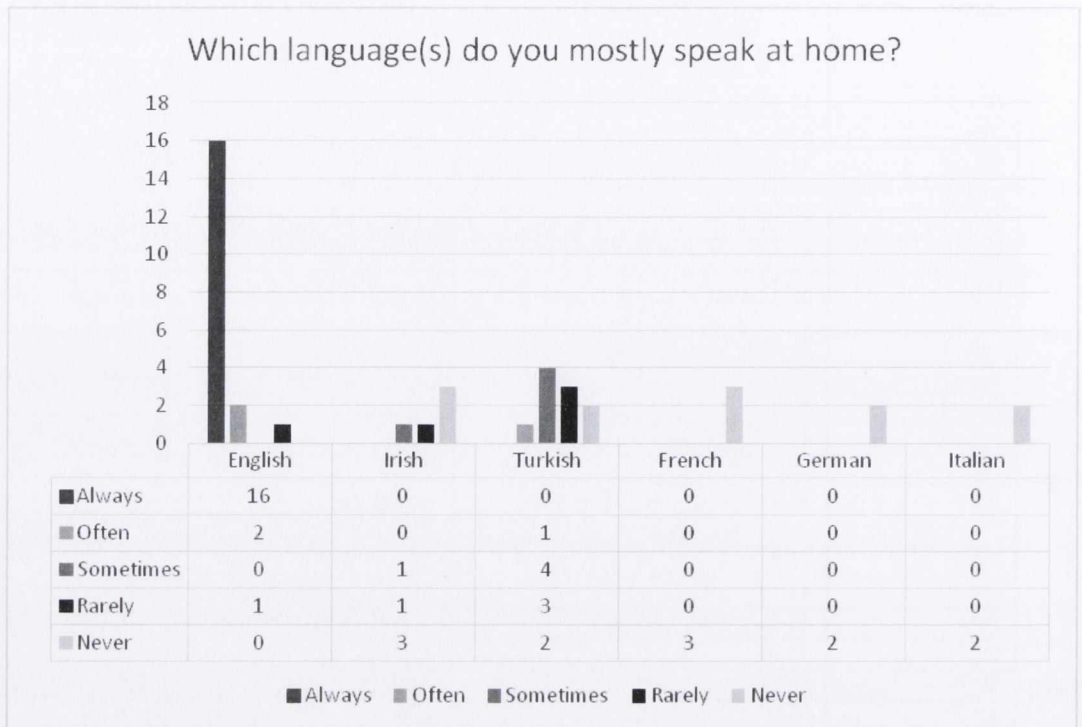
Figure 4.1: Home language use

The next three questions were related to time spent in Turkey. Respondents were asked if they have visited Turkey and if so, how often do they go there (Question 7). As Figure 4.2. below demonstrates, almost all of the respondents travel to Turkey every year; only three of the 19 participants do not go to Turkey every year. Six respondents travel to Turkey once a year, and a further five go there twice a year or more.

Question 8 asked about the amount of time they usually spend in Turkey in a single visit. Visits tend to be between a week and a month for most of the regular visitors to Turkey, with 14 of the 19 participants spending one to four weeks in Turkey. Five respondents reported longer stays of one to three months.

113

The final question, question 10 in this section asked about the frequency of Turkish language use when in Turkey. Five response options were provided, ranging from *Never* to *A few times a week* to *Throughout the day*. There were no responses to the *Never* category. Two respondents said they only spoke Turkish a few times a week, whilst most respondents (12) reported using Turkish a few times a day. Only two respondents said they spoke Turkish throughout the day. Four additional comments were received in relation to this question in the space provided:

1. Must speak Turkish wen in Turkey as non of my inlaws speak any English.

2. Any words I know I use and hope I learn more or build what I learned this year.

3. I attempt to speak out and about during the day, when I meet a Turkish person, in the markets, restaurants. I am not very good but the Turkish people are very helpful.

4. I will attempt to speak more now that ive gained more vocabulary & understanding of the language hopefully.

Q8 If you have visited Turkey before, how often do you go there?
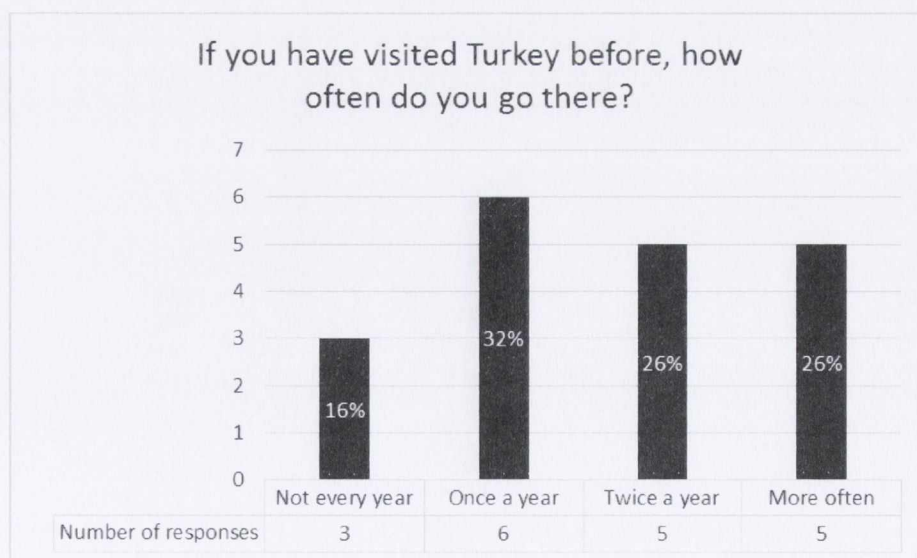
Figure 4.2: Frequency of visits to Turkey

Q9 How much time do you usually spend in Turkey in a single visit?

How much time do you usually spend in Turkey in a single visit?

	1 – 4 weeks	1 – 3 months	3 – 4 months	Longer than 4 months
	74%	26%	0%	0%
Number of responses	14	5	0	0
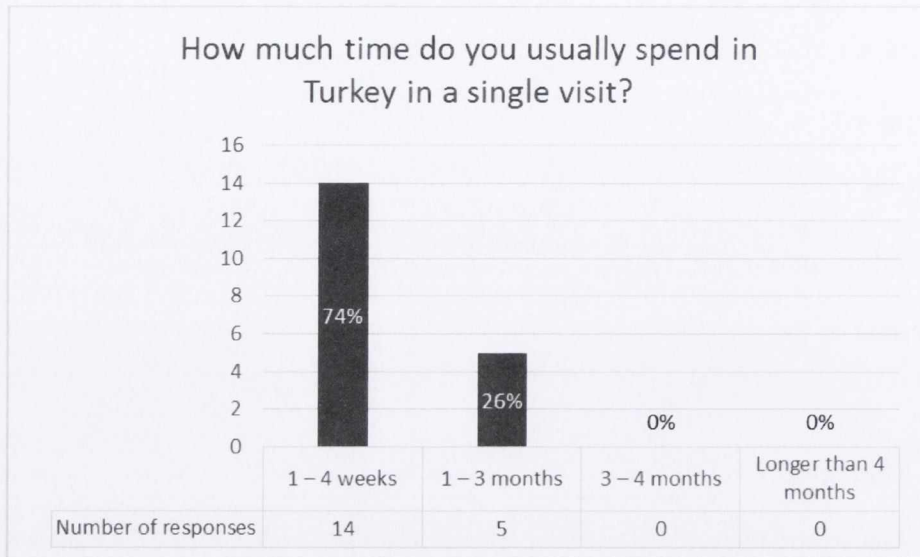
Figure 4.3: Time usually spent in Turkey in a single visit

Q10 How often do you usually speak Turkish when you are in Turkey?

How much time do you usually spend in Turkey in a single visit?

	Never	Rarely	A few times a week	A few times a day	Throughout the day
	0%	11%	16%	63%	11%
Number of responses	0	2	3	12	2

115
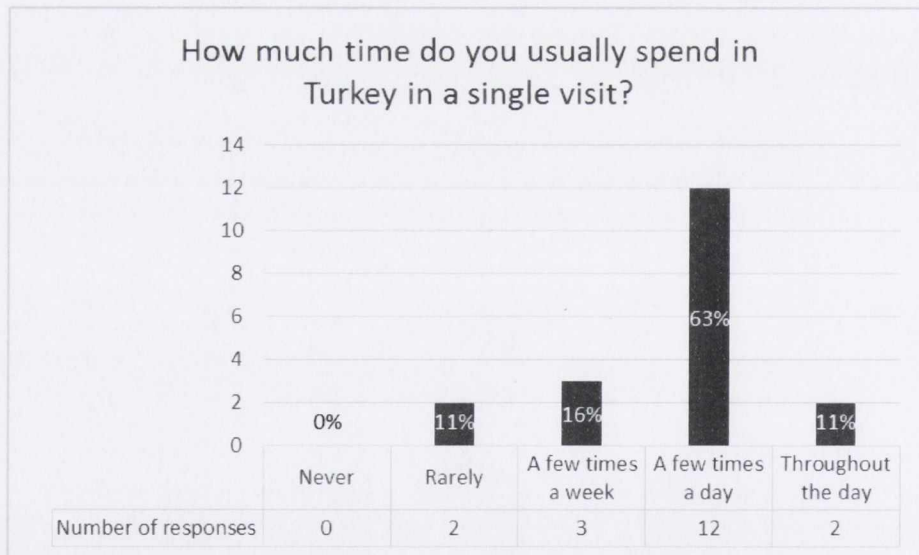
#	Any further comments on how often you speak Turkish when in Turkey
1	must speak turkish wen in turkey as non of my inlaws speak any English
2	any words I know I use and hope I learn more or build what I learned this year
3	I attempt to speak out and about during the day, when I meet a Turkish person, in the markets, restaurants. I am not very good but the Turkish people are very helpful
4	I will attempt to speak more now that ive gained more vocabulary & understanding of the language hopefully.

Figure 4.4: Frequency of Turkish language use when in Turkey.

4.3.2. Questionnaire Part 2: Turkish language perceptions

In this subsection, responses to three questions located in the second part of the questionnaire are described. The first question focused on the participants' perception of Turkish people, Irish people and themselves as learners of Turkish. The second question was related to their motivation to learn Turkish. The final question in this part of the questionnaire asked about their Turkish use in their immediate environment.

Respondents were asked why they wanted to learn Turkish (Question 11). Figure 4.5. below demonstrates the responses to the eight categories provided. Over half (57.89%) of the research population strongly agreed that they want to learn Turkish in order to speak with their neighbours in Turkey. Personal interest was another important category (42.11% strongly agreed) for participants. Three comments were received in the *Other* response category, and two are relevant to the question of why learn Turkish:

1. I want to improve my Turkish after living in Istanbul for 5 years
2. I would like to learn Turkish as it is my husbands culture and my daughter is half Turkish.
3. I may extend my visits to Turkey but I will never leave Ireland permanently.

Q12 Why do you want to learn Turkish?

Why do you want to learn Turkish?

	I want to speak in Turkish with my Turkish friends/neigh bours in Turkey	I want to make friends with Turkish people in Turkey	I want to make friends with Turkish people in Ireland	I want to speak in Turkish with my spouse/partn er/family members in Ireland	I want to learn Turkish just out of personal interest	I want to learn Turkish for my career	I want to learn Turkish for my academic studies	I want to learn Turkish because I want to live in Turkey sometime in the future
■ Strongly agree	11	9	5	9	8	4	1	6
■ Agree	4	5	5	1	6	1	2	7
■ Somewhat agree	3	4	4	0	3	5	2	2
■ Disagree	1	1	4	2	1	3	7	3
Strongly disagree	0	0	1	7	1	6	7	1

■ Strongly agree   ■ Agree   ■ Somewhat agree   ■ Disagree   Strongly disagree

#	Other (please specify)
1	I want to improve my turkish after living in istanbul for 5 years
2	I WOULD LIKE TO LEARN TURKISH AS IT IS MY HUSBANDS CULTURE AND MY DAUGHTER IS HALF TURKISH
3	I may extend my visits to Turkey but I will never leave Ireland permanently

Figure 4.5: Reasons for learning Turkish.

The following question dug deeper into the frequency of Turkish language use with specific individuals: Turkish relatives, friends, neighbours and colleagues. Figure 4.6. below shows that about one third of participants sometimes speak in Turkish with their relatives and neighbours, and more than a third (42.11%) sometimes speak Turkish with their Turkish friends, most of the responses range from *Sometimes* to *Never*, and there is very little reported regular Turkish language use. Three open responses were elicited here in the *Other* category:

1. I understand a lot but to speak it is a lot harder for me.

2. I try to speak with my irish friends at my classes.

3. As much as I can.

Q13 Please indicate how often you speak Turkish with the following people:

	Turkish relatives (spouse, partner etc.)	Turkish friends	Turkish neighbours	Turkish colleagues
■ Always	1	0	0	0
■ Often	1	1	1	0
■ Sometimes	6	8	7	5
■ Rarely	1	5	4	5
■ Never	10	5	7	9
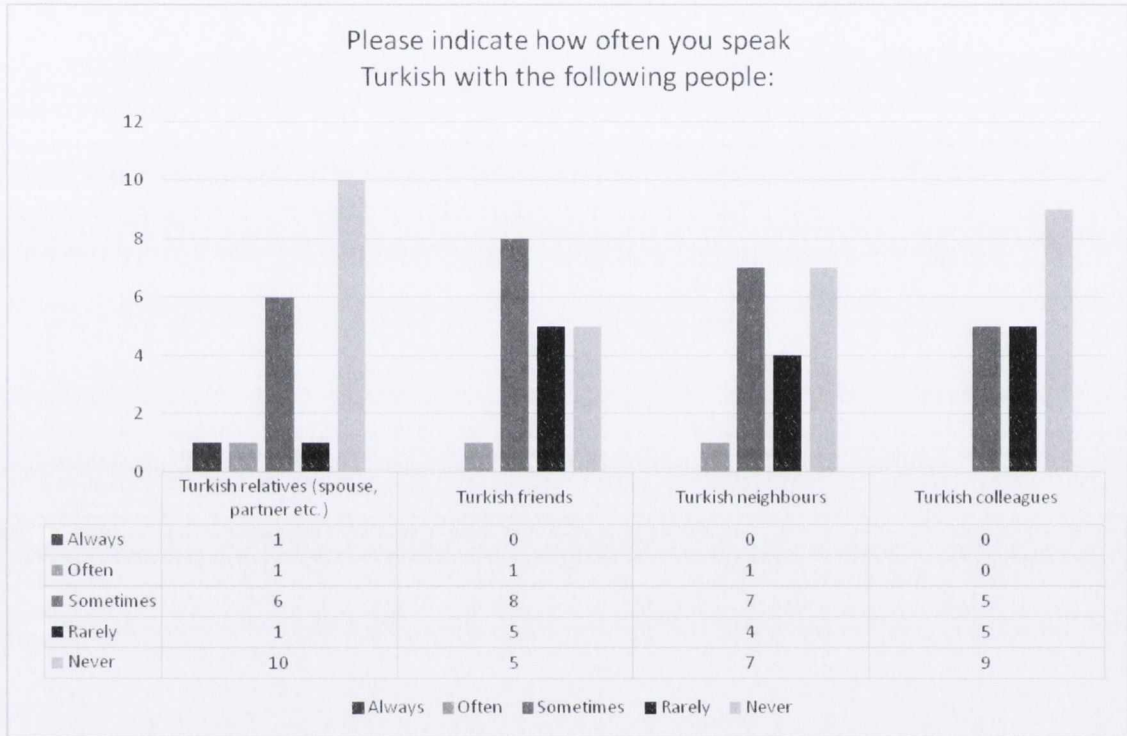
#	Other people (please specify)
1	I UNDERSTAND A LOT BUT TO SPEAK IT IS A LOT HARDER FOR ME
2	I try to speak with my Irish friends at my classes
3	As much as i can

Figure 4.6: Frequency of Turkish language use

4.3.3. Questionnaire Part 3: Experiences in learning Turkish

In this third and final part of the background questionnaire, questions were related to the participants' experience of learning Turkish language, their preferred learning styles and their self-reported proficiency level.

Question 13 asked respondents to rate their success in relation to learning Turkish in seven categories which covered spoken and written production: Turkish pronunciation; learning and using Turkish words; getting Turkish word order right; spelling in Turkish; striking up a conversation in Turkish; reading in Turkish; writing to my teacher or a friend in Turkish. Respondents tend to rate their proficiency in the *Good* to *Some Difficulties* categories rather than in the *Excellent* category. In terms of the specific aspects of Turkish production, more than a third of respondents rated their success in Turkish pronunciation as good, and almost half rated a good ability to learn and use Turkish words. However, responses indicate that more than one third had difficulties in striking up a conversation in Turkish and in writing in Turkish.

The next question (Question 15) asked more difficulties in learning Turkish, and asked why these were difficult aspects. In the open responses, six of the nineteen respondents mentioned suffixes as difficult, as well as word order.

Q15 What is the most difficult thing for you about learning the Turkish language? Why?

#	Responses
1	becoming fluent in the language is very difficult. I learn words but \i find it difficult to put the words in a sentence.
2	suffixes
3	speaking
4	
5	the syntax
6	word order suffixes makes it difficult to speak as you are trying to remember each suffix and their order confidence
7	getting opportunities to practice speaking Turkish. I do not know any turkish speakers new vocabulary.
8	vocabulary does not relate any other language I know
9	understanding Turkish people when they talk quickly
10	I missed too many classes
11	grammar
12	THEY SPEAK EXTREMLY FAST AND LOUD
13	The Suffixes
14	The pronunciation and the word order
15	Turkish not a direct translation from english & some words not used at all (A & THE) - (IE).word placement is different in the sentance I'm going to School / "to School I am going". Pronunciation is strange when there is no between letters in the word, and where you brake the syllables of the word, especially a long word.
16	Remembering the rules and sentence structure.
17	to understand the language when spoken and sometimes the grammar can be difficult.
18	Vowel sounds. Recognising them and speaking them
19	To learn grammar and sentence order for speaking.

Table 4.2: Perceived difficulties in learning the Turkish language? Why?

A further open question (question 16) then asked respondents about the easiest thing for them about learning Turkish, and why. Interestingly, whilst three respondents referred to Turkish pronunciation as the most difficult thing, several respondents in the following question mentioned pronunciation as the easiest aspect of learning Turkish. However, the responses to this question indicate despite being asked about easy aspects, perceived difficulties are nevertheless quite numerous.

Q16 What is the easiest thing for you about learning the Turkish language? Why?

#	Responses Date
1	being in Turkey help me learn the language a bit easier as I learn how to pronounce the words correctly
2	reading
3	reading
4	-
5	vocabulary
6	it can be difficult to understand a concept but once you do understand it lots of things fall into place
7	similar alphabet
8	pronunciation
9	I understand the structure of the language. My problem is listening and understanding
10	not easy
11	spelling
12	NOT THAT EASY
13	The phonetic pronounciation
14	Writing because you can use the dictionary and the internet
15	Nothing was easy, turkish is a challenging language to master, a very clever language, just adding different endings to change meanings, I found I could remember & write turkish words, but putting them in order into a sentence was hard trying to get the order of the RULES correct and without the use of english words..(ie) A / THE
16	A patient teacher who always make us feel relaxed in class.
17	the vowel harmony I find it easy to follow
18	Verbs/tenses
19	Reading and learning pronunciation as you pronounce letter as you see them not like in English.

Table 4.3: Perceived easy aspects related to learning Turkish, and why.

Question 17 asked respondents about the frequency of language activities outside of class. The top responses include speaking with native Turkish speakers (47.37%, sometimes) and watching Turkish films – nine of the nineteen respondents watch films in Turkish *Sometimes* (6), *Often* (2) and *Very often* (1). Activities related to Turkish language learning are almost mentioned, included browsing Turkish language teaching websites, doing Turkish grammar exercises and practising vocabulary. However, activities which may be described as authentic communicative activities such as reading Turkish newspapers and

books, watching Turkish news and listening to Turkish radio are ranked as activities undertaken much less frequently. It is interesting to note that despite the popularity of Turkish television series, these are not so frequently watched by respondents – only five out of nineteen describe watching Turkish drama *Often* or *Very often*.

Q17 How often do you do the following language activities outside of class?

	Speak with native Turkish speakers (friends, family members, etc.)	Watch Turkish films	Watch Turkish TV series/drama	Watch Turkish news	Listen to Turkish radio channels	Read books in Turkish	Read Turkish newspapers	Browse Turkish language learning websites	Do Turkish grammar exercises	Practise new vocabulary
■ Very often	1	1	2	2	1	0	0	1	1	1
■ Often	3	2	3	3	2	1	3	2	6	8
■ Sometimes	9	6	1	1	3	2	4	9	8	7
■ Rarely	2	4	3	5	7	7	4	4	2	3
■ Never	4	6	10	8	6	9	8	3	2	0

#	Other (please specify)
1	I have many Turkish Nationals I allowed on my FACEBOOK page.When they make posts in turkish i try to translate it. Also I have some very close turkish friends and we write occasionally in turkish. It motivates me & encourages my desire to want to learn turkish & their posts and updates shows me the Culture side too which is also very interesting to me. Festivals/ holy celebrations etc.also very interesting to me. Festivals/ holy celebrations etc.their posts and updates shows me the Culture side too which is
2	i should work more on vocabulary and grammer

Figure 4.7: Frequency of language activities undertaken outside class.

The next question asked respondents to rate their Turkish language skills in general, according to the five skill areas in the CEFR (listening, reading, spoken interaction, spoken production and written production). Figure 4.8.presents their responses, and indicates that spoken production, spoken interaction and listening are the most challenging skills for learners to acquire.

Q18 How would you rate your Turkish language skills in general? 1 = Excellent 3 = Good 5 = Some difficulties

How would you rate your Turkish
language skills in general? 1 = Excellent 3 = Good 5 = Some difficulties

	Listening	Reading	Spoken interaction (conversation)	Spoken production (giving a presentation, speaking in public)	Written production
■1	0	0	0	0	0
■2	2	3	1	1	1
■3	6	4	4	0	4
■4	2	6	4	5	8
■5	9	6	10	13	6
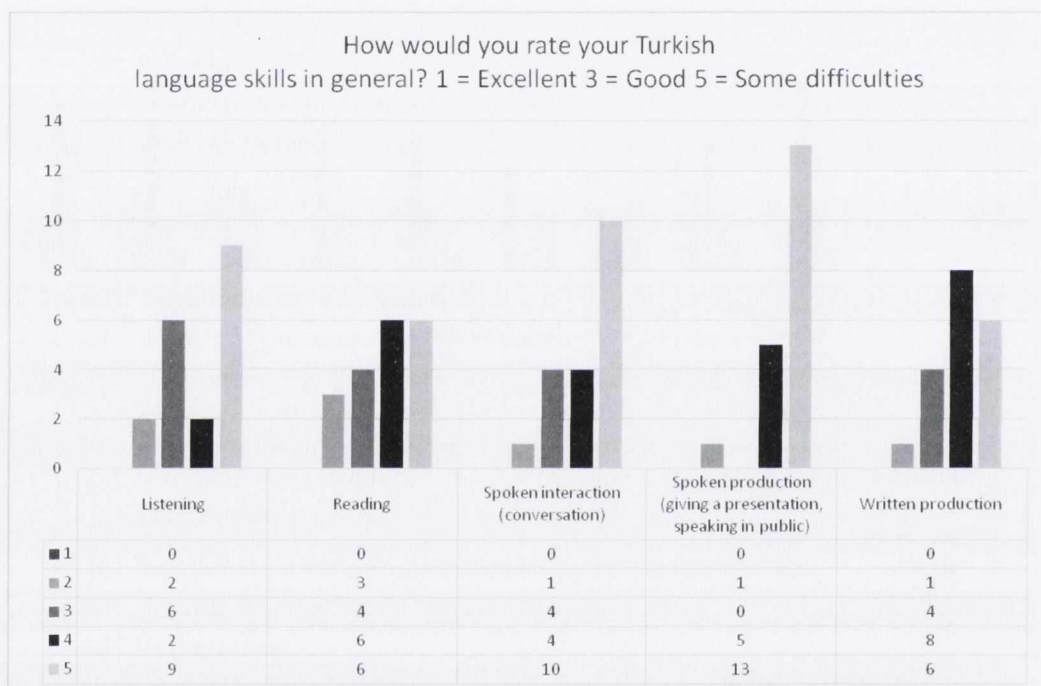
Figure 4.8: Self-reporting overall Turkish language skills.

The final questions in the questionnaire asked respondents to self-report their proficiency using Can Do statements from the CEFR. Question 19 asked participants to self- report their listening skills with one statement in A1 level and two statements in A2 level. Almost all the learners (94.74%) considered they could accomplish A1 listening task. On the other hand, approximately only half of the respondents (52.63% and 57.89%) consider they could accomplish A2 listening tasks.

The A1 level statement for Listening is:

- I can understand phrases and the highest frequency vocabulary related to areas of most immediate personal relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment).

- I can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements

The A1 level statement for Listening is:

- I can recognize familiar words and very basic phrases concerning myself, my family and immediate concrete surroundings when people speak slowly and clearly.

Question 20 asked respondents to self-report their Reading Skills, again with one statement at A1 level and three statements at A2 level. Almost all participants (94.74%) considered they could accomplish the A1 task; more than three-quarters considered they could accomplish one of the A2 tasks (reading very short, simple texts) and more than half self-reported an ability to complete the remaining two A2 tasks.

The A2 level statement for Reading is:

- I can read very short, simple texts.
- I can find specific, predictable information in simple everyday material such as advertisements, prospectuses, menus and timetables.
- I can understand short simple personal letters

The A2 level statement for Reading is:

- I can understand familiar names, words and very simple sentences, for example on notices and posters or in catalogues

The next question 21 turned to spoken interaction tasks, with four Can Do statements provided at the A1 level and two at the A2 level. This question shows that 89.47% and 63.16% of the participants considers themselves as A1 level in Spoken Interaction, although more respondents consider that they are capable of completing one of the A2 level tasks (very short social exchanges) than one of the A1 tasks (interacting in a short simple way). This finding illustrates some of the ambiguity in semantic differentiation in the CEFR's Can Do statements, and points to the need for language-specific descriptors. The A2 level statement for Spoken Interaction is:

- I can handle very short social exchanges, even though I can't usually understand enough to keep the conversation going myself.

- I can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar topics and activities.

The A1 level statement for Spoken Interaction is:

- I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.

- I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say.

The final two self-report questions asked about spoken and written production. Question 22 provided two Can Do statements, one at A1 level and one at A2 level. Almost all respondents considered they could complete the A1 level task, whilst more than half felt they could fulfil the A2 level task. Turning to written production, again two statements were provided. The responses here again suggest ambiguity regarding what is presented as

125

an A2 level task (which all respondents considered they could complete) and the A1 task, which fewer respondents considered themselves capable of completing.

The A1 level statement for Spoken Production is:

- I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.

The A2 level statement for Spoken Production is:

- I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people, living conditions, my educational background and my present or most recent job.

The A1 level statement for Written Production is:

- I can write simple isolated phrases and sentences

The A2 level statement for Written Production is:

- I can write a series of simple phrases and sentences linked with simple connectors like 'and', 'but and 'because.

The following section describes the grammatical, lexical and phonological control of the learners respectively.

4.4. Grammatical Control

In the CEFR, grammatical competence is defined as "knowledge of, and ability to use, the grammatical resources of a language" (CEFR, 2001: 112-113). Moreover, it is "the ability to understand and express meaning by producing and recognising well-formed phrases and

sentences in accordance with these principles." (ibid: 113). Four aspects of grammatical controls were considered in the scope of this research:

1. Elements, e.g.: morphs-morphemes, words,

2. Categories, e.g.: number, case, past/present/progressive/future tense

3. Classes, e.g.: conjugation, open word classes: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs

4. Structure, e.g.: compound and complex words.

The following subsection describes the data related to grammatical control demonstrated by participants.

4.4.1. Noun Cases

This subsection describe the target and non-target use of noun cases: dative, locative, ablative and accusative cases respectively.

As Figure 4.9. shows, the average target use of dative case is 69% while the non-target use is 31%. Use of dative case occurs 278 times in the corpus. The suffix is in capital letter due to the fact that it is subject to the vowel harmony and can mutate into da, te, ta as any suffix is in Turkish.
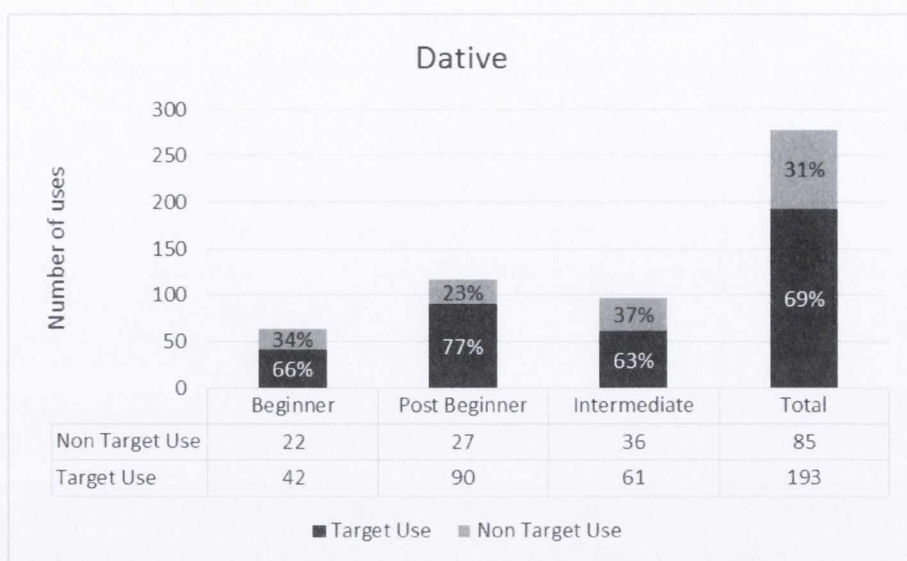
Figure 4.9: Dative Case-E

As it is shown in the table below, there is no significant difference among the three proficiency levels in terms of non target use of dative case. However, considering the target use of dative case in table 4X, there is significant difference between beginner and post beginner level learners.

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-4.84091	1.96070	.057	-9.8014
	Intermediate	-2.46591	1.56037	.277	-6.4136
Post Beginner	Beginner	4.84091	1.96070	.057	-.1196
	Intermediate	2.37500	2.05640	.493	-2.8276
Intermediate	Beginner	2.46591	1.56037	.277	-1.4818
	Post Beginner	-2.37500	2.05640	.493	-7.5776

Table 4.4: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Dative Case

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	
Beginner	Post Beginner	-17.68182*	4.64288	.003	-29.4282	
	Intermediate	-3.68182	3.69491	.588	-13.0299	
Post Beginner	Beginner	17.68182*	4.64288	.003	5.9354	
	Intermediate	14.00000*	4.86949	.024	1.6803	
Intermediate	Beginner	3.68182	3.69491	.588	-5.6662	
	Post Beginner	-14.00000*	4.86949	.024	-26.3197	

Table 4.5: ANOVA results of the target use of the Dative Case

As Figure 4.10.below indicates, the average target use of locative case is 81% whilst the average non-target use of locative case is 19%. Use of the locative case appears 621 times in the corpus, and its use decreases as the proficiency level increases. This might be because the intermediate learners tend to use more complex structures like participles (see section 4.3.5. below).
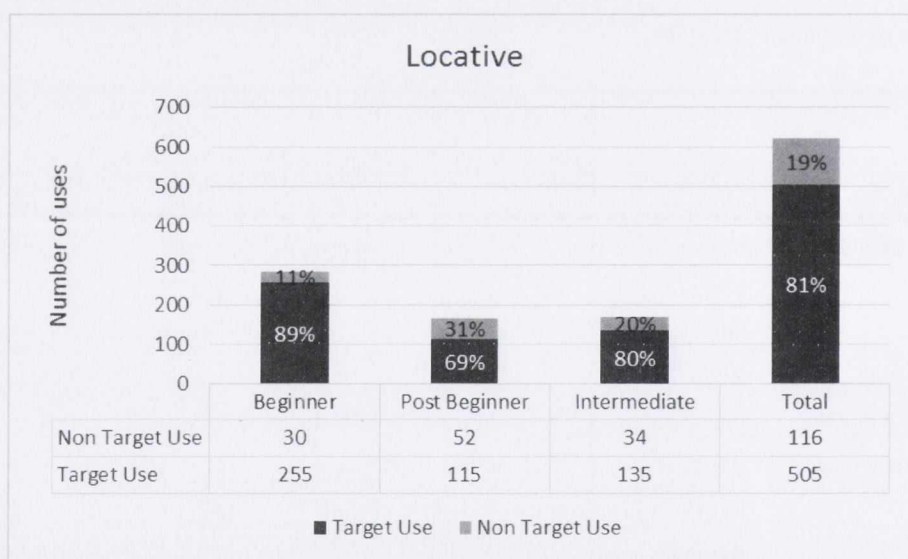
Figure 4.10: Locative Case-DE

According to the table below, there is significant difference between beginner and post beginner level learners in terms of non target use of the locative case. However, there is not

any significant difference among the three proficiency level learners considering the target us of locative case.

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-10.27273*	2.36336	.001	-16.2520
	Intermediate	-1.52273	1.88082	.702	-6.2812
Post Beginner	Beginner	10.27273*	2.36336	.001	4.2935
	Intermediate	8.75000*	2.47872	.006	2.4789
Intermediate	Beginner	1.52273	1.88082	.702	-3.2357
	Post Beginner	-8.75000*	2.47872	.006	-15.0211

Table 4.6: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Locative Case

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-4.52273	8.54864	.859	-27.8718
	Intermediate	6.72727	7.97348	.682	-13.7426
Post Beginner	Beginner	4.52273	8.54864	.859	-18.8263
	Intermediate	11.25000	7.50258	.346	-10.6831
Intermediate	Beginner	-6.72727	7.97348	.682	-27.1972
	Post Beginner	-11.25000	7.50258	.346	-33.1831

Table 4.7: ANOVA results of the target use of the Locative Case

Figure 4.11. illustrates that the average target use of ablative case is 84% and the average non-target use of ablative case is 16%. The ablative case does not appear much in the corpus compared to other cases, and occurs only 43 times. It is interesting to note that among its occurrences in complete beginners, target use is at 100%.
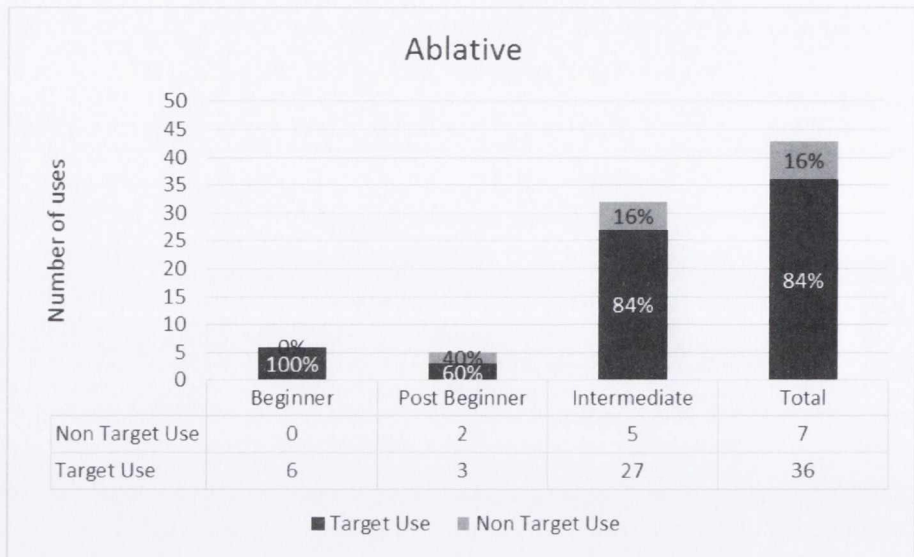
Figure 4.11: Ablative Case-Den

In addition to this, considering the two tables below, there is not any significant difference among the three levels either in non target or target use of the ablative case.

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-.50000	.50000	.626	-2.5894
	Intermediate	-.62500	.32390	.200	-1.5789
Post Beginner	Beginner	.50000	.50000	.626	-1.5894
	Intermediate	-.12500	.59574	.976	-1.9890
Intermediate	Beginner	.62500	.32390	.200	-.3289
	Post Beginner	.12500	.59574	.976	-1.7390

Table 4.8: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Ablative Case

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-.20455	.44315	.890	-1.3809
	Intermediate	-2.45455	1.48503	.281	-6.7080
Post Beginner	Beginner	.20455	.44315	.890	-.9718
	Intermediate	-2.25000	1.46080	.328	-6.4944
Intermediate	Beginner	2.45455	1.48503	.281	-1.7989
	Post Beginner	2.25000	1.46080	.328	-1.9944

Table 4.9: ANOVA results of the target use of the Ablative Case

The next Figure shows occurrences of the accusative case. The total number of occurrences is 222. Learners demonstrate more difficulties in target-like use of the accusative, with average target-use at 56% and average non-target use at 44%. It is interesting to note that these percentages are the same for all three levels. This might be resulted from the complex structure of the accusative case and the vowel harmony that the learners need to follow together with the accusative form of the noun which could be in four different forms (e.g: ı, i, u, ü).
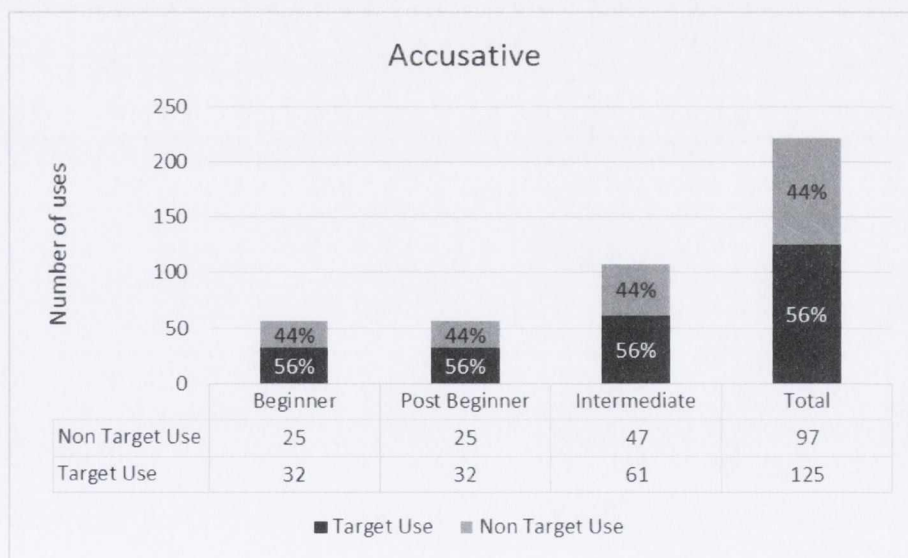
Figure 4.12: Accusative Case-I

Moreover, the table below shows that there is significant difference between the beginner and post beginner level learners in terms of non target use of the accusative case. However,

there is no significant difference among the three proficiency levels in target us of accusative case.

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-3.97727*	1.04181	.006	-6.7288
	Intermediate	-3.47727	2.29692	.327	-9.8037
Post Beginner	Beginner	3.97727*	1.04181	.006	1.2257
	Intermediate	.50000	2.15611	.971	-5.7123
Intermediate	Beginner	3.47727	2.29692	.327	-2.8492
	Post Beginner	-.50000	2.15611	.971	-6.7123

Table 4.10: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Accusative Case

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-4.84091	2.78053	.291	-14.4117
	Intermediate	-4.59091	3.46098	.417	-14.3008
Post Beginner	Beginner	4.84091	2.78053	.291	-4.7299
	Intermediate	.25000	4.12779	.998	-11.1159
Intermediate	Beginner	4.59091	3.46098	.417	-5.1189
	Post Beginner	-.25000	4.12779	.998	-11.6159

Table 4.11: ANOVA results of the target use of the Accusative Case

4.4.2. Personal/Possessive Pronouns

As explained Chapter Two, Turkish is an agglutinative language which means that personal and possessive pronoun suffixes are very important as the personal pronoun suffix at the end of the noun or the verb determines the subject. Thus, correct uses of these suffixes are vital for a sentence to be meaningful. This subsection illustrates target and non-target use of personal and possessive pronoun suffixes in beginner, post beginner and intermediate levels.

133

It is not a surprise to note the frequency of use of the personal pronoun in the first personal singular, which occurs 969 times in the corpus. Average target use of suffix for the first person singular is 89% and non-target use is 11%; again these percentages are the same for all three levels.
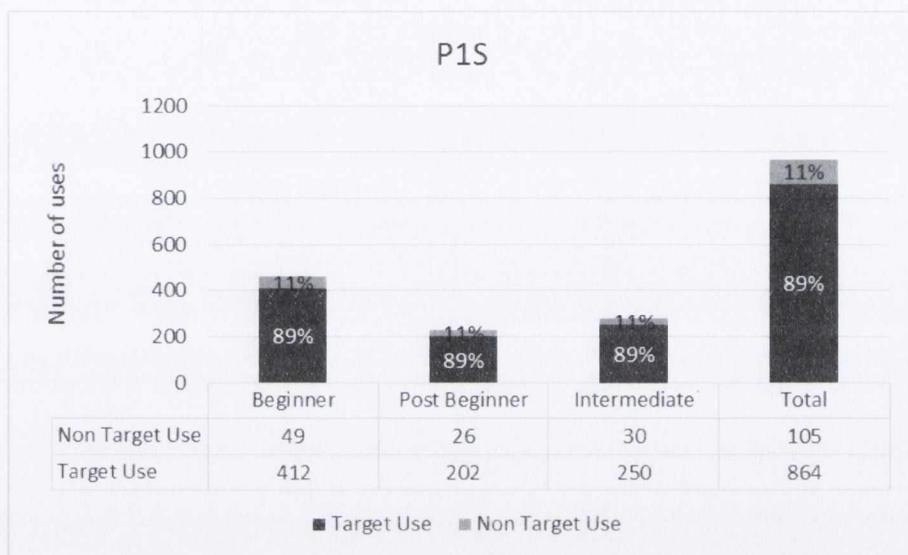
Figure 4.13: Personal Pronoun Use 1ˢᵗ person singular

In addition to this, both tables below show that there is not any significant difference among three proficiency level learners in terms of target and non target use of first person singular.

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-2.22727	2.09375	.547	-7.5244
	Intermediate	.77273	1.66625	.889	-3.4429
Post Beginner	Beginner	2.22727	2.09375	.547	-3.0699
	Intermediate	3.00000	2.19594	.377	-2.5557
Intermediate	Beginner	-.77273	1.66625	.889	-4.9883
	Post Beginner	-3.00000	2.19594	.377	-8.5557

Table 4.12: ANOVA results of the non target use of the 1ˢᵗ Person Singular

134

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-11.54545	18.03293	.800	-57.1684
	Intermediate	5.57955	14.35101	.920	-30.7282
Post Beginner	Beginner	11.54545	18.03293	.800	-34.0775
	Intermediate	17.12500	18.91309	.643	-30.7248
Intermediate	Beginner	-5.57955	14.35101	.920	-41.8873
	Post Beginner	-17.12500	18.91309	.643	-64.9748

Table 4.13: ANOVA results of the target use of the 1st Person Singular

Figure 4.14.below illustrates similar target and non-target uses for the second person singular as for the first person singular. Average target use of the suffix for the second person singular is 86% and non-target use is 14%. However, the second person singular appears much less often in the corpus, only 121 times.
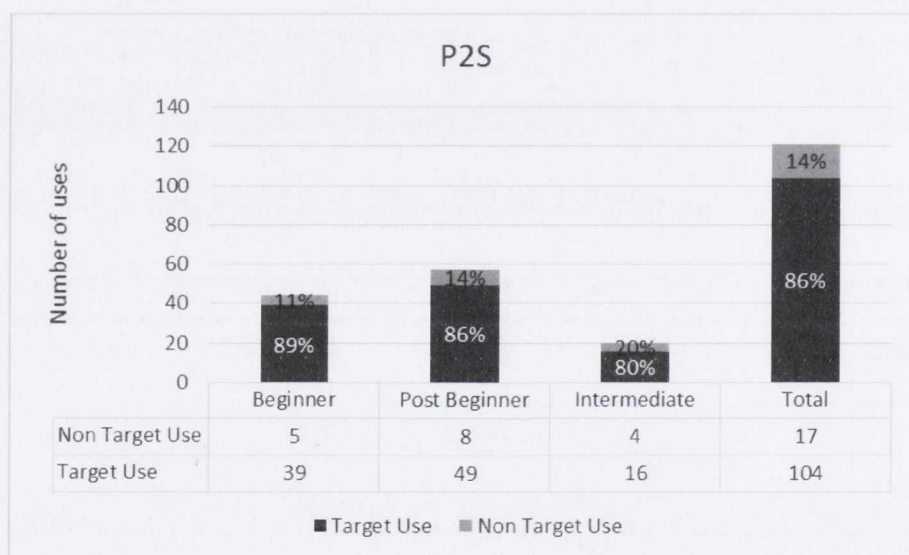
Figure 4.14: Personal Pronoun Use 2nd Person Singular

The below table shows that although there is no significant difference among the three level considering the non target use of the second person singular, there is significant difference between beginner and post beginner and post beginner and intermediate level learners in target use of the second person singular.

| (I) Level | (J) Level | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval |
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-1.54545*	.53397	.023	-2.8964
	Intermediate	-.04545	.42495	.994	-1.1206
Post Beginner	Beginner	1.54545*	.53397	.023	.1945
	Intermediate	1.50000*	.56003	.037	.0831
Intermediate	Beginner	.04545	.42495	.994	-1.0296
	Post Beginner	-1.50000*	.56003	.037	-2.9169

Table 4.14: ANOVA results of the non target use of the 2nd Person Singular

| (I) Level | (J) Level | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval |
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-8.54545*	2.24137	.003	-14.2161
	Intermediate	1.45455	1.78374	.698	-3.0583
Post Beginner	Beginner	8.54545*	2.24137	.003	2.8748
	Intermediate	10.00000*	2.35077	.001	4.0526
Intermediate	Beginner	-1.45455	1.78374	.698	-5.9674
	Post Beginner	-10.00000*	2.35077	.001	-15.9474

Table 4.15: ANOVA results of the target use of the 2nd Person Singular

Figure 4.15. below shows data regarding the use of the third person singular which appears 385 times in the corpus. Again, similar accuracy rates are apparent for the third person singular as for the first and second person suffixes, with average target use of the third person singular at 89% and non-target use at 11%.
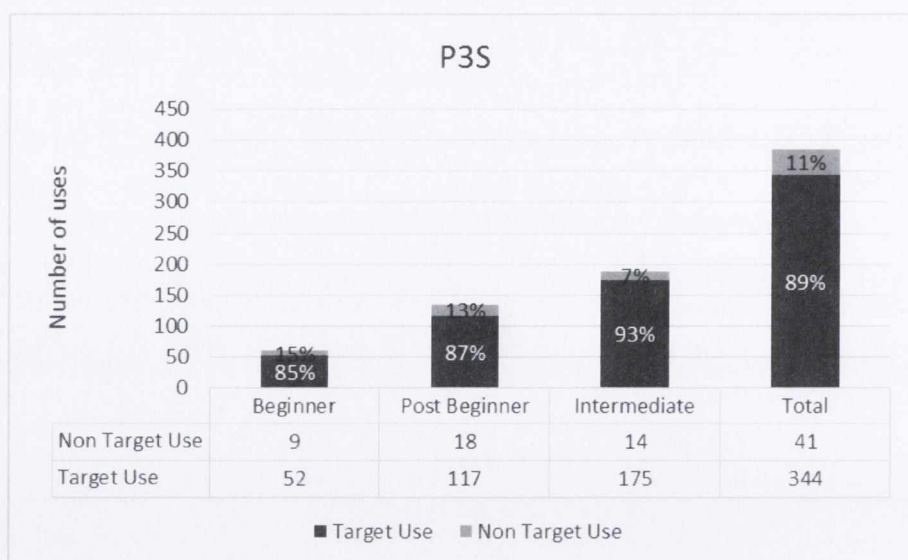
Figure 4.15: Personal Pronoun Use 3rd Person Singular

In addition to this, the below table displays that considering the non target use of the 3rd person singular, the beginner level learners differ significantly when compared to post beginner level learners. However, there is no significant difference among the three levels in target use of the third person singular.

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-3.43182*	.86859	.002	-5.6293
	Intermediate	-.80682	.69125	.486	-2.5557
Post Beginner	Beginner	3.43182*	.86859	.002	1.2343
	Intermediate	2.62500*	.91099	.024	.3202
Intermediate	Beginner	.80682	.69125	.486	-.9420
	Post Beginner	-2.62500*	.91099	.024	-4.9298

Table 4.16: ANOVA results of the non target use of the 3rd Person Singular

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	
Beginner	Post Beginner	-24.02273[*]	4.28888	.009	-38.7946	
	Intermediate	-15.77273	9.04281	.251	-41.9255	
Post Beginner	Beginner	24.02273[*]	4.28888	.009	9.2508	
	Intermediate	8.25000	9.68691	.682	-18.7028	
Intermediate	Beginner	15.77273	9.04281	.251	-10.3800	
	Post Beginner	-8.25000	9.68691	.682	-35.2028	

Table 4.17: ANOVA results of the target use of the 3rd Person Singular
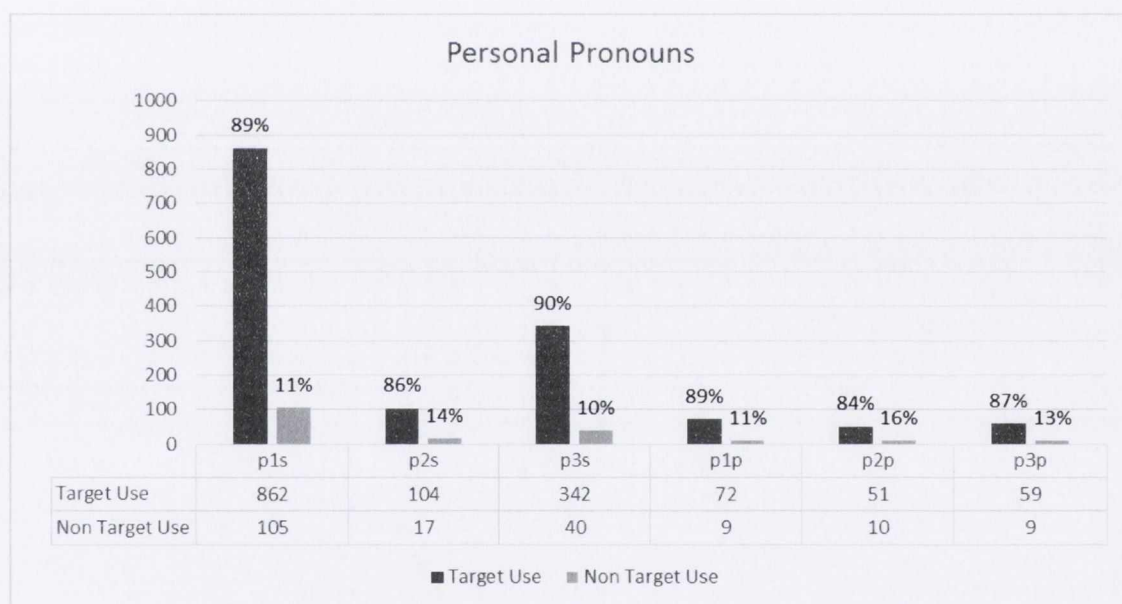
Figure 4.16: Total number of personal pronouns

The next figure shows the total number of occurrences for each personal pronoun.

As can be seen, the total number of occurrence in first person singular is used 862 times in target form and 105 times in non-target form.

Next, we consider use of the first person plural suffix. This only appears 80 times in the corpus. Target and non-target use patterns are similar to above, with accurate use in 89% of occurrences. As it can be seen in the table below, there is no significant difference among the three levels considering the target and non target use of the first person plural suffix.

	Beginner	Post Beginner	Intermediate	Total
Non Target Use	2	5	2	9
Target Use	9	28	35	72

■ Target Use   ■ Non Target Use
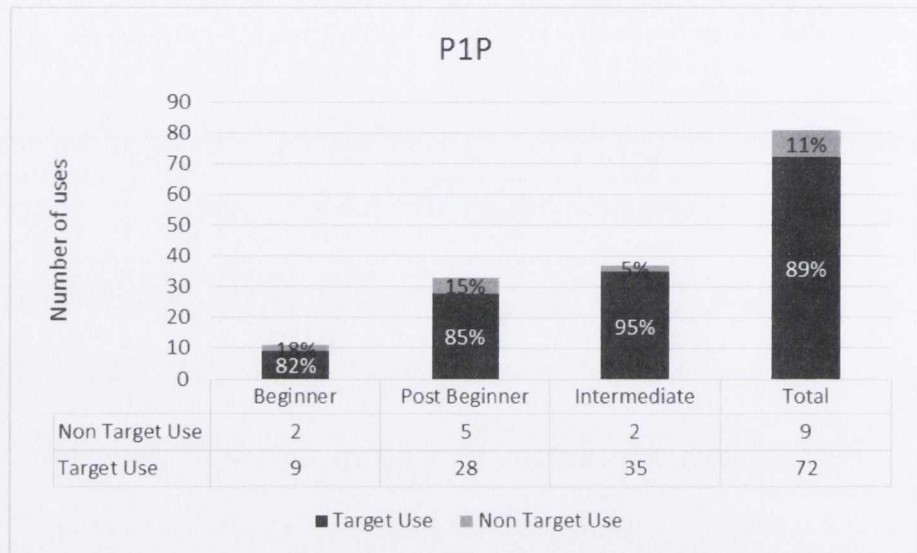
Figure 4.17: Personal Pronoun Use 1ˢᵗ Person Plural

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-1.06818	.95431	.566	-4.9728
	Intermediate	-.06818	.20411	.941	-.6027
Post Beginner	Beginner	1.06818	.95431	.566	-2.8364
	Intermediate	1.00000	.96053	.603	-2.8681
Intermediate	Beginner	.06818	.20411	.941	-.4664
	Post Beginner	-1.00000	.96053	.603	-4.8681

Table 4.18: ANOVA results of the non target use of the 1ˢᵗ Person Plural

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-6.18182	1.82401	.075	-13.3565
	Intermediate	-3.55682	2.11649	.273	-9.6860
Post Beginner	Beginner	6.18182	1.82401	.075	-.9929
	Intermediate	2.62500	2.73603	.618	-4.9648
Intermediate	Beginner	3.55682	2.11649	.273	-2.5724
	Post Beginner	-2.62500	2.73603	.618	-10.2148

Table 4.19: ANOVA results of the target use of the 1st Person Plural

Turning to the second person plural, used 61 times in the corpus, average target use is 84% and non-target use is 16%. According to ANOVA results in the table below, similar to the first person plural, the three levels do not differ significantly.
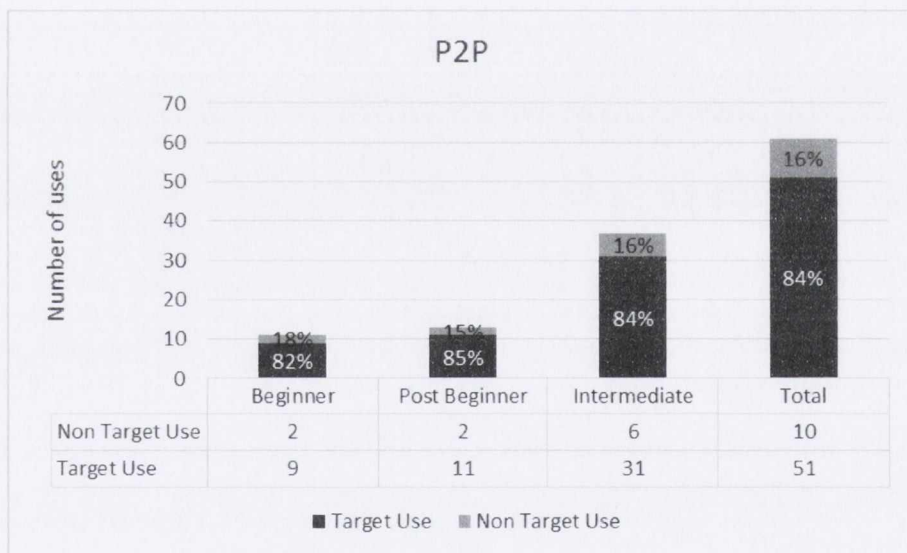
Figure 4.18: Personal Pronoun Use 2nd Person Plural

| (I) Level | (J) Level | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval |
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-.31818	.52445	.818	-1.6450
	Intermediate	-.56818	.41737	.379	-1.6241
Post Beginner	Beginner	.31818	.52445	.818	-1.0087
	Intermediate	-.25000	.55005	.893	-1.6416
Intermediate	Beginner	.56818	.41737	.379	-.4878
	Post Beginner	.25000	.55005	.893	-1.1416

Table 4.20: ANOVA results of the non target use of the 2nd Person Plural

| (I) Level | (J) Level | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval |
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-1.93182	.70825	.094	-4.2866
	Intermediate	-2.93182	1.56652	.211	-7.4534
Post Beginner	Beginner	1.93182	.70825	.094	-.4230
	Intermediate	-1.00000	1.65652	.822	-5.6284
Intermediate	Beginner	2.93182	1.56652	.211	-1.5898
	Post Beginner	1.00000	1.65652	.822	-3.6284

Table 4.21: ANOVA results of the target use of the 2nd Person Plural

Like the other plural personal pronouns, the third person plural does not appear very often in the corpus. Of its 68 occurrences, average target use of 3rd person plural is 87% and non-target use is 13%. Moreover, the target and non target use of this personal pronoun does not differ significantly among the three levels as can be seen in the tables below.
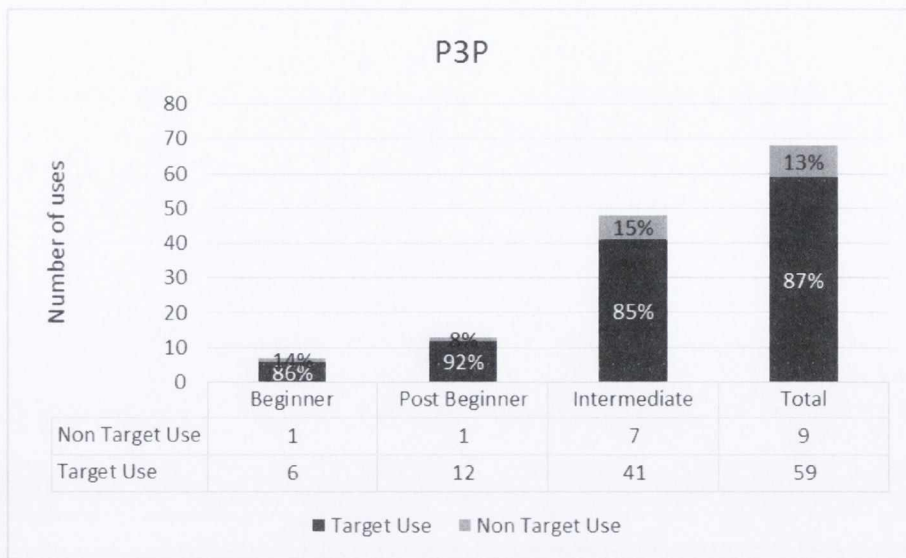
Figure 4.19: Personal Pronoun Use 3ʳᵈ Person Plural

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-.15909	.26602	.829	-1.1275
	Intermediate	-.78409	.44996	.251	-2.0842
Post Beginner	Beginner	.15909	.26602	.829	-.8093
	Intermediate	-.62500	.50665	.462	-2.0174
Intermediate	Beginner	.78409	.44996	.251	-.5160
	Post Beginner	.62500	.50665	.462	-.7674

Table 4.22: ANOVA results of the non target use of the 3ʳᵈ Person Plural

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-2.54545	1.11625	.187	-6.8564
	Intermediate	-4.67045	2.98603	.320	-13.4268
Post Beginner	Beginner	2.54545	1.11625	.187	-1.7654
	Intermediate	-2.12500	3.16287	.785	-11.0280
Intermediate	Beginner	4.67045	2.98603	.320	-4.0859
	Post Beginner	2.12500	3.16287	.785	-6.7780

Table 4.23: ANOVA results of the target use of the 3ʳᵈ Person Plural

The possessive pronoun in the first person singular is used more often, occurring 284 times in the corpus. Four out of five occurrences demonstrate accurate target language use. Similar to plural personal pronouns, the target and non target use of the first person possessive pronoun does not differ significantly among the three levels.

	Beginner	Post Beginner	Intermediate	Total
Non Target Use	24	18	14	56
Target Use	110	50	68	228

Figure 4.20: Possessive Pronoun Use 1st Person Singular

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-2.59091	1.38037	.171	-6.0832
	Intermediate	.28409	1.09853	.964	-2.4952
Post Beginner	Beginner	2.59091	1.38037	.171	-.9014
	Intermediate	2.87500	1.44774	.142	-.7878
Intermediate	Beginner	-.28409	1.09853	.964	-3.0633
	Post Beginner	-2.87500	1.44774	.142	-6.5378

Table 4.24: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Possessive Pronoun 1st Person Singular

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-2.18182	5.32977	.912	-15.6660
	Intermediate	1.69318	4.24155	.916	-9.0379
Post Beginner	Beginner	2.18182	5.32977	.912	-11.3024
	Intermediate	3.87500	5.58991	.770	-10.2674
Intermediate	Beginner	-1.69318	4.24155	.916	-12.4242
	Post Beginner	-3.87500	5.58991	.770	-18.0174

Table 4.25: ANOVA results of the target use of the Possessive Pronoun 1st Person Singular

The next Figure shows that the average target use of possessive pronoun second person singular possessive pronoun is, as for the first person singular possessive pronoun, at 80% and non-target use at 20%. This suffix was not used at all in beginner level in the corpus, and it only occurs five times in the corpus overall. In addition to this, the table below shows no significant difference among three levels in non target and target use of the second person singular possessive pronoun.

Figure 4.21: Possessive Pronoun Use 2nd Person Singular

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-.25000	.25000	.626	-1.2947
	Intermediate	.00000	.00000	.	.0000
Post Beginner	Beginner	.25000	.25000	.626	-.7947
	Intermediate	.25000	.25000	.626	-.7947
Intermediate	Beginner	.00000	.00000	.	.0000
	Post Beginner	-.25000	.25000	.626	-1.2947

Table 4.26: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Possessive Pronoun 2nd Person Singular

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-.75000	.47871	.382	-2.7504
	Intermediate	-.12500	.12500	.600	-.4931
Post Beginner	Beginner	.75000	.47871	.382	-1.2504
	Intermediate	.62500	.49476	.493	-1.2861
Intermediate	Beginner	.12500	.12500	.600	-.2431
	Post Beginner	-.62500	.49476	.493	-2.5361

Table 4.27: ANOVA results of the target use of the Possessive Pronoun 1st Person Singular

Figure 4.22. below shows that the average target use of possessive pronoun third person singular is 64% and non-target use is 36%. This suffix is used more often that those mentioned above, occurring 84 times in total. On the other hand, similar to second person singular possessive pronoun, no significant difference among the three levels is seen in the tables below.
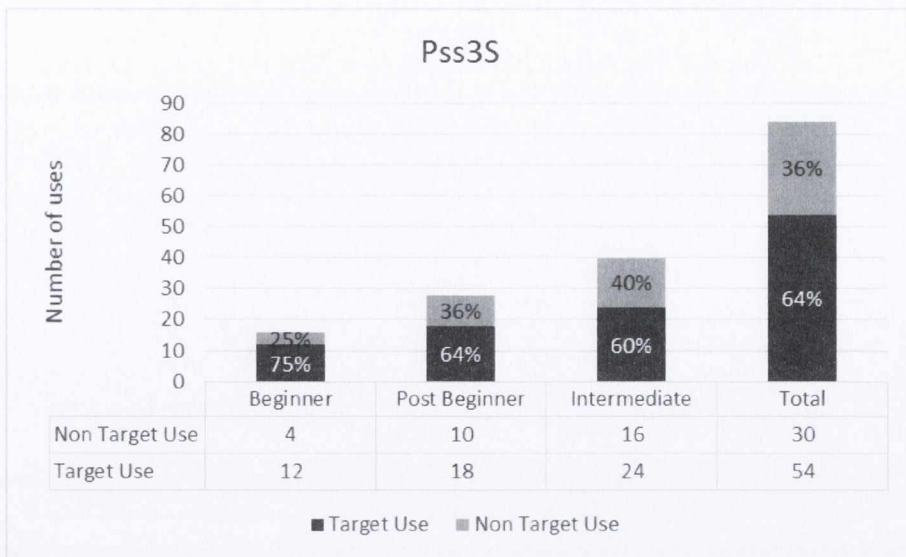
Figure 4.22: Possessive Pronoun Use 3^(rd) Person Singular

		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
(I) Level	(J) Level				
Beginner	Post Beginner	-2.13636	1.89907	.564	-10.0061
	Intermediate	-1.63636	.64498	.081	-3.4878
Post Beginner	Beginner	2.13636	1.89907	.564	-5.7333
	Intermediate	.50000	1.99404	.966	-6.9067
Intermediate	Beginner	1.63636	.64498	.081	-.2151
	Post Beginner	-.50000	1.99404	.966	-7.9067

Table 4.28: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Possessive Pronoun 3^(rd) Person Singular

		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
(I) Level	(J) Level				
Beginner	Post Beginner	-3.40909	2.17648	.283	-8.9156
	Intermediate	-1.90909	1.73210	.524	-6.2913
Post Beginner	Beginner	3.40909	2.17648	.283	-2.0974
	Intermediate	1.50000	2.28272	.791	-4.2752
Intermediate	Beginner	1.90909	1.73210	.524	-2.4731
	Post Beginner	-1.50000	2.28272	.791	-7.2752

Table 4.29: ANOVA results of the target use of the Possessive Pronoun 3^(rd) Person Singular

Next we consider occurrences of the possessive pronoun in the first person plural. This pronoun appears 22 times in the corpus; the average target use is 77% and the non-target use is 23%. The target and non target use of this possessive pronoun do not differ significantly among the three levels.

	Beginner	Post Beginner	Intermediate	Total
Non Target Use	4	0	1	5
Target Use	10	2	5	17
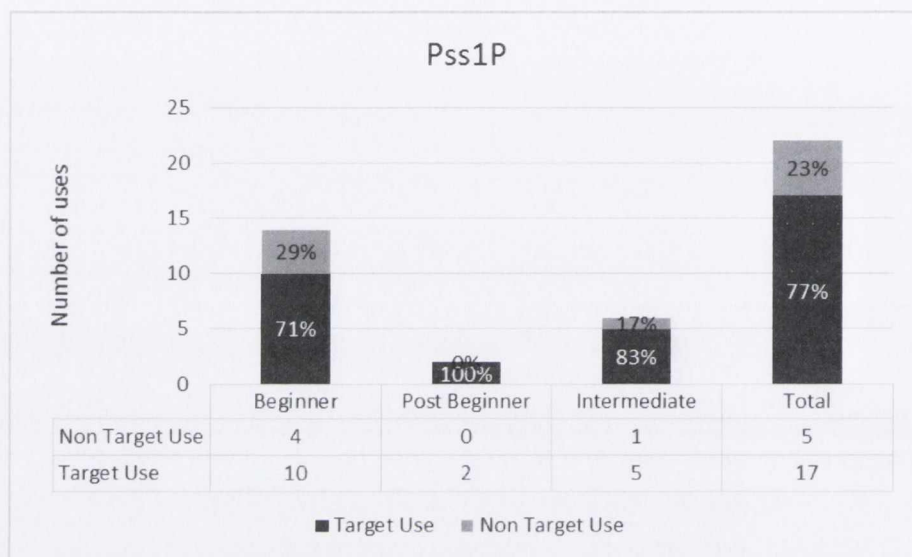
Figure 4.23: Possessive Pronoun Use 1st Person Plural

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	.36364	.40072	.642	-.6502
	Intermediate	.23864	.31890	.738	-.5682
Post Beginner	Beginner	-.36364	.40072	.642	-1.3774
	Intermediate	-.12500	.42028	.953	-1.1883
Intermediate	Beginner	-.23864	.31890	.738	-1.0455
	Post Beginner	.12500	.42028	.953	-.9383

Table 4.30: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Possessive Pronoun 1st Person Plural

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	.40909	1.07490	.924	-2.3104
	Intermediate	.28409	.85543	.941	-1.8801
Post Beginner	Beginner	-.40909	1.07490	.924	-3.1286
	Intermediate	-.12500	1.12736	.993	-2.9772
Intermediate	Beginner	-.28409	.85543	.941	-2.4483
	Post Beginner	.12500	1.12736	.993	-2.7272

Table 4.31: ANOVA results of the target use of the Possessive Pronoun 1st Person Plural

The following Figure shows that the average target use of possessive pronoun second person plural is 65% and non-target use is 35%. Again, it appears infrequently in the corpus with only 20 occurrences. Similarly, no significant difference is observed among the three levels in target and non target use of this pronoun.

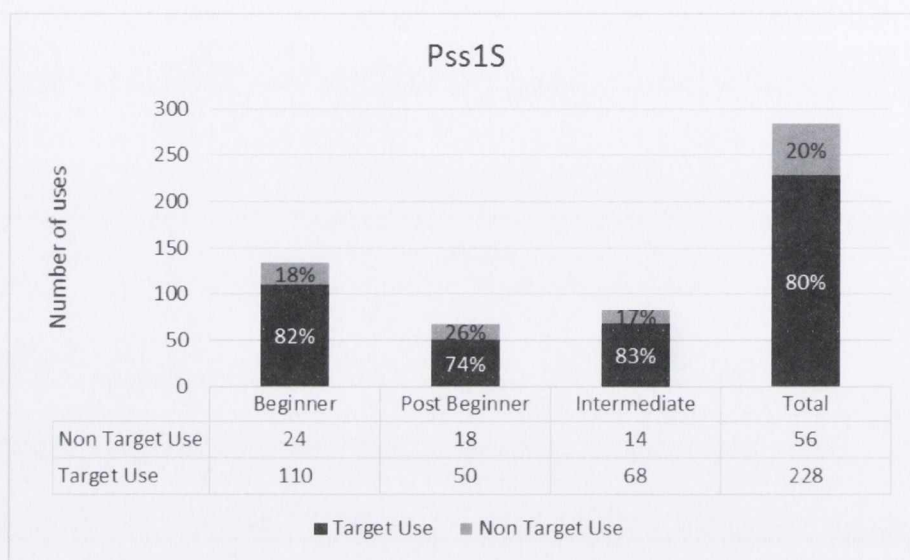|	Beginner	Post Beginner	Intermediate	Total
Non Target Use	0	1	6	7
Target Use	3	0	10	13
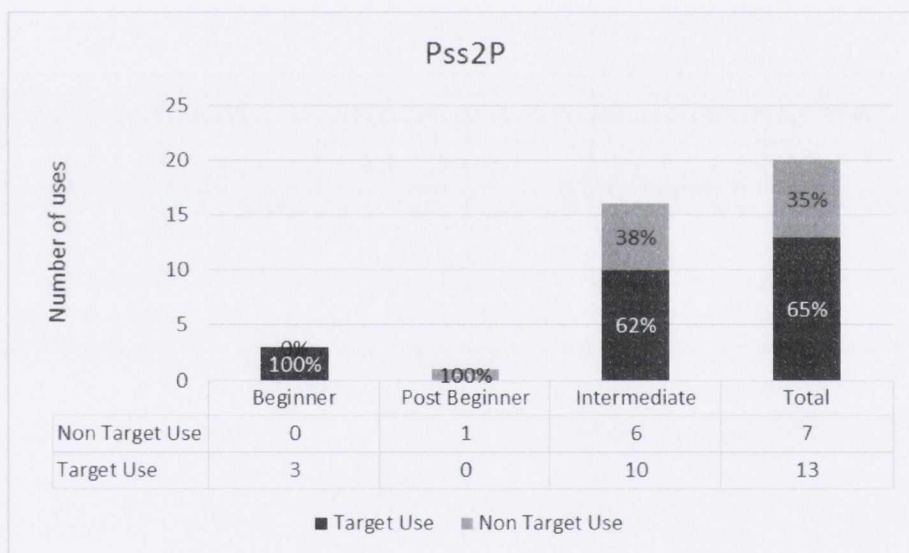
Figure 4.24: Possessive Pronoun Use 2nd Person Plural

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-.25000	.25000	.626	-1.2947
	Intermediate	-.75000	.75000	.600	-2.9588
Post Beginner	Beginner	.25000	.25000	.626	-.7947
	Intermediate	-.50000	.79057	.807	-2.7366
Intermediate	Beginner	.75000	.75000	.600	-1.4588
	Post Beginner	.50000	.79057	.807	-1.7366

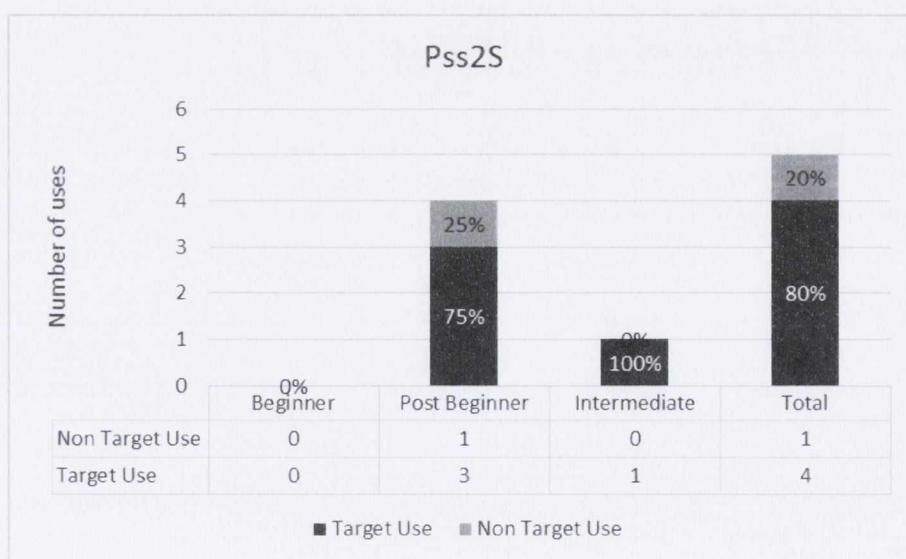*Table 4.32: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Possessive Pronoun 2nd Person Plural*

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	.27273	.19498	.378	-.2618
	Intermediate	-.97727	.88266	.537	-3.5186
Post Beginner	Beginner	-.27273	.19498	.378	-.8072
	Intermediate	-1.25000	.86086	.368	-3.7853
Intermediate	Beginner	.97727	.88266	.537	-1.5640
	Post Beginner	1.25000	.86086	.368	-1.2853

Table 4.33: ANOVA results of the target use of the Possessive Pronoun 2nd Person Plural

4.4.3. Tenses

In this section, target and non-target use of tense suffixes – simple present, simple past, present progressive, past continuous, indirect evidence and future tense – are presented respectively.

Figure 4.25. shows that the average target use of simple present tense suffix *Iyor* is 82% and non-target use is 18%. This tense suffix is used 76 times in total, and its use peaks in the Post-beginner class. On the other hand, the table below displays that there is no

significant difference among the three levels in the use of target and non target form of this tense suffix.
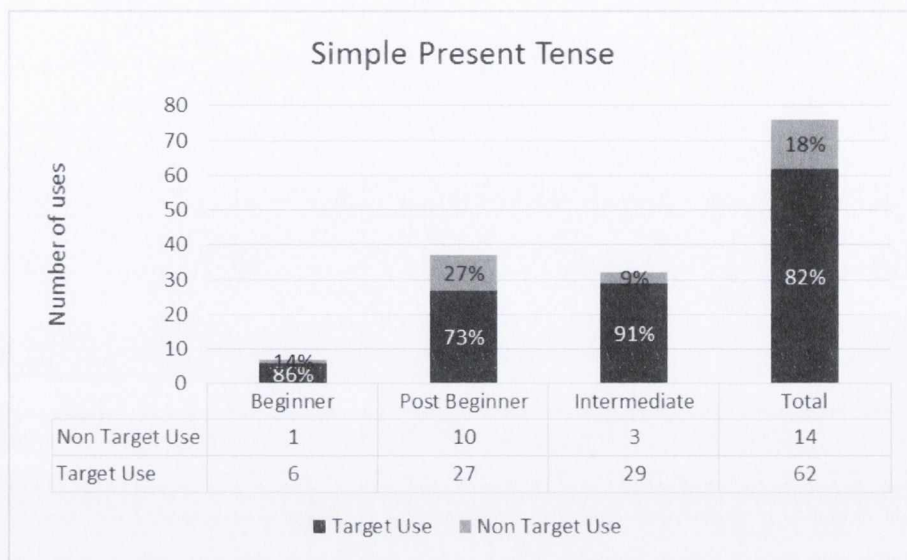
Figure 4.25: Simple Present Tense Use

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-2.40909	.96173	.165	-6.3815
	Intermediate	-.28409	.27832	.584	-1.0664
Post Beginner	Beginner	2.40909	.96173	.165	-1.5634
	Intermediate	2.12500	.99291	.212	-1.6822
Intermediate	Beginner	.28409	.27832	.584	-.4982
	Post Beginner	-2.12500	.99291	.212	-5.9322

Table 4.34: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Simple Present Tense

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-6.29545	2.60233	.178	-17.0804
	Intermediate	-3.04545	1.64971	.222	-7.8673
Post Beginner	Beginner	6.29545	2.60233	.178	-4.4895
	Intermediate	3.25000	3.06720	.573	-6.4190
Intermediate	Beginner	3.04545	1.64971	.222	-1.7764
	Post Beginner	-3.25000	3.06720	.573	-12.9190

Table 4.35: ANOVA results of the target use of the Simple Present Tense

Average target use of the past tense suffix is higher than for the present tense suffix, with 93% target use. This suffix is appears 395 times in the corpus. Again, there is statistically no significant difference among the three levels as the tables below show.
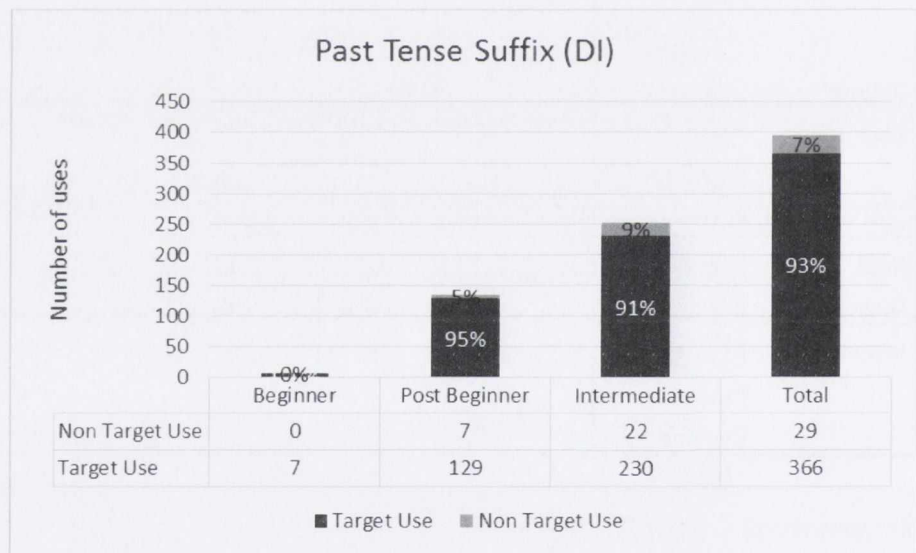
Figure 4.26: Simple Past Tense Use

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-1.75000*	.25000	.012	-2.7947
	Intermediate	-2.75000	1.03078	.073	-5.7857
Post Beginner	Beginner	1.75000*	.25000	.012	.7053
	Intermediate	-1.00000	1.06066	.631	-4.0484
Intermediate	Beginner	2.75000	1.03078	.073	-.2857
	Post Beginner	1.00000	1.06066	.631	-2.0484

Table 4.36: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Simple Past Tense

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-29.20455*	6.14738	.035	-54.8385
	Intermediate	-27.57955*	7.76013	.022	-50.4223
Post Beginner	Beginner	29.20455*	6.14738	.035	3.5706
	Intermediate	1.62500	9.89382	.985	-25.6523
Intermediate	Beginner	27.57955*	7.76013	.022	4.7368
	Post Beginner	-1.62500	9.89382	.985	-28.9023

Table 4.37: ANOVA results of the target use of the Simple Past Tense

Figure 4.27. below shows the present progressive tense, with a high accurate average usage at 91%. This tense marker is used frequently by learners, occurring 664 times in the corpus, yet decreasing in use in the Post-beginner and Intermediate classes. However, according to the tables below, the target and non target use of this tense suffix do not differ significantly.
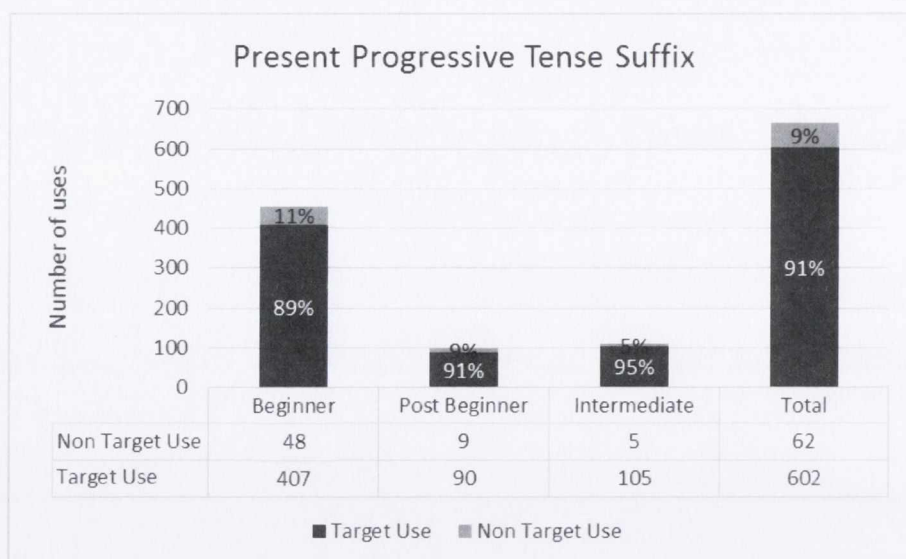
Figure 4.27: Present Progressive Tense Use

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	1.93182	1.58643	.471	-2.4579
	Intermediate	3.43182*	1.19228	.034	.2511
Post Beginner	Beginner	-1.93182	1.58643	.471	-6.3216
	Intermediate	1.50000	1.16752	.479	-2.8392
Intermediate	Beginner	-3.43182*	1.19228	.034	-6.6126
	Post Beginner	-1.50000	1.16752	.479	-5.8392

Table 4.38: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Present Progressive Tense

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	14.54545	12.66996	.503	-18.9261
	Intermediate	23.92045	12.42987	.169	-8.6801
Post Beginner	Beginner	-14.54545	12.66996	.503	-48.0170
	Intermediate	9.37500	7.70112	.478	-12.8146
Intermediate	Beginner	-23.92045	12.42987	.169	-56.5210
	Post Beginner	-9.37500	7.70112	.478	-31.5646

Table 4.39: ANOVA results of the target use of the Present Progressive Tense

Figure 4.28. below shows that the average target use of past continuous tense is 80% and non-target use is 20%, but used five times by learners in the corpus. There is also statistically no significant difference among the three levels.
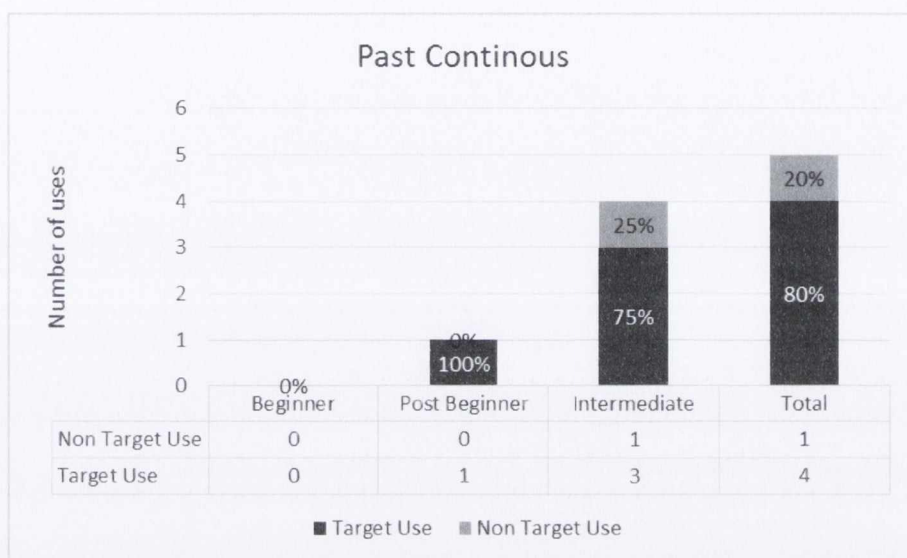
Figure 4.28: Past Continuous Tense Use

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	.00000	.00000	.	.0000
	Intermediate	-.12500	.12500	.600	-.4931
Post Beginner	Beginner	.00000	.00000	.	.0000
	Intermediate	-.12500	.12500	.600	-.4931
Intermediate	Beginner	.12500	.12500	.600	-.2431
	Post Beginner	.12500	.12500	.600	-.2431

Table 4.40: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Past Continuous Tense

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	.00000	.00000	.	.0000
	Intermediate	-.37500	.26305	.380	-1.1497
Post Beginner	Beginner	.00000	.00000	.	.0000
	Intermediate	-.37500	.26305	.380	-1.1497
Intermediate	Beginner	.37500	.26305	.380	-.3997
	Post Beginner	.37500	.26305	.380	-.3997

Table 4.41: ANOVA results of the target use of the Past Continuous Tense

Average target use of indirect evidence past tense is 96%, occurring 151 times in total. Although there is no significant difference among the three levels in the non target use indirect evidence past tense, there is significant difference between beginner and post beginner level learners in target use of this tense.
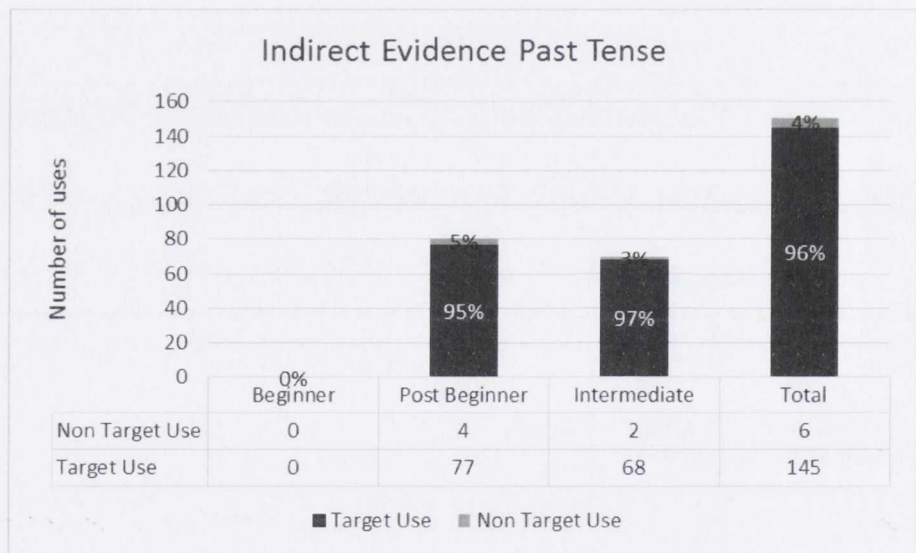
Figure 4.29: Indirect Evidence Past Tense Use

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-1.00000	.57735	.329	-3.4126
	Intermediate	-.25000	.25000	.600	-.9863
Post Beginner	Beginner	1.00000	.57735	.329	-1.4126
	Intermediate	.75000	.62915	.515	-1.4510
Intermediate	Beginner	.25000	.25000	.600	-.4863
	Post Beginner	-.75000	.62915	.515	-2.9510

Table 4.42: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Indirect Evidence Past Tense

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-19.25000*	2.32289	.008	-28.9567
	Intermediate	-8.00000	4.42396	.235	-21.0288
Post Beginner	Beginner	19.25000*	2.32289	.008	9.5433
	Intermediate	11.25000	4.99673	.112	-2.5232
Intermediate	Beginner	8.00000	4.42396	.235	-5.0288
	Post Beginner	-11.25000	4.99673	.112	-25.0232

Table 4.43: ANOVA results of the target use of the Indirect Evidence Past Tense

Next, we consider future tense which appears just 47 times. Average target use of future tense is 70% and non-target use is 30%. It is used only rarely in the Beginner class. The three levels do not also differ significantly considering the target and non target use of future tense suffix.
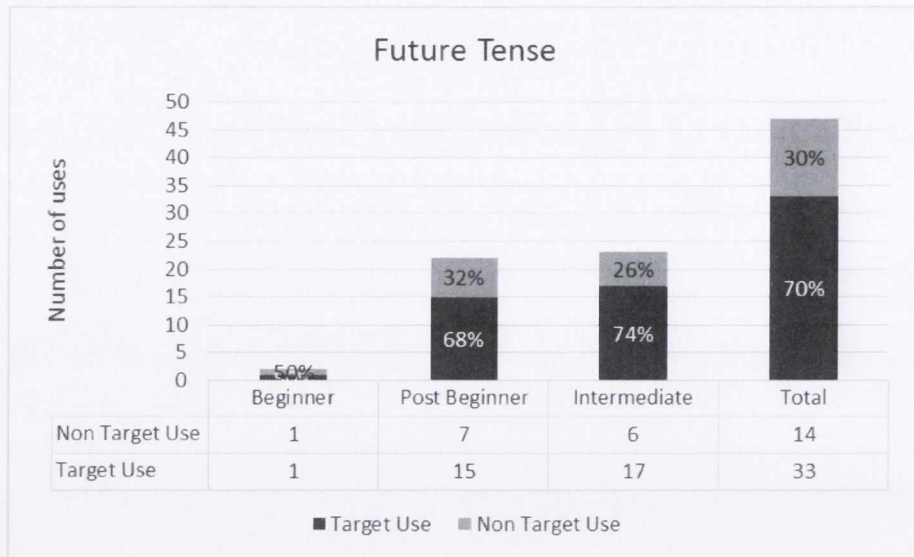
Figure 4.30: Future Tense

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-1.65909	.68040	.060	-3.3805
	Intermediate	-.65909	.54147	.457	-2.0290
Post Beginner	Beginner	1.65909	.68040	.060	-.0623
	Intermediate	1.00000	.71361	.359	-.8054
Intermediate	Beginner	.65909	.54147	.457	-.7108
	Post Beginner	-1.00000	.71361	.359	-2.8054

Table 4.44: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Future Tense

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-3.65909	1.55052	.188	-10.1093
	Intermediate	-1.90909	.78448	.099	-4.2046
Post Beginner	Beginner	3.65909	1.55052	.188	-2.7911
	Intermediate	1.75000	1.73291	.605	-4.0744
Intermediate	Beginner	1.90909	.78448	.099	-.3864
	Post Beginner	-1.75000	1.73291	.605	-7.5744

Table 4.45: ANOVA results of the target use of the Future Tense

4.4.4. Compound Nouns

We turn now to the occurrence of compound nouns, which appear 338 times in the corpus. Figure 4.31. below illustrates that the average target use of compound noun is at 62%, representing a challenging lexical item for learners. Improvements appear across the proficiency levels, with more accurate use in the Intermediate class (four out of five times). Moreover, there is statistically significant difference between post beginner and intermediate levels learners considering the non target use of compound nouns. Yet, no significant difference is observed in three levels in target use.

	Beginner	Post Beginner	Intermediate	Total
Non Target Use	52	48	27	127
Target Use	50	56	105	211
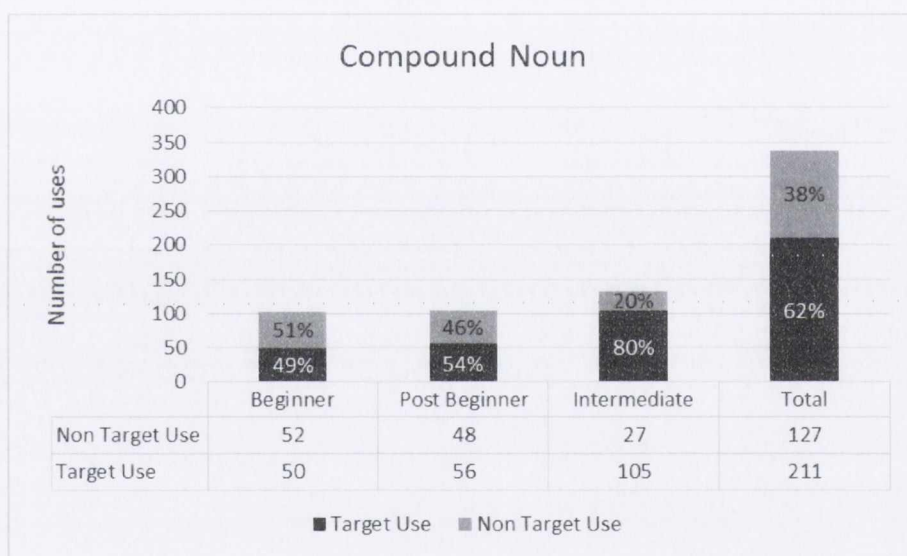
Figure 4.31: Compound Noun Use

| (I) Level | (J) Level | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval |
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-6.86364*	2.22110	.015	-12.4830
	Intermediate	1.26136	1.76760	.758	-3.2106
Post Beginner	Beginner	6.86364*	2.22110	.015	1.2443
	Intermediate	8.12500*	2.32951	.006	2.2314
Intermediate	Beginner	-1.26136	1.76760	.758	-5.7334
	Post Beginner	-8.12500*	2.32951	.006	-14.0186

Table 4.46: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Compound Noun

| (I) Level | (J) Level | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval |
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-8.95455	6.31182	.351	-24.9233
	Intermediate	-8.20455	5.02309	.255	-20.9129
Post Beginner	Beginner	8.95455	6.31182	.351	-7.0143
	Intermediate	.75000	6.61990	.993	-15.9982
Intermediate	Beginner	8.20455	5.02309	.255	-4.5038
	Post Beginner	-.75000	6.61990	.993	-17.4982

Table 4.47: ANOVA results of the target use of the Compound Noun

4.4.5. Participles

Participles appear 208 times in the corpus, with average target use of participles at 81%. They are not employed by participants in the Beginner class, and most occurrences appear in the Intermediate class, suggesting they represent a difficult item for learners. Considering the tables below, the beginner level and post beginner level learners differ slightly in the non target use of the participles. On the other hand, there is no s significant difference among the three levels in target use of the participles.
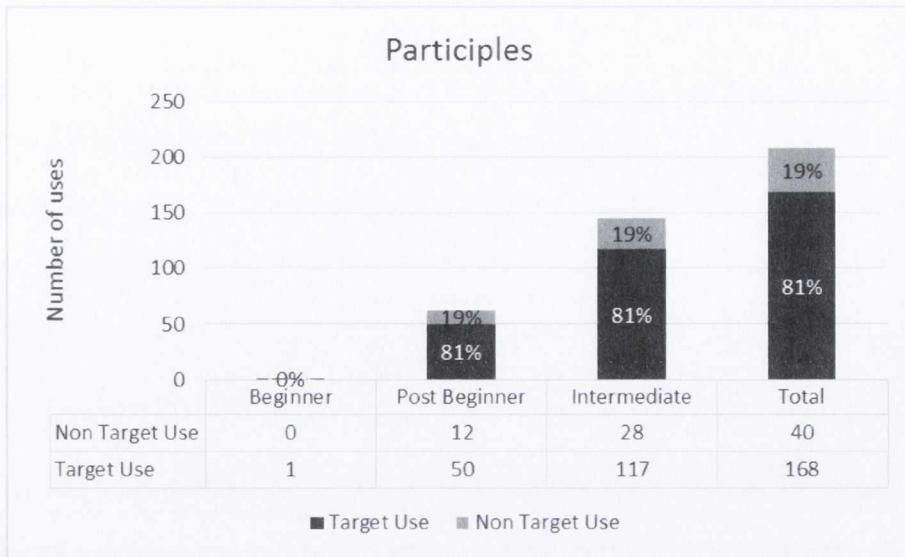
Figure 4.32: Participles

| (I) Level | (J) Level | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval |
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-3.00000*	.40825	.011	-4.7060
	Intermediate	-3.50000	1.25357	.062	-7.1918
Post Beginner	Beginner	3.00000*	.40825	.011	1.2940
	Intermediate	-.50000	1.31837	.924	-4.2347
Intermediate	Beginner	3.50000	1.25357	.062	-.1918
	Post Beginner	.50000	1.31837	.924	-3.2347

Table 4.48: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Participles

| (I) Level | (J) Level | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval |
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-12.40909	4.83993	.159	-32.6245
	Intermediate	-12.53409	6.08326	.168	-30.4477
Post Beginner	Beginner	12.40909	4.83993	.159	-7.8063
	Intermediate	-.12500	7.77267	1.000	-21.5606
Intermediate	Beginner	12.53409	6.08326	.168	-5.3795
	Post Beginner	.12500	7.77267	1.000	-21.3106

Table 4.49: ANOVA results of the target use of the Participles

160

4.4.6. Question Particle

In Figure 4.33. below, it shows that the learners in all levels used question particles and the total target use is 81% with 296 tokens. On the other hand, as the below table shows, no significant difference is observed among the three levels in target and non target use of question particle.
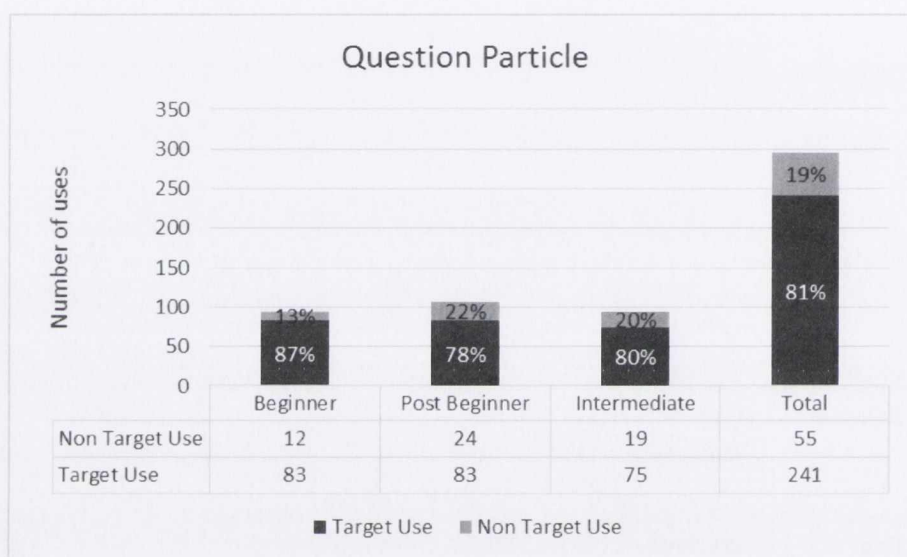
Figure 4.33: Question Particle

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-4.90909	3.17124	.382	-17.5261
	Intermediate	-1.28409	1.16281	.529	-4.3729
Post Beginner	Beginner	4.90909	3.17124	.382	-7.7079
	Intermediate	3.62500	3.26017	.562	-8.5943
Intermediate	Beginner	1.28409	1.16281	.529	-1.8047
	Post Beginner	-3.62500	3.26017	.562	-15.8443

Table 4.50: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Question Particle

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-12.88636*	4.64569	.030	-24.6399
	Intermediate	-1.76136	3.69715	.883	-11.1151
Post Beginner	Beginner	12.88636*	4.64569	.030	1.1328
	Intermediate	11.12500	4.87244	.082	-1.2022
Intermediate	Beginner	1.76136	3.69715	.883	-7.5923
	Post Beginner	-11.12500	4.87244	.082	-23.4522

Table 4.51: ANOVA results of the target use of the Question Particle

4.4.7. Buffer Letters

Turkish employs four buffer letters (y, s, ş, n). These appear 79 times, but seem to represent a difficult aspect for learners, with target use at 44%. Also there seem to be no significant difference among the three level learners in target and non target use buffer letters.
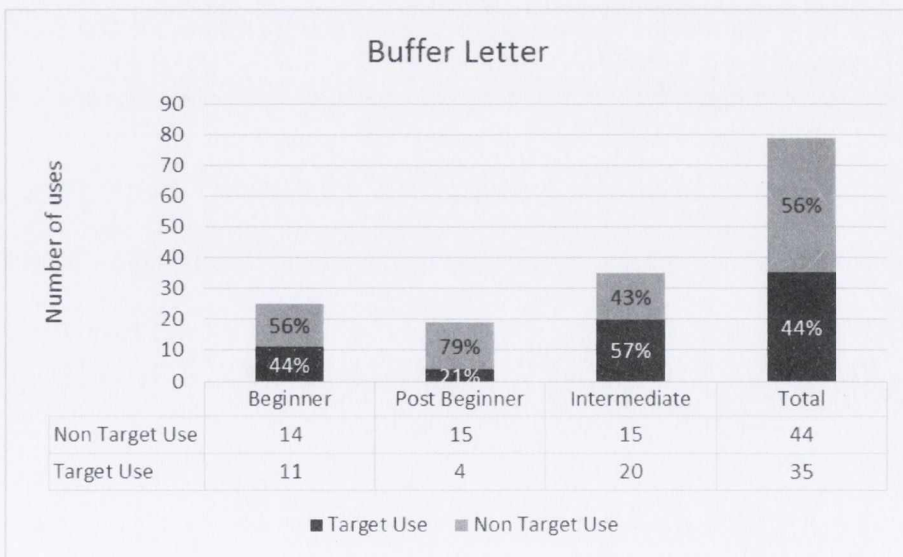
Figure 4.34: Buffer Letter

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-2.47727	1.18536	.117	-5.4762
	Intermediate	-.47727	.94334	.869	-2.8639
Post Beginner	Beginner	2.47727	1.18536	.117	-.5217
	Intermediate	2.00000	1.24322	.265	-1.1453
Intermediate	Beginner	.47727	.94334	.869	-1.9094
	Post Beginner	-2.00000	1.24322	.265	-5.1453

Table 4.52: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Buffer Letter

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	.00000	.63723	1.000	-2.1803
	Intermediate	-1.50000	1.11861	.414	-4.7075
Post Beginner	Beginner	.00000	.63723	1.000	-2.1803
	Intermediate	-1.50000	1.22960	.470	-4.8874
Intermediate	Beginner	1.50000	1.11861	.414	-1.7075
	Post Beginner	1.50000	1.22960	.470	-1.8874

Table 4.53: ANOVA results of the target use of the Buffer Letter

4.4.8. Negation

Learners appear more equipped to express negation in Turkish. There are two different types of negation in Turkish the first one, the negative suffix mA- is used only with verbs. The letter A is in capital because it has to follow the vowel harmony and as in the case below it mutated into mE. For instance;

a.   Geldim.
       came I
       'I came'

b.   Gelmedim.
       came not I
       'I did not come.'

The second negation is *değil*. It is used with nouns and adjectives only to describe negation. For example:

Elma masada değil.
Apple on the table not
'Apple is not on the table.'

The average target use of the mA type of negation is at 79%. However, this type of negation only appears 90 times in total. There is also no significant difference among the three level learners in target and non target use of this type of negation.

	Beginner	Post Beginner	Intermediate	Total
Non Target Use	8	6	5	19
Target Use	21	13	37	71

■ Target Use ■ Non Target Use
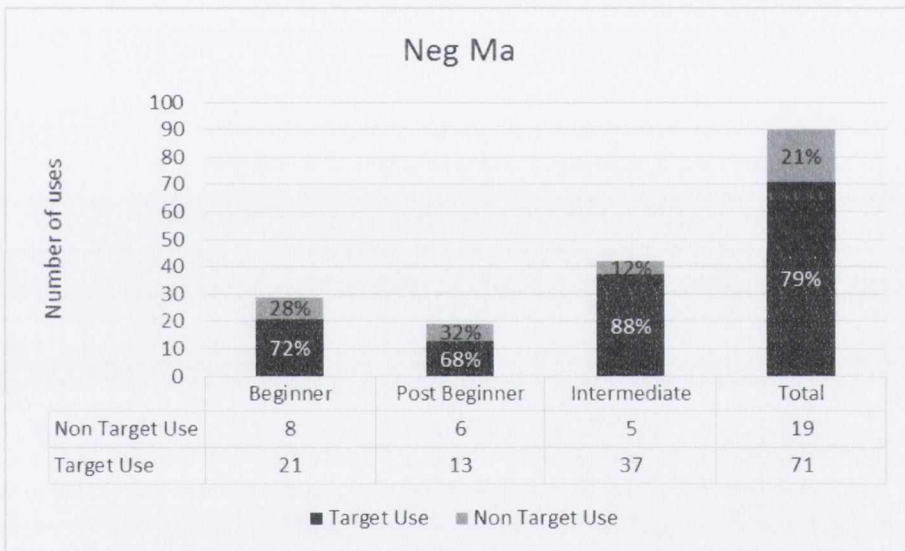
Figure 4.35: Negation-mA

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-.77273	.72758	.548	-2.6135
	Intermediate	.10227	.57903	.983	-1.3627
Post Beginner	Beginner	.77273	.72758	.548	-1.0680
	Intermediate	.87500	.76310	.498	-1.0556
Intermediate	Beginner	-.10227	.57903	.983	-1.5672
	Post Beginner	-.87500	.76310	.498	-2.8056

Table 4.54: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Negation-mA

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-1.52273	1.23235	.479	-5.3404
	Intermediate	-2.89773	2.11044	.395	-8.8395
Post Beginner	Beginner	1.52273	1.23235	.479	-2.2949
	Intermediate	-1.37500	2.24950	.817	-7.5808
Intermediate	Beginner	2.89773	2.11044	.395	-3.0441
	Post Beginner	1.37500	2.24950	.817	-4.8308

Table 4.55: ANOVA results of the target use of the Negation-mA

The next figure presents use of negation-*değil* for nouns and adjectives, where target use is 77%. Again, it does not appear very frequently, 66 times in total. Similar to negation-*Ma*, the three levels do not differ significantly in the target and non target use of negation-*değil*.

165
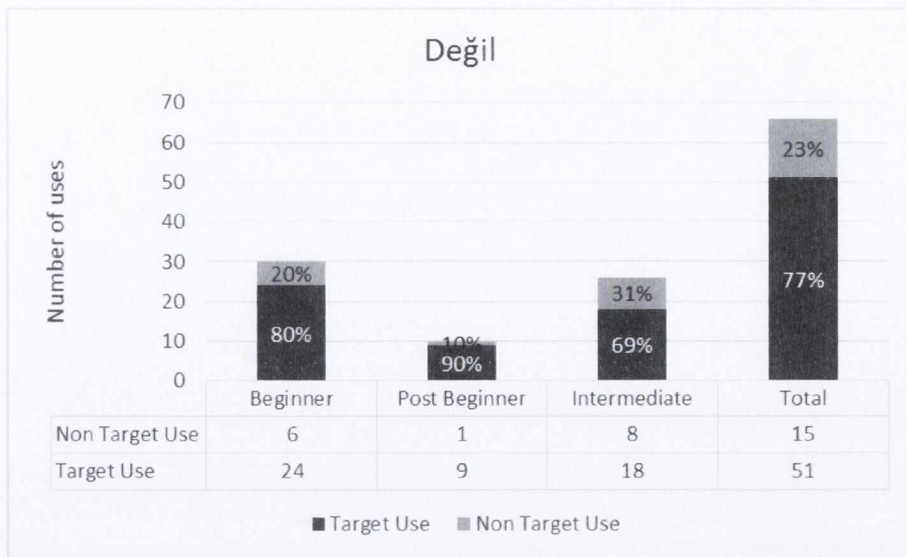
Figure 4.36: Negation-değil

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-.25000	.25000	.626	-1.2947
	Intermediate	-.37500	.26305	.380	-1.1497
Post Beginner	Beginner	.25000	.25000	.626	-.7947
	Intermediate	-.12500	.36290	.937	-1.1440
Intermediate	Beginner	.37500	.26305	.380	-.3997
	Post Beginner	.12500	.36290	.937	-.8940

Table 4.56: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Negation-değil

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-4.13636	2.06243	.137	-9.3543
	Intermediate	-.13636	1.64133	.996	-4.2889
Post Beginner	Beginner	4.13636	2.06243	.137	-1.0815
	Intermediate	4.00000	2.16309	.180	-1.4726
Intermediate	Beginner	.13636	1.64133	.996	-4.0162
	Post Beginner	-4.00000	2.16309	.180	-9.4726

Table 4.57: ANOVA results of the target use of the Negation-değil

166

4.4.9. Plural Suffixes

We turn now to plural suffixes, appearing 116 times in the corpus. Average target use of plural suffix is high at 87%, and use peaks in the Intermediate class. Considering the tables below, the three levels also do not differ significantly in the target and non target use of plural suffix.
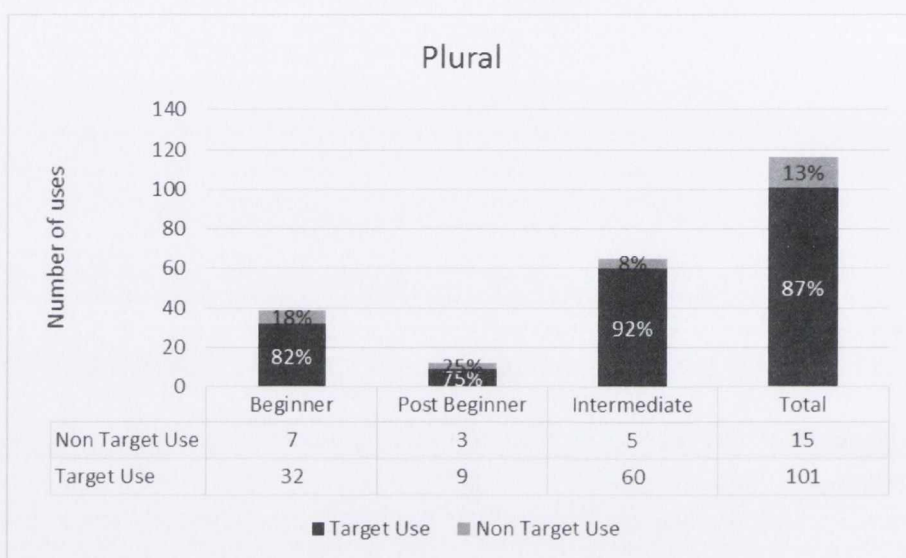
Figure 4.37: Plural suffix

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-.11364	.65501	.984	-1.7708
	Intermediate	.01136	.52127	1.000	-1.3074
Post Beginner	Beginner	.11364	.65501	.984	-1.5435
	Intermediate	.12500	.68698	.982	-1.6131
Intermediate	Beginner	-.01136	.52127	1.000	-1.3302
	Post Beginner	-.12500	.68698	.982	-1.8631

Table 4.58: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Plural suffix

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	.56818	1.13956	.873	-2.4469
	Intermediate	-4.18182	3.40139	.468	-13.7963
Post Beginner	Beginner	-.56818	1.13956	.873	-3.5833
	Intermediate	-4.75000	3.27554	.367	-14.3006
Intermediate	Beginner	4.18182	3.40139	.468	-5.4327
	Post Beginner	4.75000	3.27554	.367	-4.8006

Table 4.59: ANOVA results of the target use of the Plural suffix

4.4.10. If Conditionals

Conditionals only appear ten times in the corpus, and never in the Beginner recordings. Figure 4.38. shows that the average target uses of conditionals is 20%. It was used ten times in total, and seems to represent a challenge for learners – mostly used inaccurately in its occurrences in the corpus. In addition to this, the below tables also show that there is no significant difference among the three levels in the target and non target use of if conditionals.
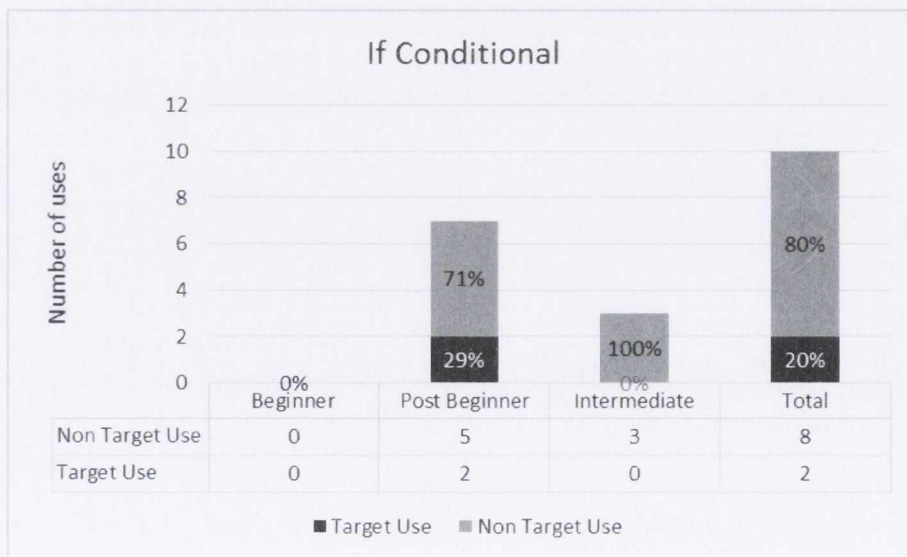
Figure 4.38: If Conditional

168

| (I) Level | (J) Level | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval |
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-1.25000	.47871	.153	-3.2504
	Intermediate	-.37500	.37500	.600	-1.4794
Post Beginner	Beginner	1.25000	.47871	.153	-.7504
	Intermediate	.87500	.60810	.376	-.9338
Intermediate	Beginner	.37500	.37500	.600	-.7294
	Post Beginner	-.87500	.60810	.376	-2.6838

Table 4.60: ANOVA results of the non target use of the If Conditional

| (I) Level | (J) Level | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval |
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-.50000	.28868	.329	-1.7063
	Intermediate	.00000	.00000	.	.0000
Post Beginner	Beginner	.50000	.28868	.329	-.7063
	Intermediate	.50000	.28868	.329	-.7063
Intermediate	Beginner	.00000	.00000	.	.0000
	Post Beginner	-.50000	.28868	.329	-1.7063

Table 4.61: ANOVA results of the target use of the If Conditional

4.4.11. Requests

Requests do not appear regularly in the corpus, with only 17 examples most of which occur in the Intermediate recordings. The average target use of request is 71%. Significant difference is not observed among the three levels as the below tables show.
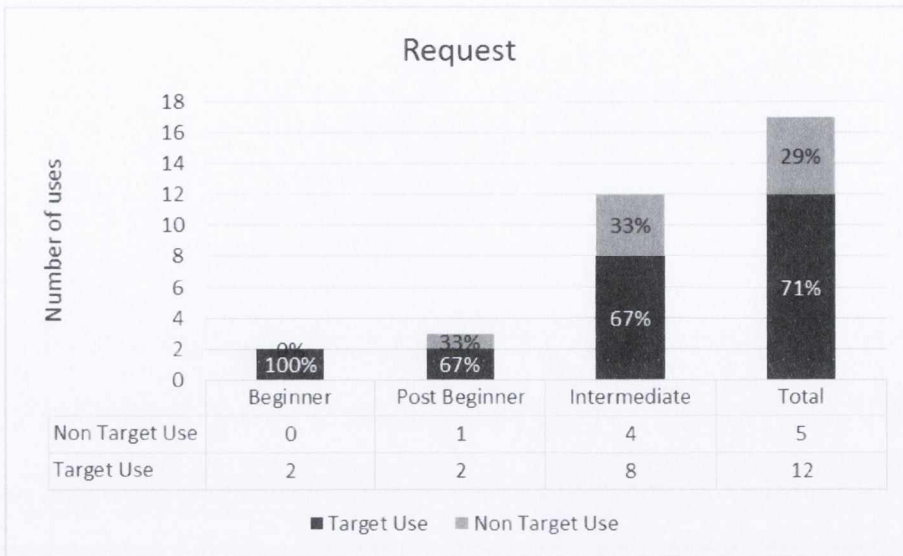
Figure 4.39: Request

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-.25000	.25000	.626	-1.2947
	Intermediate	-.50000	.32733	.336	-1.4640
Post Beginner	Beginner	.25000	.25000	.626	-.7947
	Intermediate	-.25000	.41188	.820	-1.3832
Intermediate	Beginner	.50000	.32733	.336	-.4640
	Post Beginner	.25000	.41188	.820	-.8832

Table 4.62: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Request

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-.31818	.51466	.820	-2.3234
	Intermediate	-.69318	.49476	.385	-2.1102
Post Beginner	Beginner	.31818	.51466	.820	-1.6871
	Intermediate	-.37500	.69276	.854	-2.3487
Intermediate	Beginner	.69318	.49476	.385	-.7239
	Post Beginner	.37500	.69276	.854	-1.5987

Table 4.63: ANOVA results of the target use of the Request

4.5. Lexical Control

We turn now to lexical competence, described as "knowledge of, and ability to use, the vocabulary of a language, consists of lexical elements and grammatical elements" (Council of Europe, 2001: 110). According to the CEFR, personal/possessive pronouns, question participles, conjunctions and particles belong to lexical competence category. Moreover, they could also be evaluated within grammatical elements belonging to the closed word classes (ibid.: 111). In this section, data on twenty most frequently used nouns and verbs are described in relation to lexical control.

The table below shows the top 20 most frequently used nouns in Turkish in Beginner, Post-beginner and Intermediate levels together with total occurrences and percentages of target and non-target uses. Telling the time is the most frequently used noun occurring 156 times, 120 times in target use form and 36 times in non-target use form.

Noun	Level	Total Use	Target Use	Non-target use
Saat Kavramı Telling the time	Beginner	112	88 (79%)	24 (21%)
	Post Beginner	41	29 (71%)	12 (29%)
	Intermediate	3	3 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Total	156	120 (77%)	36 (23%)
Ev Home/house	Beginner	22	20 (91%)	2 (9%)
	Post Beginner	53	39 (74%)	14 (26%)
	Intermediate	29	23 (79%)	6 (21%)
	Total	104	82 (79%)	22 (21%)
Tarih Date	Beginner	1	0 (0%)	1 (100%)
	Post Beginner	8	5 (62%)	3 (38%)
	Intermediate	82	49 (60%)	33 (40%)
	Total	91	54 (59%)	37 (41%)
Çocuk Child	Beginner	14	9 (64%)	5 (36%)
	Post Beginner	5	5 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	35	27 (77%)	8 (23%)
	Total	54	41 (76%)	13 (24%)
Yıl Year	Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	44	32 (73%)	12 (27%)
	Total	44	32 (73%)	12 (27%)
Haftanın Günleri Days of the week	Beginner	24	20 (83%)	4 (17%)
	Post Beginner	17	11 (65%)	6 (35%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	41	31 (76%)	10 (24%)
İş Work	Beginner	21	13 (62%)	8 (38%)
	Post Beginner	13	11 (85%)	2 (15%)
	Intermediate	7	4 (57%)	3 (43%)
	Total	41	28 (68%)	13 (32%)
Yaş Age	Beginner	17	11 (65%)	6 (35%)
	Post Beginner	4	2 (50%)	2 (50%)
	Intermediate	18	15 (83%)	3 (17%)
	Total	39	28 (72%)	11 (28%)
Köpek Dog	Beginner	8	0 (0%)	8 (100%)
	Post Beginner	12	6 (50%)	6 (50%)
	Intermediate	18	12 (67%)	6 (33%)
	Total	38	18 (47%)	20 (53%)
Arkadaş Friend	Beginner	22	13 (59%)	9 (41%)
	Post Beginner	8	7 (88%)	1 (12%)
	Intermediate	6	6 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Total	36	26 (72%)	10 (28%)
Adam Man	Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	9	9 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	25	21 (84%)	4 (16%)

		Total	34	30 (88%)	4 (12%)
Türkçe Turkish	Beginner	14	9 (64%)	5 (36%)
	Post Beginner	3	1 (33%)	2 (67%)
	Intermediate	17	17 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Total	34	27 (79%)	7 (21%)
Yatak Bed	Beginner	23	14 (61%)	9 (39%)
	Post Beginner	10	6 (60%)	4 (40%)
	Intermediate	1	0 (0%)	1 (100%)
	Total	34	20 (59%)	14 (41%)
Kadın Woman	Beginner	3	3 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	3	1 (33%)	2 (67%)
	Intermediate	26	25 (96%)	1 (4%)
	Total	32	29 (91%)	3 (9%)
Kilo Kilo	Beginner	31	31 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	31	31 (100%)	0 (0%)
Kitap Book	Beginner	18	18 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	4	3 (75%)	1 (25%)
	Intermediate	6	6 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Total	28	27 (96%)	1 (4%)
Anahtar Key	Beginner	24	24 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	1	0 (0%)	1 (100%)
	Total	25	24 (96%)	1 (4%)
Televizyon Television	Beginner	17	14 (82%)	3 (18%)
	Post Beginner	4	1 (25%)	3 (75%)
	Intermediate	4	3 (75%)	1 (25%)
	Total	25	18 (72%)	7 (28%)
Türkiye Turkey	Beginner	4	1 (25%)	3 (75%)
	Post Beginner	10	7 (70%)	3 (30%)
	Intermediate	11	8 (73%)	3 (27%)
	Total	25	16 (64%)	9 (36%)
Resim Picture	Beginner	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)
	Post Beginner	10	3 (30%)	7 (70%)
	Intermediate	10	10 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Total	24	13 (54%)	11 (46%)

Table 4.64: Most frequently used nouns

The next table below presents the 20 most frequently used verbs. The verb *gitmek* was used

148 times, 133 times in target use form and 15 times in non-target use form.

Verb	Level	Total Use	Target Use	Non-target use
Gitmek To go	Beginner	55	50 (91%)	5 (9%)
	Post Beginner	62	55 (89%)	7 (11%)
	Intermediate	31	28 (90%)	3 (10%)
	Total	148	133 (90%)	15 (10%)
İstemek To want	Beginner	6	6 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	16	12 (75%)	4 (25%)
	Intermediate	28	27 (96%)	1 (4%)
	Total	50	45 (90%)	5 (10%)
Çalışmak To work	Beginner	26	19 (73%)	7 (27%)
	Post Beginner	7	7 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	11	9 (82%)	2 (18%)
	Total	44	35 (80%)	9 (20%)
Yemek Yemek To eat	Beginner	28	21 (75%)	7 (25%)
	Post Beginner	11	10 (91%)	1 (9%)
	Intermediate	5	4 (80%)	1 (20%)
	Total	44	35 (80%)	9 (20%)
Almak To buy/to get	Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	14	13 (93%)	1 (7%)
	Intermediate	28	22 (79%)	6 (21%)
	Total	42	35 (83%)	7 (17%)
Yapmak To do	Beginner	4	3 (75%)	1 (25%)
	Post Beginner	23	23 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	11	10 (91%)	1 (9%)
	Total	38	36 (95%)	2 (5%)
Başlamak To start/to begin	Beginner	1	1 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	10	10 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	23	21 (91%)	2 (9%)
	Total	34	32 (94%)	2 (6%)
Bilmek To know	Beginner	21	16 (76%)	5 (24%)
	Post Beginner	4	4 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	8	8 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Total	33	28 (85%)	5 (15%)
İçmek To drink	Beginner	11	10 (91%)	1 (9%)
	Post Beginner	14	10 (71%)	4 (29%)
	Intermediate	6	6 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Total	31	26 (84%)	5 (16%)
Gelmek To come	Beginner	2	1 (50%)	1 (50%)
	Post Beginner	17	14 (82%)	3 (18%)
	Intermediate	11	9 (82%)	2 (18%)
	Total	30	24 (80%)	6 (20%)

	Beginner	16	12 (75%)	4 (25%)
Okumak To read	Post Beginner	5	4 (80%)	1 (20%)
	Intermediate	8	7 (88%)	1 (12%)
	Total	29	23 (79%)	6 (21%)
Kalkmak To wake up/to rise	Beginner	12	7 (58%)	5 (42%)
	Post Beginner	12	9 (75%)	3 (25%)
	Intermediate	2	2 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Total	26	18 (69%)	8 (31%)
Sevmek To love	Beginner	9	6 (67%)	3 (33%)
	Post Beginner	8	8 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	8	7 (88%)	1 (12%)
	Total	25	21 (84%)	4 (16%)
Konuşmak To speak	Beginner	7	6 (86%)	1 (14%)
	Post Beginner	4	3 (75%)	1 (25%)
	Intermediate	14	12 (86%)	2 (14%)
	Total	25	21 (84%)	4 (16%)
Öğrenmek To learn	Beginner	7	3 (43%)	4 (57%)
	Post Beginner	3	1 (33%)	2 (67%)
	Intermediate	15	14 (93%)	1 (7%)
	Total	25	18 (72%)	7 (28%)
Uyumak To sleep	Beginner	16	12 (75%)	4 (25%)
	Post Beginner	4	3 (75%)	1 (25%)
	Intermediate	4	2 (50%)	2 (50%)
	Total	24	17 (71%)	7 (29%)
Duş Almak To take shower	Beginner	14	11 (79%)	3 (21%)
	Post Beginner	6	4 (67%)	2 (33%)
	Intermediate	3	3 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Total	23	18 (78%)	5 (22%)
Olmak To be	Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	9	9 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	12	11 (92%)	1 (8%)
	Total	21	20 (95%)	1 (5%)
Seyretmek To watch	Beginner	14	7 (50%)	7 (50%)
	Post Beginner	6	6 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	20	13 (65%)	7 (35%)
Kahvaltı Yapmak To have breakfast	Beginner	12	4 (33%)	8 (67%)
	Post Beginner	5	3 (60%)	2 (40%)
	Intermediate	2	2 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Total	19	9 (47%)	10 (53%)

Table 4.65: Most frequently used verbs

4.5.1. Existential

In Turkish, 'there is', 'there are' and 'I have' could be explained by using one word which is *var*. An example is given below;

  a.   Bir evim var.
        A house I have
        'I have a house.'

  b.   Çantada kalem var.
        Bag pencil there is.
        'There is a pencil in the bag.'

As Figure 4.40. explains below, it is used 266 times in the corpus with 85% target use.
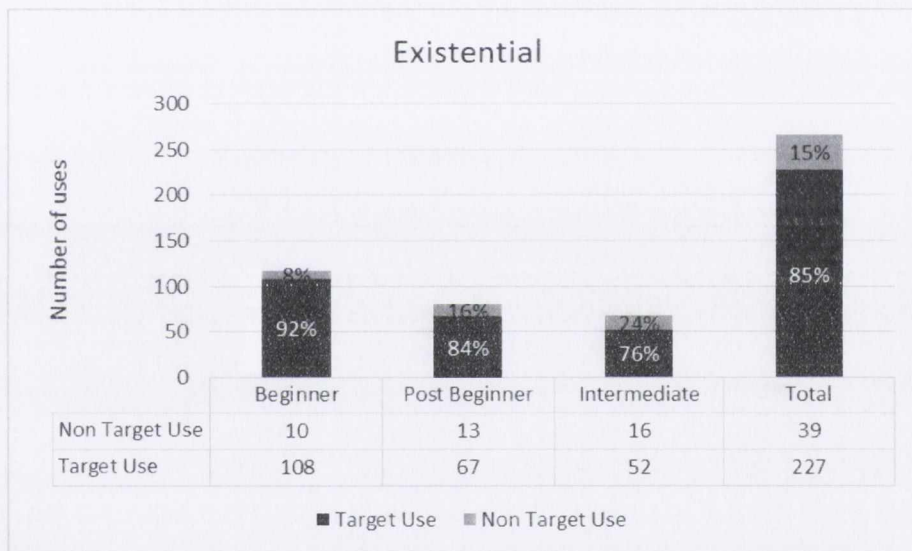
Figure 4.40: Existential

4.5.2. Conjunctions and interjections

The next figure demonstrates use of conjunctions which occur frequently in the corpus 296 times with a very high accuracy rate. The average target use of conjunction is 95%.

Figure 4.41: Conjunctions

The next figure shows the use of interjections, which occur more than 412 times in total. The target-like use of interjections is 89%, representing a relatively easy aspect for learners within lexical competence. Whilst usage decreases in the Post-beginner and Intermediate classes, accuracy increases, rising to 92% target-like use in the Intermediate class.
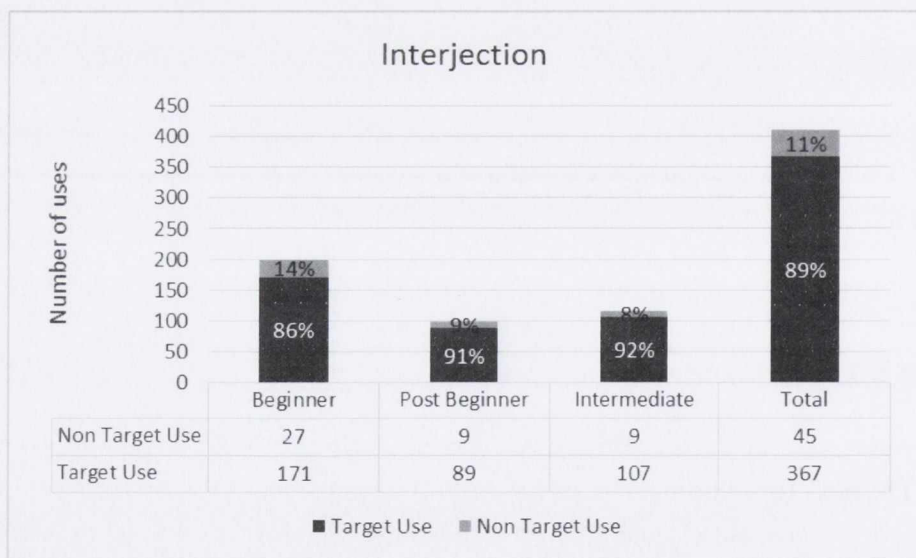
Figure 4.42: Interjections

4.5.3. Particles

Regarding particles, the target use form is used 77% with 294 occurrences. Target-like usage increases from one in three occurrences in the Beginner class to four out of five occurrences in the Intermediate class.

	Beginner	Post Beginner	Intermediate	Total
Non Target Use	25	19	23	67
Target Use	54	66	107	227

■ Target Use ■ Non Target Use
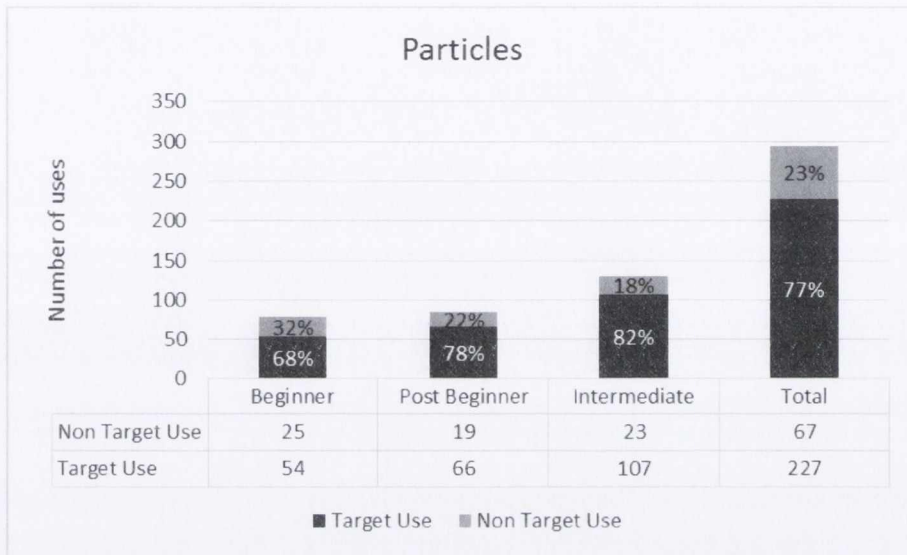
Figure 4.43: Particles

4.5.4. Adjectives

Adjectives are one of the most frequently occurring items in the corpus, with 989 occurrences. Figure 4.44. shows the high target use of adjectives at 88% overall, from 86% at Beginner level to 90% at Intermediate level.
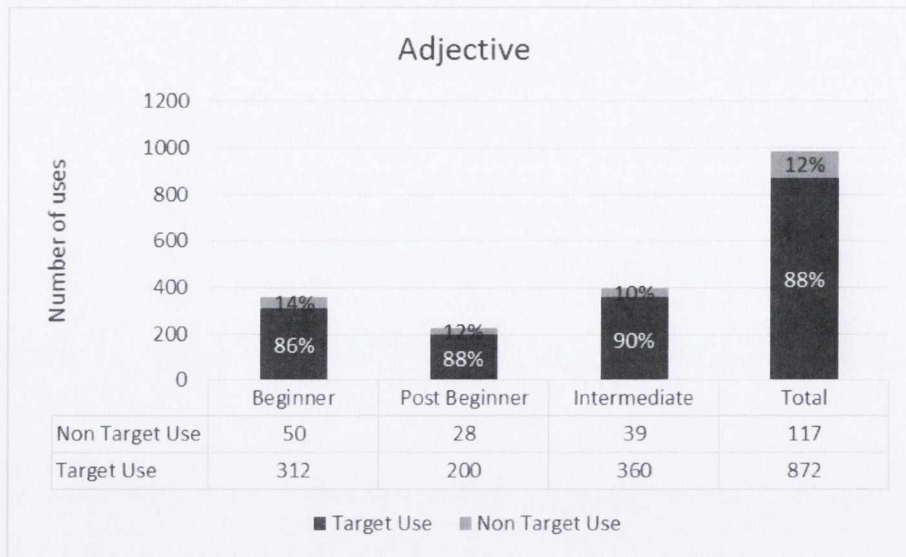
Figure 4.44: Adjectives

4.5.6. Adverbs

Adverbs appear 629 times in the corpus, although most occurrences are within the Beginner class recordings and use decreases as proficiency level rises. Target use of adverbs is 91% and non-target use is 9%. It is noteworthy that accuracy of adverbs decreases in the Post-beginner and Intermediate classes as well as the number of uses.
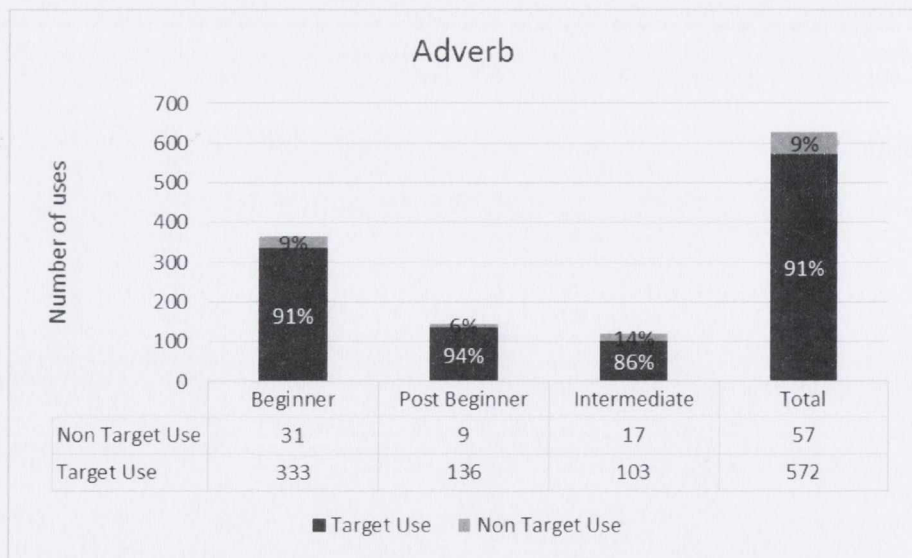
Figure 4.45: Adverbs

179

4.6. Phonological Control

We now turn from lexical control to phonological control. The approach embodied in CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001:116-117) defines phonological competence as a knowledge of the perception and production of:

- Sound units

- Phonetic features and distinguishing phonemes

- Phonetic composition of words

- Sentence phonetics

- Phonetic reduction.

Given the scope of this study, only sound units were scrutinised. Turkish has eight vowels (a, e, ı, i, o, ö, u, ü) and 21 consonants (b, c, ç, d, f, g, ğ, h, j, k, I, m, n, p, r, s, ş, t, v, y, z) There are only a few consonants (ş, c, ç, ğ, g, j) which are distant from English although the written forms are similar. For example, the letter c /d͡ʒ/ in Turkish sounds like j as in 'jam' in English. The phonetic alphabet which was already provided in section 2.5 above is also given below in order to provide a clear picture how some letters are written the same but sound different.

Turkish		IPA	English Approximation	Turkish		IPA	English Approximation
A	a	/a/	As in cup	M	m	/m/	As in mother
B	b	/b/	As in book	N	n	/n/	As in narrow
C	c	/dʒ/	As in jam	O	o	/o/	As in more
Ç	ç	/tʃ/	As in child	Ö	ö	/ø/	As in urge
D	d	/d/	As in dress	P	p	/p/	As in pin
E	e	/e/	As in pen	R	r	/r/	As in red
F	f	/f/	As in Fast	S	s	/s/	As in soft
G	g	/g/, /ɟ/	As in good	Ş	ş	/ʃ/	As in shift
Ğ	ğ	/:/, /‿/, /ʲ/	No similar sound	T	t	/t/	As in table
H	h	/h/	As in half	U	u	/u/	As in put
I	ı	/ɯ/	As in open	Ü	ü	/y/	As in new
İ	i	/i/	As in feet	V	v	/ʊ/, /v/	As in very
J	j	/ʒ/	As in leisure	Y	y	/j/	As in yellow
K	k	/k/, /c/	As in kitten	Z	z	/z/	As in zoom
L	l	/ɫ/, /l/	As in love				

Table 4.66: Turkish Phonological Alphabet and IPA Representations

The phonological features of Turkish mean it can be challenging for some second and foreign language learners. Şengül (2014: 325) investigated the possible problematic sounds/letters in Turkish by interviewing 45 Turkish language learners learning Turkish as a foreign language at C1 level. In this study it was found out that the following sounds were found to be problematic (a/a/, e/e/, ı/ɯ/,, i/i/, o/o/, ö/ø/, u/u/, ü/y/, c/dʒ/,, ç/tʃ/, ğ/:/, /‿/, /ʲ/, l /ɫ/ /l/, ş/ʃ/, y/j/) (ibid.:325).

In line with her findings, the same sounds were found to be problematic in this study as it can be seen in the Table 4.67: Most frequently occurring nouns with non-target-like phonology below.

There were more than five hundred phonological errors of production tagged in the corpus. Approximately three hundred of these errors happened in the beginner class. Errors were defined as utterances which would severely or entirely impede comprehension.

Pronunciation

	Beginner	Post Beginner	Intermediate	Total
Non Target Use	309	148	102	559
Target Use	0	0	0	0

■ Target Use　■ Non Target Use
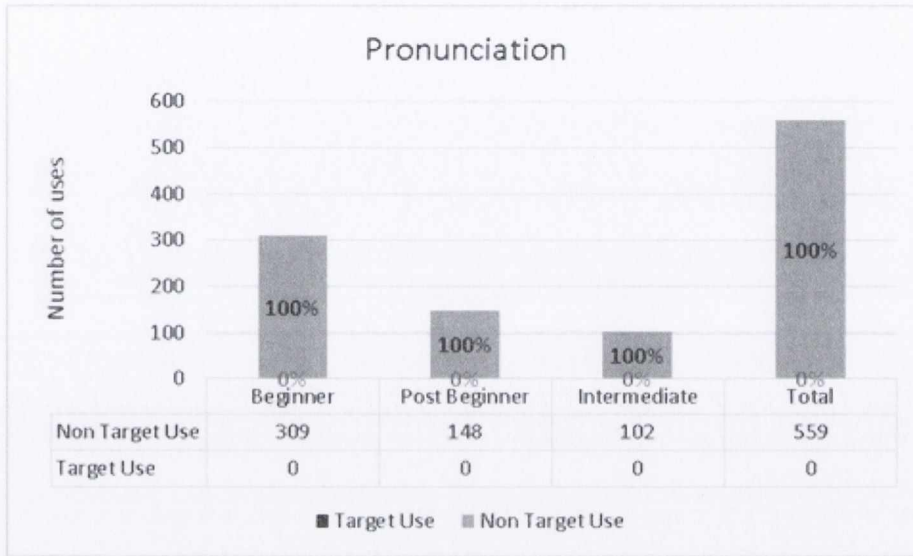
Figure 4.46: Pronunciation

The table below provides data on the top twenty most frequently occurring nouns in the corpus which appear with non-target-like phonology defined as an error.

Noun	Level	Total Use	Target Use	Non-target use
Köpek Dog	Beginner	6	0 (0%)	6 (100%)
	Post Beginner	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)
	Intermediate	5	0 (0%)	5 (100%)
	Total	15	0 (0%)	15 (100%)
Resim Picture	Beginner	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)
	Post Beginner	5	0 (0%)	5 (100%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	9	0 (0%)	9 (100%)
Gece Night	Beginner	8	0 (0%)	8 (100%)
	Post Beginner	1	1 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	9	1 (11%)	8 (89%)
Haftanın Günleri Days of the week	Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	6	0 (0%)	6 (100%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	6	0 (0%)	6 (100%)
Kahvaltı Breakfast	Beginner	5	0 (0%)	5 (100%)
	Post Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	5	0 (0%)	5 (100%)
Kız Girl	Beginner	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)
	Post Beginner	1	0 (0%)	1 (100%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	5	0 (0%)	5 (100%)
Tarih Date	Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	8	3 (38%)	5 (62%)
	Total	8	3 (38%)	5 (62%)
Televizyon Television	Beginner	3	0 (0%)	3 (100%)
	Post Beginner	2	0 (0%)	2 (100%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	5	0 (0%)	5 (100%)
Yaş Age	Beginner	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)
	Post Beginner	1	0 (0%)	1 (100%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	5	0 (0%)	5 (100%)
Bahçe Garden	Beginner	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)
	Post Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)

Öğle Yemeği Lunch	Beginner	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)
	Post Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)
Sayı Number	Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)
	Total	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)
Türkçe Turkish	Beginner	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)
	Post Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)
Türkiye Turkey	Beginner	3	0 (0%)	3 (100%)
	Post Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	1	0 (0%)	1 (100%)
	Total	4	0 (0%)	4 (100%)
Arkadaş Friend	Beginner	2	0 (0%)	2 (100%)
	Post Beginner	1	0 (0%)	1 (100%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	3	0 (0%)	3 (100%)
Ayakkabı Shoes	Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	3	0 (0%)	3 (100%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	3	0 (0%)	3 (100%)
Cüzdan Purse	Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	3	0 (0%)	3 (100%)
	Total	3	0 (0%)	3 (100%)
Elbise Dress	Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	1	0 (0%)	1 (100%)
	Intermediate	2	0 (0%)	2 (100%)
	Total	3	0 (0%)	3 (100%)
Komşu Neighbour	Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Intermediate	3	0 (0%)	3 (100%)
	Total	3	0 (0%)	3 (100%)
Kumdan Kale Sand castle	Beginner	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Post Beginner	3	0 (0%)	3 (100%)
	Intermediate	0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Total	3	0 (0%)	3 (100%)

Table 4.67: Most frequently occurring nouns with non-target-like phonology

4.7. Conclusion

In this chapter, data collected through the background questionnaire were explored, providing key information about the research population which could shape our understanding of their language development. Data from each part of the questionnaire were presented in turn. In the first part of the questionnaire, participants provided information regarding their background (i.e: home language, any other languages known, their social and cultural relations with Turkish speaking people and their visits to Turkey.) In the second part of the questionnaire, the participants' responses to questions related to their perception of Turkish speaking people, their motivation to learn Turkish and their Turkish use in everyday life were illustrated. In part three, their self perception regarding the achievements in using Turkish and their study habits are shown.

Then, in the second part of the chapter, data collected through weekly classroom audio recordings were described, and presented according to the categories of grammatical, lexical and phonological control respectively. These data were collected in a corpus of L2 Turkish language use, and tagged using the tailor-made TurkishTag software.

In grammatical control of the learners regarding dative, locative ablative and accusative cases of the nouns, personal/possessive pronoun suffixes, tenses, buffer letters, compound noun, negation-mA, negation-değil, participles, and question particle are described. Then, data regarding lexical control are illustrated, including 20 most frequently used nouns and verbs, as well as conjunctions, interjections, particles, adjectives and adverbs. Finally, data regarding phonological control are presented. In the following chapter, key patterns emerging from the data – both the questionnaire and the corpus of L2 Turkish – discussed with the aim of creating a foundation for scaled descriptors of Turkish language use.

Chapter Five: Data Discussion

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the key patterns from the descriptive statistics and inferential statistics (SPSS-ANOVA) presented in the previous chapter are explored.

5.2. Responding to the research question

The following research question was investigated in this study:

> *How can the scaled descriptors in the CEFR for grammatical, lexical and phonological control be expanded for use by adults learning Turkish at A1 and A2 proficiency levels?*

This chapter uses the data collected during the project to consider what Turkish language learners are able to do with the emerging linguistic resources they are acquiring both in the classroom and in their other learning contexts. It seeks to respond to the research question above by drawing together an account of learners' communicative abilities, and places these findings into a basic set of language-specific scaled descriptors. Moreover, by responding to this research question through the compiled learner corpus (29,413 words in total), it provides hard evidence with respect to what learners at different levels of language proficiency can do. Thus, the textbook writers and the curriculum designers could depend their work on empirical data. On the other hand, as it is discussed by Durmuş in his work related to future of Turkish language teaching as a foreign language (2013: 220), the content of the input presented to Turkish language learners as a foreign language could be problematic when the difficulty level of the content is decided by the intuition of the

186

teachers or the textbook writers. Instead he suggested that computer based changes within the adapted materials are proven to be more reliable rather than solely depending on intuition (ibid.: 220). In this respect, the innovation in this project, the application of the TurkishTag software could be beneficial for this possible computer based material adaptation studies in the future.

Although the rapidly growing importance of Turkish as a foreign language mainly due to recent political changes in the Middle East countries, Turkish language teaching and learning as a foreign language still remains a neglected area. Accordingly, Yıldız claimed that 'the quality of Turkish language instruction as a foreign language is open to discussion and exploration. In order to deliver quality and effective foreign language instruction, a clearly defined language curriculum is needed. The aims, content, methods and the evaluation dimensions of the program should be clearly defined in order to carry out a successful educational teaching process' (2013: 1839).

The research question in this study is: 'How can the scaled descriptors in the CEFR for grammatical, lexical and phonological control be adapted and expanded for use by adults learning Turkish at A1 and A2 proficiency levels?'. In order to answer this question, it was necessary to collect, describe and analyse data on the present grammatical, lexical and phonological control of a group of Turkish learners. Therefore, a corpus was created, based on a series of weekly audio recordings of classroom tasks which was transcribed and tagged. This corpus included all the instances of Turkish language use in the extramural classes by learners enrolled in the CLCS extramural evening classes at beginner, Post-beginner and Intermediate level at Trinity College Dublin. These proficiency levels equate to the A1 and A2 proficiency levels as described by the Common European Framework of Reference (Council of Europe, 2001).

The linguistic outcomes issuing from research population of nineteen adult learners of Turkish and the resulting corpus of some 30,000 words were used to answer the research question in terms of how to adapt and expand the CEFR scaled descriptors, which were not conceived as language-specific statements. Analysis of the corpus yielded rich data regarding specific features of the L2 Turkish grammatical, lexical and phonological control of adult learners as described in the previous chapter. In the following section, these data are discussed with the specific aim of adapting and expanding the general statements for grammatical, lexical and phonological control and creating Can Do statements based on the empirical evidence collected in the study.

5.3 Overview of learners' backgrounds

5.3.1. Age

In this subsection, we turn firstly to age. As mentioned earlier in Chapter Two, "aging interacts with many other subsystems, such as perception, memory and emotion and different components of language change over time with aging" (De Bot and Makoni 2005: 3). The research population under scrutiny in this project represents a wide range of ages. For the specific sample population, they ranged from 25 year to 62 years old; a third of the sample are aged 55 and 64 (31.58%). Many of older learners benefit from the combination of instructional and natural contexts as many of them have summer houses in Turkey and they spend most of their holidays in Turkey compared to younger learners. On the other hand, young learners seem to have more access to Turkish-speaking situations in Dublin as they have more Turkish friends than the older learners. From the perspective of the teacher, I observed that the younger learners tended to remember more regarding what was learnt in previous lesson compared to older learners, but one of the oldest learners in the class had a very good memory for linguistic detail.

5.3.2. Motivation

Considering motivation, cultural and personal relations seem to have important role in their motivation to learn Turkish. When they were asked about the reasons to learn Turkish in question 12 (see Appendix 3) 57.89% of the participants strongly agreed that they learn Turkish in order to speak Turkish with their friends and neighbors in Turkey. Moreover, 47.37% of the respondents strongly agreed that they learn Turkish to make friends with Turkish people in Turkey. The same percentage (47.37%) want to speak Turkish with their spouses, family members or partners living with them in Ireland. Therefore, it could be concluded that the respondents' motivation to learn Turkish is highly based on their personal relationships with Turkish people. It was also observed in class that learners who have close Turkish friends tend to be more motivated compared to learners who do not have such connections. It might result from the fact that the learners who have Turkish family members could use the newly learnt structures or words immediately when they are at home which drives their motivation. This enables the learners to have access to creative communication environments. I was told by the Turkish wife of one of the learners that her husband uses the new vocabulary immediately when he arrives home with great enthusiasm (personal conversation). However, that particular learner used avoidance strategies quite often in class. He was very hesitant in using a new word or structures. This might also mean that some learners who have Turkish family members might prefer to use the new structures at home with their Turkish family members first, rather than trying them in a class atmosphere. This might explain the reason of their preference to keep silent when it comes to use the new structures or words learnt in class.

Features regarding motivation observed in classroom could be evaluated from the Dynamic Systems Theory perspective (see Chapter Two). As already mentioned in Chapter Two

Dynamic Systems Theory is "an important theoretical maturation in that it brings together the many factors that interact in the complex system of language, learning, and use" (Ellis, 2007: 23). Lowie and Verspoor, point out that many of the linguistic theories "still stand apart for lack of one overarching theory that allows to account for these ever interacting variables.... sometimes unpredictable outcomes, a theory that does not regard real-life messy facts" (2007: 7). Some of the changes in motivation in the research population could be explained from this perspective of "real-life messy facts". For instance, there were two learners who had Turkish partners living with them in Dublin. However, one of them had some difficulties in her relationship and this immediately was reflected in her motivation to participate in the lesson and finally she dropped the course. On the other hand the other learner who experiences similar problems and broke up the relationship still continued the class and had very limited change in her motivation. She said she learnt Turkish for her career. Moreover, there was one learner who had health problems before starting to learn Turkish. She was treated by Turkish doctors in Turkey and was restored to full health. Following this experience, she started to have interest in learning Turkish although she had no other foreign languages in her background before. So, her illness had the 'butterfly effect' for her Turkish language learning decision (see Chapter Two). These examples could be considered as examples of the dynamic feature of everday life reflected in their language learning, "a system of interacting variables that is constantly changing due to interaction with its environment and self-reorganization" (De Bot and Makoni 2005: 5).

5.3.3. Context of learning

When the context of learning is considered, Turkish is used sometimes at home by 40%of the participants and 21.05% of the participants said they have a family member living with or married to Turkish person which enables those learners to have access to natural use of

Turkish on daily basis.31.58% of the learners go to Turkey at least once in a year and moreover 26.32% of the learners go to Turkey twice a year or more often which also enables them to have access to naturalistic context.73.68% said they stay 1-4 weeks in Turkey. 63.16% of them said they speak Turkish a few times a day when they are in Turkey which means they try to get the benefit of having access to natural spoken interaction. Related to motivation and context of learning, the learners were observed by the researcher/teacher to have quite distinctive traits. For example, the learners who have a summer house in Turkey or who have a Turkish family member living in Ireland with them were observed to have high motivation to learn Turkish and they were more able to maintain this motivation level through the course. On the on the other hand there was one particular example in Intermediate level (learner code INTL2) who learn Turkish out of personal interest and had a very high motivation. Moreover, when it comes to motivation to use the newly learnt structures or words, the younger learners (aged-25-45) seem to be more eager in this regard. On the other hand, the older learners try to use avoidance strategies.

These background data help provide a clearer picture of this sample population of three small classes of adult learners of Turkish. The following part of this chapter moves to the main aim of this thesis, and considers the findings arising from the TurkishTag corpus and relates these to grammatical control, lexical control and phonological control in an effort to describe systematically what these learners can do in Turkish.

5.4. Findings arising from the TurkishTag corpus related to grammatical control

Grammatical control can be defined as a productive competence whereby the learner is able to express him or herself through "well-formed phrases and sentences" (Council of

Europe, 2001:113). In terms of the types of prompts used in the teaching programme of the CLCS extramural Turkish programme, learners were regularly supported to learn about aspects of Turkish grammatical structures, and were scaffolded early in the course in the production of initially unanalysed chunks to facilitate communication – chunks which were later broken down and analysed in class to demonstrate discrete grammatical features. Learners were also quickly encouraged to build their own phrases and sentences based on "well-formed" models, and to try out formulations which could help convey communicative content. In other words, the classroom setting of this study encouraged learners to produce well-formed sentences or phrases through different classroom tasks with gradually reduced scaffolding, and in order to create original utterances rather than memorising and reproducing sentences or phrases. Thus, we can say that the data in the corpus related to grammatical content is a valid example of learners' own emerging competence. Turning now to a discussion of the patterns which emerged in their outputs, some of the major findings related to noun cases, personal/possessive pronoun, tenses, compound noun and participles are discussed below.

5.4.1. Accusative Case-I

Turning firstly to noun cases, and compared to other noun cases, the accusative case is the most frequently used noun case forms in Turkish in general, and in this corpus. The tagged data shows that the accusative case was used more than 200 times, whilst for instance the ablative case was used only 43 times by learners. On the other hand, accusative case was used 44% in non target form.
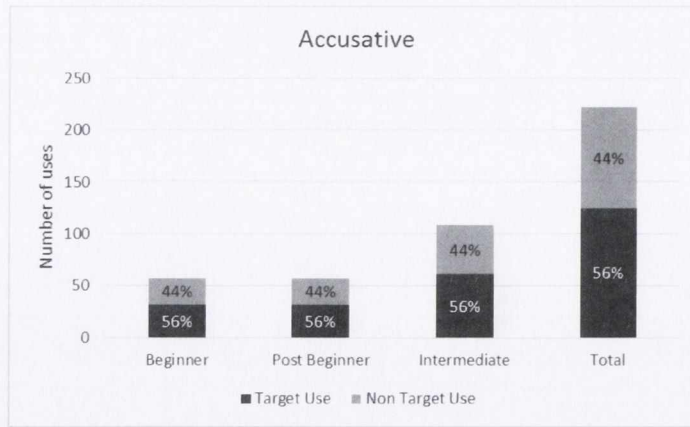
Figure 5.1: Accusative Case

Accusative case defines the nouns in Turkish (i.e: the nouns in accusative case are definitive nouns). An example is provided below:

a. Elma yedim
apple ate I
'I ate an apple.'

b. Elmayı yedim.
Elma (BUFFER y) (ACC. ı) yedim
'I ate the apple.'

It is therefore important for learners to be able to use the accusative case of the noun correctly as it can change the whole meaning of a sentence. Figure 5.2 below shows the specific items (mostly nouns) which were used in accusative case in a non-target-like form.

Figure 5.2: Non-target Accusative Case

As this chart illustrates, there are six nouns which also appear among the top 20 most frequently used nouns: *ev* (house), *köpek* (dog), *iş* (work), *adam* (man), *Türkçe* (Turkish) and *Türkiye* (Turkey). In other words, one third of the total number of non-target uses of the most frequently used nouns result in incorrect use of accusative case by learners. Overall, the percentage of non-target use of accusative case is 44%, which could be considered as a high rate compared to other target and non-target like uses presented in the previous chapter. On the other hand, the table below describes that the non target use of accusative case between the beginner and post beginner level learners differ significantly than the post beginner and intermediate level learners.

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-3.97727*	1.04181	.006	-6.7288
	Intermediate	-3.47727	2.29692	.327	-9.8037
Post Beginner	Beginner	3.97727*	1.04181	.006	1.2257
	Intermediate	.50000	2.15611	.971	-5.7123
Intermediate	Beginner	3.47727	2.29692	.327	-2.8492
	Post Beginner	-.50000	2.15611	.971	-6.7123

Table 5.1: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Accusative

In other words, the accusative case represents a challenge for learners. Also, we can note from data in Chapter Four the same percentages for non-target and target-like use are shared by learners in all three proficiency levels, the Intermediate level learners attempted to use the accusative case twice as often as Beginner and Post-beginner level learners. So, in terms of mastering the accusative case, it could be considered that:

- A2 learners can use accusative case of the noun correctly in some occasions.

- A1 learners can use accusative case of the noun correctly on only very limited occasions.

5.4.2. Locative Case-DE

We turn next to the locative suffix-DE which means 'in' or 'on' when used together with nouns. When it is used with personal pronouns, it means to hold or possess something. For example:

a. Masada
   table (LOC) on
   'On the table'

b. Kalem bende
   pencil (LOC) I have
   'I have the pencil'

This is the most frequently used noun case in Turkish, and this frequency is also reflected in the corpus accordingly. The locative case was used 621 times by learners (see Chapter Four, Section 4.2.1.). Target-like use of locative case is 81%. However, when we consider the rates of target-like use at the Post-beginner level, target-like use is lower than in the Beginner and Intermediate levels. It appears that in the Post-beginner class, learners have difficulty in using the locative case of the noun in the target form. In the Beginner level class, learners tried to use locative case almost 300 times, almost two times more than at Post-beginner level and in fact they were able to use it regularly in the target form (89%). The difference in the number of use in locative case might be resulted from the class size. It may be that learners were scaffolded more in the Beginner class to employ the locative case, and that when scaffolding was removed and learners were expected to communicate more independently. It is also worth noting that the Beginner level class was twice as big as the Post-beginner class. The figure below presents the items where the locative case was used in a non-target-like form.
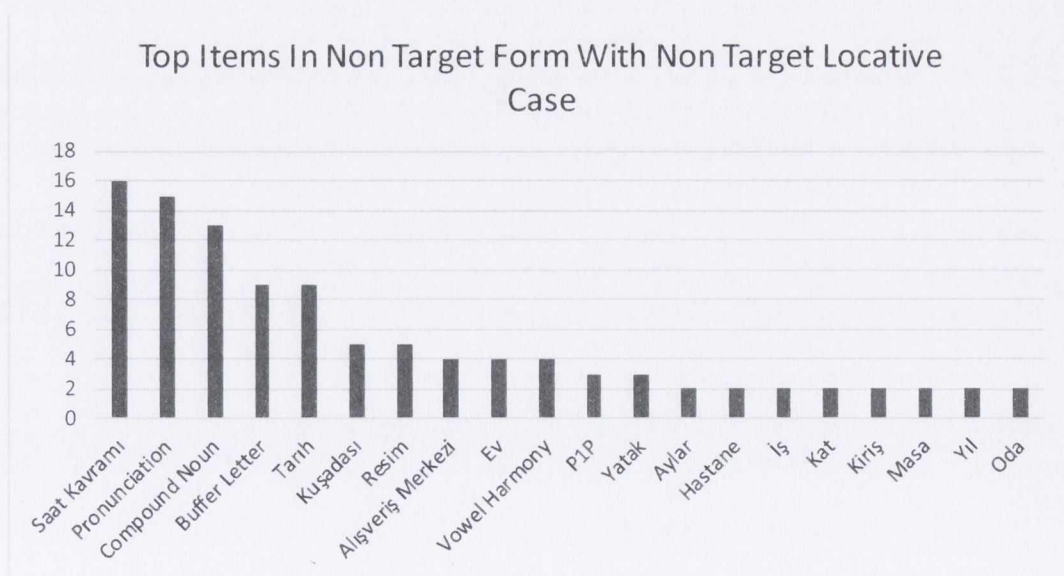

Figure 5.3: Non-target Locative Case

Similar to the accusative case, some of the items in this graph were among the top 20 most frequently used nouns in the corpus. For instance, the overall non-target use of *saat kavramı* (time expression), the most frequently used noun, results from the incorrect use of locative case. In addition to this time expression, *tarih* (date), *resim* (picture), *ev* (house/home), *yatak* (bed), *iş* (work) and *yıl* (year) were among other most frequently used nouns where non- target use of locative case suffix was evidence. In other words, 35% of the non-target use of the 20 most frequently used nouns resulted from incorrect use of locative case. Moreover, considering the table below, there is significant difference between the beginner level learners and post beginner level learners in terms of non target use of locative case.

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-10.27273*	2.36336	.001	-16.2520
	Intermediate	-1.52273	1.88082	.702	-6.2812
Post Beginner	Beginner	10.27273*	2.36336	.001	4.2935
	Intermediate	8.75000*	2.47872	.006	2.4789
Intermediate	Beginner	1.52273	1.88082	.702	-3.2357
	Post Beginner	-8.75000*	2.47872	.006	-15.0211

Table 5.2: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Locative

To summarise, regarding grammatical control and emerging mastery of the locative case, we can propose that:

- A2 learners can use locative case of the noun correctly in many occasions.

- A1 learners can use accusative case of the noun correctly in some occasions.

5.4.3. Personal Pronouns

In this section, we turn to the first personal singular and the third person possessive.

Examining firstly the first person singular pronoun, it is used three times more than any other personal pronoun (see Chapter Four, Section 4.2.2). This is not a surprising finding given the number of 'I' based statements in the language classroom where students learn to express aspects of their personal lives and everyday routines. From the corpus, we can state that learners tend to speak about themselves rather than others. The first personal singular pronoun in Turkish is within the grasp of learners at all proficiency levels, and it is used in its target form in almost 90% percentage of utterances across all three proficiency level classes.
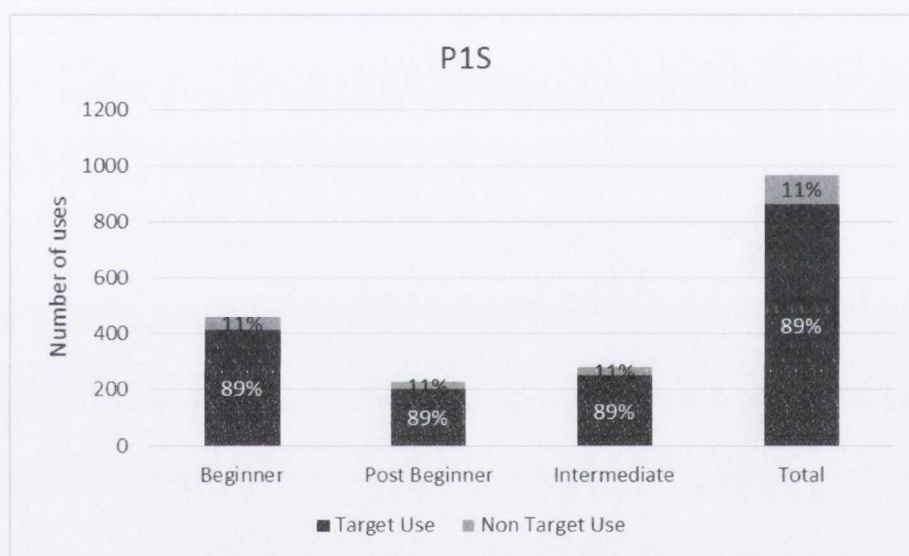

Figure 5.4: First Person Singular

Moreover, as the table below illustrates, the use of first person singular do not differ significantly among the three level learners:

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-2.22727	2.09375	.547	-7.5244
	Intermediate	.77273	1.66625	.889	-3.4429
Post Beginner	Beginner	2.22727	2.09375	.547	-3.0699
	Intermediate	3.00000	2.19594	.377	-2.5557
Intermediate	Beginner	-.77273	1.66625	.889	-4.9883
	Post Beginner	-3.00000	2.19594	.377	-8.5557

Table 5.3: ANOVA results of the non target use of the 1st Person Singular
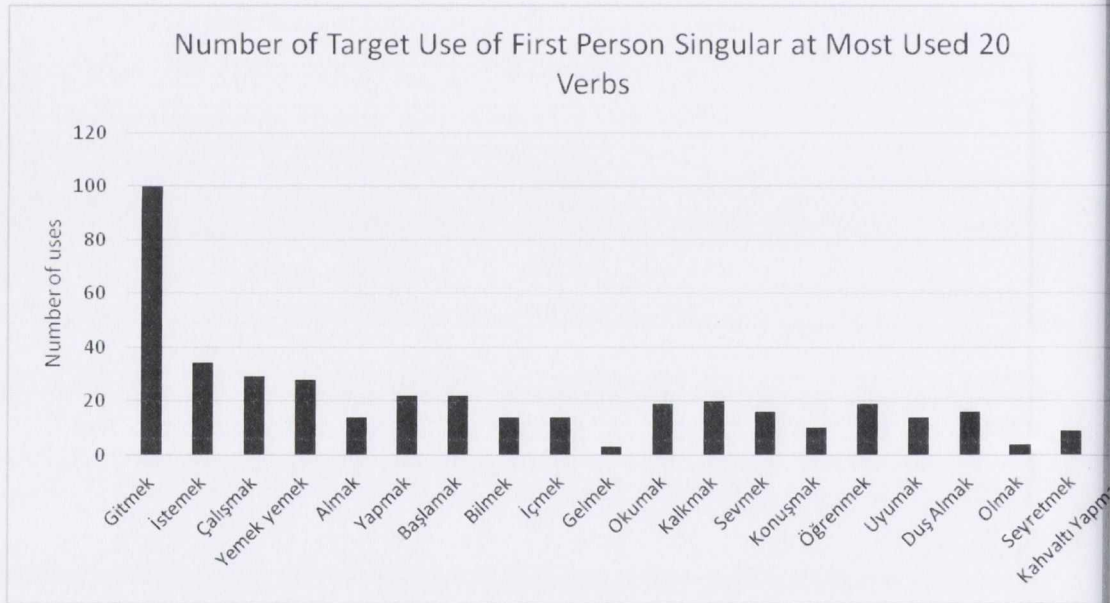
Figure 5.5: Target use of the first person singular & most frequently used verbs

Figure 5.5 above the spread of use of the first person singular in relation to all twenty of the frequently used verb, with 100 instances of gitmek (to go) used in this formulation. The chart below compares the use of the first personal singular with the second and third person singular and plural for the five most frequent verbs in the corpus: gitmek (to go),

199

istemek (to want), çalışmak (to work), yemek yemek (to eat), almak (to buy/take). The use of the first personal singular is remarkably dominant. It is interesting to consider whether this results from learners being encouraged to speak about themselves in the classroom setting, or indeed whether it is the other way around, and whether the content in the classroom is shaped by learners' communicative interests in speaking about personal issues. Without involving an observational study and mapping exactly course content on the corpus of learner data, it is hard to ascertain.
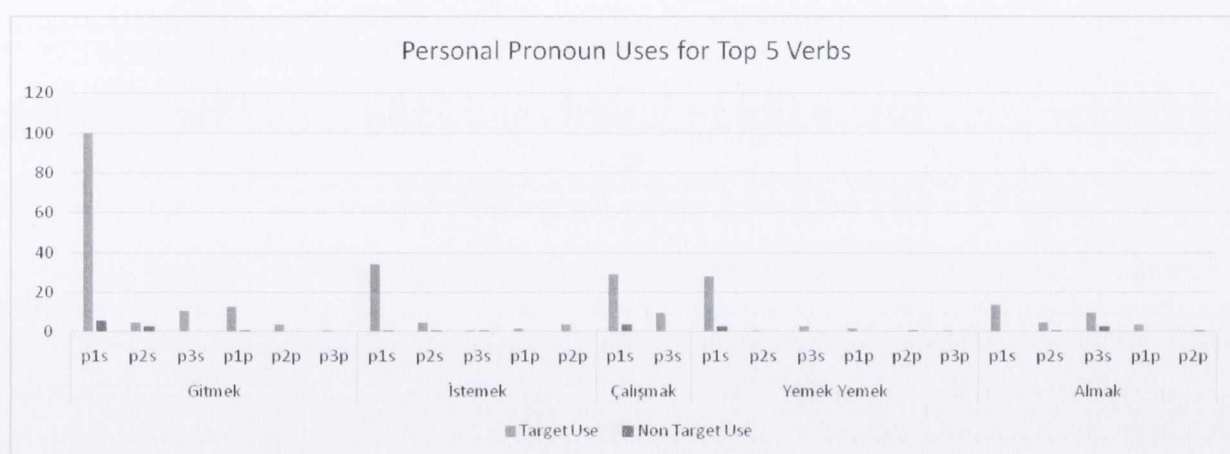
Figure 5.6: Personal pronoun uses for top five verbs

Thus, we can state that regarding the use of the first person singular suffix in the area of grammatical control:

- A2 learners can use the first person singular suffix accurately.

- A1 learners can use the 1st person singular suffix quite often with accuracy.

We turn next to the third person possessive pronoun. As Figure 5.7 demonstrates, unlike in the case of the first person singular pronoun suffix, target-like use of the third person possessive pronoun is quite low at 64%. This shows that the learners have difficulty in mastering grammatical control of the third person singular possessive pronoun suffix. It is not used regularly by Beginner and Post-beginner level learners. As the Figure below indicates, Intermediate level learners attempted to use this possessive pronoun suffix twice as often the Beginner class.
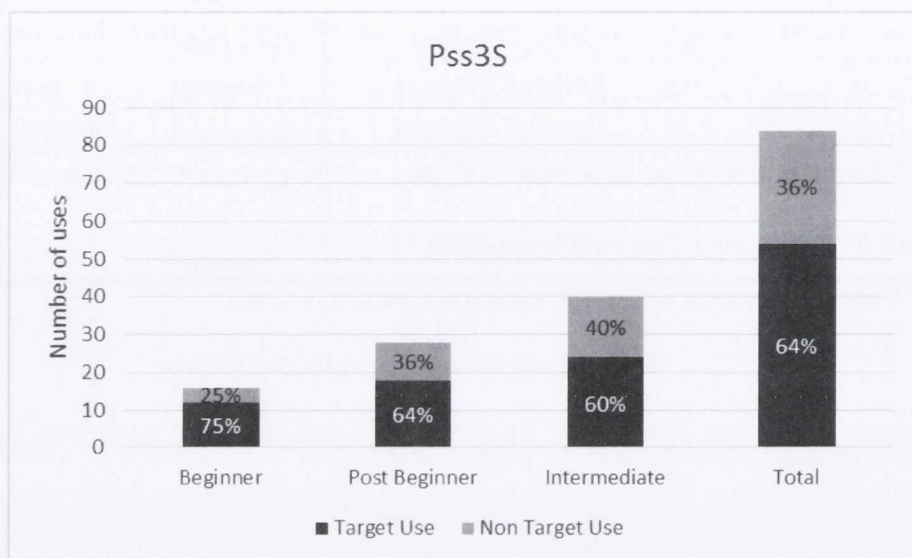
Figure 5.7: Third person singular possessive pronoun

However, as the table below shows, the non target use of third person singular do not differ significantly among the three learner groups.

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-2.13636	1.89907	.564	-10.0061
	Intermediate	-1.63636	.64498	.081	-3.4878
Post Beginner	Beginner	2.13636	1.89907	.564	-5.7333
	Intermediate	.50000	1.99404	.966	-6.9067
Intermediate	Beginner	1.63636	.64498	.081	-.2151
	Post Beginner	-.50000	1.99404	.966	-7.9067

Table 5.4: ANOVA results of the non target use of the 3rd Person Plural

The complex structure of the third person singular possessive pronoun use could explain the possible avoidance strategies in the Beginner class (although accuracy rates are higher in the Beginner class than the Intermediate class) and its average low target-like usage

overall. In Turkish, unlike in English for instance, when expressing possession the noun requires a suffix to describe by whom the noun was possessed.

Onun elbisesi
Onun elbise (buffer letter *s*) (suffix 3rd person singular *i*)
'his/her dress'

As seen in the example above, to say a phrase as simple as 'her dress', learners need to learn to use two suffixes: a buffer letter and the third person singular possessive suffix added to the noun. Learners appear to find this structure quite difficult to master. Therefore, it could be concluded that:

- A2 learners can use third person possessive pronoun with some difficulty in everyday situations.

- A1 learners can use the third person possessive pronoun only in limited occasions with some difficulty.

5.4.4. Tenses

This subsection examines to three Turkish tenses with particularly interesting data which can help adapt and elaborate specific descriptors for grammatical control: the future tense, the present progressive tense and the simple past tense.

Turning firstly to the future tense, the Figure below shows that target-like use of the future tense is at 70% on average across all three classes.
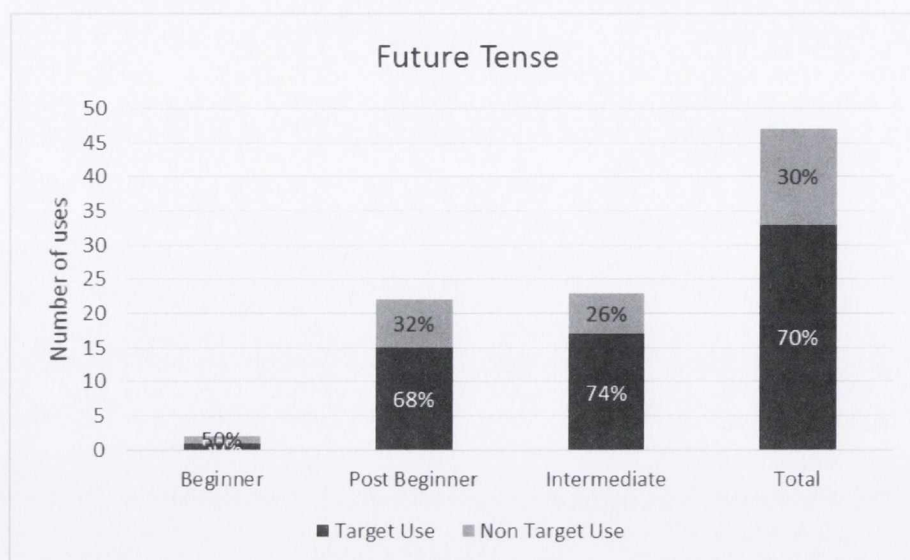
Figure 5.8: Future Tense

However, in the Beginner level class, the future tense was used only twice, once in its target-like form and once in its non-target like form. It is clear that learners in this class did not want or need to use the future tense to communicate, and indeed the future tense was not specifically covered in class in any exercises or tasks. Unlike the Beginner class, learners in Post-beginner and Intermediate level classes attempted to use the future tense between twenty and twenty-five times, with a target-like use of around 70%, which could be considered as limited control.

The table below also shows that considering the non target use of future tense suffix, there is no significant difference among the beginner, post beginner and intermediate level learners.

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-1.65909	.68040	.060	-3.3805
	Intermediate	-.65909	.54147	.457	-2.0290
Post Beginner	Beginner	1.65909	.68040	.060	-.0623
	Intermediate	1.00000	.71361	.359	-.8054
Intermediate	Beginner	.65909	.54147	.457	-.7108
	Post Beginner	-1.00000	.71361	.359	-2.8054

Table 5.6: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Future Tense

Therefore, it could be said that:

- A2 learners can use the future tense sometimes with limited accuracy.

- A1 learners can use future tense only very rarely and with limited control.

The second tense of interest here, the present progressive tense, is the most frequently used tense among the other five tenses in the corpus (see Chapter Four, Section 4.2.3.). This frequent usage may result from the dual usage of this tense. The Turkish present progressive tense is used to describe actions that are happening at the moment of speech and it can also be used to describe habitual actions that people do every day or things that happen usually instead of the simple present tense. In fact, it could be said that the use of the simple present tense is replaced by the use of present progressive tense in everyday use by native speakers.

Considering the number of occurrences of the present progressive tense in the corpus, learners in the Beginner level class appear to prefer to use the present progressive tense more often than Intermediate and Post-beginner level learners. Accuracy in use of the present progressive tense is high at 91% on average (see Figure 5.9 below).

As the table below shows, there is no significant difference considering the non target use of the present progressive tense among the three proficiency levels:

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	1.93182	1.58643	.471	-2.4579
	Intermediate	3.43182*	1.19228	.034	.2511
Post Beginner	Beginner	-1.93182	1.58643	.471	-6.3216
	Intermediate	1.50000	1.16752	.479	-2.8392
Intermediate	Beginner	-3.43182*	1.19228	.034	-6.6126
	Post Beginner	-1.50000	1.16752	.479	-5.8392

Table 5.7: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Present Progressive Tense

However, frequency of usage declines as proficiency level rises, and in fact Intermediate level learners demonstrate regular and accurate use of the simple past tense, unlike the other two proficiency levels (Chapter Four, Section 4.2.3.). So we can conclude an obvious trend in the preference of learners' uses of tenses, where learners in the Beginner classes are quickly able to demonstrate well-formed utterances based on the present progressive tense, accompanied by a diversification in the choice of tenses in higher class levels. For the present progressive in particular, we can agree that:

- A2 learners can use the present progressive tense in everyday situations quite often and accurately.
- A1 learners can use the present progressive tense effectively and accurately.
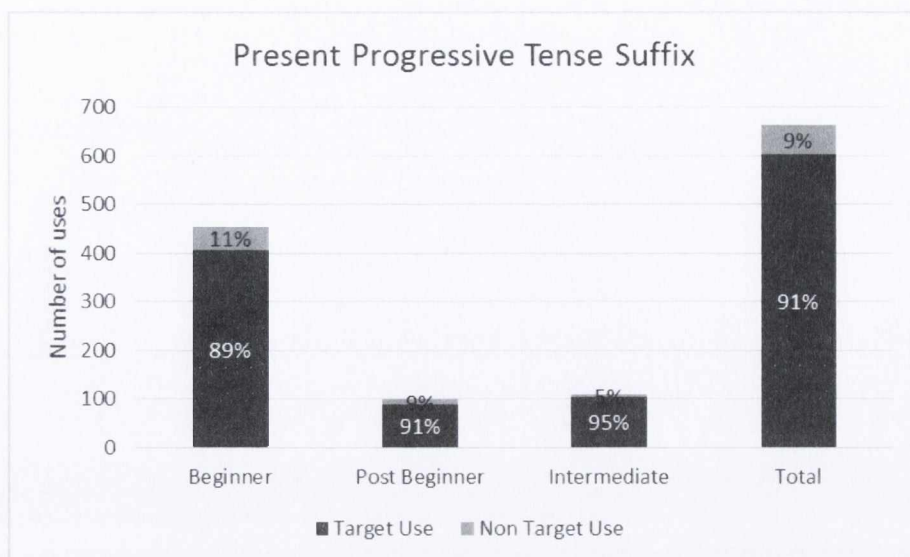
Figure 5.9: Present Progressive Tense- Iyor

Considering the simple past tense, as the figure below shows, the average target use of the past tense suffix is 93% which could not be considered as a challenging suffix for the learners. This suffix is appears 395 times in the corpus.
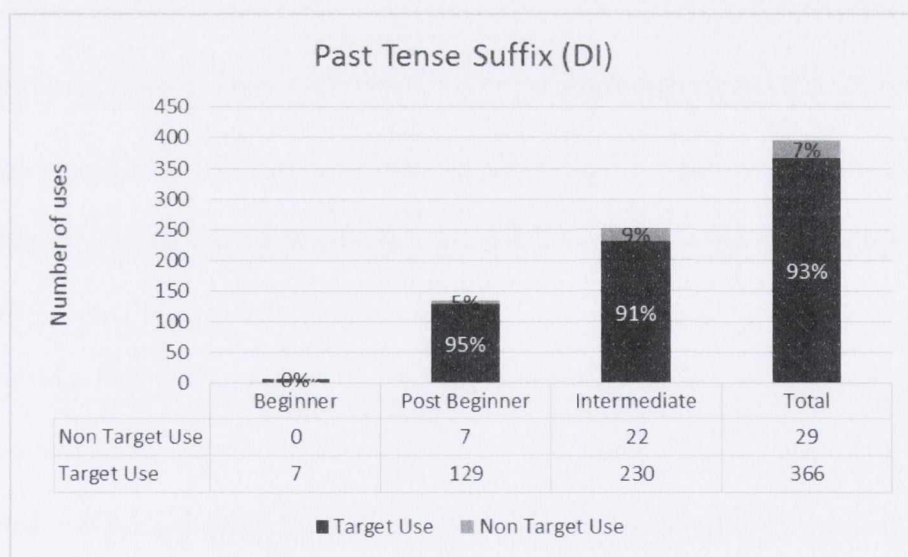
Figure 5.10: Simple Past Tense Use

Moreover, as the table below describes, there is not a significant difference among the three proficiency levels considering the non target use of the simple past tense suffix.

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-1.75000*	.25000	.012	-2.7947
	Intermediate	-2.75000	1.03078	.073	-5.7857
Post Beginner	Beginner	1.75000*	.25000	.012	.7053
	Intermediate	-1.00000	1.06066	.631	-4.0484
Intermediate	Beginner	2.75000	1.03078	.073	-.2857
	Post Beginner	1.00000	1.06066	.631	-2.0484

Table 5.8: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Past Tense

Thus, it could be concluded that

- A2 learners can use the simple past tense in everyday situations quite often and accurately.

- A1 learners can use the present progressive tense effectively and accurately.

## 5.4.5. Compound Nouns

The data in the corpus suggest that learners have difficulty acquiring control of target-like compound nouns, of which there are 338 tokens in the corpus. Compound nouns are complex lexical items, and in Turkish there are four different types of compound nouns: descriptive nouns, non-descriptive nouns, unrelated nouns and chained nouns. Basic explanations of the structures of compound nouns in Turkish and some examples for each compound noun type are provided below. Firstly, an example of a descriptive noun:

Kavanozun kapağı
Kavanozun (noun SUFF) kapak (softening of consonants k mutating to ğ)
(descriptive noun SUFF)
jar lid
'The lid of the jar'

In non-descriptive nouns, only the described noun takes the third person singular possessive suffix. However, in unrelated compound nouns neither of them takes suffix. For example:

> Demir kapı
> iron door
> 'Iron door'

Then, thirdly, in chained nouns more than two nouns are connected together in order to make a compound noun. Three examples are provided below:

a. Yolcu koltuğunun rengi
   passenger seat colour
   'The colour of the passenger's seat'

b. Demir kapının kolu
   iron door handle
   'The handle of the iron door'

c. Oturma odasının penceresi
   living room window
   'The window of the living room'

As the Figure below demonstrates, the learners seemed to have difficulty in producing a target-like use of compound nouns at the Beginner and Post beginner levels, with only approximately one in two occurrences attaining accuracy. On the other hand, Intermediate level learners demonstrate 80% target-like use in compound nouns, indicating increasing mastery.
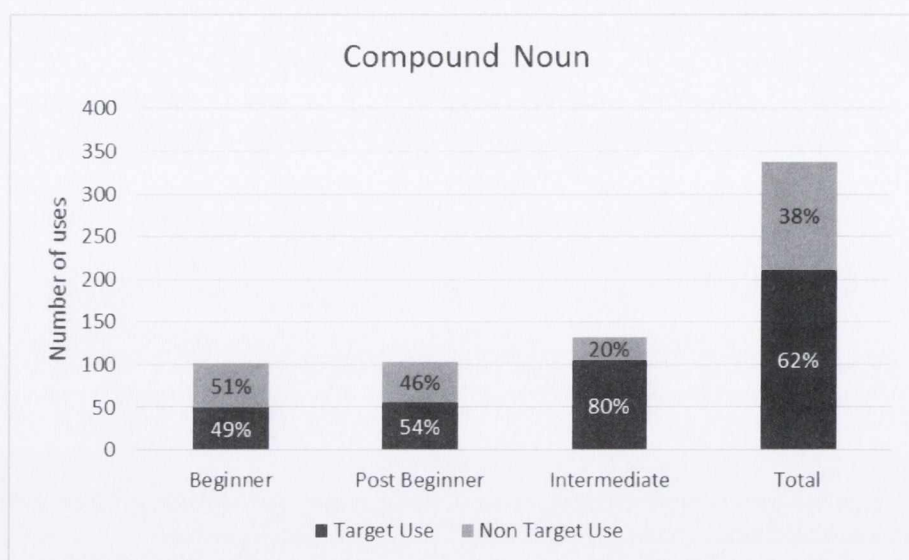
Figure 5.11: Compound Noun

Moreover, considering the table below, there is significant difference between the post beginner and intermediate level learners in terms of non target use of compound noun suffix.

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-6.86364*	2.22110	.015	-12.4830
	Intermediate	1.26136	1.76760	.758	-3.2106
Post Beginner	Beginner	6.86364*	2.22110	.015	1.2443
	Intermediate	8.12500*	2.32951	.006	2.2314
Intermediate	Beginner	-1.26136	1.76760	.758	-5.7334
	Post Beginner	-8.12500*	2.32951	.006	-14.0186

Table 5.9: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Compound Noun

Thus, for compound nouns it could be concluded that:

- A2 learners can use compound nouns effectively and accurately in most utterances.

- A1 learners can use compound nouns with only limited control.

5.4.6. Participles

Participles in the Turkish language also have a complex structure. For example, there are six different types of participles, each requiring different suffixes as outlined below:

1. Present/Past Relative Participle requiring **-(y)en/-(y)an** suffix
2. Future Relative Participle requiring **-(y)ecek/-(y)acak** suffix
3. Past Direct Participle requiring **-dik/-tik/-dık/-tık/-duk/-tuk/-dük/-tük** suffix
4. Past Indirect (Inferential) Participle requiring **mış/-miş/-muş/-müş** suffix
5. Simple Present Positive Participle (Simple tense) requiring **-r/-er/-ar/-ir/-ır/-ur/-ür** suffix.
6. Simple Present Negative Participle (Simple tense) requiring **-mez/-ma** suffix.

Although these participles display a complex structure, the Post-beginner and Intermediate level learners demonstrate target-like use four out of five utterances (208 tokens, 81% target-like use). Participles do not appear in any transcript from the Beginner classes. As we are not trying to generalise our findings but rather to create scaled lists of descriptors which could in turn be tested empirically among a larger cohort of L2 Turkish learners, we cannot exclude the fact that complete Beginners may want and need to include participles in their spoken production. The accuracy level remains stable across the Post-beginner (more than 50 tokens) and Intermediate classes (almost 150 tokens).
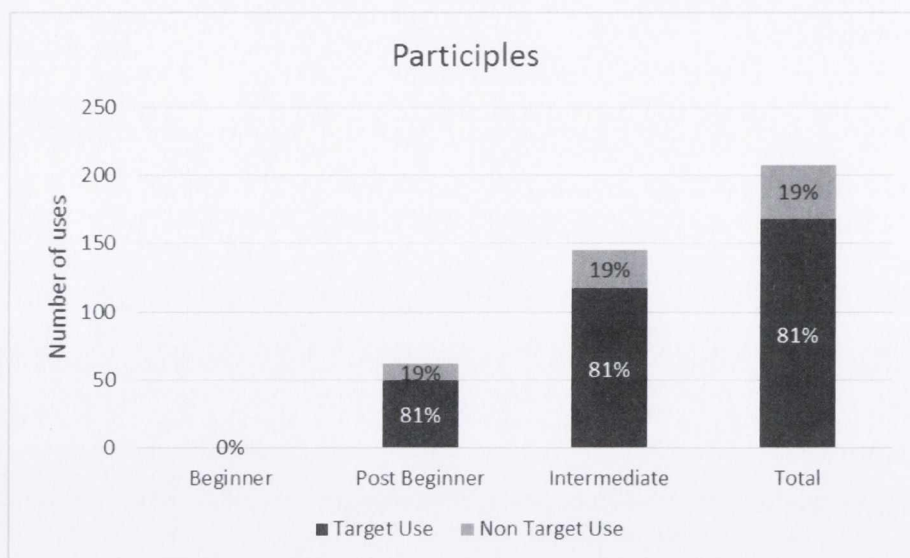
Figure 5.12: Participles

Moreover, the table below shows that there is no significant difference between post beginner and intermediate level learners. However, beginner level learners display more difference when compared to post beginner and intermediate level learners.

(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
					Lower Bound
Beginner	Post Beginner	-3.00000*	.40825	.011	-4.7060
	Intermediate	-3.50000	1.25357	.062	-7.1918
Post Beginner	Beginner	3.00000*	.40825	.011	1.2940
	Intermediate	-.50000	1.31837	.924	-4.2347
Intermediate	Beginner	3.50000	1.25357	.062	-.1918
	Post Beginner	.50000	1.31837	.924	-3.2347

Table 5.10: ANOVA results of the non target use of the Participles

Therefore, it could be concluded that:

- A2 learners can use participles accurately

- A1 learners can only use participles on very limited occasions for specific communicative needs.

211

5.5. Findings arising from the Turkish Tag corpus related to lexical control

In this section, the ten most frequently occurring nouns and ten most frequently occurring verbs are discussed extracted from frequency tables (see Chapter Four, Sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.2.).

5.5.1. Noun frequency lists

Turning firstly to the most frequently occurring nouns in the Beginner level transcripts, these are: *saat kavramı* (time expression), *kilo* (kilo), *anahtar* (key), *haftanın günleri* (days of the week), *yatak* (bed), *arkadaş* (friend), *ev* (home/house), *iş* (work), *kalem* (pencil) and *lira* (lira).
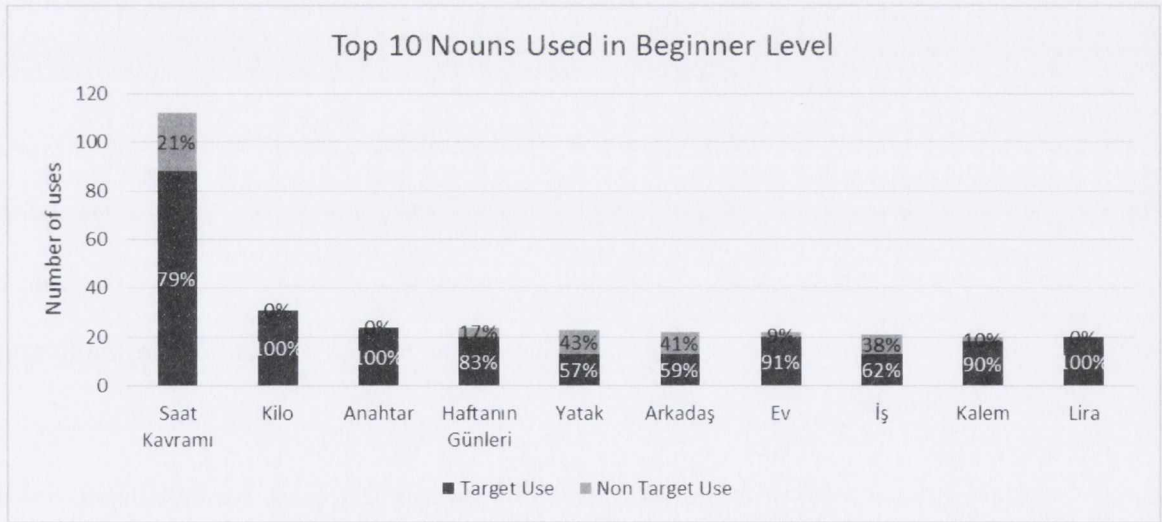
Figure 5.13: Most frequently occurring nouns, Beginnner class

Some language functions come forward regarding the most frequently occurring nouns in beginner level. The table considering the language functions that the learners tried to perform in beginner level is given below.

212

Language functions in beginner class learners	Nouns used in performing language functions
Talking about personal habits	Saat kavramı, haftanın günleri, ev, iş
Talking about daily routines	Saat kavramı, haftanın günleri, ev, iş, arkadaş, yatak
Talking about their relationships	Arkadaş
Talking about their home life	Yatak, anahtar
Talking about their work life	iş, saat kavramı
Talking about daily works	Lira, kilo

Table 5.11: Language functions in beginner class

Considering non-target and target use of the nouns in figure 5.12 above, most are uttered accurately. In fact, this list includes four nouns where accuracy is at 90% or more: *anahtar*, *kilo, kalem* and *lira*. On the other hand, there are three nouns which the learners were not able to use accurately: *yatak, arkadaş*, and *iş*. Here, the crossover between lexical and phonological control is evident. For instance, in the word *yatak* there is the 'softening of consonants' rule to be followed by speakers. The last letter 'k' in the word *yatak* has to mutate to a soft g '*ğ*' when it is followed by a vowel. Therefore the word becomes '*yatağa*' meaning 'to bed', used very often in the corpus when describing daily routine. The learners may find it challenging to use consonant softening rule for his particular word. There are two other words in the top ten frequency lists in the Post-beginner and Intermediate level which follow the same rule: *köpek* (dog) and *çocuk* (child). The word *köpek* (dog) was used in its target form only one in two times in the Post-beginner classes, decreasing to only one in three times in the Intermediate classes. The word *çocuk* (child) which was used 35 times in the Intermediate level class was used in target form 77%. Therefore it could be

concluded that the words requiring the softening of consonants when followed by a vowel seem to represent a challenging task for learners. In line with these, it could be concluded that;

-beginner level learners can talk about shopping in daily works using the words 'kilo', 'anahtar', 'kalem' and 'lira' effectively.

-beginner level learners can talk about their sleep routines using the word 'yatak' with limited control.

-beginner level learners can talk about their relationships using the word 'arkadaş', 'köpek' and 'çocuk' with limited control.

-beginner level learners can talk about daily routines using the words related to 'zaman kavramı and 'haftanın günleri' with limited control.

Turning to the Post-beginner top ten frequency list, this includes the following items: *ev* (home/house), *saat kavramı* (time expression), *hastane* (hospital), *haftanın günleri* (days of the week), *iş* (work), *alışveriş merkezi* (shopping center), *köpek* (dog), *park* (park), *bisiklet* (bicyle), *lokanta* (restaurant). The two nouns *ev* (home/house) and *saat kavramı* (time expression) were the most frequently used items. The word *ev* was used in 72% of utterances in its target form and the word *saat kavramı* was used in 71% of utterances in its target form. Moreover, *saat kavramı* was the most frequently occurring item in analysis of non-target-like uses of the locative noun case (see Figure 5.3 above), and *ev* is the sixth most frequently non-target like use of nouns in the accusative case (see Figure 5.2 above). The possible language functions performed in post beginner level by using these nouns are given below.

Language functions in post beginner class learners	Nouns used in performing language functions
Talking about daily routines	Saat kavramı, haftanın günleri, ev, iş, köpek, bisiklet, lokanta
Talking about their home life	Köpek, ev
Talking about their work life	Iş, saat kavramı
Talking about daily works	Iş, saat kavramı, köpek, park

Table 5.12: Language functions in post-beginner class

In light of these target and non-target-like uses, it could be concluded that:

-post beginner level learners can talk about daily routines using the words related to 'zaman kavramı' and 'haftanın günleri' with limited control.

- post beginnner level learners can talk about their home life using the words 'köpek' and 'ev' with limited control.

- post beginner level learners can talk about their work life using the words 'zaman kavramı and 'iş' with limited control.

- post beginnner level learners can talk about their daily works using the words 'zaman kavramı', 'iş','köpek' and 'park' with limited control.
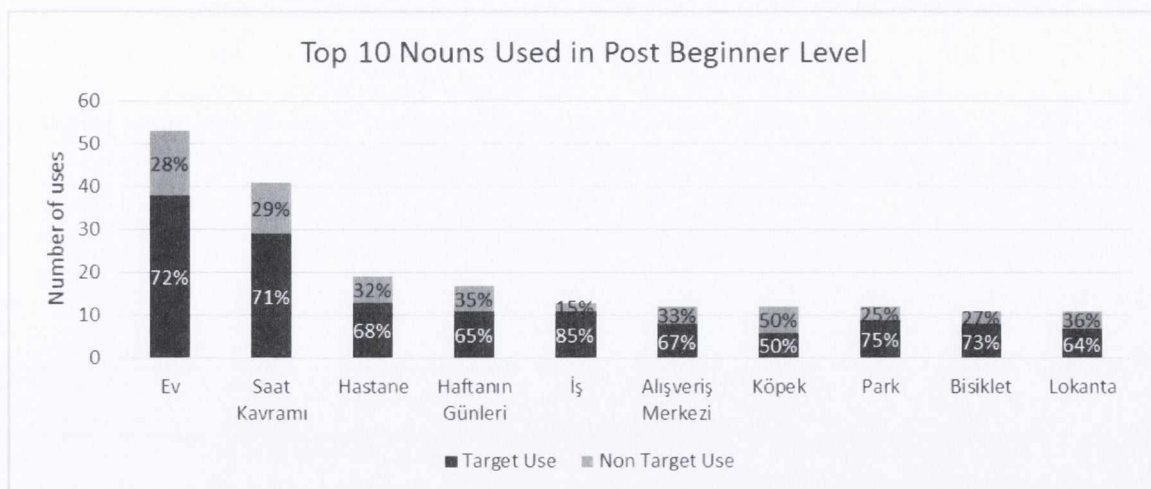
Figure 5.14: Most frequently occurring nouns, Post-beginner level

Next, we consider the most frequently occurring nouns in the Intermediate level transcripts. These were: *tarih* (date), *yıl* (year), *çocuk* (child), *ev* (home/house), *kadın* (woman), *adam* (man), *köpek* (dog), *yaş* (age), *Türkçe* (Turkish), *para* (money). The most frequently occuring noun type *tarih* (date), used in its target form in 56% of utterances. It seems that talking about the date – often perceived by language learners as a simple activity – could in fact represent a challenging task for learners as talking about time and date in Turkish require good control of numbers, including mastery of tens, hundreds and thousands. For example, in order to say the year 1996 in Turkish, one has to say *bin dokuzyüz doksan dokuz* (one thousand nine hundred and ninety-six). This may explain the non-target use of *yıl* (year) in 27% of uses, and the second most frequently used noun in Intermediate level.

The table below shows the language functions in the intermediate level:

Language functions in beginner class learners	Nouns used in performing language functions
Talking about personal information	Tarih, yıl, çocuk, yaş
Talking about daily routines	Çocuk, ev, para, Türkçe
Talking about their relationships	Çocuk, kadın, adam
Talking about their home life	Ev, çocuk, köpek

Table 5.13: Language functions in intermediate class
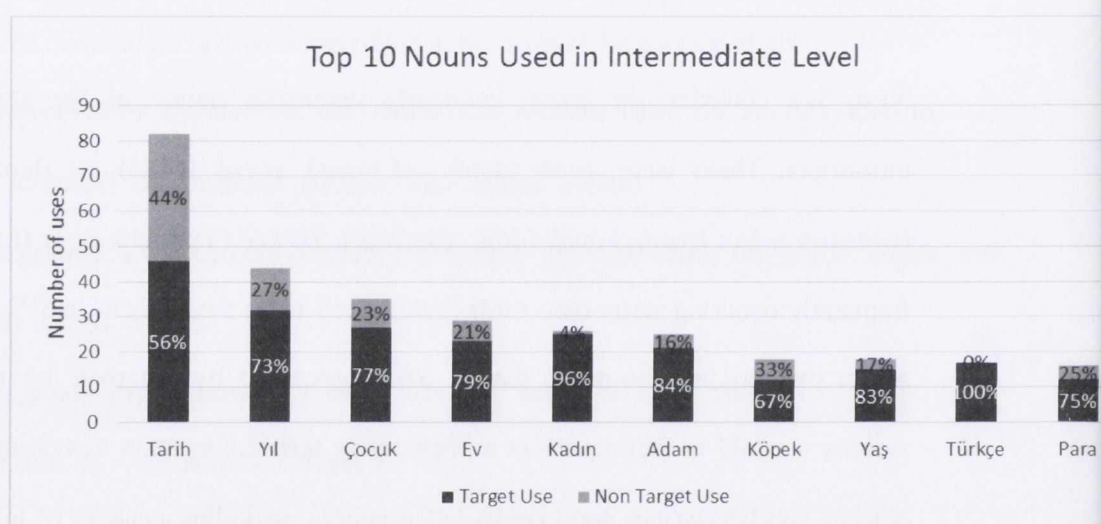
Figure 5.15: Most frequently occurring nouns, Intermediate level

Thus, it could be said that:

- Intermediate level learners can talk about their personal information using the words 'tarih', 'yıl' and 'çocuk' with only limited control.

- Intermediate level learners can talk about their daily routines using the words 'çocuk', 'ev' and 'para' with only limited control.

- Intermediate level learners can talk about their relationships using the words 'çocuk', 'kadın' and 'adam' effectively.

- Intermediate level learners can talk about their home life using the words 'ev' 'çocuk' and 'köpek' with only limited control.

5.5.2. Verb frequency lists

Next, we are considering the most frequently occurring verbs. In all three levels, this was the verb *gitmek* (to go), perhaps unsurprisingly when we think about the amount of classroom talk which focuses on daily routines, holidays and so forth. Moreover, it was used quite accurately: in 91% of Beginner utterances, in 89% of Post-beginner utterances and in 90% of Intermediate utterances. On the other hand, when the verb *kahvaltı yapmak* (to have breakfast) was considered, Beginner level learners seem to have very limited control. It only appears in its target-like form in a third of utterances, and is a less frequently appearing verb compared with *gitmek*.

Figure 5.16: Verb frequency list, Beginners

In the Post-beginner level, learners seem to display more control over everyday verbs such as *yapmak* (to do), *gelmek* (to come), *almak* (to take), *başlamak* (to begin/to start) and *yemek yemek* (to eat), with 80% or more rates of target-like use. Whilst there is some overlap in the most frequently occuring verbs, it is clear that the lexicon of learners is expanding in this level, and it continues to expand in the Intermediate class. Regarding the Intermediate level, the learners seem to have more control over the most frequently verbs

compared to the other two classes. These learners demonstrated high target-like use of use of six frequently appearing verbs in more than 80% of utterances: *gitmek* (to go), *istemek* (to want), *başlamak* (to begin/to start), *öğrenmek* (to learn) *giymek* (to wear) and *olmak* (to be). At Intermediate level, the range of verbs which are deployed effectively and very accurately is expanding.

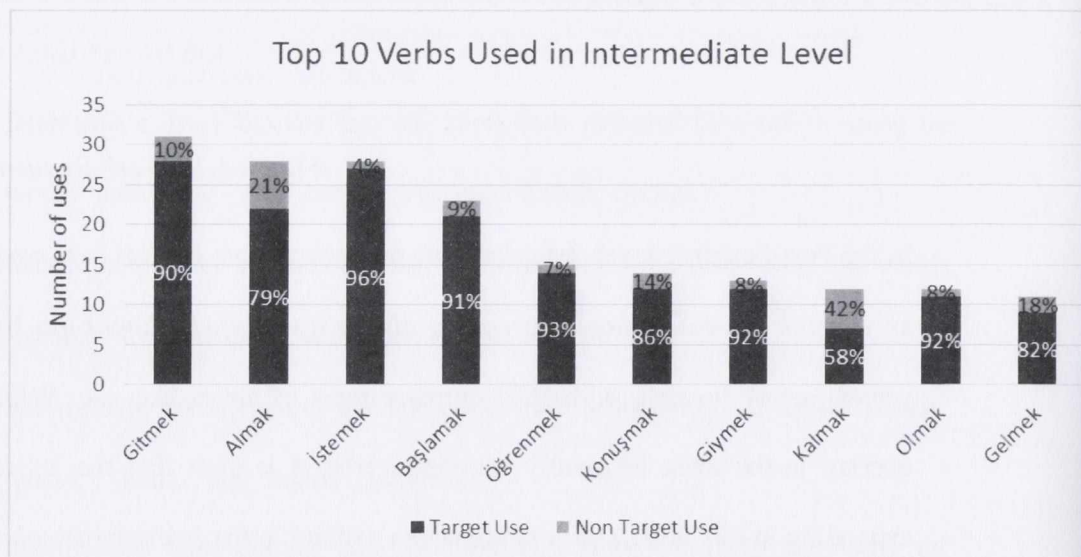*Figure 5.17: Verb frequency list, Post-Beginners*

Figure 5.18: Verb frequency list, Intermediate

219

5.6. Findings arising from the TurkishTag corpus related to phonological control

In the final part of our consideration of control in spoken interaction, having considered grammatical and lexical control, I now turn to phonological control. Turkish has eight vowels (a, ı, o, u, e, i, ö, ü). These vowels are separated into two groups – back vowels and front vowels – based on the shape of the palate when pronouncing them.

Back (back) vowels:	a/a/, ı /ɯ/, o /o/, u /u/
Front (front) vowels:	e /e/, i /i/, ö /ø/, ü /y/

Table 5.14: List of vowels and phonetic representations in Turkish

In Turkish, depending on the last vowel, a word is either a back word or a front word. For example, *cay* (tea) is a back word. Its vowel (the only vowel) is a back vowel *(a)*. However, although it has a back vowel at first place *(a)*, *kahve* (coffee) is a front vowel since the last vowel is a front vowel *(e)*. In Turkish vowel harmony, these two rules are followed:

- Any suffix added to a word which has a back vowel at the end must have a back vowel.
- Any suffix added to a word which has a front vowel at the end must have a front vowel.

For instance, if we want to say in the tea, the word *çay* (tea) must take the suffix *da* (in, on, at). So, it must be *çayda* (in the tea) not *çayde* in order to follow the vowel harmony. For coffee, accordingly, it must be *kahvede* (in the coffee), not *kahveda*. Regarding the main pronunciation mistakes of this group of Turkish language learners, it is important to draw attention to acquisition of specific sounds. As mentioned previously, it is pointed out by Şengül (2014: 325) in her study where she investigated alphabet issues in teaching Turkish

as a foreign language that there are some problematic sounds/letters in teaching and learning Turkish. In her study, the following sounds/letters were found to be problematic: (a/a/, e/e/, ı/ɯ/,, i/i/, o/o/, ö/ø/, u/u/, ü/y/, c/d͡ʒ/,, ç/t͡ʃ/, ğ/:/, /‿/, /ʲ/, l /ɫ//l/, ş/ʃ/, y/j/) (ibid.: 325):

Moreover, she suggested that before starting teaching Turkish, the learners should be evaluated by the languages and alphabets they already know in order to detect the possible sounds they might found problematic. For instance, a learner from an English speaking country and a learner from Turkic languages speaking country might not found the same sounds problematic. Thus, these learner differences should be taken into consideration in curriculum design. This study also serves this purpose and shows the most problematic sounds by Turkish language learners as a foreign/L2 language from an English speaking country, Ireland as shown below.

The letter in Turkish	IPA	The word in Turkish	English meaning
ö	/ø/	köpek	dog
c	/dʒ/	gece	night
ı	/ɯ/	kız	girl
ş	/ʃ/	arkadaş	friend
ç	/tʃ/	Türkçe	Turkish
ğ	/:/, /‿/, /ʲ/	öğle yemeği	lunch
s	/s/	resim	picture

Table 5.15: Most problematic sounds in Turkish in the corpus

Vowel harmony was the most frequently occurring pronunciation mistake in the Beginner and Intermediate levels. However, vowel harmony does not appear in the Post-beginner error frequency list. This may have been due to the fact that vowel harmony was taught explicitly in the Beginner class, but that in the Post-beginner, avoidance strategies for

221

complex lexical items seemed to be used by learners. By the time they reach Intermediate level, they seemed more likely to take risks in their production. So, given the challenge that vowel harmony seems to represent, we can only say that:

- A1 & A2 learners can pronounce Turkish words with sounds ö/ø/, c/d͡ʒ/, ı/ɯ/, ş/ʃ/, ç/t͡ʃ/, ğ/:/, /‿/, /ʲ/, s/s/ with limited control.
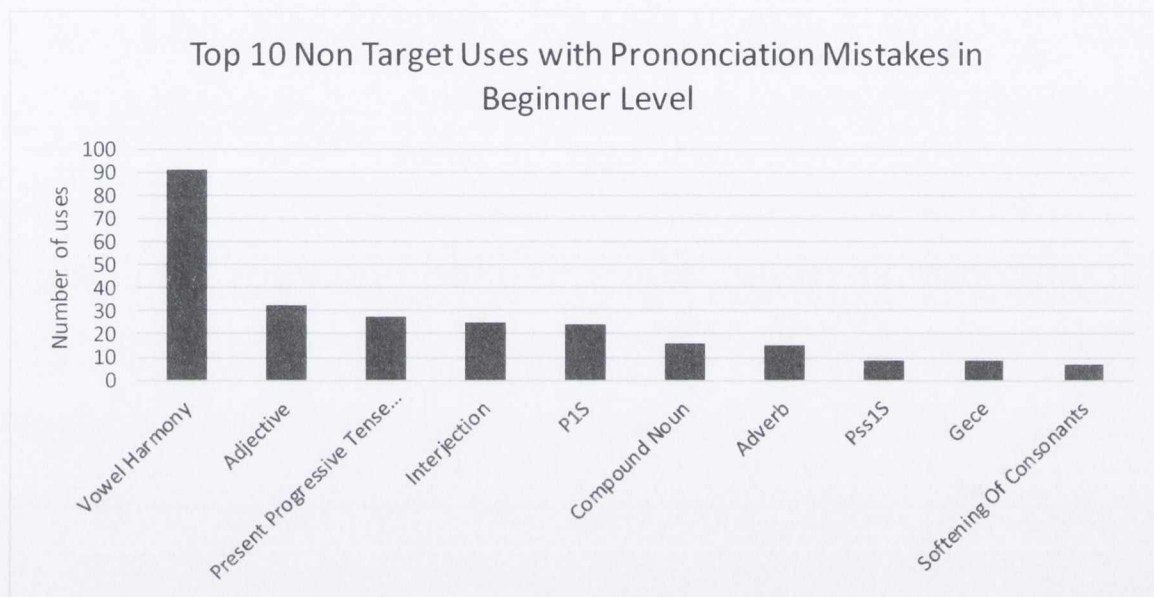
Figure 5.19: Error frequency list, Beginners

Top 10 Non Target Uses with Prononciation Mistakes in Post Beginner Level

Number of uses (y-axis): 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14

Categories (x-axis): Compound Noun (12), Locative (11), Adjective (8), Haftanin Günleri (6), Resim (5), Adverb (4), Köpek (4), Ayakkabı (3), Buffer Letter (3), Ev (3)
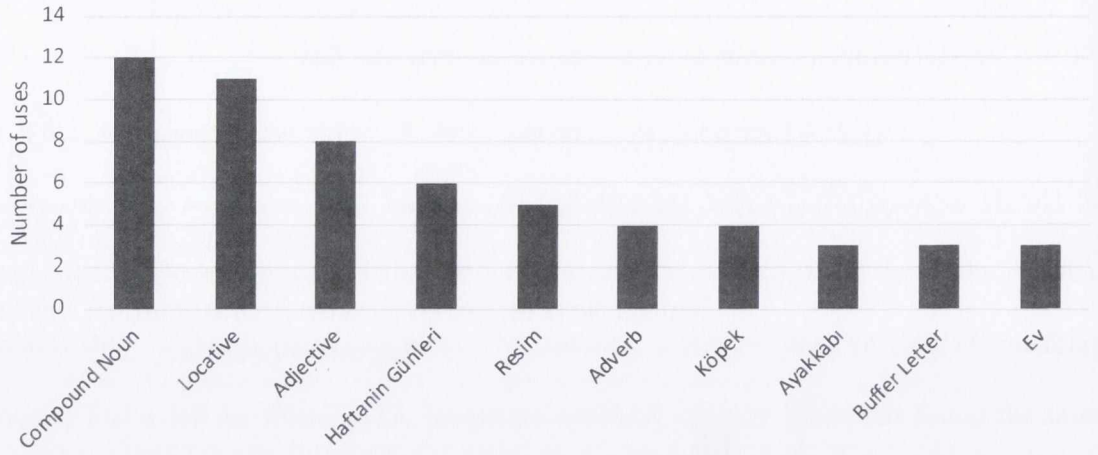
Figure 5:20: Error frequency list, Post-beginners

Top 10 Non Target Uses with Prononciation Mistakes in Intermediate Level

Number of uses (y-axis): 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16

Categories (x-axis): Vowel Harmony (15), Tarih (8), Incorrect Use Of Noun (6), Köpek (5), Accusative (4), Adjective (4), Adverb (4), Sayı (4), Compound Noun (3), Cüzdan (3)
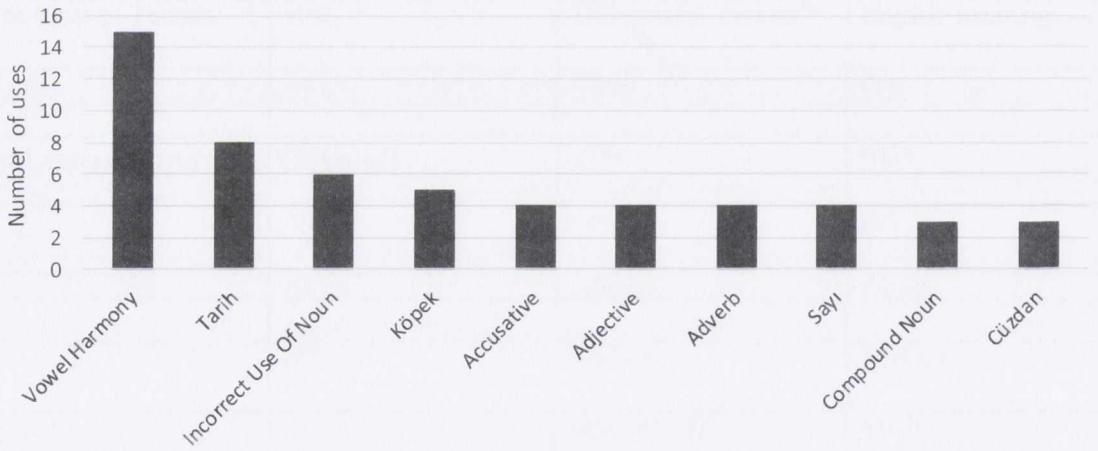
Figure 5.21: Error frequency list, Intermediate

223

5.7. Towards a set of expanded and adapted scaled descriptors for Turkish

It is important to describe the actual features of Turkish language use by L2 learners based on empirical data. Course book designers and instructors require such knowledge to help plan curricula in a way that is in line with learners' communicative needs and what seems to be linguistically possible for them to learn. For instance, in some Turkish textbooks, features of Turkish that appear relatively early on – and are therefore considered to be relatively easy – in fact take quite a long time for learners to master, such as describing the date as mentioned above.

On the other hand, some other features appear quite late in such books, and so give the impression to learners and teachers that they are harder to learn when in fact learners may wish to use such items earlier to express urgent communicative needs, such as IF-conditionals. In other words, there are two aspects which are sometimes appear in tension in curriculum design – the actual difficulty level, and the desire of students to learn aspects of a language system which may be perceived as too challenging by instructors or language experts, but which they want to use to meet immediate communicative needs.

However, how can a textbook or curriculum make decisions about the difficulty level of items, and expectations regarding whether students should be able to master them at least some of the time? This is where the research question of this thesis (How can the scaled descriptors in the CEFR for grammatical, lexical and phonological control be adapted and expanded for use by adults learning Turkish at A1 and A2 proficiency levels?) becomes a guiding principle for the creation of some basic Turkish-language-specific Can Do statements or scaled descriptors at the A1 and A2 levels. I present these according to the

three aspects of linguistic control within spoken production: (i) grammatical control; (ii) lexical control; (iii) phonological control.

Proposed Turkish-language specific descriptors Grammatical control, A2 Proficiency Level
Can use accusative case of the noun correctly in some occasions.
Can use locative case of the noun correctly in many occasions.
Can use the third person possessive pronoun, although with some difficulty, in everyday situations.
Can use the simple past tense in everyday situations, often quite accurately.
Can use compound nouns extensively and accurately.
Can use participles accurately.

Proposed Turkish-language specific descriptors Grammatical control, A1 Proficiency Level
Can use the accusative case of the noun correctly in some very limited occasions
Can use the locative case of the noun correctly in some occasions.
Can use the third person possessive pronoun with some difficulty in limited occasions
Can use the present progressive tense extensively and accurately.
Can use compound nouns with limited control.
Can use participles with limited control.

Proposed Turkish-language specific descriptors Lexical control, A2 Proficiency Level
Can use time expressions in the locative case with limited control.
Can use phrases about describing the date with limited control.
Can talk about their personal information using the words 'tarih', 'yıl' and 'çocuk' with only limited control.
Can talk about their daily routines using the words 'çocuk', 'ev' and 'para' with only limited control.
Can talk about their home life using the words 'ev' 'çocuk' and 'köpek' with only limited control.
Can use everyday verbs such as *gitmek* (to go) *yapmak* (to do), *gelmek* (to come), *almak* (to take), *başlamak* (to begin/to start) and *yemek yemek* (to eat) extensively and accurately.
Can use everyday verbs such as (*gitmek* (to go), *istemek* (to want), *başlamak* (to begin/to start), *öğrenmek* (o learn) *giymek* (to wear) and *olmak* (to be) very effectively and very accurately
Can talk about their relationships using the words 'çocuk', 'kadın' and 'adam' effectively.
Proposed Turkish-language specific descriptors Lexical control, A1 Proficiency Level
Can use nouns requiring the consonant softening rule only occasionally and with limited control.
Can use the verb *gitmek* (to go) extensively and accurately, and can use some other verbs to describe daily routines such as *kahvaltı yapmak* (to have breakfast) with limited control.
Can talk about daily routines using the words related to 'zaman kavramı' and 'haftanın

günleri' with limited control.
Can talk about their home life using the words 'köpek' and 'ev' with limited control.
Can talk about their work life using the words 'zaman kavramı and 'iş' with limited control.
Can talk about their daily works using the words 'zaman kavramı', 'iş','köpek' 'haftanın günleri' and 'park' with limited control.
can talk about shopping in daily works using the words 'kilo', 'anahtar', 'kalem' and 'lira' effectively.
can talk about their sleep routines using the word 'yatak' with limited control.
can talk about their relationships using the word 'arkadaş', 'köpek' and 'çocuk' with limited control.

Proposed Turkish-language specific descriptors   **Phonological control, A2 Proficiency Level**
- A1 learners can pronounce Turkish words with sounds ö/ø/, c/d͡ʒ/, ı/ɯ/, ş/ʃ/, ç/t͡ʃ/, ğ/:/, /‿/, /ʲ/, s/s/ with limited control.
Proposed Turkish-language specific descriptors   **Phonological control, A1 Proficiency Level**
- A2 learners can pronounce Turkish words with sounds ö/ø/, c/d͡ʒ/, ı/ɯ/, ş/ʃ/, ç/t͡ʃ/, ğ/:/, /‿/, /ʲ/, s/s/ with limited control.

These types of Turkish-language-specific scaled descriptors are based on a small corpus of empirical data, drawn from a research population of 20 learners. As I discussed in more detail in my conclusion, it is clear that this sample is not necessarily generalisable. For instance, some of the classes displayed features such as predominance of monolinguals (Post-beginner class) or predominance of younger adult learners (Beginner class). However, this kind of work is the very first step in working towards scaled descriptors that are not invented by teachers or course designer, or just expanded from the basic descriptors in the CEFR but instead based upon an actual corpus of Turkish language use recorded from classroom discussions.

5.8. Conclusion

In this chapter, I have discussed some of the salient features of the sample population based on their responses to their questionnaire presented in Chapter Four, along with some observations from my time as a teacher and researcher in the 2012/13 academic year in the Turkish extramural programme. Following this, a discussion of the key themes emerging from the corpus was provided, according to aspects of grammatical, lexical and phonological control by learners. The main aim of this chapter was to shed light on what the learners *can do* regarding specific features of the Turkish language and indeed what the learners found difficult to do. Using these data, some basic adapted and expanded scaled descriptors for the A1 and A2 levels were created as a means of illustrating how empirically-based Can Do descriptors could be constructed. In the final chapter, I tie these findings to my earlier discussion, and sum up this research project.

Chapter 6: Summary and Conclusion

6.1. Introduction

This chapter is divided into three sections. First, I sum up the theoretical framework of this research, methodology and findings. Then, the main contributions to these findings to Turkish language teaching and learning processes are outlined. Finally, the limitations encountered in this research project and possible future researches are considered.

6.2. Summary of previous chapters

In the first chapter, firstly the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) was described as a descriptive, taxonomic apparatus. Its action-oriented approach to learning and its emphasis on holistic language and plurilingualism was discussed together with some country specific examples where the CEFR was implemented in various contexts. Then, some perceived limitations of the CEFR were considered. Finally the relevance of the CEFR for curriculum designers and textbook writers for Turkish as a foreign/L2 language was discussed.

In the second chapter, second language acquisition by adults was described and researching second language acquisition by adults was discussed. From these general discussions, the second chapter continued with explaining the main characteristics of Turkish and Turkish language acquisition by making specific reference to Aksu and Slobin's study (1985) which was found to be the only comprehensive research on Turkish language acquisition so far. Then, the main features of Turkish language acquisition to be investigated in this research were described as grammatical, lexical and phonological control respectively. Finally, possible external factors (age and motivation) and internal

factors (context of learning and interaction) in relation to the literature in the field were discussed.

In chapter three, firstly, the research design employed in this study was explained. Then, the research context was described by providing information about the extramural language courses in Trinity College, Dublin with specific reference to Turkish language course. It was followed by discussion of aspects related to conducting ethical research. Classroom audio recording and background questionnaire was described before turning to the piloting process and data collection. The final part of the third chapter addressed processing the data and analysis.

In chapter four, data collected through the background questionnaire were explored, in order to provide key information about the research population which could shape our understanding of their language development. Data received from the participants related to three parts of the questionnaire were presented in turn. In the first part of the questionnaire, participants provided information regarding their background. In the second part of the questionnaire, the responses to questions related to their perception of Turkish speaking people, their motivation to learn Turkish and their Turkish use in everyday life were displayed. In part three, the participants' responses related to self perception regarding the achievements in using Turkish and their study habits were illustrated.

Then, in the second part of the chapter, data collected through classroom audio recordings which was done on weekly bases were described, and presented according to the categories of grammatical, lexical and phonological control respectively. These data was based on a total set of recordings which lasted 864 minutes containing 29,413 words. Of these, 8995

words were tagged using the tailor-made TurkishTag software relating to the three categories of interest and were collected in a corpus of L2 Turkish language use.

In grammatical control, the target and non target use of the learners regarding dative, locative, ablative and accusative cases of the nouns, personal/possessive pronoun suffixes, tenses, buffer letters, compound noun, negation-mA, negation-değil, participles, and question particle were described. Then, data regarding lexical control were illustrated, including 20 most frequently used nouns and verbs, as well as conjunctions, interjections, particles, adjectives and adverbs. Finally, data regarding phonological control were presented. All these data were presented in the form of percentages in figures and in the form of inferential statistics (ANOVA) in tables in order to show any significant difference amongst the three learner groups, i.e.: beginner, post beginner and intermediate.

In chapter five, key patterns emerging from the data -both the questionnaire and the corpus of L2 Turkish- was discussed with the aim of creating a foundation for scaled descriptors of Turkish language use. Firstly, some of the salient features of the sample population based on their responses to the questionnaire presented in Chapter Four were discussed, together with some observations from my time as a teacher and researcher in the 2012/13 academic year in the Turkish extramural programme. Following this, a discussion of the key themes emerging from the corpus was provided, according to aspects of grammatical, lexical and phonological control by learners. In grammatical control, data related to accusative and locative cases of the noun, personal pronouns (1st person singular and 3rd person possessive pronouns) and tenses (future, present progressive and simple past tense), compound nouns and participles were discussed. Noun and verb frequency lists were discussed in relation to language functions in lexical control of the learners. In order to

shed light on to the phonological control of the learners, some specific sounds in the verb and noun list were isolated to detect the most problematic sounds by learners in learning Turkish. The main aim of this chapter was to investigate what the learners *can do* regarding specific language features of Turkish language and indeed what the learners found difficult to do based on empirical data. Finally, using these data, some basic adapted and expanded scaled descriptors for the A1 and A2 levels were presented.

6.3. Summary of findings

In this section, first of all research findings related to background questionnaire are discussed in specific reference to their background, their motivation and their Turkish learning perception. Then, it follows the findings arising from the learner corpus considering their grammatical, lexical and phonological control.

6.3.1. Background questionnaire findings

The learners consist of 14 female and seven male students. Many of them know some other languages besides Turkish and Irish. For example eight of them know French, three of them know German and Polish and one of them know Spanish. Only one participant said she/he does not know any other language. So, it could be said that the majority of the participants have already had some experience of learning a foreign language beforehand.

On the other hand more than half of the participants were born in Ireland and have always lived here and English is their mother tongue and many of the rest of the participants were long term residents in Ireland. Thus, it could be concluded that the majority of the research participants were Irish people and the rest constitute people living in Ireland for a long time (more than 4 years).

Twelve of the learner groups do not have any Turkish family relatives. On the other hand seven of them have Turkish relatives living with them in Ireland. Therefore, it could be concluded that almost half of the research population have Turkish people in their immediate environment. However, only four of the participants said they sometimes speak Turkish at home and the rest of the participants said English is spoken at home. So, even though almost half of the participants have the opportunity to speak in Turkish at home, only a few of them do so and many of them prefer English rather than Turkish.

Again, many of them go to Turkey once a year and tend to spend there a couple of weeks or o couple of months in average. Almost half of the respondents said they try to speak in Turkish a few times a day when in Turkey and only two of them said they speak only Turkish when they are in Turkey. Therefore, it could be concluded that regarding the context of learning, most of the research participants benefit from naturalistic context beside instructed.

When it comes to their motivation, almost half of the participants said they want to learn Turkish in order to speak Turkish with their neighbors when in Turkey. Personal interest, making friends with Turkish people either in Ireland or in Turkey and plans to live in Turkey for longer time in the future were among the other dominant motivations behind learning Turkish. Therefore, it could be said that the learners in this reserach learn Turkish in order to speak in Turkish with Turkish people in social life rather than business or educational purposes.

More than half of the learners consider themselves as 'good' in terms of Turkish pronunciation. However, many of them find it 'difficult' to strike up a conversation in Turkish. In addition to this, almost half of them find the suffixes and word order as the

most challenging tasks in learning Turkish. Some also mentioned Turkish people speaking very quickly and loudly. Moreover, more than half of the learners said spoken production, spoken interaction and listening were the most challenging skills for them to acquire.

Therefore, it could be concluded that the learners in this research find speaking and listening skills more challenging than reading and writing. It might be due to their aims of learning Turkish which was found to be mainly related to spoken production and spoken interaction. Another finding related to spoken interaction and spoken production was related to the participants self assessments. Many of the A1 participants said they could fulfil A2 level can do statements in spoken interaction and spoken production. These findings illustrate some of the ambiguity in semantic differentiation in the CEFR's Can Do statements and also points to the need for language-specific descriptors.

6.3.2. Learner corpus findings

In this section learner corpus findings related to grammatical, lexical and phonological control are discussed respectively.

The key items in grammatical control consists of accusative case, locative case, personal pronouns (1st person singular and 3rd person possessive pronouns), tenses (future tense, present progressive tense and simple past tense), compound nouns and participles.

In the accusative case which was the second most frequently used noun case in the corpus after locative case was used 222 times in total by all learners in the three levels. However, it was used only 125 times in target form and 97 times in non target form which proves the accusative case as a challenging task. Moreover, one third of the total number of non-target

uses of the most frequently used nouns result in incorrect use of accusative case by learners. In addition to this, the table 5.1 above shows that the non target use of accusative case between the beginner and post beginner level learners differ significantly than the post beginner and intermediate level learners.

Thus, it could be concluded that accusative case is found to be a challenging noun case by learners which could be given specific focus in curriculum designs and textbooks.

Secondly, the locative case is the most frequently used noun case in the corpus and it was used 621 times by learners; 116 times in non target and 505 times in target form. However, when we consider the rates of target-like use at the post-beginner level, target-like use is lower than in the beginner and intermediate levels. It appears that in the post-beginner class, learners have difficulty in using the locative case of the noun in the target form. It might be either due to the difference in the class sizes that the beginner level class was twice as big as the post-beginner classroom or the beginner levels learners being scaffolded more than the post beginner level. On the other hand, the table 5.2 above in chapter 5 also shows that there is significant difference between the beginner level learners and post beginner level learners in terms of non target use of locative case.

Thus, it could be concluded that the locative case being the most frequently used noun case in the corpus could be a challenging task for the learners who are placed between complete beginner and intermediate level. Thus, more attention could be provided for these learners in this respect.

Turning to the pronouns, the 1st person singular personal pronoun was used 105 times in non target and 824 times in target form in the corpus in total 929 times which was used

three times more than any other personal pronoun (see Chapter Four, Section 4.2.2). Thus, it could be stated that learners tend to speak about themselves rather than others. In addition to this, the 1st person singular pronoun in Turkish is within the grasp of learners at all proficiency levels and almost 90% percentage of utterances across all three proficiency level classes was in target form. The table 5.3 above also illustrates that the use of first person singular do not differ significantly among the three level learners.

Thus, it could be concluded that the 1st person singular possessive pronoun could be effectively used right from the beginning in Turkish language learning.

However, when the 3rd person singular possessive pronoun was considered, target use of this possessive pronoun is quite low at 64%. It was used 30 times in non target form and 54 times in target form. This shows that although it is not used regularly by beginner level learners, post-beginner level learners and Intermediate level learners attempted to use this possessive pronoun suffix twice as often the beginner class.

It could be concluded that the learners have difficulty in mastering grammatical control of the 3rd person singular possessive pronoun suffix. On the other hand, there is not any significant difference amongst the three levels. Thus, the curriculum designers and textbook writers and the teachers could be advised to give more attention to the 3rd person singular possessive pronoun in all levels.

Considering the future tense, the beginner level learners used this tense only twice, once in its target-like form and once in its non-target like form in the corpus. On the other hand, the learners in post-beginner and intermediate levels attempted to use the future tense in target form around 70%, which could be considered as limited control. The table 5.4 in

chapter 5 above also shows that considering the non target use of future tense suffix, there is no significant difference among the beginner, post beginner and intermediate.

Therefore, it could be concluded that related to future tense, it is difficult to make any comment in this reserach related to beginner level learners' control as the learners in this level did not want or need to use the future tense to communicate, and indeed the future tense was not specifically covered in class in any exercises or tasks. However, considering the post beginner and intermediate level learners' control, it might be said that the learners in all levels might have difficulty in control of the future tense suffix and could be treated accordingly in curriculum and textbooks by the language specialists.

The present progressive tense, on the other hand, occurred 664 times with a high accurate average usage at 91% in the corpus. However, the use of this tense suffix was decreased in the Post-beginner and Intermediate levels. According to the table 5.7 in chapter 5 above, the target and non target use of this tense suffix do not differ significantly. It could be concluded that the learners could use present progressive tense effectively in all levels.

Similar to the present progressive tense the simple past tense was used 93% in target form in average by all level learners. Moreover, the table 5.8 above describes that there is not a significant difference among the three proficiency levels considering the non target use of the simple past tense suffix.

Therefore, like the case in the present progressive tense, it could be said that the learners could use the simple past tense effectively in all levels.

The data related to compound noun suggest that learners have difficulty in acquiring control of target-like use of compound nouns. There are 338 tokens in the corpus; 127 times non target form 211 times in target form. It could be said that this might be resulted from the complex structure of the compound nouns in Turkish in general. Moreover, the figure 5.11 above demonstrates that although the learners in beginner and post beginner levels seemed to have less control in producing a target-like use of compound nouns, intermediate level learners demonstrate 80% target-like use in compound nouns, indicating increasing mastery. In addition to this, considering the table 5.9 above there is significant difference between the post beginner and intermediate level learners in terms of non target use of compound noun suffix.

Thus, compound nouns could be mentioned among the grammatical items which could receive more focus in the beginning levels in learning and teaching Turkish.

On the other hand, although the participles have a complex structure, they occurred 208 times in the corpus; 40 times in non target, 168 in target form and have 81% target-like use in total. Participles do not appear in any transcript from the beginner class. This finding cannot be generalized and could be tested empirically among a larger cohort of L2 Turkish learners. Yet, it might be the fact that complete beginners may want and need to include participles in their spoken production. On the other hand, table 5.10 above shows that there is no significant difference between post beginner and intermediate level learners. However, beginner level learners display more difference when compared to post beginner and intermediate level learners which could be interpreted as an item which could receive more attention in beginner levels.

Regarding the lexical control, some specific words were isolated in the corpus which could be considered as challenging lexical items across all proficiency levels. Thus, it could be said that, the following most frequently used nouns in the corpus in this research could receive specific focus in teaching and learning Turkish as they were found to be challenging lexical items in all levels:

'*yatak* (bed)', '*köpek* (dog)', '*arkadaş (*friend)', '*ev* (home/house)', '*iş (*work/job)', '*tarih* (date)', '*yıl* (year)', '*çocuk (*child)', '*para* (money)' and '*park (*park)'.

In addition to these lexical items, although it might not sound very difficult to talk about time expressions like, '*haftanın günleri (*days of the week)' or '*zaman kavramı* (time expressions)' in general, these two items were found to be challenging by the learners in all three levels.

Thus it could be said that no matter how easy it might be perceived to talk about daily routines and to use related words such as '*haftanın günleri (*days of the week)' or *köpek* (dog)', '*arkadaş (*friend)' or '*ev* (home/house)' in Turkish, it could be challenging for learners in all levels due to the complex suffixes the words need in order to make correct sentences.

Regarding the phonological control of the learners, it is important to draw attention to specific sounds in the corpus. As Şengül (2014: 325) found (a/a/, e/e/, ı/ɯ/,, i/i/, o/o/, ö/ø/, u/u/, ü/y/, c/d͡ʒ/,, ç/t͡ʃ/, ğ/:/, /ʎ/, /ɥ/, l/ɫ/, /l/, ş/ʃ/, y/j/) sounds problematic in teaching Turkish as a foreign language in her comprehensive study, similar to her finding, the below sounds also were found to be problematic in this research:
Ö/ø/, c/d͡ʒ/, ı/ɯ/, ş/ʃ/, ç/t͡ʃ/, ğ/:/, /ʎ/, /ɥ/, s/s/.

She also suggested that the Turkish language learners should be evaluated by the languages and alphabets they already know in order to detect the possible sounds the learners might found problematic. This study also serves this purpose and shows the most problematic sounds which were found as ö/ø/, c/d͡ʒ/, ı/ɯ/, ş/ʃ/, ç/t͡ʃ/, ğ/:/, /ɯ/, /ʝ/, s/s/ by Turkish language learners as a foreign/L2 language from an English speaking country, Ireland.

6.4. Limitations and future research

There are some major limitations to this endeavour. Very little empirical data is available on Turkish L2 learning, and indeed there is very little literature on the Turkish language in general. Secondly, no speech-tagging software is available, arising from the former point. It is also hard to find access to Turkish language learners in a setting which allows recordings over time – the CLCS programme was invaluable in that respect. However, it remains a very small study – the post-beginner class only had four students. It was not possible within the scope of this exploratory study to conduct more detailed inferential statistical tests. Clearly this will be necessary if we want a valid empirical basis for the development of scaled descriptors.

Regarding future research, there are many aspects of this project which could be extended and carried out in more depth, including a larger scale, longer periods of recording, and attempting to compile linguistic descriptors for more items than covered in this research. This project used spoken discourse samples, but collecting written samples of work would be an interesting future avenue.

6.5. Conclusion

This study aims to complement the Framework in that it provides valuable information about patterns of language development by adults in the Turkish L2 classroom. It does not claim to be a study of language acquisition, although the language acquisition literature described is very relevant to the aims of determining what learners are actually able to do in Turkish utterances. Whilst it is a small study, it represents an important first step towards an empirical basis for L2 Turkish curriculum design.

The Common European Framework of Reference was the springboard for this project, and it led to a very worthwhile research project recounted in this thesis, with a set of scaled descriptors for A1 and A2 levels which could be adopted in classrooms settings to investigate their relevance.

In this study, Turkish language learning in adult learners was investigated in order to determine what Turkish second language learners are able to achieve in terms of target-like or non-target like production of specific features of Turkish. Through a series of classroom recordings of learner discourse, Turkish learner corpus was compiled which was then manually tagged to produce some systematic means of determining a set of 'Can Do' statements for language learners. A specific software program was developed in order to facilitate manual tagging of these grammatical, lexical and phonological features (TurkishTag).

The rationale for the project was to base descriptors of language use on actual learner practices and to contribute eventually to an informed comparison of what Turkish language

curriculum designers, textbook authors think learners of Turkish are able to do, and what they are actually able to produce in terms of target-like utterances.

To conclude, this project set out to investigate ways of adapting and expanding language descriptors that could help both learners and teachers know what is achievable in the early stages of language learning. It is hoped that this work will contribute to the learning of Turkish as a second or foreign language in some small way, and will encourage learners to think about what they 'can do' in this beautiful language.

References

Aksu -Koç, A. (1978). Aspect and Modality in the Child's Acquisition of the Past Tense. Unpublished PhD thesis, Berkeley: University of California.

Aksu- Koç and Slobin, I. (1985). "The acquisition of Turkish." In Slobin, I. *The crosslinguistic study of language acquisition Vol. 1: The data* 839-881. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Aksu-Koç, A. (1988a).*The acquisition of aspect and modality: The case of past reference in Turkish*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Aksu-Koç, A. (1988b). "Simultaneity in children's narratives: The development of cohesion in discourse." In S. Koç (Ed.) *Studies on Turkish Linguistics* 55-78. Ankara: Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Yayınları.

Aksu-Koç, A., Ögel-Balaban, H., & Alp, İ. (2009). "Evidentials and source knowledge in Turkish." *New directions for child & adolescent development* 2009 (125), 13-28. doi:10.1002/cd.2.

Alderson, C. J. (2007). "The CEFR and the need for more research." *The Modern Language Journal* 91, (4) 659-663.

Altan, A. (n.d). The acquisition of vowel harmony in Turkish. http://www.rhodes.aegean.gr/tms/OCP4/Posters/named-aaltan.pdf. accessed on 31st 03.2015.

Altunyurt, L. Z. Orhan, T. Güngör (2006). "A Composite Approach for Part of Speech Tagging in Turkish. International Scientific Conference Computer Science." Retrieved from:
http://www.cmpe.boun.edu.tr/~gungort/papers/A%20Composite%20Approach%20for%20Part%20of%20Speech%20Tagging%20in%20Turkish.pdf on 03.02.2015.

Brannen, J. (2005). Mixed methods research: A discussion paper, ESRC National Centre for Research Methods NCRM Methods Review Papers. Retrieved from http://eprints.ncrm.ac.uk/89/1/MethodsReviewPaperNCRM-005.pdf

Brown, R. (1973). *A first language*. London: Allen & Unwin.

Byram, M. and L. Parmenter. (2012). *The common European framework the globalisation of language education policy.* Bristol: Multilingual Matters, 1.

Castellotti, V. (2012). "Academic perspectives from France." In Byram, M. and L. Parmenter (eds), *The common European framework the globalisation of language education policy.* Bristol: Multilingual Matters, 45- 52.

Catibušic, Bronagh and David Little (2014). *English profile studies, immigrant pupils learn English, a CEFR-related empirical study of L2 development.* Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.

Catibušic, Bronagh (2011). Acquiring English L2 in Irish primary schools: an investigation of the relation between pupils' achievement and the learning outcomes specified in the English language proficiency benchmarks. Unpublished thesis.

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax.* Cambridge, MA: M.I.T. Press.

Chomsky, N. (1995). *The minimalist program.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z. and K. A. Noels, (1994). "Motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom." *Language Learning* (4), 417-448.

Corder, S. P. (1967). "The significance of learner's errors." *IRAL* 5 (4), 161-170.

Council of Europe (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: learning, teaching, assessment.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Creswell John, W. (2009). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches.* SAGE publications: USA.

Doughty, C. J. and M. H. Long. (2003). *The handbook of second language acquisition.* Blackwell Publishing. Oxford.

Doughty, C. J. (2003). "Instructed SLA: constraints, compensation and enhancement." In Doughty, C.J. and M. H. Long (eds), *The handbook of second language acquisition.* Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 256-310.

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). *Questionnaires in second language research.* Mahwah. NJ.: Lawrance Erlbaum Associates.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics.* Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R., G. Barkhuizen. (2005). *Analysing learner language.* Oxford University Press: Oxford.

DeKeyser, R. (2000). "The robustness of critical period effects in second language acquisition." *SSLA* (22) 499-533.

DeKeyser, R. (2003) "Implicit and explicit learning." In Doughty, C.J. and M. H. Long (eds), *The handbook of second language acquisition.* Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 313-348.

De Bot, K. and S. Makoni (2005). *Language and aging in multilingual contexts.* Multilingual Matters Ltd.

De Bot K., W. Lowie, and M. Verspoor. (2007). "A dynamic systems theory approach to second language acquisition. Bilingualism." *Language and Cognition* (10), 7-21. doi:10.1017/S1366728906002732.

Dörnyei, Z. (2000). "Motivation in action: towards a process oriented conceptualisation of student motivation." *British Journal of Educational Psychology* (70), 519-538.

Dörnyei, Z, and R. Schmidt (2001). *Motivation and second language acquisition.* University of Hawaii: University of Hawaii Press.

Dörnyei, Z and Csizér K. (2002). "Some dynamics of language attitudes and motivation: results of a longitudinal nationwide survey." *Applied Linguistics* 23(4): 421-462 doi:10.1093/applin/23.4.421.

Dörnyei, Z and P. Skehan (2003). "Individual differences in second language learning." In Doughty, C.J. and M. H. Long (eds), *The handbook of second language acquisition.* Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 589-630.

Dörnyei, Z, (2005). *The psychology of the language learner; Individual differences in second language acquisition.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dörnyei, Z, (2009). "Individual differences: Interplay of learner characteristics and learning environment." *Language Learning* (59) 1, 230–248 doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9922.2009.00542.x.

Durmuş, M. (2013). "Türkçenin yabancılara öğretimi: Sorunlar, çözüm önerileri ve yabancılara Türkçe öğretiminin geleceği ile ilgili görüşler." *Journal Of Social Sciences / Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi 6(11), 207-228.*

Ellis N. C. (2003). "Constructions, chunking and connectionism: The emergence of second language structure." In Doughty, C.J. and M. H. Long (eds), *The handbook of second language acquisition.* Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 36-103.

Ellis, N. C. and D. Larsen-Freeman. (2006). "Language emergence: implications for applied linguistics—introduction to the special issue." *Applied Linguistics* 27(4): 558-589 doi:10.1093/applin/aml028.

Ellis N. C. (2007). "Dynamic systems and SLA: The wood and the trees." *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition,* (10), 23-25. doi:10.1017/S1366728906002744.

Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Erguvanlı, E. (1984). *The function of word order in Turkish grammar.* California: University of California Press.

Erguvanli-Taylan, E. (1987). "The role of semantic features in Turkish word order." *Folia Linguistica,* 21(2-4), 215-227.

Falk, R and Kanach, N. (2000). "Globalization and study abroad: an illusion of paradox. frontiers. *"The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad,* 6 155-168. Retrieved from http:// www.frontiersjournal.com/index.htm.

Figueras, N. (2007). "The CEFR, a lever for the improvement of language professionals in Europe." *The Modern Language Journal* 91, (4) 673-675.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation.* London: Edward Arnold Publishers Ltd.

Gass, M.S and L. Selinker (2008*). Second language acquisition an introductory course.* New York: Routledge.

Goullier, F. (2012). "Policy perspectives from France." In Byram, M. and L. Parmenter (eds), *The common European framework the globalisation of language education policy.* Bristol: Multilingual Matters, 37- 44.

Han, Jinghe and Yao, Jun (2013). "A case study of bilingual student-teachers' classroom English: Applying the Education-Linguistic Model," *Australian Journal of Teacher Education:* Vol. 38: Iss. 2, Article 8. Retrieved from http://eric.ed.gov.elib.tcd.ie/?id=EJ1012929 on 03.02.2015.

Huhta, A. and N. Figueras, (2004). "Using the CEF to promote language learning through diagnostic testing." In Morrow, K.(ed.) *Insights from the common European framework.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, 65- 77.

Hulstijn, J. H. (2007). "The shaky ground beneath the CEFR: quantitative and qualitative dimensions of language proficiency." *The Modern Language Journal* 91, (4) 663- 666.

Johnson, R. Burke and A. J. Onwuegbuzie (2004). "Mixed method research: A research paradigm whose time has come." *Educational Researcher* Vol 33, No.7 (Oct) pp.14-26.

Hulstijn, J.H. (2003). "Incidental and Intentional Learning." In Doughty, C.J. and M. H. Long (eds), *The handbook of second language acquisition.* Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 349-381.

Hulstijn, J.H. (2002). "What does the impact of frequency tell us about the language acquisition device?" *SSLA* 24, 269-273.

Hyltenstam, K. & Abrahamsson, N. (2003). "Maturational constraints on SLA." In Doughty, C.J. and M. H. Long (eds), *The handbook of second language acquisition.* Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 539-588.

Komorowska, H. (2004). "The CEF in pre- and in-service teacher education." In Morrow, K.(ed.) *Insights from the common European framework.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, 43- 54.

Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis.* London: Longman.

Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across cultures.* The University of Michigan.

Lantolf J. P. (2007). "Sociocultural source of thinking and its relevance for second language acquisition." *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition* 10, 31-33. doi:10.1017/S1366728906002768.

Larsen- Freeman, D. (1997). "Chaos/complexity science and second language acquisition." *Applied Linguistics* 18 (2), 141-165.

Larsen- Freeman, D. (2007). "On the complementarity of chaos/complexity theory and dynamic systems theory in understanding the second language acquisition process." *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition* 10, 35-37. doi:10.1017/S136672890600277X.

Lewis, G. (2000). *Turkish grammar.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Lenneberg, E. (1967). *Biological foundations of language.* New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Lightbown P. M. and N. Spada (2006). *How languages are learned.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Little, D. (2006). "Common European framework of reference for languages: content, purpose, origin, reception and impact." *Language Teaching* 39, 167-190.

Little, D. (2007). "The Common European framework of reference for languages: Perspectives on the making of supranational education policy." *The Modern Language Journal* 91, (4) 645-655.

Little, D. and B. Lazenby Simpson. (2004). "Using the CEF to develop an ESL curriculum for newcomer pupils in Irish primary schools." In Morrow, K.(ed.) *Insights from the common European framework.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, 91-108.

Loewn S. and H. Reinders (2011). *Key concepts in second language acquisition.* New York: Macmillan.

Long, M. (1983). "Native speaker/non native speaker conversation and the negotiation of comprehensible input". *Applied Linguistics* 4, 126-142.

McEnery, Tony and Wilson, Andrew (2001). *Corpus linguistics.* Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Mackey, A. and Rebecca Abbuhl (2005). "Input and interaction." In Sanz, C. *Mind and context in adult second language acquisition.* Washington: Georgetown University Press, 207-234.

Marinova-Todd, S. H., Marshall, D.B., Snow, C.E. (2000). "Three misconceptions about age and L2 learning." *TESOL Quarterly* 34 (1), 9-34.

Masgoret, A.M. and Gardner, R. C. (2003). "Attitudes, motivation and second language learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates." *Language Learning* 53 (1), 123-163.

Morrow, K. (2004). "Background to the CEF." In Morrow, K.(ed.) *Insights from the common European framework.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, 3-11.

Musaoğlu, M. (2013) "Türk dilinin problemleri, perspektifleri ve yapılacak çalışmalar." *Yeni Türkiye, Türkçe Özel Sayısı* Kasım-Aralık 2013, 55, 539- 558. Retrieved from: http://mehmanmusayev.com/pdf/mk_10.pdf on 23rd March 2015.

Musaoğlu, M. (2002). "Türkolojinin çeşitli sorunları üzerine makaleler- incelemeler." *T.C. Kültür Bakanlığı Yayınları* p. 105-133; 312.Retrieved from: http://mehmanmusayev.com/pdf/mk_10.pdf on 23rd March 2015.

Musaoğlu, M. (2000). "Bir daha ortak Türkçe üzerine." *Uluslar arası Dünyada Türkçe Öğretimi Sempozyumu,* Ankara Üniversitesi Basımevi, p.200-203. Retrieved from: http://mehmanmusayev.com/pdf/mk_10.pdf on 23rd March 2015.

Neale, B. and J. Flowerdew (2003). "Time, texture and childhood: the contours of longitudinal qualitative research." *International Journal of Research Methodology* 6(3), 189.

Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language learning.* Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

Ortega, L. And G. Iberri-Shea (2005). "Longitudinal research in second language acquisition: recent trends and future directions." *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 25 pp: 26-45.

Pica, T., R. Young, and C. Doughty, (1994). "The Impact of interaction on comprehension." *TESOL Quarterly* 21 (4), 737-758.

Rönnepper, H. (2012). "Policy Perspectives from Germany." In Byram, M. and L. Parmenter (eds). *The common European framework the globalisation of language education policy.* Bristol: Multilingual Matters, 54- 65.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2010). *Sage handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioural research.* SAGE Publications. Printed in United States of America.

Sanz, C. (2005). "Adult SLA: The interaction between external and internal factors." In Sanz, C. *Mind and context in adult second language acquisition.* Washington: Georgetown University Press, 3-21.

Saville-Troike, M. (2012). *Introducing second language acquisition.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Singleton D. and Z. Lengyel (1995). *The age factor in second language acquisition.* Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Singleton, D. and L. Ryan (2004). *Language acquisition: The age factor* (2nd edition). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Slobin D. I (1971). "Developmental psycholinguictics." In W.O. Dingwall (ed). *A Survey of linguistic science.* College Park. MD. University of Maryland Linguistics Program 289- 411.

Sparks, R., L. Ganshow, & J. Javorsky, (2000). "D´ej`a vu all over again: A response to Saitu, Horwitz and Garza." *Modern Language Journal* 84, 251–255.

Stanovich, K. (1998). "Twenty-five years of research on the reading process: The grand synthesis and what it means for our field." In T. Shanahan & F. Rodriguez-Brown (eds.), *Forty-seventh yearbook of the National Reading Conference.* Chicago: National Reading Conference, 44–58.

Swain, M. (1985). "Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development." In S. Gass and C. G. Madden (eds), *Input in second language acquisition.* Cambridge MA: Newbury House, 235-253.

Şengül, K. (2014). "Türkçenin yabancı dil olarak öğretiminde alfabe sorunu." *International Journal of Turkish Literature, Culture, Education* 3(1), 325-339.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (1998). *Mixed methodology: combining qualitative and quantitative approaches. Applied social research methods series* (Vol.46). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Taylor, B. (1974). "Toward a theory of language acquisition." *Language Learning* 24, 23-35.

Tosun, C. (2005). "Türkçe'nin yabancı dil olarak öğretilmesi." *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies* 1 (1).

TÖMER, (2009). *Yeni Hitit 1 yabancılar için Türkçe.* Ankara: Ankara Üniversitesi Basımevi.

Ungan, S (2006). "Avrupa Birliğinin dil öğretimine karşı tutumu ve Türkçe'nin yabancı dil olarak öğretilmesi" *Dumlupınar Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi* 15, 217-226.

Van Geert, P. (1991). "A dynamic systems model of cognitive and language growth." *Psychological Review.* 98 2-53.

Van Geert, P. (1994). *Dynamic Systems of development: Change between complexity and chaos.* Herfordshire, UK: Harvester Wheatsheaf.

Van Geert, P. (2008). "The dynamic systems approach in the study of L1 and L2 acquisition: An introduction." *The Modern Language Journal* 92 (2), 179-199.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes.* Cambridge MA: Harvard University Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). *Thought and language.* Cambridge MA: The M.I.T Press.

Yıldız, Ü. (2013). The need for a department of teaching Turkish as a foreign language: A proposal. Procedia - social and behavioral sciences, 70 Akdeniz language studies conference, May, 2012, Turkey), 1839-1846. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.261