

# **A Longitudinal Study of Freshmen ELT Students' Proficiency: A Case Study**

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## **ABSTRACT**

With English being the most popularly taught and learnt foreign language nowadays, institutions such as the 5 private/state-trust universities in North Cyprus have adopted English medium education so as to fulfil both the societal and educational requisites. The English Language Teaching departments obviously take the lead and conduct their profession related courses via the English medium thus ensuring the continuous linguistic development of the students. Unfortunately, these courses have been transformed into language learning sessions for the students whose language competency at the end of their four-year undergraduate study continues to be debatable.

This study encompasses two main purposes; firstly, to determine if the English language development of the EMU English Language Teaching Freshmen students is acceptably adequate, and secondly, to compare the English competency of 5 groups of students with regards to predefined social and economic parameters. The first part of the research is a longitudinal study involving continuous testing and assessment of students' language abilities both in English and in Turkish. The latter part assesses the students' language competency at a specific time instant. Data are collected via pre-test/post-test design by employing a recognised test battery, 2 writing tasks and a questionnaire. The data are analysed quantitatively with Paired-Sample T-test, Independent Samples T-test, Kruskal Wallis Test, Mann-Whitney U test, One-way Anova, Pearson Correlation and Linear Regression.

The study concludes that students' English language skills are positively reinforced over a period of two semesters, with the departmental vocational and language courses progressively supporting the improvement of their language competence. The results also argue that there is no significant difference in students' language competency with respect to genders, and yet there is a significant correlation between students' language competency and their socio-economic-cultural background. Additionally, the study claims that there is a significant difference between students' L1, Turkish, and L2, English, competencies and there is hardly any correlation between their L1 and L2 writing skills. Finally, when all five universities are compared with respect to their students' language test results, a significant difference between and among the universities is observed.

**Keywords:** Content Language Integrated Learning, Content Based Instruction, English medium education, immersion education, language interdependence, lingua franca

## ÖZ

Günümüzde yabancı dil olarak İngilizce dünyanın her yerinde yoğun bir şekilde kullanılırken, bu çalışmanın yapıldığı zamanda Kuzey Kıbrıs'taki 3 özel ve 2 vakıf üniversitesinin (halen 12 özel, 2 vakıf) de İngilizce dilinde eğitim verme yönündeki kararları yadsınmaz. Elbette ki bu üniversitelerde İngilizce dil öğretimi bölümleri bu kararı uygulamada öncelik taşımaktadırlar. Bunun altında yatan temel düşünce de öğrencilerinin eğitim süresince İngilizce dil becerilerini mesleki ve dil geliştirme dersleri sayesinde ilerletecekleri umududur. Ancak 4 yıllık eğitim süresinin sonunda, beklenen bu gelişme tartışılacak boyuttadır.

Bu çalışma bir ilk örnek çalışma olup, çalışmanın ilk bölümünde bir vaka incelemesi yer almaktadır. Çalışmanın iki temel amacından birincisi DAÜ'de İngilizce öğretmenliği eğitimi alan birinci ve ikinci sınıf öğrencilerin İngilizce dil yetilerinin dört yıllık süreçte yeterli ve hedeflenen seviyeye ulaşp ulaşmadığını tespit etmek, ikincisi de 5 üniversitenin tümünde birinci sınıf öğrencilerinin daha önceden belirlenen sosyo-ekonomik ve kültürel ölçütler çerçevesinde dil yetilerini kıyaslayarak ölçmektir. Çalışmanın birinci aşaması uzun süreli olup, veriler tekrarlanan test yöntemi ve anketle toplanmıştır. Tüm üniversitelerden kıyaslama amacı ile toplanan veriler ise tek seferde ve aynı zaman diliminde elde edilmiştir. Sonuçlar nicelik değerlendirme ile incelenmiş olup kullanılan testler de Eşleştirilmiş Örneklemeler T Testi, Bağımsız İki Örneklem T Testi, Kruskal Wallis Sıralamalı Tek Yönlü Varyans Analizi Testi, Mann-Whitney U Testi, Tek-yönlü Anova, Pearson Korelasyon ve Linear Regresyon'dur.

Çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre DAÜ İngilizce öğretmenliği bölümündeki öğrencilerin dil yetileri iki dönemin sonunda bir ilerleme kaydetmekte olup, mesleki ve dil geliştirme derslerinin bu gelişmeye katkısı olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Çalışma aynı zamanda cinsiyetin dil becerisi ile bir bağlantısı olmamakla birlikte, sosyoekonomik ve kültürel seviye ile ilişkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca, araştırmaya göre deneklerin İngilizce ve Türkçe yazma becerileri benzerlik göstermedikleri gibi, aralarında korelasyonun da neredeyse hiç bulunmadığı tespit edilmiştir. Son olarak, çalışmaya katılan 5 üniversitenin öğrencilerinin İngilizce yetileri arasında belirgin bir farka da rastlanmıştır.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** İçerik ve Dil Entegreli Öğrenme (CLIL), İçerik Tabanlı Dil Eğitimi (CBI), İngiliz Dilinde Eğitimi(EMI), Kaynaştırma Eğitimi, dil bağımlılığı, geçer dil

In memory of my mother,  
for whom even the sky was no limit when our education was involved.

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# Chapter 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background of the Study

The exploitation of English at all levels of education in Cyprus has been popular since the colonial rule of the English Empire and despite the change in rule and political structure, the use of English in academic contexts has continued to persist. The appeal to use English in educational settings has nowadays led to the conservation of the existing educational establishments particularly at junior and secondary level, and even further promotion of additional ones at university level.

Bearing Schuman's model of motivation (1978) in mind, which defines "the extent to which L2 learners are integratively (most important) or instrumentally motivated to learn L2", in the Cyprus context, Eastern Mediterranean University takes lead in the application of education through English medium. Accordingly, university students are both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to learn and improve their language skills while preparing themselves for the professional world through a higher level education. After all, the history of the island has proven that "...social and economic advancement depended to a large extent on its (the foreign/indigenous language) successful mastery – a fact that constituted a powerful motivation for acquiring it." (Ellis, 1996, p.232). Moreover, "if the learners need to speak the second language in a wide range of social situations or to fulfil professional ambitions, they will perceive the communicative value of the second language and will therefore be motivated to

acquire proficiency in it” (Lightbown and Spada, 1999, p.56). Well-developed linguistic skills and competency both in native and foreign/second language would positively affect their academic studies and thus their future profession.

At this point, in order to comprehend the power of English and the related intrinsic motive underlying the necessity to learn this language at an advanced level, alongside its subsequent effects generally on the Turkish speaking and more specifically within the university community, an overview is necessary on the expansion and effects of English throughout the world, as well as the historical pathway of specifically the Turkish speakers in Cyprus.

## **1.2 English Worldwide**

The importance of the intellectual and effective use of a foreign language especially in the developing countries has always been a known, accepted and valid reality. “The hegemony of English, ..., is not merely tolerated by the ‘developing’ world; it is considered a legitimate model for society. In many new independent states, a tiny English-speaking elite controls state policy-making organs while the masses of people remain excluded” (Tollefson, 1991, p.201). Clearly, these countries are “increasingly seeing the importance of languages in the global market, in intercontinental communication, and in information exchange, while educators interested in minority languages argue for the benefits of bilingual education as standard raising...” (Kaplan, 2002, p.234) Thus, “in every country, schools adopt one or more languages of instruction” as “it will benefit them[users]”(Tollefson, 1991, p.43). It is also a known fact that English is the most popularly taught and learnt foreign language of the modern world and this argument is also used to justify the spread of English to countries in which it is not spoken as a mother-tongue. As



countries around the world seek to ‘modernize’, English teaching and learning play a key role to the extent that "the primary reason for the spread of English...is that English is the major language of international communication. It is the most important language of business and commerce, of governments and international agencies, of science and technology, and of tourism, film and music” (Tollefson, 1991, p.80-81).

Although not the most widely spoken language, which is Mandarin Chinese with “the world’s largest population of primary school students-estimated at 130 million in 2001” (Liu and Gong, 2001, cited in Hu, 2007. p.360), currently, English is the most prestigious language. Numerous reasons can account for this popularity yet, among the most notable are factors such as the prestige and power of ‘knowing’ English as well as the ‘change in status’ that it projects. After all, research (Levine & Campbell, 1972; Main & Salazar, 1985) depicts that communities show a bias toward and admire wealthier and more economically developed groups. Moreover, as Hu (2007) states, the recent developments in interaction and collaboration between Cyprus and the world, that is to say globalisation “requires us to improve our ability to use a foreign language for communicative purposes” (p.361). Furthermore, Tollefson (1991) claims that the aspiration and necessity to ‘modernize’ among developing countries originates from the desire to ‘break free’ of traditional institutional structures that limit economic development and prosperity since the penetration of English into major political and economic institutions on every continent of the globe is a result of the power of English speaking countries. Along with the wealth and prestigious power the English speaking communities display, the colossal impact of the global spread of English is quite evidently affecting the

national language policies of Expanding Circle countries and it is no surprise that the Turkish society perceives English as the means to success.

Crystal states that the reason for the popularity of English is being, “at the right place at the right time” (1997, p.10). These ‘right times’ range from the powerful British colonial seventeenth and eighteenth century period to the once again mighty Industrial revolution years of the twentieth century. Moreover, English was also the language of one of the leading powers of the twentieth century, the USA. Finally, English seemed to emerge discreetly as a ‘lingua franca’ in 1919 when the Treaty of Versailles was negotiated upon and signed in English simply because the French representative knew English while the British and American representatives did not speak French (Truchot, 1994, cited in Demirciler, 2003). Only the former episode increased the English speaking world from 5 million to 200 million by the 1930’s and twofold by the mid-1960s. The second cause is simply the amplified effect of the American mass media, the internet, music, the spread of fast food and the education programmes. Moreover, Tsuda (2000) cites Ammon (1992) displaying facts verifying the power of English such as the 62 nations, which have accepted English as their official language and the one-and-a-half-billion English speaking people worldwide of which only 400 billion speak English as their first language. Yet, the power English displays throughout the world cannot be based merely on the high numbers of English speaking populations. “The success of any language is dependent on the political and economic power of its people” (Crystal, 1997, p. 7). What is more,

industrial revolutions, trade practices, and commercial exploitation of the late eighteenth- and early nineteenth-century England created conditions where one language had to develop as the language of the world market, the

‘commercial lingua franca’. With England and the United States at the epicentre of industrial capitalism of the nineteenth century, it was natural that English became the language of global commerce. Especially after WW II – with the establishment of the UN, World Bank, UNESCO, UNICEF WHO, and a few years later, the Commonwealth and the European Union – it is inevitable that the general competence in English in different political, social, cultural, and economic markets would continue to grow rapidly.  
(Bhatt 2001, p.532-533)

This importance of English becomes even more vital when the issue is related to developing countries and their inhabitants whose first and/or official language is not English. The situation in Cyprus is yet another case where not only do the island’s two residents communicate through English, but it is integrated into the education system as if it were the second language although this is far from reality in the North Cyprus context.

### **1.2.1 English in Cyprus**

Considering the current political situation in Cyprus with two societies sharing the same island yet employing two different languages, the utilization of another language is inevitable. Thus, the use of English in Cyprus is of utmost importance in respect to two major reasons. Firstly, besides the two official languages, Greek and Turkish, English was stated to be used between the two communities as the common language in the constitution of the 1960 Republic of Cyprus. The second reason actually concerns the Turkish community of the island in that there is a belief that being a well-educated society will facilitate the overcoming of the political difficulties and English is the means through which the Turkish society can fight to break the embargoes. This position comes as no surprise when the Turkish speaking society of the late nineteenth – early twentieth century is examined. Yücel (1997) describes the Cypriot Education system between the years 1878 and 1913. “When the Turks conquered Cyprus in 1571, they introduced their own system of

administration with the traditional institutions of Moslem Turkish society relating to religious, cultural and economic affairs. By 1878, when the British arrived, the Turkish education system provided for two main categories of schools; elementary schools and ‘medreses’ for secondary and higher education” (p.1). Accordingly, education at the elementary level basically focused on “reading and writing of a religious character as the main object of education was to become a good Moslem’ (Yücel, 1997, p.2). The teachers were Hodjas also acting as Imams and the headmasters were appointed from Turkey until they were chosen from among the Moslem Cypriots later on. “Within such a theoretical education system, the world to come was more important than the present world. Physical and natural events were interpreted religiously” (Yücel, 1997 p.2). Thus, rather than facing development and modernisation, the early twentieth century education system of the Turkish society instead repeating verses of the constant and the never changing past. “The Moslem religion was the dominant element in education, determining the thinking and attitude of the people. The school was to prepare for the life hereafter more definitely than for the present one. No demand was placed on education to prepare youth for change” (Yucel, 1997 p.46). In other words, when the British came to the island in 1878, they found an education system of the early 1900s carrying traces of the Ottoman rule, mainly based on memorization of religious knowledge. In 1879, the Commissioner of Nicosia reported that,

The Moslem schools are under the supervision of their religious authorities. The principal subject of education is the recitation of the Koran. Many improvements are desirable. From details given, it appears that in 8 of the 15 Moslem schools in the town of Nicosia, nothing at all was taught beyond the recitation of the Koran...

(Newham 1895, cited in Yücel, 1997, p.8)

Consequently, the foremost duty of the first Director of Education, Rev. J.Spencer, in 1880, was “to eradicate gradually the old methods prevailing in the Turkish schools, and to induce the masters to adapt a reasonable system of teaching” (Talbot & Cape, 1913, p.29). Meanwhile with the ‘medrese’ era gradually wrapping up and finally ending in Cyprus in the 1939 – 1940 academic year, other modernisations in light of the 1839 and 1856 reforms in Turkey, were setting themselves into the education system in Cyprus.

The first transformation was actually already underway when the British arrived with the ‘Rushdie’ school in 1862, also called ‘Mekteb-i Ilmiye’ which had exercised a more modern secondary schooling with reference to the education system in the Ottoman Empire of the time. This change was fortified with the transition of the ‘Mekteb-i Ilmiye’ into the Lycee in 1926. Following an education system which was a replica of the French system (Yücel, 2007, p.3) exercised in some schools in Turkey, the main aim of the Lycee was to educate the Turkish Cypriot youth to become the intellectuals of the society. Nevertheless, with only so few modern schools, and the ‘medreses’ still holding their position, the early-twentieth century was only slightly better by carrying a reflection of mainland Turkey’s educational system. Hence, a shift in stance was urgently needed which would rapidly lead the Turkish Cypriot society to the world beyond its boundaries.

The British took immediate advantage of this loophole and methodically began to integrate their own education system. The 1933-34 academic year was the first formal stroke on the Turkish education system and consequently the society. After having been designed and administered since 1878 by the Turkish Education Committee (Maarif Encümeni), the Turkish society’s school curricula were placed

under the authority of the Colonial Ministry of Education (Koloni Maarif Mdrlg). School books were no longer imported from Turkey; lessons were followed from notes pre-prepared by an assigned group of teachers. Moreover, the eradication of the twenty-one Rushdie schools throughout the island over a short time span of three years which led to finally allowing only one junior high secondary to continue as part of the 'Islam Lisesi' in 1935-36, thus leaving the Turkish students with a mere 29% chance of continuing onto secondary high education, was yet another promoting step. Furthermore, school regulations were also geared towards Anglican mentality. School uniforms were very 'English', classes were categorised into 'Houses', "Prefects were assigned to monitor the conduct in the residence halls" (Feridun, 2001). Although this attitude of the British would only intensify the patriotic sensitivity of the Turkish society, the eye-opening 'English' effect after the conservative and spiritual system could not be denied.

### **1.2.2 Lingua Franca or Linguistic Imperialism?**

Such being the case throughout the world in general and specifically in Cyprus, the significance of the intellectual and effective use of English especially in developing countries has always been a known, accepted and valid reality. After all, it is also a known fact that English is the most popularly taught and learnt foreign language of the modern world and

this argument is also used to justify the spread of English to countries in which it is not spoken as a mother-tongue. As the countries around the world seek to 'modernize', English teaching and learning play a key role stating that: 'The primary reason for the spread of English ...is that English is the major language of international communication. It is the most important language of business and commerce, of governments and international agencies, of science and technology, and of tourism, film and music. (Tollefson, 1991, p.80-81)

Likewise, developing countries aiming for their acceptance to the European Union have given priority to the teaching and learning of English as it is considered the world language. Spolsky (1998) acknowledges the issue proposing that “the association of English with modern technology, with economic progress, and with *internationalization*, has encouraged people all over the world to learn English and to have their children learn it as early as possible” as it provides “access to the power and success assumed to be a result of knowing English” (p. 77). What is more, in line of the internationalization trend in higher education, the Bologna Process was initiated with the aim of freedom of movement for students of the forty-seven member countries within a borderless and shared tertiary education realm (<http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/educ/bologna>). Nevertheless, further scrutiny of the issue depicts a controversy as to whether the constant persistence for English is clearly a strategy developed within a socio-political frame designed and advocated by the five major English speaking countries: the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, South Africa, Australia. At this point, the question arises as to whether there are other dimensions involved directly related to “modernization and globalization” (Spolsky, 1998) such as commercial, cultural and political, which would attract students worldwide to Europe as they are attracted to the USA and Commonwealth countries. And with such a world-wide diffusion, can it be denied that imperialism is being advocated at its peak?

The state of affairs is no different in the world of disciplines. When we check the ‘Social Sciences Citation Index’ and the ‘Arts and Humanities Index’, the ultimate acknowledge and display sites of intellectual acceptability, it is no surprise that the journals in these indexes accept papers for publication mainly in English and

German, and sometimes in French and Spanish. The language limitations are surprising and should be considered with dismay as the underlining message implies the imposing and influential power of linguistic imperialism. Brock-Utne (2007) reports the Norwegian case where one institute at the University of Oslo began remunerating academic staff for their publications. The act that triggered debate was the differing amount of payment made for publications in Norwegian and English; the writers of the latter received more than double the amount received by the writers of the former. Moreover, according to the regulations, the author of an article published in a professional journal would receive seven times more the amount if it were published in English rather than in Norwegian. One cannot help but wonder if there are no other academicians worldwide who do not speak any of the four languages mentioned above, two of which are more prominent while the other two are less renowned. Even the fact that five Turkish journals have recently been included in the citation index has not altered the insistence on mainly English in the Turkish speaking academics circle. Turkish speaking academicians continue to prefer aiming at English publishing journals as they discreetly consider the Turkish language ones as second class-most probably due to the undeniable fact that the audience of these will only be limited. After all, the ultimate aim is to embrace the whole world, the high and mighty English speaking nations where the lingua franca is English, rather than the third world's still developing lands.

Ironically, despite the fact that systems like that of the Norwegian example is “a threat to European languages as academic languages” and this is “posed by the increased Anglicization of academia” (Brock-Utne, 2007, p.16), the language bait has been caught and is being used in developing countries. Almost all state and



private establishments require English (and sometimes even a third language) as a precondition for employment, promotion and continuation of their current positions.

### **1.2.3 The English Medium University Cases in North Cyprus**

At the time of the current study, institutions such as the 5 private/state-trust universities in North Cyprus (currently 14) adopt English medium education through ‘content based instruction’, the starting point for the more recently coined “CLIL – Content Language Instructed Learning” to fulfil both the societal and educational requisite.

Content-based instruction(CBI) refers to the integration of school or academic content with language-teaching objectives...A primary advantage of CBI ...is that using subject matter as the content for language learning maximizes learners’ exposure to the second language...and repeated use of new language ensures ongoing mental elaboration and practice, increasing its availability for new encounters and long term retention. (Kaplan, 2002, p.230)

Actually, “language learned through content has the further advantage of allowing an integration with higher order thinking tasks, so that students may communicate about thoughts, not just words” (Met, 1991, p. 282). After all, as Widdowson and Brumfit state, “If the teaching of a subject were to be carried on through the medium of a foreign language, many problems associated with communication would disappear” (Morley, 1981, p.197). What is more, “carefully constructed content-area language teaching programs are a sign of the times in second language teaching today” (Kaplan and Grabe, 1991, p.101). However, considering the undeniable facts that the Turkish speaking society is by no means continually exposed to English, and that English is rather a ‘foreign’ language instead of a ‘second’ leave the definition of CBI, and for that matter all other immersion learning type definitions inadequate. Evidently, the education system in these aforementioned five higher education

contexts in North Cyprus (where the current study was conducted), and in the senior secondary high schools, needs to be re-evaluated and redefined in this study in consideration of the contextual parameters.

Accordingly, the idea that English should be learned and used efficiently and skilfully especially in the academic context and by those who aim to teach it, and the fact that it is the path to success, power, prestige and a secure and prosperous future tactfully implanted into the Turkish mentality, seem to be the main motives for success during the university education process. In fact, Dimova, Hultgren and Jensen (2015) refer to this as ‘internationalization’ and equate it to “Englishization” in non-English dominant contexts, where it affects “all or most communicative activities associated with universities” (p. ix). This trend is actually the outcome of the Bologna Process and the Erasmus programme. With reference to the ripple effect of the 21<sup>st</sup> century globalization and the related infiltration of English into our worlds at social, economic, cultural, political and educational levels, English medium instruction has boldly marched its way into our higher education system.

Apart from the motives mentioned above, the use of the CBI in the English Language Teaching (henceforth ELT) departments supposedly ensures the continuous linguistic development of the students. Accordingly, most of the ELT curriculum is comprised and conducted in English (Faculty of Education Undergraduate Programs for Teachers) ([www.emu.edu.tr](http://www.emu.edu.tr)) and these courses have been included in the curriculum with the intention that students will perceive the various teaching techniques during these courses and apply the gained knowledge and methodology to their own classroom context in the future. Unfortunately, these courses have transformed into language learning sessions for the students whose language competency at the end of

their four-year undergraduate study continues to be debatable. Indeed, in their case study at EMU, where the study subjects were students studying courses other than ELT, Arkin and Osam (2015) revealed that “despite the efforts of the content instructor ..., the students still had problems following the lecture and comprehending the content” (p. 177), quite clearly proving that this procedure is obviously not proving to be as effective as expected. With that being the case in other vocational courses, a similar stance in a language teacher training context, would have even further repercussions. If a person is aiming to teach a language, the teacher-candidate should achieve at least 85% on a formal language test ensuring that it is no longer a barrier, and only then should proceed to the faculty of ELT to be educated in the methodology. In other words, language teachers cannot have language problems. A teacher candidate not comprehending the terminology will run the risk of not only being inadequate as a professional, but also being ineffectual in the classroom application. Thus, as Arkin (2013) maintains, one of the serious issues of English-medium education at tertiary level in North Cyprus is the learners’ “poor level of academic accomplishment in English-medium courses” (p.5).

Indeed, there are countries which argue that a nation’s existence is dependent on delivering its education through its native language. Norway and Italy are only two of most European countries which hold this stance. Brock-Utne (2007) states that this “system (is) a danger both to our country’s language and to a university’s obligation to the rest of society”, and for that matter, “is a threat to society” (p.15). In revision of related literature, Osam (1998) had also referred to the possible negative impact on the cognitive, psychological and cultural development of Turkish learners not being educated in their native language. Accordingly, among the many listed, the

most pertinent consequences to this argument were that “creativity and productivity in the mother tongue might be hampered, and education in a foreign language might cause the mother tongue to deteriorate in terms of its function” (p. 220).

Finally, in compliance of the Board of Higher Education in Turkey – YÖK (Yüksek Öğretim Kurulu) regulations, to which all Turkish and Turkish Cypriot universities adhere, graduates from any university, including English medium universities, planning to continue their postgraduate studies are required to take an internationally accepted language examination such as the IELTS or the TOEFL. This study’s case study component, EMU also supports and applies this by-law. The question here is; in accordance with the U.K. prerequisites, if EMU, along with other universities, is requiring its own ELT graduates to sit for these examinations to qualify for the continuation onto a graduate degree, then what is the point of English medium education at undergraduate level? Evidently, this is the underlying dispute that has prompted the current study.

### **1.3 Problem Statement**

The above being the case in the education institutions and the stance of English within the society, the limelight is obviously to be turned onto the English language teachers and teachers-to-be. In fact, the issue of how successful language teaching and teachers are within our schools has always been highly and continuously debated. The general view is that language teaching and thus teachers are not as successful as they are expected, resulting in the undesired lower levels of English within the society. Furthermore, the major reason underlying this problem is claimed to be the English teachers’ shortfall in linguistic skills, consequently resulting in a “poor level of academic accomplishment despite its widespread use in secondary

higher education contexts” (Arkin, 2013). There are in fact several reasons that can be accounted for this problem.

One possible reason for this claimed inadequacy is the fact that exposure to the English language in Cyprus is very limited. The language teacher experiences the language only in the classroom through specific content or structured language classes. These are hardly the optimal and most natural settings for learning a language let alone acquiring one. Because the ELT students are not exposed to English in any natural circumstance whatsoever outside the classroom, they do not have the opportunity to develop their English language abilities as a learner would in an immersion-style education. Consequently, learners whose English teacher does not ‘know’ the language sufficiently will quite clearly not be able to learn and utilize the language. Thus, since North Cyprus is not a country where English is employed as a second language, but a foreign one, and exposure to the language is only very limited, the chances of prospective English teachers developing their language skills are restricted to their university and formal instruction environment.

Another probable drawback could be based on the syntactic structural differences between the L1, i.e. Turkish and the target language. In reference to Cummins’ Interdependence Hypothesis, a language learner would attempt to apply the rules of one’s native language while learning a new language. In fact, language learners transfer “the similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired” (Odlin, 1989, p.27). Obviously, a native speaker of the Ural-Altai language family would have difficulty learning English, a Latin originated language with not so many similarities to transfer. Problems would especially occur while defining syntactic and semantic

rules and the learner would thus have trouble explaining and exemplifying in the target language.

This being the case, the language entrance examinations to the 5 universities partaking in the current study come under scrutiny: As a multiple choice task only, the measurement value of the candidates' usage can be opened to dispute. Brown (2004) draws attention to some of the possible weaknesses as follows: "The technique tests only recognition knowledge, guessing may have a considerable effect on test scores, the techniques severely restricts what can be tested, it can be very difficult to write successful items, and, cheating may be facilitated" (p.55). Keeping these points in focus, the possible assumption that these tests cannot evaluate production, that supposition may play an important role during the examination, and what is more, that candidates' answers may be deceptive rather than being authentic are facts that should be taken into account. Additionally, with all due respect, assuming that all the involved universities may not accommodate testing experts may cast further doubt on the assessment reliability and validity of the specific universities' entrance examinations.

Once in the ELT classroom, the students face yet another dilemma which is learning an unknown through another unknown. Although students in the ELT department have completed their proficiency requirements, most students have only passed their module examinations and do not hold a formal language certificate. In fact, some students confess that despite the fact that they have 'passed proficiency', they have not learnt English adequately. The ELT classroom is their springboard to graduation, thus their foremost aspiration has become graduation rather than language development. However, language as a means at this exact stage becomes a barrier

because as stated in the 1953 UNESCO documents, a person learns best in one's own language. The motivation for learning the academics is highly existent yet the means, which is neither adequately acquired nor learned is leading to a low mutual intelligibility..

Finally, the unsatisfying levels of English learning in secondary schools also turns a limelight on the decreasing level of inspection and control by the Ministry of Education and Culture. While the ministry was in full control of educational conduct in the state schools in the past, this attitude, due to changing times, views and political structures, has given way to a more relaxed, individual-centred and union-controlled system. Thus teachers are less threatened and less eager towards professional development, and more embraced with a materialistic philosophy. The ongoing mentality in schools claims that the student is guilty if learning is not taking place.

Yet, with students being one of the stakeholders, their attitude also reflects on the consequence. With the technological developments and the rising standards of living, the need for teachers and formal in-class instruction is decreasing day by day. Moreover, in the Cyprus context, the rapid incline in the number of higher education institutions (from 5 in 2010 to 14 in 2016) as well as the wide variety in the study area choices liberate the students in the sense that they are not obliged to the teacher in the classroom. Adding the immense translation facilities the internet and computer software provided to the aforementioned factors, the language teacher has no easy dough on hand to shape. At the end of the day, students entering the university gate to study ELT are hardly anywhere close to the level of English proficiency required for the department.

Nevertheless, being English medium institutions, the Eastern Mediterranean University and the other 4 universities in which the research was carried out, provide immense opportunities to the ‘English Language Teaching’ students from their first year onwards. Besides the formal subject related terminology and methodology courses which are conducted in the English medium, students are also supported linguistically throughout their four-year education with language development courses. This is where the problem needs to be analysed. With such intensive language exposure and schooling, the novice English teachers should develop their linguistic skills and eventually reach a highly advanced language level so as to function at ease within the teaching context. Yet, the language development of the ELT department students does not seem to be advancing to a satisfyingly acceptable level.

#### **1.4 Purpose of the Study**

The current study’s aim is twofold; firstly to analyse and evaluate the language proficiency and improvement of the ongoing ELT Semester 1 and 2 students at the Eastern Mediterranean University, so as to define their development over a time interval and as a result reflect on and predict their destiny in the language learning, developing and eventually teaching voyage. Secondly, the research will be a comparative and contrastive study of the language proficiency of the ELT 1 year students at the 5 universities with a specific focus on the social, economic, gender and language background. The former part of the study will involve continuous testing and assessment of students’ language abilities both in English and in their native language (mostly Turkish) over a time interval while the latter mentioned will evaluate the students’ language competency at a specific time instant. The results of these tests will hopefully result in beneficial backwash to be used in “contributions to



curriculum design and materials preparation” (Kaplan and Grabe, 1991, p.123). With these factors kept in focus, the study will both compare and evaluate the linguistic improvement in the foreign language of five groups of students via a valid and reliable test battery. More specifically, the purpose of the study is firstly to determine through continual assessment in an EFL context whether the linguistic competency development of the ELT Semester 1 and 2 students is significant or insignificant and secondly, to compare and contrast the ELT competency of 5 groups of students with regards to predefined social and economic parameters. The results will shed light onto the ELT programmes as to whether they will need a revision or not.

### **1.5 Research Questions**

In reference to the purpose stated above, the research questions are:

1. Does the exposure to English in professional and language related courses over a specific period of time positively reinforce students’ language competency in language development thus leading to a significant difference in their language development?
2. Does the students’ performance in their department courses predict their development in L2 proficiency?
3. Is there a difference in the development of language competency with regards to genders after being exposed to English in professional and language related courses over a specific period of time?
4. Is there a difference between students’ L1, Turkish and L2, English competencies?
5. Is there a correlation between students’ L1 and L2 writing skills?

6. Is there a correlation between students' language competency and socio-economic and socio-cultural background?
7. Is there a significant difference among the language competency of Year 1 ELT students of the 5 universities?

### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

The study is significant for the ELT department course designers as it aims to quantify the level and amount of English developed by students during these courses and to justify the ongoing so-called content based instruction which is practiced in an adapted form of CLIL . If the study results prove that students are improving their foreign language skills while being instructed through this language, then there is no reason why the program should not continue in its current design. In that case, the reason/s for the decreasing level of English competency in schools should be researched elsewhere. Yet, if the study proves the contrary, then the ELT course program and the medium of instruction should be re-evaluated. The aim is to provide evidence that can be used for a more functional and effective program and, that is more user-friendly for the students and instructors where they can *learn and lecture* through a medium which will be neither a threat to nor a challenge for them.

### **1.7 Methodology**

The number of participants involved was limited due to the fact that firstly, the study was structured as a prototype and secondly, the researcher had limited access to the participating universities. Lastly, since the study had time constraints, enlarging the scope of the study and administering the tests and questionnaire to a larger number of participants over a longer period of time would jeopardize the completion of the study. Overall, due to the limited number of participants involved yet the variety of measurement procedures applied, the study is itself actually a prototype study that

can be similarly applied to larger groups of participants such as all the levels of the ELT department or even throughout universities in Turkey. The case study adopted a semi-longitudinal, process-oriented, quasi-experimental, correlational mixed design method in terms of cause-effect relationship with a synthetic-deductive objective (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, Patten, 2004) based on results obtained via pre-test/post-test design. It also employed a piloted and recognised test battery along with a personal questionnaire which provided the quantitative data to be used for comparative purposes.

In order to realize the aims of this study, the data collection commenced after the first half of the initial semester of the students in the ELT department. The Listening and Pronunciation-ELTE 106 groups used in this study were specifically chosen for two main reasons; firstly, they displayed a more homogenous structure in the students' language background and secondly the students displayed active involvement in these courses since the courses were listening and pronunciation courses. There was continuous assessment during one stage of the study and the students' language development and profession related course grades of two consecutive semesters were compared with the language test results. After the pre-test and post-tests had been administered within the group, the results were analysed with respect to item analysis. The other stage of the study involved the comparison, contrasting and evaluation of the students' results regarding the test battery and their written performances in English and Turkish. Once again, the results were analysed in respect to item analysis.

The collected data were analysed for quantitative results. The implications for these results were consequently used firstly for the prediction of the study group's

language development competency level at the end of the four year formal study period and secondly for the effects of differing parameters in L2 language development. It also provided input in reference to the program design itself. In short, in light of the participants' limited exposure (in-class), the study evaluated a student groups' linguistic competency in their L1 and FL through the means of a valid and reliable test which was administered twice at specific time intervals at EMU and once throughout the other 4 universities. The results were then compared and checked against check benchmarks. In view of that, overall suggestions were made related to the field of ELT and education.

### **1.8 Limitations and Delimitations**

Limitations of the study commence with the fact that it was only a prototype and thus involved a relatively small size of a study group. In addition, only one English medium institution was used for the continual assessment, i.e. the case study part of the study. Moreover, the participants were not exposed to language outside the classroom thus facing limited exposure. What is more, the foremost goal for the participants' was to secure an undergraduate degree, thus downplaying their emphasis on language development. Unfortunately, the foreign language is a significant barrier for students whose main aim is completing their vocational studies and receiving a diploma and thus this creates a de-motivating situation. The time constraint on the study did not allow the researcher to expand the study to all levels of ELT students and for a longer period than 2 semesters. Finally, the impracticalities related to data collection, namely accessing data which in some cases was regarded as confidential and the reluctance of the participants to contribute to the research were further limitations of the research.

The delimitations are the homogenous structure of the study group, the reliable test battery and the employment of numerous statistical tests.

## **1.9 Definition of Terms**

**Content Based Instruction (CBI):** Content Based Instruction refers to the approach of “second language instruction in which the L2 is used as the medium of instruction to teach and learn curricular content’ while it ‘emphasizes the socially appropriate and meaningful use of language, that is, knowing how to effectively use language rather than knowing about language” (Davies & Elder, 2004, p.706). It is actually “the integration of school or academic content with language teaching objectives”. The primary argument is that “using subject matter as the content for language learning maximizes learners’ exposure to the second language” (Kaplan, 2002, p.220).

**Immersion Education:** Refers to “content based language teaching where 50 percent or more of the curriculum is taught using the L2” (Davies & Elder, 2004, p.706). It is in fact the ‘sheltered’ format of content-based instruction in which second language speakers are taught the content of the course in the language they are learning (Genesee, 1987; Harley, 1993; Met & Lorenz, 1997).

**Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL):** Gaining recognition and popularity in the last decade, ‘Content and Language Integrated Learning’ is the latest approach of immersion education in which content, communication, cognition and culture are transmitted through the four language skills. It bases itself on the argument that L2 should be used as a tool in the learning of non-language subjects so that both subject and language learning are intertwined.([www.clilcompendium.com](http://www.clilcompendium.com)).

**English Medium Instruction (EMI) (in higher education):** With no specific aim to develop the students' level of English, EMI refers to teaching through the English medium in a Turkish context at the university level.

## Chapter 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the most relevant research and sources related to the present study. It defines the theoretical frameworks upon which the study is established, and attempts to explore any controversial or paradoxical issues creating inquisitive thought. Relevant literature and sources related to the present study are analyzed exhaustively. Accordingly, the scope of the review will tackle issues in three key areas: namely 1) *the scope of language and its socio-political aspects in education*, 2) *the teaching and learning of English and the outcomes of English medium instruction*, and 3) *testing*. The first part focuses on the social and political issues related to language learning and teaching specifically scrutinizing the social and individual factors involved in the enhancement of English throughout the world as well as a definition of the different types of English medium instruction in reference to its globalization effects, the world Englishes notion and language imperialism. In the second part, the forces affecting language learning and acquisition as well as the historical background of English throughout the world and in Cyprus and the theoretical justification of and reflections on the English medium instruction policy in Cyprus are tackled. Finally, in the third part, an overview on testing, its place in teaching and learning, its applications and the pertinent concepts are defined. Lastly, in addition to the theoretical frameworks upon which the study is established, the chapter will explore contradictory ideas initiating discursive consideration.

## 2.1 Language

The human being's ability to use language for communication in an indefinite number of ways and the fact that each and every utterance is unique distinguishes mankind from all other creatures. This verifies the claim that "language is the most prominent of human activities" (Bennett, 1968, p.4). Individuals make up societies which in turn constitute a nation and thus it is only rightful to conclude that language carries vital importance for a nation, as "language is both part of the culture and the medium through which culture is transmitted" (Bunyi, 1999, p.337). As it is, after defining the name and state of government, the third article of both the Turkish and the Turkish Cypriot constitutions state that the official language of the nation is Turkish. No other language is legally or politically mentioned as an accepted mediator.

Besides its other characteristics, language portrays its users' culture and identity, in other words the soul of its speakers. This reality has been acknowledged by many authorities as Edwards (1994) cited from various sources and backgrounds a list of slogans which exemplify this reality as such:

"A people without a language of its own are only half a nation" (Davis, 1843).

"A nation could lose its wealth, its government, even its territory and still survive, but should it lose its language, not a trace of it would remain" (Kocharli, 1913).

"Has a nation anything more precious than the language of its fathers?" (Johann Herder, 1772).



Yet, with the technological advances of the twenty-first century rapidly moving in and the devouring power of the English speaking lands, other languages, have discreetly begun to lose their prominence on a worldwide basis as their users have unconsciously drifted towards using English as a means of communication on an international level. After all “living languages are always changing, as they respond to changes in social structure. Language reflects society, it also serves to pass on social structure, for learning a language is a central feature of being socialized” (Spolsky, 1998, p.78). In other words, the more we try to mingle with the world and keep in accordance with the twenty-first century developments, the more dependent we have become on a language other than our native language, that is a lingua franca.

### **2.1.1 English as a Lingua Franca**

The term ‘Lingua Franca’ describes a language serving as a regular means of communication between different linguistic groups in a multilingual speech community (Holmes, 1992, p.86). Accordingly, as a means of communication between two or more peoples, it sustains its empirical importance within the related context. While people whose first languages are different from each other’s prefer to use this medium, it is a known fact that “lingua francas often develop initially as trade languages – illustrating ... the influence of economic factors on language change.” (Holmes, 1992, p.88) Consequently, whereas third world nations such as Kenya, Singapore, Hong Kong, Malaysia and South African countries (Bunyi, 1999, Rodseth, 2005) continue to implement the education system they inherited from their colonial days, developed countries, the European Union being the greatest example, are supposedly protecting their identity through the conservation of their language yet in reality are in complete denial of the situation by not actively taking action against this intrusion. A study conducted concluded that:

The linguistic arrangement of the European Union is a highly political issue that has been carefully avoided by politicians both at the national and the supranational level...doing nothing is still taking a position. The maintenance of the current linguistic regime sustains institutional multilingualism formally but favours *de facto* linguistic homogenization with the increasing use of international English in informal situations. (Phillipson, 2003, p.107)

Subsequently, English is sweeping its way through the world's nations and quite explicitly enforcing its application. It has "become detached from kingdom" and "is presented to us nowadays as, for the first time a true world language; not any longer a linguistic kingdom but a stateless medium for communicating in a global community" (Kayman 2004, p.3). In fact Kontra et al. (1999) cite Skutnabb-Kangas and Phillipson who explain that "throughout the entire post-colonial world, English has been marketed as the language of international communication and understanding, economic, development, national unity and similar positive ascriptions" masking the reality "that speakers of most languages do not have their linguistic human rights respected" (Phillipson, 2001, p.190). What is more, O'Hara-Davies (2010) questions the situation in her study after stating that in "our modern world...the forces of pluralism and globalization are blurring cultural definition" (p.109). At this point, a reflection on the power of English and its subtle but imperialistically dominating and globalizing effect on the world and how it has come to enjoy so much power deserve an overview. This will be pursued by a brief discussion of the domains of English after which further elaboration on the classroom experiences *per se*, namely language learning and teaching will be conducted.

### **2.1.2 Power of English**

"Throughout the entire post-colonial world, English has been marketed as the language of 'international communications and understanding'" (Phillipson, 2001,

p.190). In fact at the present time, English, to a much greater extent than any other language is the language in which the fate of most of the world's millions is decided. English has subtly, "in the twentieth century become the international *par excellence*" (Phillipson, 1992, p. 5-6). Kachru (1992) argues that this status has not been reached through intentional premeditation and accounts for the power of English by asserting that,

The language has no claims to intrinsic superiority; rather its preeminent role developed due to extralinguistic factors. The importance is in what the medium conveys about technology, science, law, and (in the case of English) literature. English has now, as a consequence of its status, been associated with universalism, liberalism, secularism, and internationalism. In this sense, then, English is a symbol of the concept that Indians have aptly expressed as *vasudhaiva kutumbakam* (the whole universe is a family). (p.11)

Rahman (2001) supports this assertion when he labels a language of power as a "visible machinery of power" and exemplifies this with English which "is associated with modernity, knowledge, and education in Pakistan while Punjabi is not" (p.57). He continues by asserting that "language, then, is an enabling factor for acquiring power in a modern society" (p. 58). Kahane (1992), Phillipson (1992), Strevens (1987), and Crystal (1997) account for the upsurge of the power of English from the mid 20th century onwards by relating it to the political and economic power the United Kingdom and the United States exerted on the world, the former specifically during the first half with its colonial power and the latter during the second half of the last century which Kahane (1992) refers to as 'Americanism'. Accordingly, she relates "the unprecedented explosion" to the "political preponderance of the United States after World War II" which "exerted a global influence" via "its technological advances, its supremacy in world economics, and the new forms of its way of life" (p. 215). Crystal (1997), on the other hand notes how Britain became the world's

leading industrial and trading country at the beginning of the nineteenth century and how British political imperialism had sent English around the globe during the nineteenth century, so that it was “a language on which the sun never sets” (p. 8). During the twentieth century, this world presence was maintained and promoted, almost single-handedly, through the economic supremacy of the new American superpower. Although Crystal (1997) and Phillipson (1992) differ in their definition of the notion of power, in that while Crystal argues that the influences of power are mainly political, economic, military and culture, Phillipson places power within the concept of imperialism. Yet, Phillipson (1992) states the bottom line of the argument asserting that “English is now entrenched worldwide, as a result of British colonialism, international interdependence, revolutions in technology, transport, communications and commerce, and, because English is the language of the USA, a major economic, political and military force in the contemporary world” (p.23-24) it is providing not only reflections of the British and American periods, but also actually presenting a synopsis of the whole aforementioned era. ‘The power of English, then, resides in the domains of its use, the roles its users can play, and—attitudinally—above all, how others view its importance. On all these counts, English excels other world languages” (Kachru, 1990, p.4). Thus clearly, English had spread beyond the physical boundaries of its cradles.

And nevertheless, “when the need for global communication came to exceed the limits set by language barriers, the spread of English accelerated, transforming existing patterns of international communication” (Ferguson, 1992, p.xv-xvi). English no longer belonged to the British or Americans per se, ‘World Englishes’ developed. Hence literature now refers to ‘Indian English’, ‘West African English’,

'Singapore English', 'Australian English' and so forth. "There is now growing consensus among scholars that there is not one English language anymore; rather there are many" (McArthur, 1998, cited in Bhatt, 2001, p. 527). "The different English languages, studied within the conceptual framework of world Englishes, represent diverse linguistic, cultural, and ideological voices" (Bhatt, 2001, p.527). The reality is that today while 320-380 million people speak English as their native tongue, the non-native speakers in the so-called 'outer-circle' are an estimated 150-300 million and those in the expanding circle are noted as a vast 700-1000 million (Crystal 1997). "English has some kind of special status in over 70 countries, such as Ghana, Nigeria, India, Singapore and Vanatau" (Crystal, 1997, p.3). If those who actually use it even on a limited scale are counted as well, the number easily totals up to 1.5 billion (Stevens, 1992, Crystal, 1997) In other words, "English is used by more people than any other language on Earth," and "its mother-tongue speakers make up only a quarter or one fifth of the total" (Stevens, 1992, p.28). In fact, it can be argued that "linguistic and literary creativity in English is determined less by the usage of its native speakers and more by the usage of nonnative speakers who outnumber native speakers" (Crystal 1995, McArthur 1992 cited in Bhatt 2001, p.528). What can be a better confirmation of power than this actuality and how does this power affect the 'other' parties involved?

### **2.1.3 English Imperialism**

The notion of language imperialism is relevant to the forces of a language on not just one other but on many others. The power of a language is the main force and this force originates in that specific language's efficacy in the economic, political, intellectual, and social arenas.

The association of English with modern technology, with economic progress, and with internationalization, has encouraged people all over the world to learn English and to have their children learn it as early as possible. The more this has succeeded, the greater the reason for others to want to have access to the power and success assumed to be a result of knowing English (Spolsky, 1998, p. 77).

According to Phillipson(1992, p.47) “a working definition of English Linguistic Imperialism is that the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages.” He further develops this definition by noting that English linguistic imperialism is one example of *linguicism* (a term coined by Tove Skutnabb-Kangas in 1988) which is defined as “ideologies, structures, and practices used to legitimate, effectuate, and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources (both material and immaterial) between groups which are defined on the basis of language. The structural and cultural inequalities ensure the continued allocation of more material resources to English than to other languages and benefit those who are proficient in English”(p.47). That is to say, “linguicism studies attempt to put the sociology of language and education into a form which furthers scrutiny of how language contributes to unequal access to societal power and how linguistic hierarchies operate and are legitimated” (ibid.:1997, p.239). Phillipson (1992) uses Galtung’s theoretical work as his primary source as this situates linguistic imperialism in relation to the other types of imperialism. As it is, Galtung’s (1980, cited in Phillipson, 1992, p.52) *imperialism theory* hypothesizes six common interlocking types of imperialism; namely economic, political, military, communicative, cultural, and social (p.180). Galtung further notes that “Imperialism is a type of relationship whereby one society can dominate another and it is propelled by four mechanisms; exploitation, penetration, fragmentation, and marginalization”

(ibid.: 107). The negative connotations of all four of these mechanisms quite clearly speak for themselves.

#### **2.1.4 The Domains of English and its Effects on Societies**

“There are many supply and demand factors that influence the advance of English... English is an integral dimension of ongoing globalization processes in commerce, finance, politics, military affairs, science, education and the media” (Phillipson, 2003, p.64). In fact,

English has a dominant position in science, technology, medicine and computers; in research, books, periodicals, and software; in transnational business, trade, shipping and aviation, in diplomacy and international organizations; in mass media entertainment, news agencies and journalism; in youth, culture and sport; in education systems, as the most widely learnt foreign language... This non-exhaustive list of the domains in which English has the dominant, though not of course exclusive, place is indicative of the functional load carried by English. (ibid.: 1992, p.6).

The power and importance of language is so prominent that that “responsibility for language policy in each country tends to be shared between ministries of foreign affairs, education, culture, research, and commerce” (ibid.: 2003, p.65). Phillipson(2003) asserts that aspects affecting the relative power of a language can be accounted for at two levels, namely; structural and ideological. The former refers to promotion of a language via the tangible support whether it is funds, buildings, supplements or course design. The latter however describes the attitudes and beliefs towards a language, the ‘why should’, the related national policies and the societies’ demands. The rationale for this is that “there is a popular demand for English that is strongly connected to a language that is projected in advertising and the media as connoting success, influence, consumerism and hedonism” (Phillipson, 2003, p.65). What is more “institutions may adopt integrated content and language courses as a way of rebranding themselves to appeal to new generations of students raised in a

supposedly already global youth culture which is assumed to enjoy a global language. The reasons the institutions advance, however, are rarely so banal, ranging from the practical to the idealist, or even the educational” (Wilkinson, R. & Zegers, V. 2007, p. 11). Bearing this underlying principle in mind, five realms can be shortly scrutinized as to being central to the role of language all of which need to be changed at structural and ideological level. After all, “the speakers of a language are in a stronger position when their language is used for national or international communication, or for government, or for trade and commerce, or for education” (Spolsky 1998, p. 57).

#### **2.1.4.1 Education**

Crystal (1997) rightfully states that “English is the medium of a great deal of the world’s knowledge, especially in such areas as science and technology. And access to knowledge is the business of education” (p.101).

Phillipson (2003) exemplifies the place of language in education by referring to “linguicism” (p.66). Accordingly, “minority language speakers are victims of linguicism if their languages have no place in the education system, or are stigmatized as being irrelevant in the modern world, and no resources are allocated to them” (p.66). On the other hand, he notes (2001) that “the English teaching industry was reported as being worth £6 billion...” (p.191). In other instances, speakers may be given preferential treatment over others for certain types of employment because after all “English is privileged in the competitive market for foreign students mainly because the language is so widely learned as a foreign language” (Phillipson, 2003 p. 94) The British Council and its non-profit English language developing policies and activities throughout the world along with the numerous programmes, scholarships



and events the Fulbright Commission runs worldwide, our specific contextual example being Cyprus, also prove the interest of these dominant countries to spread the English language as extensively as possible. It is also noted (ibid.:.) that “exams administered from Great Britain, in English and with British content are held worldwide” and The University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate is the second largest examination organization after Educational Testing services of Princeton, New Jersey which “in 1996, organized exams in 154 countries” (ibid.:. p. 94). Needless to say, all of the English medium secondary schools in Cyprus, whether private or state, register their students for the UCLES examinations not only for the assessment of English proficiency, but for the subject tests as well. The reality that students who choose to sit for a language examination of different style and technique opt to sit for the ETS administered TOEFL magnifies the importance of English. Adding the IELTS (International English Language Testing System), an English level testing examination co-administered by three of the leading English speaking powers of the world; namely Australia, Canada and Britain, and stressing the fact that the IELTS results are recognized by all higher education institutions as well as governmental offices and workplaces, intensifies the necessity to highly integrate and embed English into our education system.

#### **2.1.4.2 Culture**

Language reflects culture and one’s culture is implanted in one’s language. Therefore any determinant affecting a language is bound to have a consequence on the related language. Undeniably, English and its related cultures have subtly filtered into most languages and cultures starting from the twentieth century via the development of the media. The technology related to the media filtered in through the means of the modern world, i.e. the black box – television, the white screen and

the music industry. The faraway lands were visually and aurally introduced to the ways of life, language and morals of these English speaking powers. The internet was the second blow. Actual and immediate contact was established with the powerful entities of the world and as communication increased, so was the sense to 'belong' promoted. Thus, currently our younger generations are part of a confused mish-mash of culture where they are caught between the traditions of the past and the 'modern worldly', i.e. Americanized, ways of the future. This cannot be attributed only to the Cypriot context as "the forces behind globalization and Americanization are challenging all national cultures and languages" (Phillipson, 2003, p.92). Hence, at this point of thought, the focus on lingua franca should be taken one step further and "*lingua cultura*" (Phillipson, 2003, p. 89) should be introduced.

#### **2.1.4.3 Science**

English seems to have become a globally dominant language of science as well. Most scientific journals are published in English and scientific conferences almost always utilize translator services. "The pressures to publish 'internationally' rather than locally are intense, and are applicable to all scholars" (Phillipson, 2003, p.81). This last issue runs the risk of facing two problems: 1. this can lead to a neglect of local or national topics, and 2. it can also lead to a fall sense of priorities when posts are filled, if writing for an international journal is assumed to imply better quality than in a national one. Brock-Utne (2007) and Phillipson (2003) exemplify this notion by referring to the Norwegian performance pay system at university level where the staff receive more than twice a monetary bonus for each scientific publication in an 'international' language which "almost invariably means English" (Brock-Utne, 2007, p. 15) as compared to one written in Norwegian. The obligation seems to becoming a "publish or perish in English" (Phillipson, 2001, p.80) one

which requires the scholarly community to “function exclusively in English” and use “approaches favoured in the Anglo-American world” because their work is serviced “by international journals whose editors tend to be nationals of the USA and the UK” (ibid.:p. 81). This increased anglicization and americanization of academia and the acceptability which comes along with the higher level of readership leads to the assumption that international journals are better than those published in a country’s own language.

#### **2.1.4.4 Commerce**

As a large market, there is no ‘product’ surprise in the present day world. Technology is so vast developed with transportation and the communication devices that provided suitable purchasers are located, any produced good or local commodity can be easily marketed and sold to distant lands of different cultures. Yet, the only impediment to this activity would be the medium of communication, i.e. language. However, throughout the world, English is the main language used in commerce and trade. Many global bodies such as IMF, the OECD, and the World Bank all function as if to advocate the power of English. Moreover, “in entertainment, popular culture, lifestyle, and consumerism, Americanization and MacDonalidization are massively influential” (Phillipson, 2003,p.72). In other words “we are currently experiencing” a “unification of a global market, with English as one among several vibrant international languages...” none of which have “the same status in globalization as English” (ibid: p.71).

#### **2.1.4.5 Politics**

It is an undeniable fact that the 21<sup>st</sup> century world communicates via English at the international, political level. This trend launched itself during the mighty British Empire colonial era of the late 19<sup>th</sup>-early 20<sup>th</sup> century period, when English was seen

as the guarantor language as well as the symbol of political unity (Crystal, 1997). The movement persisted and officially earned a formal place in 1919 when “The League of Nations was the first of many modern international alliances to allocate a special place to English” in that “English was one of the two official languages” (Crystal, 1997, p.78). Created as part of the Treaty of Versailles in 1920, the League was replaced by the United Nations in 1945 moving from being a group of 42 to a wide array of over 50 organs, commissions and bodies. Moreover, many other international political gatherings in the world, such as the commonwealth, the Council of Europe, the European Union, NATO and OPEC all employ English as an official or working language. The reality is that, due to the fact that decisions taken at these highly political gatherings concern the international arena, proceedings of these meetings need to be accessible through a common medium, namely, English. As it is, “many decisions that affect the entire world’s population are taken in English. Reference to English as a global language has therefore much less to do with demography or geography than with decision-making in the contemporary global political and economic system” (Phillipson, 2001, p.189).

Although the domains of English may be further elaborated, more extensive expansion will not be maintained as the crucial point that needs to be pinpointed at this stage is the power that English has on the shaping and structuring of all areas in which it is included and used. In order to function within these domains, we need to investigate the foundation and its promotion which brings us to the classroom environment where it all begins with the teaching and learning of English.

## **2.2 The Teaching and Learning of a Language in the Classroom**

With the 21<sup>st</sup> century world moving into a stage reigned by communication, all of its inhabitants accordingly require the possession and knowledge of a tool for interaction, the simplest and most eminent clearly being language. This consecutively turns the limelight onto the stakeholders involved, that is the learner and the teacher, and the formal context in which the learning and teaching process takes place, i.e. the classroom. While the motives for learning and teaching have been discussed in the previous sections, the actual and affective factors related to learning and thereby teaching still need to be scrutinized in order to comprehend the indications.

### **2.2.1 Factors Affecting Second Language Learning**

As teachers and learners ourselves, we can clearly assert that learners vary in their achievements and thus their eventual level of competence subsequently portraying different levels of target-language competence. The acquisition process is dependent on different variables, an imperative one being the learner him/herself who is affected by numerous factors during the experience, and theories of acquisition are more than one. One theory is known as the Connectionist Theory where it takes an empiricist approach to acquisition in which language structure is determined by the linguistic environment that exists outside the learner. On the other hand, Innatism argues towards the innate capability of acquiring a language. Finally Cognitive Theory, the one which is pursued in this study purports the undeniable interconnection between the two (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Ellis (1994) however, groups three components that can be considered as the main titles “*1. External Factors 2. Internal Factors (the ‘black box’ ...and the internal mechanisms that guide L2 acquisition) and 3. The Individual Learner Factors*” (p. 193). In this respect,

External factors refer to social factors and settings which in turn are intertwined with Internal Factors being clarified as language processing mechanisms, and finally Individual Learning factors being variables such as age and motivation and attitude. While Behaviorists consider external factors of foremost importance, mentalists indicate that the ‘black box, i.e. the LAD’ is the means to be credited for language learning. The focus of the study does not leave space for the pursuance of an explanation of the general theories yet a short overview of the headings will shed light on the aspects involved and thus the difficulties that need to be considered during the discussion.

### **2.2.1.1 External Factors**

Ellis (1994) refers to External factors as basically ‘the social situation in which learning took place and how the language the learner was exposed to (i.e. the input) accounted for acquisition as evident in the language the learner produced (i.e. the output) ...These are related to “the social context of acquisition” (p.16-17) that is “the environment in which learning takes place” (p.24). Social factors affecting learning can be considered at two levels, one being the natural context and the other being the formal educational setting, that is, the classroom. In turn, the natural context refers to variables such as age, gender, social class and ethnicity and societal expectations and constraints whereas the latter is distinguished according to the setting and method the language is taught (Ellis, 1994). The general belief is that learning in a natural context occurs through direct involvement with the language and social rather than language rules are of concern. Krashen (1976) cited in Ellis (1994) refers to these two types of learning and distinguishes them as “*acquisition* and *learning*...where the former takes place subconsciously as a result of understanding what has been said (or written) in communication, and clearly

corresponds to informal learning. The latter, which involves conscious attention to linguistic forms, corresponds to formal learning” (p.214-215) This being the case, Gardner’s Socio-educational Model of L2 acquisition sheds light on this study where the learners are those found in language classrooms rather than in natural settings and the learning takes place in the foreign language classroom (Ellis, 1994).

Whether the final result can be defined as acquisition or learning, it does not vary the factors involved in the final language attainment. These factors can be listed as linguistic and sociolinguistic settings.

### **Linguistic and Sociolinguistic Settings**

Ellis (1994) argues that “classroom learners often fail to develop much functional language ability” and thus one can assert that “the nature of the(se) classroom roles is likely to influence the level and type of proficiency that develops” (p.228). The issue is raised in scope of two levels; natural and educational or instructional settings.

Lightbown and Spada (1999) distinguish and define these two contexts as:

Natural acquisition contexts should be understood as those in which the learner is exposed to the language at work or in social interaction or, if the learner is a child, in a social situation where most of the other learners are native speakers of the target language and where the instruction is directed toward learners of the language. Traditional instructional environments...are those where the language is being taught to a group of second or foreign language learners. In this case, the focus is on the language itself, rather than on information which is carried by the language...The goal of learners in such courses is often to pass an examination rather than to use the language for daily communicative interaction. (p. 91-92)

In short, whether it be in a natural or traditional/communicative instructional setting, the result is geared towards some sort of learning where the final result is at least at Krashen’s *i + 1* level. Subsequently, the product quite clearly varies depending on the setting where the natural acquisition setting lives up to its name with more

impromptu learning or so-to-speak acquiring of the language where tolerance toward error is high, input is continuous and of differing levels and contexts and the learner is obliged to communicate for survival purposes.

The traditional and communicative instructional settings however, create a focused learning environment where input is graded, principles and teaching methodologies are varied and time constraints exist. Learner errors are pursued and corrected, and are pressured to produce written and spoken language at a certain level, yet there is “often a greater emphasis on comprehension than on production, especially in the early stages of learning” (Lightbown and Spada, 1999, p.95). Thus, among other variables, the path toward ‘knowing’ a language is clearly also shaped by the linguistic setting of the learner. With regards to the analysis of social context, the factors that affect ultimate L2 proficiency appear to be related to the learner’s opportunities and desire to use the L2 for particular purposes in social interaction” (Siegel, 2003, p.210)

#### **2.2.1.2 Internal Factors**

There is a widespread assumption that the internal factors affecting the ‘black box’ and consequently language learning are related to Language Transfer, which is considered an important characteristic of second language acquisition as it reflects on contrastive analysis and/or error analysis. Extensive research on language acquisition has considered the effects of language transfer on learning a second language. Ellis (1994) states that "no theory of L2 acquisition is complete without an account of L1 transfer" and broadly defines transfer as "a general cover term for a number of different kinds of influence from languages other than the FL" (p. 341). Most research on this problem has been carried out to understand the second



language classroom in hope of promoting the language learning process. Attempts have been made to identify the cognitive processes of language learning and transfer. Selinker (1972) introduced into the field the concept of 'interlanguage', defined as the continuum a learner moves along from L1 to the target language. He also refers to it as "The rules that make up the learner's mental grammars of different kinds" (Ellis, p. 67). In other words, this grammar is a transitional one which is often referred to the route of development. The rules of this grammar are developmental in the sense that they differ from the rules of both the first language and the target language. Transfer is currently accepted by many scholars as an "interlanguage process" (Kohn, 1986). The views on interlanguage that guided early research saw second language learners as possessing a set of rules or intermediate grammars. Ellis (1985) often views the phenomenon as 'language-learner language' and Spolsky interprets it as "...the learner's knowledge...as a unified whole, in which new knowledge is integrated and systematically reorganized with previous knowledge of the native language and the second language learner's knowledge is a complete whole, critically different from that of the first language learner" (1989, p. 31). The interlanguage notion is basically interpreted in three different views. Similarly, McLaughlin proposes a wide interpretation of interlanguage as a phenomenon encompassing the learner's foreign language system at a single point in time and the range of interlocking systems that characterize the development of learners' language over time. " Interlanguage moves along its continuum as the learner employs various strategies to make sense of the input and to control the output" (1987, p. 60). Thus the research to date has considered language transfer as a phenomenon intertwined with IL and incorporating strategies of second language learning. In contrast to Selinker's and McLaughlin's cognitive emphasis, Adjemian (1976) approached the

notion of interlanguage by describing the systematicity of the internal organization of interlanguage i.e he took up a behaviourist view. Like any language system, IL obeys universal linguistic constraint with internal consistency. While Selinker stressed the structure of IL, Adjemian stressed the dynamic character; the permeability. The IL is incomplete and 'permeable' that is, it is unstable. Finally, Tarone (1979) approached the IL notion from the sociolinguistic point of view, arguing that interlanguage "could be seen as analyzable into a set of styles that are dependent on the context of use" (McLaughlin, p. 63). It is in fact, not a single system but a set of styles that can be used in different social contexts thus adding a sociolinguistic point of view.

In short, these three formulations describe the internal factors of the learner who possesses a set of rules/grammars which can be described by three basic descriptive (explanatory) approaches.

**Linguistic approach:** It identifies the linguistic properties of IL grammar and how the learners acquire rules of discourse that inform native speaker language use, i.e. acquisition of grammar and how discourse influences the kinds of errors learners make and the developmental orders and sequences they pass through. Language is viewed as possessing universal properties.

**Sociolinguistic approach:** It seeks to describe the rules as representations of social meanings, i.e. the learner's attempts to function as a social being. It views IL as consisting of different styles which learners call upon under different conditions of language use. It is also concerned about how social factors determine the input that learners use to construct their interlanguage and how the social identities that

learners negotiate in their interactions with native speakers shape their opportunities to speak and, to learn an L2.

**Psycholinguistic approach:** It defines IL as the product of internal processing strategies so language learning is considered another kind of cognitive learning .It studies the mental structures and processes involved in the acquisition and use of language. involving information processing (deriving knowledge from data, employing knowledge in production and reception. The study of psycholinguistics has given rise to many acquisition models one of these issues being Language Transfer.

Selinker's (1972) model of interlanguage development is considered to involve several core processes, one of which is use of learning strategies. Systematicity of the interlanguage is evidenced by recognizable strategies (Green and Oxford, 1995). Selinker argued that interlanguage was the product of five central processes involved in second (foreign) language learning: “language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of second language learning, strategies of second language communication, and overgeneralization” (1972, p.37). All of these are internal factors affecting the learner during the learning process. Accordingly, language transfer ensues through the medium of interlanguage.

The concept of transfer has been considered by many scholars. Odlin defines the phenomenon as follows: “Transfer is the influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired” (1989, p.27).

The advocates of the behaviorist theories such as Skinner (1957) and Brooks (1960) (cited in Ellis, 1985, p.49) viewed transfer as interference from prior knowledge impeding learning and claimed that, "...the single paramount fact about language learning is that it concerns, not problem solving, but the formation and performance of habits".

Cummins (1981) adopts a more theoretical view with his 'interdependence hypothesis' as a framework for understanding the relationships between linguistic skills in L1 and FL, specifically, the role of transfer. The researcher argues that, cognitive and linguistic skills acquired in one language can be transferred to another language. Such transfer can happen because, with cognitive development and instruction, children gradually develop 'deep' underlying conceptual and linguistic proficiency with concepts originally learned through one language. This underlying proficiency, which is mediated through the learner's first language, can then resurface as transfer of relevant concepts and skills to another language (cited in Geva & Ryan, 1993, p.6).

Cummins clarifies the interdependence theory in his previous articles as follows:

...to the extent that instruction in L<sub>x</sub> is effective in promoting [academic] proficiency in L<sub>x</sub>, transfer of this proficiency to L<sub>y</sub> will occur provided there is adequate exposure to L<sub>y</sub> (either in school or environment) and adequate motivation to learn L<sub>y</sub> (cited in Carson, 1981, p.247).

Krashen (1983) holds a different view claiming that "...transfer...can still be regarded as padding, or the result of falling back on old knowledge, the L1 rule, when new knowledge...is lacking" (p.148).

Yet language learning is neither a simple matter of habitual actions nor is it the falling back onto one's native language. Smith and Kellerman (1986) argued that a 'neutral theory' would best define the process. They introduced the concept of 'crosslinguistic influence', and stated that it is a neutral theory, allowing one to subsume under one heading such phenomena as 'transfer', 'interference', 'avoidance', 'borrowing' and L2 related aspects of language loss and thus permitting discussion of the similarities and differences between these phenomena.

### **2.2.1.3 Individual Learner Factors**

Other than the above two definers, a learners specific variants also affect the learning process. Age, gender, social class, and motivation and attitude will be pondered upon in the following lines.

“Age is the variable that ...can be measured and ...described reliably and precisely” (Ellis, 1985, p.104) and therefore is the easiest and most appropriate to begin. Ellis (1985) refers to studies related to the age factor and summarizes the effects of age into a pattern with three constituents; route, rate and success. Accordingly, starting age does not affect the route of second language acquisition while it does affect the rate of learning in that adolescents learn better than both children and adults in the same length of exposure. Finally, success is dependent both on starting age and years of exposure which determine overall communicative fluency and level of accuracy (Ellis, 1985) especially in some aspects such as pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. This last issue of *Age* evidentially leads the discussion to the '*critical period hypothesis*' which states that there is a period when language acquisition takes place naturally and effortlessly. While some argue that the ideal age for learning a different language is before 6 (Ellis 1994), other studies have raised a

controversy by attesting that the critical age is in fact 12 (Scovel, 1998). Nevertheless, no matter what the argument and result may be, it is apparent that ‘age’ is an important and affective variable in the language learning process and as Scovel (1999) concludes “given the persuasiveness of bilingualism and foreign language learning in virtually every nation, it is not surprising to conclude that humans are effective language learners at any age” (p.284).

As for gender, Ellis (1994) refers to studies (Burstall, 1975) which have displayed that “female learners generally do better than male” (p.202) in the language learning process and related achievement tests. Assessment results of studies conducted by PISA (the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment) have proven that girls were better achievers in reading literacy as compared to boys in all OECD countries (Merisuo-Storm, 2006). Likewise, Babayigit’s (2015) conducted a study quite parallel to the current one in which she compared language group and gender differences in young learners by investigating their written expression. The group consisted of English speaking L1 and L2 learners whose written scripts were evaluated on the 4 dimensions used in this study. Her study concluded that girls were indeed outperforming the opposite gender in all but one dimension, that being organizational quality. Another study conducted by Daif-Allah (2012) looks into the beliefs about learning a foreign language with regards to gender. His study indicated that although both genders were equally motivated and had similar communication strategies and expectations while learning a language, males believed that learning a foreign language was easy as opposed to females who were more dependent on the usage of developed communication technology. Daif-Allah (2012) notes that

sometimes gender differences and beliefs in language learning may be influenced by “social, personal, cultural, cognitive, and affective factors” (p.32).

Yet interestingly, other studies (Boyle, 1987) have shown that boys are superior in ‘listening’ and ‘vocabulary’ learning while studies in the most recent years (Nyikos 1990, Bacon 1992) have proven that the two genders are in fact no different. Whatever the results, the issue remains open to debate and research as it is “likely to interact with other variables in determining L2 proficiency” (Ellis, 1994)

Another parameter which can also be effective in the learning or acquiring procedure of another language is social class and ethnicity. Ellis (1994) defines social class as “a composite measure that takes account of income, level of education and occupation” (p.204). As Preston (1989) indicates, there is a clear parallel between socio-linguistic phenomena associated with social class and language change and interlanguage development (p.117). Studies (Burstall, 1975;1979) referred to by Ellis (1994) have proven that there was “a strong correlation between socio-economic status and achievement. That is, children from middle-class homes were regularly better in their language performance than those from lower- and working class homes” (p. 205). In fact, further studies (Olstain, Shohamy, Kemp and Chatow, 1990, Skehan, 1990) have shown that “children from lower socio-economic groups are less successful than children from higher groups” (Ellis, 1994, p.206) .According to their findings, Olstain et al (1990) noted that the native language (L1) cognitive academic level proficiency (CALP) for the lower socio-economic group differed significantly from the middle-class group, thus leading to the possible conclusion that learners of the latter group were more successful in learning another language because they had a more developed L1 CALP. In short, although there are few

studies on social class and L2 learning, the general suggestion is that learners from more affluent backgrounds achieve higher levels of L2 proficiency than learners from lower socio-economic groups due to their ability in better dealing with decontextualized context . Likewise “there is general consensus that ethnic identity can exert a profound influence on L2 learning” (Ellis, 1994, p.207). The ‘distance’ between the culture of the native and target languages affects the level of learning (Ellis, 1994), so that the further apart the two cultures, the more difficult the L2 learning is, resulting in lower success levels. ‘Closeness’ to a target-language culture, dominance of a group, colonialization or immigration all certainly affect the success of learning the language of that specific culture (Gass and Selinker, 2001).

Finally, there is a connection between motivation and attitude, which is concisely explained by Ellis (1997) who states that “Whereas language aptitude concerns the cognitive abilities that underlie successful L2 acquisition, motivation involves the attitudes and affective states that influence the degree of effort that learners make to learn an L2” (p.74) “The basis of the [Gardner’s Socio-educational Model] model is that L2 learning—even in a classroom setting—is not just a matter of learning new information but of acquiring symbolic elements of a different ethnolinguistic community” (Gardner, 1979 cited in Ellis, 1984, p.236). As it is, “the social and cultural milieu in which learners grow up determines their beliefs about language and culture...and the extent to which they wish to identify with the target-language culture (their integrative motivation)” (p.236). According to Gardner, “motivation is one of the variables that result in individual differences in language learning” (Ellis, 1984, p.236). What is more, “the extent to which they hold positive attitude towards the learning situation” also “contributes to the learners’ motivation influencing both



its nature (how integrative it is) and its strength” (Ellis, 1984, p.237). Motivation to learn a language may involve “a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other language group” (Ellis, 1984, p.509) or realization of “the practical value and advantages of learning a new language” (Ellis, 1984, p.509). Thus, it can be purported that motivation affects and shapes the attitudes of the language learner as it “has a major impact on learning in both formal and informal learning contexts ...Learners who are motivated to integrate develop both a high level of L2 proficiency and better attitudes. The model [Socio-educational] is dynamic and cyclical” (Ellis, 1984, p.237). To summarize, there is a dynamic relationship between the learner’s motivation and his or her specific attitudes to the target language, and its speakers, and the manner in which learners approach and conduct their learning, and hence their ultimate language learning (LL) success (Skehan, 1989; Stern, 1985 cited in Oliver and Purdle, 1998, p.199). After all, as Oliver and Purdle (1998, p.200) suggest “the power and status relationship between learners and speakers of the majority language exerts a major influence on their attitude” (p.200).

### **2.2.2 English Worldwide and in Schools**

The importance of the intellectual and effective use of a foreign language especially in developing countries has always been a known and accepted reality. This actuality has also been valid in developing countries. After all, they are “increasingly seeing the importance of languages in the global market, in intercontinental communication, and in information exchange, while educators interested in minority languages argue for the benefits of bilingual education as standard raising” (Kaplan,2002, p.234). Thus, “in every country, schools adopt one or more languages of instruction” as “it will benefit them[users]” (Tollefson, 1991, p.43). It is also a

known fact that English is the most popularly taught and learnt foreign language of the modern world and this argument is also used to justify the spread of English to countries in which it is not spoken as a mother-tongue. As countries around the world seek to ‘modernize’, English teaching and learning play a key role stating that:

The primary reason for the spread of English ...is that English is the major language of international communication. It is the most important language of business and commerce, of governments and international agencies, of science and technology, and of tourism, film and music. (Tollefson, 1991, p.80-81)

Tollefson claims that the aspiration and necessity to ‘modernize’ among developing countries originates from their desire to ‘break free’ of traditional institutional structures that limit economic development and prosperity since the penetration of English into major political and economic institutions on every continent of the globe is a result of the power of English-speaking countries. In order to realize this aim, the integration of a foreign language (in this particular case English) into the education system, is inevitable. Likewise “Schools have always implicitly recognized that competence in other languages is a mark of education, ...that it is necessary to expand one’s language capabilities in many contexts, and the classroom is an obvious setting in which this can take place” (Edwards, 1994, p.192). Thus, the most appropriate venue for the development of such cognitive competence is the classroom and the most appropriate means is the curriculum. Depending on the societal structure they are applied within, literature refers to the implementation of such curricula under various titles; namely, content-based instruction (CBI), English medium instruction (EMI), immersion education, and content and language integrated learning (CLIL) (Baker & Jones, 1998 cited in Kaplan, 2002). The focus of this study is specifically on content-based instruction but it might be used

interchangeably with English medium education and content and language integrated learning.

### **2.2.3 English as a Medium of Instruction**

English as a medium of instruction (that applied in the context of Turkish higher education), also known as immersion education (in the North American context), a subject-led CLIL (Arkin, 2013) format of language in school, was initially developed according to some scholars (Edwards, 1994) in Quebec and to others (Genesee, 1992) in Montreal, Canada, in the 1960s and was actually designed to capitalize on young children's language learning abilities. It refers to an education system where children of an L1 learn the course content through an L2. The participants, both teachers and students are highly motivated, which is reflected as a positive attitude in the classroom (Edwards, 1994). In our context (tertiary level), it is the most extensively used approach and the case is likewise in Europe and Turkey (Coleman, 2006; Sert, 2008). As previously mentioned, the internationalization of higher education has created social-economic and educational mobility throughout Europe creating an incline in student exchange, a wider array of job opportunities, a more extensive access to current teaching and learning resources in English, and a higher availability of foreign academics to teach and prepare students for an English dominated academic and professional world (Airey, 2004; Coleman, 2006; Hellekjaer & Westergaard 2003; Wilkinson & Zegers, 2007). The underlying idea of EMI is teaching the subject content via a second language thus enabling "learners to acquire the target language while learning the content language" (Arkin, 2013). The claim is that total immersion in the target language "whilst being exposed to the content will coerce learners to utilize the language without devoting extra time to the language learning aspect" (p.54). However, even though "EMI can have affirmative

effects in early immersion” (p.55), the case may not be so in this study’s context where the level of learning is tertiary, and therefore the case is one of late immersion. Research purports that late immersion may produce negative outcomes with regards to the comprehension of subject matter due to the higher levels of conceptual knowledge at higher education levels (Airey, 2009). The claim corresponds with Cummins’ (2003) *Interdependence Theory*, namely that a well-established academic and language background in the L1 is a requisite for better academic performance in a second language. Accordingly, after maintaining a firm academic and language background, a learner would need at least another 6 years to achieve the content competency of the native learner of an L2. Hence, it would not be erroneous to argue that late-immersion as in the EMU case carries risks for the learners in an academic context.

To further the argument, despite the lack in scientific research in EMI (Kırkıcı, 2004; Sert 2008), certain studies conveying both positive and problematic perceptions were scrutinized. Sert (2008) and Coleman (2006) report that interest in English medium education, whether it is at European and Turkish secondary or higher education is unquestionably growing. Referring to the limited number of studies (Akunal, 1992; Kılıçkaya, 2006; Kırkgöz, 2004; Sert, 2008), most of which are on the perceptions and attitudes of students and academic staff, and to the most recent case study conducted by Arkin (2013), specifically on the affectivity of the implementation of EMI in vocational classroom, it is clear that associated problems are also surfacing. The general conception is that despite the growing interest in EMI, and despite the positive contributions it makes to the learner’s language development, the negativities in learning content through EMI far outweigh its benefits with

inadequate comprehension and limited success in the courses being the most significant drawbacks. Yet, further studies specifically referring to the North Cyprus context are essential for a more balanced and detailed evaluation of the utilization of EMI or CBI in the classroom.

Nevertheless, before continuing, it would also be noteworthy to project on the pedagogical limitations of immersion education, and reflect on the debate against this format with reference to ‘mother-tongue education’.

#### **2.2.4 The versus: Mother-Tongue**

The term ‘mother-tongue’ is normally used in Britain to refer to the first language acquired by children.

‘Mother-tongue education ...is widely considered to be valuable *for some purposes* for particular students. One argument is that ‘bilingual [immersion] education does not guarantee effective schooling...there is a naivety among those who support it...in that the use of two or more languages in the school curriculum automatically leads to a raising of standards, more effective outcomes...’ (Kaplan, 2002, p.235)

The issue that divides educators and policymakers is the question: in “what circumstances and for what purposes should mother-tongue education be encouraged by official policy” (Tollefson, 1991, p.47)? Cited in McKay, 1993 (p. 42) the report by The Department of Education and Science (Great Britain) (1975) argued that “in a linguistically conscious nation in the modern world, we should see it [the mother-tongue] as an asset, as something to be nurtured, and one of the agencies that should nurture it is the school. Certainly the school should adopt a positive attitude and ...should help to maintain and deepen their [pupils’] knowledge of their mother-tongues” (p.294). This ‘power’ in their mother-tongue will thus equip them to

function and survive effectively in their future life. “Because education plays such an important role ... mother-tongue education – or its denial – is one of the most important issues in language policy and language education” (Tollefson, 1991, p.43).

What is more, with the recent political structural changes in the world and especially Europe, while one would expect the power of English or for that matter even may be another language to be implemented at full force. Instead, “the Council of Europe rejected the idea of favouring one language as the intra-European medium of communication as early as 1954” (von Els et al, 1984, p.163-164). A solution was proposed by Schröder in 1973 in the Federal Republic of Germany whereby he offered “a workable solution for the linguistic problem within the European Community which respected national feelings at the same time”. Accordingly, “every European should learn to understand, speak, read and perhaps write at least one foreign language, and also acquire receptive skills in at least two other languages” (von Els, 1984, p.164). He clearly purported that every individual in the European community had the right and obligation to his/her native language yet was expected to develop him/herself personally through learning other languages. No language nor culture would empower another yet communication within the European community would continue effectively. In other words, some literary scholars are in favour of the continuation of the use of mother-tongue education in the classroom. However, as mentioned before, there is another side to the coin – immersion education.

### **2.2.5 Immersion – The Other Side of the Coin**

Immersion programs “capitalize on young children’s language learning abilities, relative unselfconsciousness and attitudinal openness, to attempt to emphasize from the first the communicative purpose of language...”(Edwards, 1994, p.196).

Edwards notes that two properties are fundamental in the success of immersion education:

1. it is a superior alternative, for language learning and cultural sensitivity
2. its existence as a voluntary exercise grows out of valuable commitment to the culture of multilingualism

Language is treated in school as a medium rather than as a subject. But even in these cases the success is likely to be short lived if it is not backed by bilingual contacts and exchanges in the community at large. Thus the success of language teaching is dependent upon major forces in society, such as the role, or perception, of languages in that society. ”(Stern, 1983, p.426). The choice of language also depends on sociological perspectives for the analysis of social context of language teaching and learning and for second/foreign language planning.

Immersion can be practised in the following ways (Davies, 1999):

- 1. Early total immersion:** (introduced in grade 2, 3, or 4) Students who share the same first L1 receive their literacy training in their L2 and throughout primary school, a substantial proportion of the subject matter is in the L2. Explicit instruction in the L2 is usually confined to the ‘language arts’ classes. Outside the language arts classes, teachers tend to focus their attention on how well students are learning course content (e.g. mathematics or science) and overlook gaps or errors in students’ use of the L2. Immersion students’ L1 has an important role in the larger community and is often

present in the social interaction and administration of the school, for example in communication between parents and teachers.

2. **Middle/delayed immersion:** (middle elementary grades-usually grade 4, age 9, 10, 11)
3. **Late immersion:** (first one or two years of high school, age 12-16) It can be practised in all regular curriculum instruction. Students have often had short periods of second/foreign language instruction in the elementary grades but all other curriculum instruction is in L1. When L1 and L2 are used during the same instructional year, they are never used to teach the same subjects.
4. **(Partial immersion)** Only 50% of the curriculum instruction is in L2.

Immersion programs were not developed for use with populations in which the learners had limited or no proficiency of the L2. The effectiveness of immersion education in such populations is still undetermined (Genesee, 1992). Yet the factors influencing the effectiveness of immersion programs with learners from specific minority groups can be summarised as follows:

#### **2.2.6 Factors Affecting Immersion**

Factors affecting immersion, also worth mentioning, can be summed up as follows (Davies, 1991):

**Choice of language and on what basis:** Dependent on governmental planning and policy

**Optimum age:** The question is whether it is effective for learners of different ages and requires consideration of the critical age period (between birth and puberty). The issue needs investigation at three levels:



1. long term success of L2 learning at different ages,
2. differences between natural and school context,
3. teaching methods, teachers' competence and time, which are irrelevant to biological constraints.

Age affects the decision making process when it refers to time of introduction to L2 or when the setting of objectives for learners of different age should be made. Studies (Bailey et al. 1974, Fathman, 1975, Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle, 1978 quoted in Ellis, 1985) suggest that, other things being equal, older students attain the same or higher levels of proficiency in an L2 given the same exposure to the language. The apparent advantage may be due to greater cognitive maturity, motivation, or positive transfer. Overall, immersion can be effective at different ages and contrary to widespread belief CAN be as effective with older learners (Davies, 1991).

**Intelligence:** There is ample evidence that immersion learning is best suitable for middle class children with average to above average levels of academic ability from majority group backgrounds who speak standard L1. The question arises as to whether children with below average intelligence or general ability will be impaired in their L1 development or their academic achievement if they participate in immersion programs (Davies, 1991).

**First language ability:** A known fact is that children with delayed or incomplete L1 development often do poorly in school. Therefore it would be expected to see such children do even more poorly in immersion programs where they are expected to use an unknown language as a medium of instruction. Yet studies prove that “children

who are at risk by virtue of their first language ability are able to achieve at the same rate and to the same extent in immersion programs as similar children in programs in which the first language is the medium of instruction” (Davies, 1991).

**Socio-economic status:** A common finding in immersion programs portrays that comparable groups of learners from ‘working class’ immersion programs score lower on English tests than the ‘working class non-immersion programs learners. Once L1 is introduced the two groups score more or less the same. The results are quite similar with ‘middle class’ students. Taking all study results together, the acquisition of interpersonal communication skills of a non-academic nature does not depend on individual differences in social class whereas the acquisition of literacy skills in L2 does. It was also found that, in comparison with more socially advantaged students in immersion, the working class students were not disadvantaged when it came to acquiring listening and speaking skills in L2 (Davies, 1991).

**Ethnic-group status:** Immersion programs are mainly constructed to provide majority group L1 speakers with an effective means of attaining full proficiency in an L2. Another aim is to promote, develop and maintain proficiency in languages of the ethno-linguistic heritage of the learners (Davies, 1991).

**Social (Environmental) Factors:** The social aspect of language considers environmental factors such as the characteristics of the new language to be learnt in comparison with the language of origin, socio-cultural factors affecting motivation such as social status of L1

and L2, the instrumental and cultural values of L2, political factors and social opportunities for contact (Stern, 1983).

The rationale behind immersion is that “second/foreign language learning proceeds more effectively if the target language is used for authentic and meaningful communication rather than being taught as a separate school subject with none or reduced communicative value” (Genesee, 1992, p.199).

‘Students in immersion learn the academic content specified in the school curriculum *and* develop significant levels of foreign language proficiency. In foreign language programs the emphasis on proficiency has underscored the importance of meaningful and purposeful language use. What can be more meaningful and purposeful than to use language in a school setting for those tasks that are inherent in the nature of the schooling? (Met, 1991, p.282)

Yet some researchers have found that there are limitations to L2 learning through subject matter teaching alone and have suggested that more direct L2 instruction needs to complement the subject matter teaching (Harley, 1989; Lyster, 1994; Swain, 1988). This implies that formal L2 instruction should continue at full speed along with English-medium subject instruction. It also means that students who are faced with the complexities of two unknowns face difficulties coping simultaneously with both of them. Thus “teachers faced with teaching subject matter through a second language have the double challenge of making the subject matter comprehensible and enhancing knowledge of the second language itself” (Spada & Lightbown, 2002, p.213). In other words, it can be stated that immersion education should be considered and dealt with as the integration of ‘content-based instruction’ and language teaching.

### **2.2.7 Content Based Instruction (CBI)**

Content-based instruction(CBI) refers to the integration of school or academic content with language-teaching objectives...A primary advantage of CBI ...is that using subject matter as the content for language learning maximizes learners' exposure to the second language...and repeated use of new language ensures on-going mental elaboration and practice, increasing its availability for new encounters and long term retention (Kaplan, 2002, p.230).

In other words, language teachers attempt to convey content through a medium of instruction which is not the first language of the participants with the expectation that students will be eventually better prepared for their academic studies (Demirdirek, Ozgirin & Salataci 2010). Garner and Borg (2005) also underline the effectiveness of CBI in especially preparing students for study in English-medium universities (p.119). They argue that CBI “is holistic and reflects the dynamic nature of real-world use...and...it allows students to engage with texts and spoken language so as to develop their abilities both linguistically and intellectually” (p.131-132) Actually, “language learned through content has the further advantage of allowing an integration with higher order thinking tasks, so that students may communicate about thoughts, not just words” (Met, 1991, p. 282). It is in fact considered a ‘strong’ form of communicative language teaching. Immersion education studies suggest that curriculum achievement is increased through such education. However ensuring the necessary conditions for a successful curriculum may in itself create a challenge to both the learner and the teacher.

Kaplan (2002) exemplifies some of these challenges as; the dilemma of content knowledge and required language proficiency, an understanding of foreign societal traits in 'authentic' texts, an orientation into a new culture, and adaptation of language input to accommodate learners' limited language proficiency. Naturally, this strong form of CBI has its own 'weaker' and 'stronger' forms.

While the aim of the weaker forms is to increase the learners' proficiency through subject matter, the stronger form, as in the North Cyprus EMU context, targets "language sensitive content courses for L2 speakers in which the primary goal is the mastery of the subject matter" (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989, cited in Kaplan 2002). Actually, there is also a format termed 'sheltered' which refers to second language learners, learning course content through a language medium such as those in foreign language immersion programs in which the school curriculum is taught through the particular foreign language. What is imperative to all CBI programmes is the balance the teacher will establish between the course content and the language depth. Kong (2009) refers to this balance in her study and concludes that teachers need "to be aware of language form-function relationships" (p. 233) so as to ensure "a strong foundation for advancing both content and language learning" (p.233).

In short, the discussion continues challenging both the teacher and the learner in the immersion education classroom practising context based instruction. Whether the classroom should entail mother-tongue versus English medium education or the emphasis should be on learner's proficiency through subject matter versus use of L2 for the mastery of the subject matter are issues that still need to be researched. Adding to the literature through research findings is the only way to shed light to this controversial issue.

### **2.2.8 Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)**

The last decade has presented the EFL environment with yet another approach in immersion education, that being Content and Language Integrated Learning. Lorenzo, Casal and Moore (2009) refer to it as “the renaissance of European educational bilingualism under the contemporary banner of CLIL” (p. 435). Coined in 1996 by David Marsh and adopted by the European Network of Administrators, Researchers and Practitioners (EUROCLIC) the same year, CLIL was further promoted by Do Coyle in 2008. Marsh (2002) defined CLIL as

an umbrella term which refers to a dual focussed educational context in which an additional language, thus not usually the first foreign language of the learners involved, is used as a medium in the teaching and learning of non-language content.

(Lasagabaster & Sierra 2009, p.368)

According to this definition, CLIL can be differentiated “from bilingual or immersion education and a host of alternatives and variations” (Lasagabaster & Sierra 2009, p.368). Because it places “both language and non-language content on a form of continuum, without implying preference for one or the other” it has been considered the perfect approach for those who “were interested in the method from the point of view of either language development, or non-language subject development, or both (Marsh; 2002, p. 163). After its official adoption by EUROCLIC, CLIL rapidly became “an established teaching approach” (Perez-Cañado, 2011, p.2) across Europe covering levels from kindergarten to tertiary and ranges from “occasional foreign-language texts in individual subjects to covering the whole curriculum” (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p.2).

Yet, opposing views do not fail to exist. Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) refer to the European Commission's study entitled *Content and language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at School in Europe* and stress that this particular study "considered immersion programmes as being the historical precursor of CLIL programmes" (Lasagabaster & Sierra 2009, p.368). In other words it can be "understood that not only CLIL and immersion are equivalent terms but also that CLIL embraces immersion programmes" (Lasagabaster & Sierra 2009, p.369). According to Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009), there are 5 psycholinguistic and methodological elements that are common in both programmes. These are 1. proficiency in both the native language and the second language, 2. the novelty of the language which is used as the medium of education, 3. the parents' approval and support, 4. the implementation through bilingual staff, and 5. the creation and existence of motivating environments.

However, the differences must also be accentuated. Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) summarize the differences as follows: Firstly, the languages used in CLIL are not locally spoken languages and many of the students only have contact with them in formal instruction contexts. Secondly teachers are not native speakers of the medium of instruction. Thirdly, the starting age is much higher than the early immersion type and students are mostly at the secondary education stage. The fourth difference is the teaching materials used in the programme. "While 'the materials' used in immersion programmes are aimed at native speakers, ...CLIL teachers often use abridged materials". " (p.371). Yet, what needs to be stressed here is the fact that "the materials used in CLIL programmes are not the same as those used to teach a subject in an English speaking country, as CLIL on many occasions requires a

pedagogical adaptation, especially in the initial stages” (Lasagabaster and Sierra 2009, p.372). The difference in the goal, in other words, the language objective of the two programmes is the fifth distinction that needs to be noted. Accordingly immersion programmes aim towards L2 proficiency while CLIL programmes aspire towards C1/C2 at most at the end of post-secondary education. The sixth difference is related to the participants societal background. Immigrant students have been the participants of immersion programmes whereas CLIL programmes are for students who speak the first language of the area fluently. Finally, the last difference is the fact that CLIL is still experimental while immersion programmes have been implemented for at least two decades (Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009).

Yet despite all of the above differences CLIL is claimed to be “gaining new ground for L2 teaching in compulsory education” (Lorenzo, 2007, p. 502).

European educational systems have clearly sympathised with this new approach. The European CLIL movement, after all, an offshoot of immersion education, rests upon the overall concept that L2s should be used as tools in the learning of non-language subjects, in such a way that both the language and the subject have a joint curricular role. (Marsh, 2002 cited in Lorenzo, 2007, p. 503)

CLIL “involves teaching a curricular subject through the medium of a language other than that normally used. The subject can be entirely unrelated to language learning...CLIL is taking place and has been found to be effective in all sectors of education from primary through to adult and higher education. Its success has been growing over the past 10 years and continues to do so” (<http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages/language-teaching>). It is considered the “new European approach to education” (Dafouz & Guerrini 2009, p.182) and



embraces “all scenarios and whatever combination of regional heritage, minority, immigrant and/or foreign languages they involve; providing for a highly diversified language curriculum” (Lorenzo, Casal & Moore 2009, p.419). Accordingly, CLIL is a multifaceted approach and is identified as a priority area in the EU Action plan for Language Learning. One example which was implemented over 4 years and was launched by the Andalusian (the region extending across the whole of Southern Spain) government was the Plurilingualism Promotion Plan whose “ultimate aim is to engender a radical shift from social monolingualism to multilingualism through education, under the European ethos that Europe will be multilingual or Europe will not be...As it is...in Andalusia, possibilities for extra-mural exposure to and use of educational L2s are scarce and this reinforces the need for multilingualism through schooling” (Lorenzo, Casal & Moore 2009, p.419). Such being the case, a CLIL lesson is defined as one which is in fact “not a language lesson neither is it a subject lesson transmitted in a foreign language...” It combines four elements “Content, Communication, Cognition, and Culture” where all four language skills, namely reading, writing, listening and speaking should be combined. In short, CLIL “aims to guide language processing and support language production in the same way as ELT teaching strategies for reading and listening and structures and lexis for spoken or written language. What is different is that the language teacher is also the subject teacher, or that the subject teacher is also able to exploit opportunities for developing language skills” (Darn, [www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/clil-a-lesson-framework](http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/clil-a-lesson-framework)).

Moreover, based on research in both mathematical studies and social sciences, supporters of CLIL Jappinen 2005; Seikkula-Leino 2007; Van de Craen et al. 2007;

Seikula-Leino 2007; Stohler2006; Vollmer 2008 cited in Lorenzo, Casal & Moore 2009, p.420) have in fact concluded that “CLIL may hold the potential for positive cognitive gains ...and ...that not only do [they] demonstrate increased L2 proficiencies but that their L1 also appears to benefit from the bilingual experience” (Lorenzo, Casal & Moore 2009, p.420). Bollen and Baten (2010), who refer to CLIL and bilingual education (BE) interchangeably, also refer to the results of a study conducted in Brussels in 2001 and cite Van de Craen et al. (2005) with regards to his study in which he states that the evaluation results were encouraging: “Not only did BE boost children’s school performance, but it also stimulated their capacity for abstract thinking and their cognitive thinking” (p.17). In another study, Moore and Dooly (2010) also maintain a similar stance stating that their data revealed “that participants’ plurilingual repertoires can act as a resource in classroom interaction, creating a favourable framework for performing a range of activities that would seem to enrich the collective learning process” (p.58) and that their analysis suggests that “using several languages in the same communicative event causes no problems for the participants” (p.77).

Finally, Lorenzo (2007) recapitulates the definition of CLIL stating that:

The CLIL approach, akin if somewhat different to immersion or mainstream bilingual education programmes, has to satisfy two basic requisites of bilingual teaching in any situation; matching both curricular agendas in such a way that the L2 can be integrated within the subject matter content and consistently holding said dual focus in the classroom. Such a requisite for CLIL success may be even more necessary in many European contexts where the language of instruction has, whatever its status, little if any presence out of the classroom. (p.503)

In light of this statement, all throughout these years without it actually being entitled as such, the application in the ELT departments of the 5 universities involved in this

study seem to have been content and language integrated learning and for that matter, teaching as well.

### **2.2.9 Language Teaching in the Turkish Cypriot Context**

Bennett's (1968) rightful statement that the "objectives of language teaching are many and varied brings the discussion to the other party involved in the language classroom" (p.69). He summarizes the contexts of conducting a foreign language course at three levels; 1) the primary, where the learners' main interest lies in the pleasant circumstances and activities, 2) the non-examination class of the secondary school, where the purposes may be similar to the primary but the method of teaching may eventually resemble the examination classes and in effect is likely to lead to an examination, and finally, 3) the adult education level where the prospects are more varied and the learners can have a range of aspirations, from examinations to use in a profession. Since this study entails the higher education levels in North Cyprus, the following sections will be directly geared toward the level mentioned last, and discussions will be developed accordingly.

The fact that university ELT students in the North Cyprus context are studying to become EFL teachers through the medium of English puts an obligation on the classroom instructor to focus on the several needs of the students; the prospective teachers. The subjects of this study all have a clear purpose in mind and are supposedly using the foreign language as a means toward their professional end. It is therefore of utmost necessity that the *needs* of the students be properly and correctly identified and defined so that an *educational policy* can be established which should in turn reflect itself on accurate *planning* which will support the students in achieving their *aims and objectives*.

“It is important to define the adult learner’s needs on the basis of a full job description” (Bennett, 1968, p.70). The needs of the students in the ELT university context are actually at two levels: the language level and the academic level. While they need to learn and master English as a language per se so as to be able to successfully function in their future profession as language teachers, they also require it in order to comprehend the subject matter in their academics. Therefore, the policies involved toward the teaching of these students should cater to the specific requirements. Factors determining these policies have been summarized by von Els et al (1984) as 1. *Language policy factors* which refers to the political situation in a country and its outcomes, 2. *Psychological factors* which involves decisions related to starting age, number and level of complexity of foreign languages to be learned, 3. *Linguistic factors* (also linked to psychological factors) referring to language distance and, finally 4. *Educational factors* raising the issue of time limitations and constraints on the national schooling system and the necessary physical provisions such as suitable teaching materials, suitable curriculum and adequately trained teachers.

While all of these factors are important and should be considered by the administrators setting the policies, teachers are involved mainly in the educational factors since they are also constituents of the classroom being directly affected by the interplay of the multiple variables in the classroom context.

### **2.3 Testing**

The third pillar of the current study is the area of testing which scholars maintain that “is an important part of every teaching and learning experience” (Madsen, 1983, p.3) and this being the case, it obviously can neither be underestimated nor ignored.

Shohamy (2000) displays the interrelation by stating that “they [language testing and second language acquisition] share similar goals of understanding the process of language learning, assessing it and looking for ways to improve it. It is, therefore, expected that the two disciplines would interact, share and contribute to one other” (p.542). Carroll (1968) clarifies the word test as “a psychological or educational test is a procedure designed to elicit certain behaviour from which one can make inferences about certain characteristics of an individual” (p. 46 cited in Bachman, 1990, p.20). “Language testing almost never takes place in isolation” and “...is done for a particular purpose and in a specific context” (Bachman, 1990, p.2). Consequently,

there is an intrinsic reciprocal relationship between research in language acquisition and developments in language teaching on the one hand, and language testing on the other. That is, language testing both serves and is served by research in language acquisition and language teaching.

(Upshur, 1971 cited in Bachman, 1990, p.2)

Bachman (1990) also puts forth his views on the issue of testing stating;

Tests are often used for pedagogical purposes, either as a means of motivating students to study, or as a means of reviewing material taught, in which case no evaluative decision is made on the basis of the test results. Tests may also be used for purely descriptive purposes. It is only when the results of tests are used as a basis for making a decision that evaluation is involved. (p.22)

In other words, in reference to the sections discussed previously, namely, language learning and teaching, it can be contended that testing can be used for numerous purposes such as providing information regarding the efficacy of the learning and teaching within the classroom context and evaluating general and individual learner progress. It is important however, to distinguish between *evaluation* and *testing* which are quite often used interchangeably and to clarify their connection to and with

measurement. Bachman (1990) describes the relationship among the three notions as that of three separate entities where *evaluation* and *measurement* function separately from each other yet *do* have some common ground where their aims and tasks overlap. *Tests*, on the other hand, are only a subset of *measurement*, and are evaluative in some instances. What is more, Bachman makes an additional distinction among *measurement*, *tests* and *evaluation*. Accordingly, evaluation can in some cases not involve tests or measurements, *qualitative descriptions* being a relevant example. One aspect of *evaluation* is the collection of reliable and relevant information which need not be, exclusively quantitative. In other words, “evaluation, therefore does not necessarily entail testing” and “by the same token, tests in and of themselves are not evaluative” (p.22).

*A non-test measure* for evaluation is a teacher ranking used for assigning grades, while an example of a *test* used for purposes of evaluation is the use of an achievement test to determine student progress. The most common non-evaluative uses of tests and measures are for research purposes’ such as ‘the use of a proficiency test as a criterion in SLA research. Finally, assigning code numbers to subjects in second language research...is an example of a *non-test measure* that is not used for evaluation. In summary then, not all measures are tests, not all tests are evaluative, and not all evaluation involves either measurement or tests.

With the above clarification in mind, it is clear that this study will entail all five of the *test* and *non-test measures*. As a final note, all things considered, testing can be utilized to benefit both the learner and the teacher and the following short overview sheds light on these aspects.

### **2.3.1 Testing and Students**

Madsen (1983) discusses two outcomes of tests with regards to students; one being the fact that students “can create a positive attitude toward their class” (p.4) through

positive classroom experiences in which they feel they have actually accomplished something. The second is the fact that tests promote learning and mastery of the language. “In short, properly made English tests can help create *positive attitudes* toward instruction by giving students a sense of accomplishment...Good English tests also *help students learn the language* by requiring them to study hard, emphasizing course objectives, and showing them where they need to improve” (Madsen, 1983, p.4-5). Keeping these principles in focus, the test administered in this study and the format of administration, which will be scrutinized in the following chapter, was ensured to adhere to linguistically acceptable format, level and design.

### **2.3.2 Testing and Teachers**

Teachers are “accountable for the results of [their] instruction” (Madsen 1983, p.5) and thus they use tests to self-evaluate their teaching efficacy by reflecting on the work already completed and the results obtained related to it, as well as planning ahead on the necessary revisions regarding variables such as length, level, intensity and materials (Madsen, 1983).

Bachman (1990) summarizes the importance of testing for teachers under six headings; 1. being a source of information on the effectiveness of both learning and teaching, 2. diagnosing students strengths and weaknesses, 3. assessing students’ progress, 4. evaluating students’ achievements, 5. evaluating the effectiveness of different approaches, and finally 6. designing and developing more useful tests hence concluding that “language tests can thus provide useful input into the process of language teaching” (p. 2-3). He concludes by rightfully stating that:

advances in language testing do not take place in a vacuum; they are stimulated by advances in our understanding of the processes of language acquisition and language teaching. And developments in language testing can

provide both practical tools and theoretical insights for further research and development in language acquisition and language teaching. (Bachman, 1990, p. 3)

Having thus summarized the value of tests for both parties involved, i.e. the learner and the teacher, an overview on the qualities of a good test, the types of tests and the test techniques involved would be appropriate at this stage.

### **2.3.3 Qualities of a Good Test**

Tests carry vital significance in the field of second language teaching and acquisition and thus should portray qualities that will maintain and secure this importance. As it is, “provision for evaluation should be an integral part of the English curriculum. Indeed, criteria and measures for judging its efficacy should be built into the program from the very outset” (Finocchiaro, 1986, p.162). Considering that “language testing almost never takes place in isolation” and “it is done for a particular purpose and in a specific context” (Bachman, 1990, p. 2) magnifies the value of tests and consequently the necessary qualities that can be assigned to a ‘good’ test. Scholars distinguish certain criteria that are to be met by tests so as to be qualified in the positive sense, the three most important characteristics being validity, reliability and practicality.

“The validity of a test is the extent to which the test measures what it is intended to measure” (Harrison, 1983, p. 11) and “a test is said to be valid if it measures accurately what it is intended to measure” (Hughes, 1989, p. 22). Validity, in turn, entails different aspects that need to be attained. Face and Content validity are a good starting point as they are both very straightforward in their definitions and are not of intricate technical detail. To clarify, a test with face validity can be defined as one which “looks valid to the examinees who take it” (Weir, 1988, p.26) and “is



concerned with what teachers and students think of the test” (Harrison, 1983, p.11). Yet, Weir (1988) purports that face validity is non-technical and need not be discussed in elaboration.

Content validity of a test is ensured when the sample of activities included in a test is a representative of the target domain (Weir, 1988). That is to say, a test with content validity “constitutes a representative sample of the language skills, structures, etc. with which it is meant to be concerned” and “a test would have content validity only if it included a proper sample of the relevant structures” (Hughes, 1989, p. 22). Obviously, the greater a test’s content validity, the higher the likelihood that it measures accurately. Yet, content validity seems to overlap with face validity and thus, considering the statement that less elaborative discussion will suffice for the former, the analysis of the latter as well is brought to an end.

Yet, a test is not achieving its main aim if it is not measuring what is intended to measure. Construct validity is the term that refers to exactly this aspect. A test “is said to have construct validity if it can be demonstrated that it measures just the ability which it is supposed to measure (Hughes, 1989, p.26). In other words, the ‘construct’ of the test should be based on the a priori learning activities and tasks the learner has experienced. Bachman (1990) explains that “construct validity concerns the extent to which performance on test is consistent with predictions that we make on the basis of a theory of abilities, or constructs...” and most importantly “construct validity has come to be recognised by the measurement profession as central to the appropriate interpretation of test scores, and provides the basis for the view of validity as a unitary concept” (p.255).

The following step is the discussion of the predictive validity of a test, which can concisely be defined as “how well test scores predict some future behaviour” (Bachman, 1990, p. 250). In order to evaluate the predictive validity of test scores, data which reflects a connection between the test scores and the course performance is collected. Namely, the correlation between scores and performance is evaluated and the result is used as a reflection into future results. Once again, a test with predictive validity needs to be well designed and focused.

Another characteristic of a test is “its reliability, which is its consistency” (Harrison 1983, p.10). Consistency of scoring, internal consistency between and among relevant sub-tests, and parallelism of forms between tests are the three aspects that need to be considered when referring to the reliability of a test (Harrison 1983, Weir 1990). What needs to be accentuated is the fact that “one can have test reliability without test validity... yet... a test can only be valid if it is also reliable” (Weir 1990, p.33). Thus it is important to ensure both the reliability and the validity of a test by overcoming this tension through well and tightly designed tests.

Finally, a test needs to be practical for both the administrators and the test-takers. A practical test is one which is easily administered, economical and easily interpreted (Harrison 1983, Weir 1990).

### **2.3.4 Types of Tests**

Tests can be placed into four categories: Placement tests, diagnostic tests, achievement tests and proficiency tests. Of these, the first category, namely *placement tests* aim at evaluating the students’ general language ability and placing the student on a scale in comparison to other students (Harrison 1983). *Diagnostic tests* refer back to classwork with the aim to encourage students with success.

Therefore the content of the test is mostly familiar and it is not intended to form a measuring battery (Harrison 1983). Quizzes in class may be an example for diagnostic tests. As for *achievement tests*, they are especially prepared for students and the results are “treated as a qualification which has a particular value in relation to the results of other students. It involves more detailed preparation and covers a wider range of material...” (Harrison 1983, p.64). Finally, *proficiency tests* encompass two main characteristics; “they relate to the applications of what have been learnt...and they are based on a specification of the language that is going to be needed in the applications” (Harrison 1983, p.91).

As for test techniques, different test techniques are used in measuring different skills. Since the current study measures the participants’ reading and writing skills, only the test techniques for these two skills will be mentioned. The main test techniques for measuring reading can be listed as multiple choice questions, short answer questions, cloze tests, selective deletion gap filling, C-tests, cloze-elide, and information transfer. As for writing, essay tests and controlled writing tasks are the two ways for assessment (Weir, 1990).

Since the present study involved a multiple choice test, a short elaboration of this test will provide insight to the reader as to why the researcher has opted to use this type of test. First of all, the marking process is objective as the marker cannot exercise judgement (Weir 1990, p.43). What is more, this type of test has practicality as it can be easily and quickly evaluated. In short, the pros for the test maker are that, there is complete marker reliability, speed and simplicity in the marking and thus also cost-effective. On the other hand, the advantages for the test-taker are that they “know what is required of them and there is no ambiguity. Handwriting does not

jeopardize the results either” (Weir 1990, p.43). Yet there are certain drawbacks to the multiple choice test. An incorrect answer may be due to a faulty question, lack of comprehension of the text or lack of comprehension of the question and there is no way of knowing the reason. What is more guessing may also allow the student to gain higher scores. And answering multiple choice questions may not be a valid way to measure language skills as “in real life one is rarely presented with four alternatives” (Weir 1990, p.44).

The study also incorporated two writing tests; an L1 writing test and an English writing test. Both of these tests were essay tests. Writing tests were incorporated into the study so as to ensure both the validity and the reliability of the results reflecting the participants’ language skills. Especially when the drawbacks of the multiple choice test explained in the previous section are taken into account, it is only logical to test a candidate’s ability to perform certain functional tasks in a target situation. From the examiner’s point of view, the advantages of testing writing are that it requires the student to develop an extended argument in a logical manner and it can provide a tangible point of reference for comparison in the future. Yet it certainly has its disadvantages, in that, ‘open-ended writing’ is “dependent on a candidate’s socio-cultural-economic-educational background. What is more, the candidate may be reluctant to answer or uninterested in the topic. Finally, time also poses as a constraint” (Weir 1990, p.61).

## **2.4 Summary**

This chapter has defined and reviewed both the theoretical frameworks and the most relevant research and sources related to the present study. Controversial or paradoxical issues have been tackled and relevant literature and sources have been

analyzed exhaustively. Accordingly, the review tackled issues in three key areas: namely 1) *the scope of language worldwide and its socio-political and cultural aspects in education*, 2) *the teaching and learning of English and the outcomes of English medium instruction* and 3) *testing*. The first part focused on the social and political issues related to language learning and teaching specifically scrutinizing the social and individual factors involved in the enhancement of English throughout the world as well as a definition of the different types of English medium instruction in reference to its globalization effects, the world Englishes notion and language imperialism. In the second part, the distinction between language learning and acquisition as well as the historical background of English throughout the world and in Cyprus, and the theoretical justification of and reflections on the English medium instruction policy in Cyprus are tackled. Finally, in the third part, an overview on testing, its place in teaching and learning, its applications and the pertinent concepts were defined.

## Chapter 3

### METHODOLOGY

This chapter introduces the research design of the present study and considers research questions and methods implemented to analyse and evaluate the linguistic proficiency and improvement of the on-going ELT Semester 1 and 2 students at the 5 Turkish Cypriot state-trust/private universities, namely, Eastern Mediterranean University (state-trust), Near East University, Cyprus International University, The American University and the European University of Lefke (state-trust). The intention is to conduct a case study involving Eastern Mediterranean University to define the ELT Year 1 students' language development over a time interval and to further use the data to compare, correlate and assess the L1 and English linguistic skills among the Year 1 ELT students of the previously named four universities with reference to their educational, and socio-economic-cultural background. Accordingly, the research questions of the study are:

1. Does the exposure to English in professional and language related courses over a specific period of time positively reinforce students' linguistic competency in language development thus leading to a significant difference in their language development?
2. Does the students' performance in their ELTE course predict their development in L2 proficiency?

3. Is there a difference in the development of linguistic competency with regards to genders after being exposed to English in professional and language related courses over a specific period of time?
4. Is there a significant difference between students' L1 and English competencies?
5. Is there a correlation between students' L1 and L2 writing skills?
6. Is there a correlation between students' language competency and socio-economic and socio-cultural background?
7. Is there a significant difference among the language competency of Year 1 ELT students of the 5 universities?

Participants were selected from the Semester 1 Listening and Pronunciation (ELTE 106) class ELT students of the five universities. The multiple choice test, the English and Turkish writing activities, the questionnaires and the pilot testing are all presented in the instrumentation section. Description of data collection procedures and the data analysis conclude the chapter.

### **3.1 Research Design**

The present study develops on two grounds; an incorporated case study; the EMU context, and the overall 5 universities. The first framework is an exploratory case study which adopts a semi-longitudinal, process-oriented, correlational method (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, Patten, 2004) based on results obtained via pre-test/post-test design. It employs a piloted and recognised test battery (The Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency-MTELP) along with a personal questionnaire which provides the quantitative data to be used for evaluative purposes. Considering the design of this study, its construct validity is of utmost importance as the researcher

has mainly based her data collection and the related continual and comparative assessment on the measurements and scores she obtained from the renowned aforementioned test popular with its validity and reliability. Thus she has attempted to ensure the empirical validation of the research.

The reason for opting an exploratory case study is that it aims to lay the groundwork for future studies by basing the study on currently existing theories so that it may produce new theories, perceptions and suggestions related to language learning (Duff, 2008). Such research may help the researcher's need for better understanding, may test the feasibility of a more extensive study, or determine the best methods to be used in a subsequent study (<http://isites.harvard.edu/fs/docs>). Furthermore, Duff (2008) cites Gall, Gall and Borg (2003) when referring to a case study research as a study which investigates the case of a phenomenon in its regular setting. That is, a case study describes and analyses "a class, a school, a community" (Merriam, 1998 cited in Arkin, 2013 p.67). Flybjerg (2011, p.420) elaborates further by citing Abercrombie et al. (1984, p.34) who maintains that a case study 'is useful in the preliminary stages of an investigation since it provides hypotheses, which may be tested with a larger number of cases'. Flybjerg also states that not connecting the case with theories related to one academic specialisation, in other words, associating the study to "broader philosophical positions" (p.430) provides readers from diverse backgrounds the flexibility to draw wider and more contextual conclusions. That is to say, with the case study method, "the goal is to allow the study to be different things to different people" (p.430), which maintains the stance that it "can certainly contribute to the cumulative development of knowledge" (p.432). In his comprehensive evaluation of case studies, Goodrick (2014) stresses the fact that



“depending on the purpose of a particular study, it may be better to purposively select a small number of cases or cluster cases” (p.8). Research displays numerous samples of case studies with relatively few participants. For instance, Hirvela (2010) refers to a fellow researcher, Leki (2007), who investigates the English writing abilities of 4 university students over a period of 5 years. Bergström conducts a study with only two learners in an immersion class, while Camiciottoli (2010) reflects on a pilot study with Erasmus business students studying through English medium instruction on their exchange programme, where only 15 of the 22 students completed the assigned tasks. Barwell (2005), on the other hand, worked with 10 young learners (9-10 year-olds) over a period of three years during which the pupils were expected to participate in a mathematics class via English as an additional language. Finally, Nieminen (2006) prepares a development project report for Jyväskylä University, Teacher Education College, comparing of “learning foreign languages” and “learning with foreign languages” based on her case study involving only 2 participants, one being herself. In light of the aforementioned definitions and published research, the current exploratory case study also involves a relatively small group of students. At this point however, it is pertinent to also mention similar studies in the discipline. Indeed, Duff (2008, cited in Arkin, 2013) cautions researchers about the necessity to state ‘the relationship between study and other published research’ (p.68). Regarding this, in her study, Sert (2008) points out the necessity for further exhaustive case studies on English medium instruction in the Turkish tertiary education context. Airey and Thøgersen (2011), Airey and Linder (2007), Neville-Barton and Barton (2005), and Arkin (2013) all approach the issue of English medium instruction at tertiary level, yet at slightly differing angles ranging from the procedure of learning a vocational content, to the effects of such education

on instructors' speech speed and style, and finally to its impact on students learning of the disciplinary content. Overall, the aforementioned studies, find common ground affirming that further in-depth research is of necessity. Coskun & Daloğlu (2010), Erozan (2005), Hismaoglu (2013), Dollar, Tolu & Doyran (2014), Yavuz & Topkaya (2013), Uzun (2015) have conducted studies on ELT departments in the recent years evaluating the English Language Teacher Education Programmes from varying standpoints, yet it must be noted that literature did not reveal any studies specifically on the English language development or English language level of ELT students.

Presented through quantitative results, the concurrently conducted study involves a casual-comparative method with a non-equivalent control group design including the ELT Year 1 learners of the five universities in North Cyprus.

The study is concerned with different types of quantitative data collection methods. Learners' language development was measured via assessment and then enumerated and correlated and the Statistics Programme for Social Sciences, SPSS 12. In the meantime, the participants' personal background information was matched and evaluated against their performance. Information regarding the participants' background was collected via the questionnaire which included questions scrutinizing issues such as their family's financial status, their parents' education level, their pre-university education experience, and their core family size. Answers were numerated from 1 to 5 with higher values being assigned to answers connoting data related to higher status or societal structure. Thus a student with no sibling, with private secondary schooling, with university-graduate parents, and coming from a high income family received 5 points for each of the mentioned criterion. All of the

results were reflected in charts and tables. Thus, the study obtains different quantitative interpretative data. In other words, the study employs ‘within method’ data triangulation (Denzin, 1970) in that instrumentation includes focused questionnaires and tests administered as multiple choice and discursive writings in both English and Turkish. In the case study instance specifically, the data are collected at different time instances so as to obtain a valid picture of the language development level of the participants under consideration. The study focuses on the analysis and evaluation of the results.

This research is designed to examine the English language development of ELT Year 1 students at EMU and the overall language level of the ELT Year 1 students at the 5 universities in Cyprus. However, it must be noted that the number of universities in Cyprus increased considerably after the study was conducted and has now reached a total of 14 with 2 of them maintaining their ‘state-trust university’ status. Thus the results of the data collection are a reflection of the 5 universities involved during a specific time frame, and therefore, cannot be attributed to all of the current universities in North Cyprus. The study further aims at examining the effect of the use of L2 in general and determining skills development specifically in the English medium ELT classroom. Keeping the aims of the study in perspective, the language related courses used in the study were the Listening and Pronunciation courses, and the professional courses were Approaches in ELT, both of which are defined in the following section.

### **3.2 Context**

The research was carried out during a certain time frame, in the two state-trust universities, Eastern Mediterranean University and European University of Lefke

(EMU and EUL), and the three private universities, Cyprus International University, American University, and Near East University (CIU, GAU, and NEU) in North Cyprus. Drawing students from all 5 of the universities made the study adequately diverse to signify a representative sample. The exclusion of the remaining 11 universities currently present in North Cyprus is due to their establishment after the data collection.

The participants were specifically chosen from the ELTE 106 Listening and Pronunciation context due to two main reasons; firstly, these groups displayed a more homogenous structure in the students' language background and secondly the students displayed active involvement in these courses since the courses were listening and pronunciation courses. A homogenous group was chosen in light of pedagogy. According to Heltemes (2009), the major advantage of within-class homogeneity is the increased group cohesiveness at all ability levels, yet it is generally "exclusive to average and high ability students" (p.17). Furthering the discussion, she clarifies that average-ability students tend to thrive in homogeneous groups in view of the fact that they work well collaboratively when dealing with details. Indeed, group cohesiveness is an imperative component towards academic achievement within a group due to the fact that 'students share the same standards, goals and expectations (Lou, Abrami, Spence, Poulsen, Chambers & d'Apollonia, 1996; Robinson, 2008 cited in Heltemes 2009).

As English medium universities, all 5 universities administer in-house English proficiency tests and require their new entrants to have achieved a pre-determined level in English, that being a level equivalent to a Band 6 in the IELTS or CEFR B2. Those who do not comprise the required language skills cannot continue in the

regular track. Failure to provide proof of the level obliges the applicants to sit the universities' language proficiency examinations which determine whether the student is at an adequate level to continue on the regular freshman course or needs to study a one or two semester language foundation year. Thus, all the participants are considered to have attained around an intermediate level of English when they commence their studies in the ELT department. They are expected to further develop and expand their English language competency through the English medium instruction during which they are exposed to the technical jargon of the profession through the medium of English.

Since the researcher was not a member of the staff of any of the universities, contacting instructors proved to be difficult and tiring at times. The participants were enlightened with regards to the general educational purpose of the study. Written consent was also obtained via intra- and inter-correspondence within and between the related university offices and the classroom instructors who gave permission to conduct the present study during their teaching hours.

**Courses of Study:** The first vocational course that was scrutinized was the Approaches in English Language Teaching I course as the course covered the main concerns and processes in English language teaching design, comprising an extensive overview of the pertinent approaches and methods in the field and their significance in course design. The continuation of this course, Approaches in English Language Teaching II was also part of the study since the course structure was even more exhaustive and in concurrence with the professional world to such an extent that some of the topics covered, such as, content-based instruction, and learning and teaching in the globalized world, corresponded with the current study. Finally, these

two specific courses were chosen due to the class structure within the department, that is, most of the students taking the Listening and Pronunciation courses were also students of the Approaches in ELT courses. Therefore, the aim was to approach a specific group of participants.

### **3.3 Participants**

The learners who took part in the research were from the 5 universities but of various backgrounds and age. Some of the course instructors also assisted in the administering of the tests and questionnaire in their classes. Research assistants were administrators in the others. The number of participants in the study was low (85 for case study at EMU and a total of 185 from all 5 universities) for several reasons. Originally, the study commenced solely as a case study with 3 research questions but was later expanded in the researcher's interest in developing a prototype study. Secondly, since the study was a prototype, it was not administered through all levels of university students as this would require dedicated support and assistance at instructor level from the 4 institutions other than EMU as well as a longer period of time. The fact that the researcher was not a member of the academia restrained her with her limited contacts within the higher education realm. Moreover, the time requirement for the longitudinal study was an added constraint. Therefore, the study was kept at its prototype structure with the intention that it be expanded in the future. Thus, the number of participants was a limited 185. However, with reference to the aforementioned published studies (Goodrick, 2014; Hirvela, 2010; Camiciottol, 2010; Bergström, 2006; Nieminen, 2006; Barwell, 2005), it was concluded that this would not generate any setbacks.

Although the total participant body of the five universities comprised of 244 learners, the actual number of participants who were evaluated was 185 as the rest of the tasks and/or questionnaires were discarded from the pile. The reason was that some of the participants did not complete the tasks adequately enough to be included into the evaluation and some tasks could not be matched with the questionnaires as student names were absent. The following table displays the spread of the students who participated in the research:

Table 1: Participants per University

	<b>Female</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Total</b>
EMU	62	23	85
NEU	25	10	35
CIU	10	8	18
EUL	20	12	32
AU	12	3	15
<b>Total 5</b>	<b>129</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>185</b>
<b>%</b>	<b>69.7%</b>	<b>30.3%</b>	<b>100%</b>

### 3.4 Instrumentation

The experimental method employed in the study involved a test battery used once at all of the 4 universities other than EMU and twice as a continuous measurement instrument at the state-trust university. Two essays, an English discursive composition topic as well as a different Turkish composition topic were also used in the study. Additionally, a questionnaire was designed by the researcher and administered before the administration of the multiple-choice and written part of the test. Before the questionnaire was distributed to the group, it was tested for face and

content validity on the researcher's high school students. The few sections that raised controversy were adjusted accordingly.

*Pilot Testing:* Since the test battery (The Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency-MTELP) represented a recognised, reliable and valid system, it was not pilot tested. However, it was scrutinized before distribution and the researcher eliminated and changed all culture-based elements in the test whether they were a reflection or a referral to other cultures. Thus the face validity of the test was ensured for the Turkish speaking participants. The discursive essay questions were pilot tested in other ELT classes by the thesis supervisor and there were no major problems to be considered.

*Multiple Choice Test:* The multiple choice test consisted of a total of 80 questions; 30 structure, 30 vocabulary and 20 sentence-based comprehension and interpretation questions. It was a sample of the Michigan test battery (Appendix 1). The test was administered to both the case study students, i.e. EMU students, and the students at the four other universities. While the former group were tested towards the end of two consecutive semesters commencing from their first, the latter group participants were all tested at the end of their second semester in their ELT studies.

*The Michigan Test Battery:* The Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP) is a general proficiency test for adult non-native speakers of English who will need to use English for academic purposes. (<http://elc.unlv.edu/mtelp.html>) It is an examination that includes more than one test; in fact it is comprised of an Aural Comprehension, an English Language Proficiency (MTELP) and a Composition Test. For time purposes and convenience, the researcher chose to use the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup>



tests only as lessons at the universities were given in 2-50 minute block sessions. The choice was made in favour of the Michigan Test Battery as it is a standardized test. Indeed, it is a “standardized test...to test proficiency, to assist in placement, and to measure progress” (Sharpe, 1982, p.3). What is more, “the test may be preferable to other assessment measures in that researchers can evaluate what the test measures and whether the test is relevant to their studies” (<http://www.hosei.ac.jp/museum/html/kiyo/58/articles/Wistner.pdf>).

*Questionnaire:* The questionnaire (Appendix 2) was prepared by the researcher and also pilot tested at a private teaching centre. The questionnaire aimed at gathering educational, socio-economic-cultural background information on the participants. Thus it was designed in 3 sections each of which was comprised of 4 parts in itself. The first section was geared towards gaining information on the participants’ personal background; namely their log information, educational details, native and foreign language background, and family and income background. The second and third sections were parallel in design and were directed towards gaining information about the participant’s mother and father.

The participants’ socio-economic status was determined by assigning numerical values (1 to 5) to questions. Higher numerical values indicated parents’ higher levels in education, students’ education in private schools, high family income (equal or more than 5000 TL), and social status (parents profession –white collar/pink collar/gold collar categories) while lower values were attributed to family structures where there were more than 4 children, parents with lower levels of education and low family income (basic wage), mostly working in the blue collar/light blue collar/black collar categories. Specifically, questions [10](number of

brothers/sisters, [11], [16], [17], [23] and [24] were related to the participants' number of siblings, family income and their parents' income and all of the results were enumerated and used as data for economic status. To be exact, they were:

- Q. 10. Number of brothers/sisters
- Q. 16. Mother's profession
- Q. 17. Mother's' approximate income
- Q. 23. Father's profession
- Q. 24. Father's approximate income

Likewise, their socio-cultural status was given a numerical value by quantifying questions [4], [5], [6], [7], [8], [12]. Educational background was computed via questions [4a], [13], [30]. These questions were:

- Q. 4. Education (type of school – state/private asked for at all levels)
- Q. 5. Number of years of study in English
- Q. 6. Type of English (exam) qualification they have
- Q. 7. Native language
- Q. 8. Knowledge of any other language
- Q. 12. Parent's schooling (asked separately for each mother)

The information obtained from the questionnaire was coded and enumerated so that it could be entered into the SPSS programme. The frequencies were taken and results were then evaluated in correspondence to the multiple-choice tests' and written scripts' results.

The results for courses Listening and Pronunciation I, Listening and Pronunciation II, Approaches in ELT I, and Approaches in ELT II were used as the data reflecting the participants' performance during the two academic semesters. The results were in

letter grades which were converted into numerical values. The university's grading system (Temel Mevzuat, 1986, art. 5.1.4) was used for conversion. Accordingly, the letter grades are as follows:

Table 2: Letter Grade Values

<b>Letter Grade</b>	<b>VALUE</b>
A	4.00
A-	3.70
B+	3.30
B	3.0
B-	2.70
C+	2.30
C	2.0
C-	1.70
D+	1.30
D	1.00
D	0.70
F	0.00

The converted grades were calculated as z-scores and then converted to t-scores so that grades displayed uniformity.

*Writing tests:* The learners were asked to write on two relevant discursive issues in both English and the L1 (Appendix 3). The two pieces of writing were collected, marked and coded and once again entered into the SPSS programme. The results were correlated with the multiple-choice test and the questionnaire.

The marking of the essays and the scale to be used gave rise to discussion prior to the grading. Most scales used to mark such prose were on a band of 9 so the researcher

decided to use the IELTS band scale announced on the related website. The main reason for this choice was that the researcher is an IELTS examiner herself and is therefore most comfortable and familiar with this scale. While evaluating the written prose, the writing was evaluated on 4 levels; 1. Task Response, 2. Cohesion and Coherence, 3. Lexical Resource, and 4. Grammatical Range and Accuracy. Thus each essay, whether it was English or Turkish was evaluated at 4 different levels. The results were then evaluated as Z-scores which were computed whenever necessary as T-scores so all results would be uniform.

### **3.5 Data Collection Procedures**

The first part of the data collection procedure was designed as pre-test/post-test and began at EMU to where the researcher had easier access. The multiple choice test and EFL writing samples (Appendix C) were administered and collected in two consecutive semesters starting from the end of the first so as to allow students to further their language levels to a certain extent. The same test battery was used to ensure the reliability of the comparison. The same test battery was used at the other 4 universities but administered only once. All of the results were enumerated; the multiple choice results were analysed through item analysis and the writing tests and questionnaire results were coded and entered into the SPSS. Thus the results were analysed in reference to the research questions and null hypotheses. Paired Sample T-test, Independent Samples T-test, Pearson Correlation, Linear Regression, One-Way Anova, Games-Howell Post Hoc, Kruskal Wallis Analysis and Mann Whitney U test were used in determining the answers to the research questions related to the issues such as participants' EFL development over a period of time at EMU (through continuous testing) and the English level of ELT students at a given time at the 4 other universities. EMU's results were used to answer three of the research

questions, while they were also combined with the results of the other universities when seeking for answers for the following 4 of the research questions.

### **3.6 Data Analyses**

The results were analysed quantitatively. Both numeric and string data were obtained from the questionnaires, the multiple choice test and the two writing tasks and the results were recorded on the SPSS Software – Version 12. Statistical analyses were run on the package. These statistics included the parametric tests , Pearson Correlation (Research Question 2, 5, 6), and Linear Regression (Research Question 2), Paired Sample T-test (Research Question 1, 4), Independent Samples T-test (Research Question 3), One-Way Anova (Research Question 7), and the non-parametric tests Kruskal Wallis Test (Research Question 7), Mann-Whitney U test (Research Question 3, 7) and the Games-Howell Post Hoc (Research Question 7). Specifically, Paired Sample T-test was used to find an answer for the first and fourth research questions, Independent Sample T-test for Research Question 3, which was then verified with the Mann Whitney U Test. The Pearson Correlation and Linear Regression were used to scrutinize question 2, Two-tailed Pearson Correlation was employed for questions 2, 5 and 6, and finally Anova with the Games-Howell Post Hoc were used for research question 7. The results of research question 7 were then verified through the non-parametric Kruskal Wallis.

#### **Tests Applied**

Paired-Sample T-test: The paired-sample T-test is used in repeated measures of a group whether these are at two different time instances or at the same time but with two different measures. It “evaluates whether the mean of the difference between two variables of

the same group is significantly different from zero”. (Green & Salkind, 2004, p.161)

**Independent Samples T-test:** The independent-samples T-test is used for two independent groups which have undergone a test and have obtained a test variable. In other words it “evaluates whether the mean value of the test variable for one group differs significantly from the mean value of the test variable for the second group”. (Green & Salkind, 2004, p.167)

**Pearson Correlation:** “The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient assesses the degree that quantitative variables are linearly related in a sample”... and “the significance test for  $r$  evaluates whether there is a linear relationship between the two variables in the population” (Green & Salkind, 2004, p.254). The correlation coefficient is an index of effect size with a range value from -1 to +1. “This coefficient indicates the degree that low or high scores on one variable tend to go with low or high scores on another variable. A score on a variable is a low (or high) score to the extent that it falls below (or above) the mean score of that variable” (Green & Salkind, 2004, p.255).

**Linear Regression:** “This is a significance test which is conducted to evaluate whether X is useful in predicting Y” (Green & Salkind, 2004, p.274).

**One-Way Anova:** “The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to determine whether there are any significant differences between the means of three or more independent (unrelated)

groups” (<http://statistics.laerd.com/statistical-guides/one-way-anova-statistical-guide.php>). Anova carries three assumptions; the first stating that “the dependent variable is normally distributed for each of the populations as defined by the different levels of the factor”, the second asserting that “the variances of the dependent variable are the same for all populations”, and the last one maintaining that “the cases represent random samples and the scores are independent of each other” (Green & Salkind, 2004, p.177).

Games-Howell Post Hoc: If your data does not meet the homogeneity of variances assumption then you should consider running either the Games Howell or Dunnett's C *post-hoc* test. The Games Howell test is generally recommended (<http://statistics.laerd.com/statistical-guides/one-way-anova-statistical-guide.php>).

Kruskal Wallis Test: ‘The Kruskal-Wallis test evaluates whether the population medians on a dependent variable are the same across all levels of a factor. To conduct the Kruskal-Wallis test, cases must have scores on an independent or grouping variable and on a dependent variable. The independent or grouping variable divides individuals into two or more groups, and the dependent variable assesses individuals on at least an ordinal scale.

If the independent variable has only two levels, no additional significance tests need to be conducted beyond the Kruskal-Wallis test. However, if a factor has more than two levels and the overall test is significant, follow-up tests are usually

conducted. These follow-up tests most frequently involve comparisons between pairs of group medians. “For the Kruskal-Wallis, we could use the Mann-Whitney *U* test to examine unique pairs” (Green & Salkind, 2004, p.383). It is in fact used as an alternative to the one-way Anova test. “The one-way ANOVA is considered a robust test against the normality assumption. This means that it tolerates violations to its normality assumption rather well. As regards the normality of group data, the one-way ANOVA can tolerate data that is non-normal” ...such as when the “group sizes are small”. One of the options of dealing with this situation is to “choose the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis H Test which does not require the assumption of normality” (<http://statistics.laerd.com/statistical-guides/one-way-anova-statistical-guide.php>)

Mann-Whitney U test: 'The Mann-Whitney U test evaluates whether the medians on a test variable differ significantly between two groups. One of the underlying assumptions of this test is related to the sample size Mann-Whitney is applied to and it states that “an exact test is printed by SPSS if the number of cases is less than or equal to 41” (Green & Salkind, 2004, p.379).

### **3.7 Limitations**

Limitations of the study are the relatively small size of the study group for the case study with the total number being 39 and the fact that only one English medium institution was used for the continual assessment part of the study. Conducting the



continual assessment at the other 4 institutions proved to be impossible due to the reluctance of related administrations with regards to the distraction and time engagement in which the participants would be involved. Time constraints related to the bureaucracy added to the inconvenience. Moreover, the participants are not exposed to language outside the classroom facing limited exposure. What is more, the final employable number of the sample proved to be comparatively low. Finally, the foreign language is a significant barrier for students whose main aim is to complete their vocational studies and receive a diploma and thus this creates a demotivating situation.

The delimitations are the homogenous structure of the study group, the reliable test battery, the data triangulation method and the exhaustive quantitative evaluation of the results.

## **Chapter 4**

### **FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

A brief description of the participants and the findings of the current study are presented in the following chapter. As stated in the first chapter, the current study's aim is twofold; firstly to analyse and evaluate the linguistic proficiency and improvement of the on-going ELT Semester 1 and 2 students at the Eastern Mediterranean University, so as to define their development over a time interval and as a result reflect on and predict their destiny in the language learning, developing and eventually teaching voyage. This part of the study has been treated as a case study. Secondly, the research is a comparative and contrastive study of the language proficiency of the ELT first year students at the 5 universities with a specific focus on the predefined social and economic parameters. The former part of the study involves continuous testing, that is pre-test – post-test, and assessment of students' language abilities both in English and in their native language, mostly Turkish, over a time interval while the latter evaluates the students language competency at a specific time instant. The study is based on 7 research questions. All of the data are analysed quantitatively and the results are evaluated in reference to the research questions and will be presented accordingly. A summary concludes the chapter.

#### **4.1 Characteristics of Participants**

The study involved 244 participants but only 185 of them were included in the study. The students were first year students studying at the English Language Teaching

department from the 5 Turkish Cypriot universities. The breakdown of the participants with 129 female and 56 male participants is presented as follows, where it can be noted that 69.7% of the participants were females while only 30.3% were males. Also, the smallest participating group was the American University students whereas Eastern Mediterranean University formed the largest group (8.12% and 45.95% respectively):

Table 3: Component Completion

Study Group	Component	No. Completed
EMU Case Study	Pre-test Post-test 2 writing tasks questionnaire	39
5 universities	Pre-test English Essay Questionnaire	153
5 universities	Turkish Essay English Essay	86
5 universities	Multiple choice	185

## 4.2 Case Study

The study actually incorporates a case study within and three of the seven research questions are formulated to investigate for the case study.

### 4.2.1 Case Study – English Language Development

The focus of the case study within the research was related to the students' English language development over a specific period of time with the first research question being "Does the exposure to English in profession and language related courses over a specific period of time positively reinforce the students' English competency thus leading to a significant difference in their foreign language development?"

To examine the effect of exposure to English (in profession and language related courses over a specific period of time) “on the students’ linguistic competency, paired sample t-test was conducted (Table 1). It is necessary to note that although the EMU sample consisted of 85 participants, the pre- and post-tests were satisfactorily applied to actually only 39 participants as the pursuit and tracking down in the consecutive semester proved to be arduous and unachievable. This was mainly due to the fact that students did not necessarily choose the same course and the researcher did not intend to interrupt the regular flow of too many departmental courses.

Table 4: EMU Multiple Choice Pre-Test Post-Test

<b>Tests</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
<b>Pre-test</b>	39	52.62	16.62	38	5.751*	0.000
<b>Post-test</b>	39	62.10	9.74			

\*p<0.05

Results indicated that the mean difference for pretest (M= 52.62, Sd= 16.62) was significantly different than the mean difference for posttest (M= 62.10, Sd= 9.74), p<0.05. This result was concluded by looking at how statistically different the two condition Means are; i.e. by looking at the Sig.(2-tailed) value – p. Since the result is smaller than 0.05 we can conclude that there is a significant difference between the results of the pre-test and post-test taken by the participants. This means that the difference in the mean results is statistically significant and the foreign language linguistic competency of the students, who have been exposed to both profession and language-related courses, does portray a significant difference. These results suggest that being exposed to both profession and language related courses leads to a significant development in the students’ foreign language competency.

**Discussion:** The results in Table 4 portray that while the Mean for the pretest was 52.62 with a standard deviation of 16.62, the Mean for the post-test increased to 62.10 providing a standard deviation of a much lower 9.74. Thus, with respect to the results obtained from the paired sample t-test and considering the research question ‘Does the exposure to English (in profession and language related courses) over a specific period of time positively reinforce students’ English competency thus leading to a significant difference in their language development?’, it can be concluded that students’ English language skills are positively reinforced even over a period of two semesters. Many factors are involved in this consequence, the first being the fact that ELT students experience intense exposure to the English language is the ELT classroom. Moreover, they are obliged to use English via various daily used sources such as the internet, the library or during meetings they may have with foreign professors. In short, the English language that the ELT students are exposed to in their ELTE classes is adequate enough to favour the development of their English language skills.

#### **4.2.2 Case Study – Correlation between Courses and L2**

The second research question of the case study focused on the correlation between course success and the L2 competency of the participants and how their course success predicted their language proficiency. It was formulated as follows: Does the students’ performance in their ELTE courses predict their development in L2 proficiency?

Once again the results of professional and language related courses of the EMU students were used and correlated with their second multiple choice test and writing task results. The results were displayed as follows, where the relationship between

the success in the department courses and the degree of English language competency was analyzed by Pearson Correlation analysis (Table 5).

Table 5: Correlation of Department Courses and English Language Competency

	<b>Language &amp; Profession Related Courses</b>	<b>Multiple Choice &amp; English Essay 2</b>
<b>Correlation coefficient (r)</b>		0.364*
<b>Sig.</b>		0.024
<b>N</b>		39

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4 Department Courses: Listening & Pronunciation I & II, Approaches in ELT I & II

In this calculation, results indicated that there is positive significant correlation between department courses and English language competency ( $r=0.364$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

Overall, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to predict the relationship between the course success and the L2 proficiency of the participants. The course success referred to, in this instance, was the success attained in the Language and Profession Related Courses. The L2 proficiency which was used in the correlation was the post-test, i.e. the second multiple choice and the second writing task combined. The results showed that there was a positive correlation between the two variables with the Pearson correlation coefficient being  $r = 0.364$  for a total of 39 participants ( $n= 39$ ), and since the statistical significance Sig(2-tailed) correlation value,  $p$  is smaller than 0.05, i.e. in this research it was calculated to be a small 0.024, it can be concluded that there is a statistical significant correlation between the two variables. This means that studying academic and profession related courses in English has a positive effect on the students' English

language development and competency. Overall, there was a positive correlation between the participants' ELTE courses and their L2 competency. In other words, increases in the participants' foreign language level were correlated with increases in the amount of language they were exposed to in their language and profession related courses at university.

What is more, to predict the language competency results (LC1, LC2) of the students with reference to their professional courses (PC1, PC2) linear regression was employed and displayed in Table 6.

Table 6: Relationship between Department Courses and Participants' Language Competency

<b>Variables</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>Standard error</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>Correlation</b>	<b>Partial Correlation</b>
<b>Constant</b>	22.499	7.721		2.914	.006		
<b>List. &amp; Pron.1</b>	6.868	2.934	.458	2.341	.025	.426	.377
<b>List. &amp; Pron.2</b>	6.688	3.113	.384	2.149	.039	.420	.350
<b>Appr. in ELT 1</b>	-.342	2.876	-.030	-.119	.906	.251	-.021
<b>Appr. in ELT 2</b>	-2.770	2.776	-.259	.998	.326	.209	-.171

$R=.543$   $R^2=.295$   $F(4,37)=3.445$   $p=.019$

The linear regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how well department courses predicted English language competency. The predictors were the results for the four department courses, while the criterion variable was the overall English language competency. The linear combination of department courses was significantly related to the English language competency,  $F(4,37)=3.445$   $p=.019$ . The

regression coefficient was .543, indicating that approximately 29.5% of the variance of the English language competency in the sample can be accounted for by the linear combination of the department courses. All the bivariate correlations between the department courses and English language competency were positive and two of the four courses were statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ). Listening and Pronunciation 1 and Listening and Pronunciation 2 were useful predictors of the English language competency. The results of these two courses accounted for approximately 26.5% of the variance of English language competency, while the other variables contributed by only an additional 3%.

**Discussion:** In the next step, the second research question, ‘Is there a correlation between the students’ department course results and their degree of L2 competency?’ was scrutinized and results proved to answer the question positively. The courses students took in the department towards their vocational and language development positively reinforced their language skills after a two semester period. In addition, the students’ performance specifically in their language courses was a direct prediction of their language competency in the following semester. All in all, the English medium education structure of the department and the CBI (Lorenzo, 2007) approach are obviously proving to be triumphant.

#### **4.2.3 Case Study – Difference with respect to Genders in L2 Development**

The third research question of the case study scrutinized the gender issue and was formulated as follows: Is there a difference in the development of English language competency with respect to genders after being exposed to English in profession and language related courses over a specific period of time?



For this question, the Independent Samples t-Test was applied. The independent sample t-test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis assuming that there would be a difference in the development of linguistic competency between genders after being exposed to English in profession and language related courses over a specific period of time. The programme evaluated 39 (F=29, M=10) participants' pre and post-tests. Accordingly, first the Group Statistics was computed and it showed that while the females' Mean for their results in these tests was 53.45, the Mean for Males was a close 50.20 with the standard deviation being 14.62 for females and a larger 22.19 for males (Table 7). Results also indicated that the test was not significant,  $t(37) = .528$ , and  $p > .05$  with a value of 0.601. In other words, the variability in the two conditions was about the same.

Table 7: Results for Pre-test (Multiple Choice 1)

<b>Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
<b>Female</b>	29	53.45	14.62	37	.528	.601
<b>Male</b>	10	50.20	22.19			

Then the mean differences in the post test results were compared with respect to the students' gender. (Table 8).

Table 8: Results for Post-test (Multiple Choice 2)

<b>Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>P</b>
<b>Female</b>	29	57.45	15.15	37	.725	.473
<b>Male</b>	10	52.80	23.33			

In short, an independent samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the research question as to whether there was a difference in the development of linguistic

competency with respect to genders after being exposed to English in profession and language related courses over a specific period of time. Once again the Sig (2-tailed) value, p, was larger than 0.05 and thus the results of the test were in the unexpected direction and proved to be non-significant, with a Mean of 57.45 for females and a lower 52.80 for males with  $t(37) = .725, p > .05$ , thus proving that there was no significant difference in the students' development of language skills with respect to their gender.

With the result proving to be negative in the sense that there is no difference in the development of linguistic competency with respect to genders, further evaluations were applied as a safety inspection. First, the overall EMU universe was inspected with 62 female and 23 male students and another independent sample t-test was applied to the students' multiple choice results of the second multiple choice test whether they took the pre- or not.

Table 9: EMU Sample Pre/Post Test Results

<b>Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
<b>Female</b>	62	58.48	13.940	83	-.380	.705
<b>Male</b>	23	57.13	16.280			

Once again the Means proved to be extremely close to each other and the p-value was higher than 0.05 showing that there was an insignificant difference between the results of females and males. Then, the result was further scrutinized and the female-male bodies were equalized with the 23 male scores and 23 randomly selected female scores.

Table 10: Equalized Female-Male Results

<b>Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
<b>Female</b>	23	59.26	9.987	44	.043	.988
<b>Male</b>	23	59.22	9.308			

The findings verified the previous ones. however, due to the fact that the sample size for males who took both pre and post-tests was rather small (N=10 per gender), a non-parametric test was also applied to the data to confirm the results. Accordingly the Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to evaluate the research question. Once again, first Mann-Whitney U test was used to ensure that there were no initial differences between the groups. Then, post test results were compared to the pre-test results with respect to students' gender (Table 11).

Table 11: Non-Parametric Mann Whitney U Test Comparison of Pre-test Post-test Results

<b>Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>	<b>P</b>
<b>Pre-test</b>	20	57.85	9.98	39	70	.622
<b>Post-test</b>	20	55.40	9.02	18	74	.704

Results were similar and indicated that the difference in the results of the pre and post tests were not significant as  $p > .05$ . To evaluate the difference, the mean difference between post-test and pre-test results was calculated. Then, the Mann Whitney U test was conducted to compare mean differences between genders shown in Table 12.

Table 12: Non-Parametric Mann Whitney U Test Comparison of Mean Differences between Genders

Test	Gender	Mean Rank	Z	P
<b>Pre-test</b>				
Female	10	9.85	-.493	.622
Male	10	11.15		
<b>Post-test</b>				
Female	10	11.00	-.380	.704
Male	10	10.00		

The results of the test were once again in the unexpected direction and the non-parametric test reflected the results as non-significant,  $z = -.493$ , and  $z = -.380$  where  $p > .05$ . All in all, the result proved that there is no difference in the development of linguistic competency with respect to genders after being exposed to English in profession and language related courses over a specific period of time.

**Discussion:** The gender issue has always been open to debate and once again the results of this study continue to instigate the dispute. Considering the research question, ‘Is there a difference in the development of English language competency with respect to genders after being exposed to English in profession and language related courses over a specific period of time?’, the study concludes that there is no significant difference with respect to genders thus holding a stance against Burstall’s (1975 cited in Ellis, 1994) study and instead supporting Bacon’s study of the more recent 1992 where he proved that the two genders in fact display no difference in their language development. Likewise, in the EMU context, the males and females displayed a similar development in their performance.

An assumption supporting this result may be the change in the societal structure and the function individuals of the two genders are expected to perform. In the twenty-first century, both genders are equally competitive in the workforce and thus are

obliged to develop all of their skills in a likewise fashion. The only way these skills can be portrayed is via presentations and explanations which are conducted through language. Consequently, the individuals, no matter what their gender, are subconsciously urged to focus on and develop their verbal skills for survival purposes and eventually success stories.

What is more, the insignificant difference should not be considered from a positive standpoint; this may not be an advance in the language skills. In fact, with the expansion in the use of computers, societal interaction and personal relations are weakening by the day, which in turn is limiting the use of language among individuals. The results could be a reflection of weakening language skills of both genders approaching closer to each other on the communicative level.

### **4.3 Difference between L1 and L2 Syntactical Competency**

For the fourth research question, which was no longer part of the case study, paired sample t-tests were conducted to examine the differences between students' Turkish and English essay writing components, and the differences between overall Turkish and English essay writing results (Table 13).

Table 13: Differences between Participants' Turkish and English Essay Writing Components

<b>Tests (n=70)</b>	<b>Mean<sup>1</sup></b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>t<sub>(sd=69)</sub></b>	<b>P</b>
<b>English Task Response</b>	4.60	1.41	-4.258	.000
<b>Turkish Task Response</b>	5.70	1.76		
<b>English Cohesion &amp; Coherence</b>	4.49	1.30	-4.957	.000
<b>Turkish Cohesion &amp; Coherence</b>	5.70	1.66		
<b>English Lexical Response</b>	4.40	1.18	-6.277	.000
<b>Turkish Lexical Response</b>	5.87	1.63		
<b>English Grammar Range and Accuracy</b>	4.31	1.26	-6.798	.000
<b>Turkish Grammar Range and Accuracy</b>	5.96	1.54		
<b>Total English Essay</b>	17.94	4.88	-5.878	.000
<b>Total Turkish Essay</b>	23.49	6.45		

<sup>1</sup>The mean results of the components are calculated over a total score of 9 and the Total Essay Score is over 36.

Results proved that the means for the participants' English Task Response, English Cohesion and Coherence, English Lexical Response, English Grammar Range and Accuracy, and overall English essay results (M=4.60, M=4.49, M=4.40, M=4.31, M=17.94, and Sd=1.41, Sd=1.30, Sd=1.18, Sd=1.26, Sd=4.88 respectively) were significantly different than the means for the participants' Turkish Task Response, Turkish Cohesion and Coherence, Turkish Lexical Response, Turkish Grammar Range and Accuracy, and overall Turkish essay results as  $p < .05$  (M=5.70, M=5.70, M=5.87, M=5.96, M=23.49 and Sd=1.76, Sd=1.66, Sd=1.63, Sd=1.54, Sd=6.45 respectively). The 95% confidence interval for the mean difference between the paired ratings were -4.258, -4.957, -6.277, 6.798, -5.878 respectively and since they were smaller than 0.05 ( $p=0$ ), overall, this meant that the null hypothesis was rejected and that there was a difference between the students' L1 and L2 writing skills which led the study to accept the alternative hypothesis.

**Discussion:** The fourth research question ‘Is there a significant difference between students’ L1 and English competencies?’ was answered positively and the study proved that there is a significant difference between students’ L1 and English competencies. This can be considered as quite normal since it is expected for participants to have superior L1 competencies when compared to their English abilities. Yet, the unexpected are the mean results of the Turkish essay and its components. Despite the fact that the participants wrote in their native language, their writing ability averaged a mere 65.25%. Bearing in mind the actuality that the participants were university students representing the educated elite, this percentage is much lower than would be expected especially from students studying a linguistic related subject. Evidently, this turns the spotlight onto Cummin’s interdependence hypothesis and Kraschen’s ‘padding’ notion of transfer, mentioned in Chapter 2. The relatively low Means in the participants’ English language skills could be in effect a reflection of their inadequate L1 skills.

#### **4.4 Correlation of L1 and L2 Writing Skills**

In order to examine the relationship between English essay writing skills and Turkish essay writing skills for the fifth research question of the study, results of 86 university students were used.

Table 14: Relationship between English Essay and Turkish Essay Writing Skills

		<b>Correlation Coefficient (r)</b>	<b>Sig. (2- tailed)</b>	<b>N</b>
<b>L1</b>	<b>L2</b>	<b>0.165</b>	<b>0.129</b>	<b>86</b>
<b>Tur. Task Response</b>	<b>Eng. Task Response</b>	<b>0.179</b>	<b>0.99</b>	<b>86</b>
<b>Tur. Cohesion &amp; Coherence</b>	<b>Eng. Cohesion &amp; Coherence</b>	<b>0.150</b>	<b>0.168</b>	<b>86</b>
<b>Tur. Lexical Resource</b>	<b>Eng. Lexical Resource</b>	<b>0.167</b>	<b>0.123</b>	<b>86</b>
<b>Turkish Grammar</b>	<b>English Grammar</b>	<b>0.110</b>	<b>0.312</b>	<b>86</b>

**p>0.05**

The relationship between L1 and L2 was once again analyzed by Pearson Correlation (Table 14). Results indicated that there is a positive but statistically small correlation of L1 and L2 components of the participants' English and Turkish essay, the components being overall Task achievement, Task response, Cohesion and coherence, Lexical resource, and Grammar ( $r = -.165, 0.179, 0.15, 0.167, 0.11$  respectively and  $p > .05$ ).

Accordingly, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient show that there was not a positive correlation between the variables, L1 and L2 writing skills, Turkish and English Task Response, Turkish and English Cohesion and Coherence, Turkish and English Lexical Resource and Turkish and English Grammar, and the statistical significance  $p$  was larger values than 0.05. Once again, since the latter value was larger than  $=0.05$ , it can be concluded that overall, there was no statistically significant correlation between the participants' L1 and L2 competency.



In other words, the participants' foreign language writing skills do not correlate with their L1 writing skills.

**Discussion:** The correlation coefficients depicting the positivity yet very small and non-significant of the correlation between the variables and thus answering the research question 'Is there a correlation between L1 and L2 writing skills?' once again imply that the participants' L2 skills are developing independently from their L1 skills, and that there is hardly any interconnection between the development of the two competencies. Considering the fact that the participants' are in a fictitious setting, and are receiving no external motivation, support or any drive to develop their language skills whether this be their L1 or L2 can be considered as grounds for these results.

#### **4.5 Correlation of Language Competency and Socio-economic/cultural Background**

The sixth question was related to the relationship between language competency (English essay and multiple choice results) and socio-economic-cultural background and was analyzed by Pearson Correlation analyses (Table 12)

Table 15: Correlation between Language Competency & Socio-Economic/Cultural Background

	<b>N</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>Correlation Coefficient (r)</b>
<b>Socio-Economic-Cultural Background</b>	<b>153</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>1.000</b>
<b>Language Competency</b>			

Once again, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between language competency (obtained through the results of English Essay and multiple choice combined) and socio-economic-cultural background (lower- middle- higher). Results indicated that there is a positive and statistically perfect and significant correlation between language competency and socio-economic-cultural background with the Pearson coefficient correlation being  $r= 1.000$  for a total of 153 participants ( $N= 153$ ) and the statistical significance  $p$  being 0.000. In other words, the participants' foreign language level was directly and highly correlated with their social, economic or cultural background. The results showed that the better the social, economic, cultural and educational background of the participants, the more likely it is for them to be successful in their studies.

**Discussion:** The study group used for the research question 'Is there a correlation between students' foreign language competency and their socio-economic-cultural background?' represents participants from quite a diverse background with regards to social, economic and cultural status. Moreover, the cultural aspect refers to the varying visions from different parts of the country regarding family structure. The economic and social status also are regarded and assessed at contradictory degrees of significance. Specifically, while wealthy families from East or South-East Anatolia might have multiple children and minimally educated parents, the opposite structure could be noted in the big cities of Turkey and in Cyprus. Likewise members of the former family type may know more than one language and speak them fluently due to their racial background, whereas the latter group may not know any other language other than the L1. All of these factors have been evaluated during the employment of the data. The results showed that there is a full correlation between

the participants' language competency and their social, economic, cultural and educational background.

#### 4.6 Difference of L2 Competency within the 5 Universities

Finally, for the last research question, the One-way Anova test was applied to evaluate the language competency of 185 year 1 ELT students of the five universities (Table16).

Table 16: Results of Multiple Choice Test of All 5 Universities' Freshmen Students

U N I V	N	Mean for 80 as highest score	T- Score Mean	St. Error	Sd.	95% Confid. Interval for Mean		Min.	Max.
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
NEU	35	54,63	49,12	1,64	9,69	51,30	57,96	33	66
AU	15	46,67	42,57	3,75	14,55	38,61	54,72	23	79
EUL	32	51,19	46,23	2,49	14,09	46,11	56,27	29	73
CIU	18	57,50	51,45	2,24	9,51	52,77	62,23	39	73
EMU	85	58,12	52,79	1,58	14,52	54,99	61,25	18	78
<b>Total</b>	185	55,27	50,00	1.0	13,60	53,30	57,24	18	79

The table displays the Freshmen students' Mean score out of a total of 90. As can be noted, the mean of the students from the 5 universities ranges from 46.67 to 58.12. The Means of the T-scores were also considered so as to obtain more meaningful values out of 100. Accordingly, the lowest mean attained by the participants was 42.5 and the highest was 52.7. The following step assessed whether those means were significantly different from each other and so Post Hoc tests were applied (Table 17). The Games-Howell Post Hoc test was applied and 2 universities, American University and European University of Lefke, proved to show a statistically significant difference from the Eastern Mediterranean University. The

results displayed that the ‘p’ value of the raw scores for the former pair was 0,041 and 0,048 for the latter and likewise for the T-scores. According to the Games-Howell Post Hoc test results, the ‘p’ value computed for the pairs has been displayed in Table 17.

Table 17: Evaluation of Language Competency between Universities According to Games-Howell test

UNIV	UNIV	P
EMU	NEU	0,195
EMU	AUL	0,041*
EMU	EUL	0,048*
EMU	CIU	0,970
NEU	AU	0,329
NEU	EUL	0,777
NEU	CIU	0,838
AU	EUL	0,852
AU	CIU	0,131
EUL	CIU	0,340

**p<0.05**

Yet, considering the fact that the sample sizes of two of the universities was smaller than 30, and that the samples sizes of the universities were not equal necessitated a further analysis to be conducted, namely the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test, as some of the assumptions for the Anova test could not be verified with the data . (<http://statistics.laerd.com/statistical-guides/one-way-anova-statistical-guide.php>).

The results of the Kruskal Wallis Analysis were displayed in Table18.

Table 18: Kruskal Wallis Analysis of Universities

University	N	Mean Rank
NEU	35	85.86
AU	15	53.27
EUL	32	77.27
CIU	18	97.78
EMU	85	106.95

$H_{(4)} = 17.677, p=.001$

After the Kruskal Wallis test, the Mann-Whitney U test was applied for the language level differences between the 5 universities. The results, displayed in Table 19, compared to the One-way Anova and the Games-Howell post hoc test, were even tighter and more enlightening as they clearly depicted the differences between and among the universities with regards to their students' English language results.

Table 19: Evaluation of Language Competency between Universities According to Mann-Whitney Test

UNIV	UNIV	P
EMU	NEU	0,037*
EMU	AUL	0,000*
EMU	EUL	0,012*
EMU	CIU	0,409
NEU	AU	0,030*
NEU	EUL	0,400
NEU	CIU	0,392
AU	EUL	0,163
AU	CIU	0,015*
EUL	CIU	0,124

All in all, for the last research question, ‘Is there a significant difference of the L2 competency within the Year 1 ELT students of the 5 universities?’, the Mann-Whitney results showed that language competency of year 1 ELT students was significantly different among their universities,  $H_{(4)} = 17.677$ ,  $p = .001$ . Note also, the Monte Carlo estimate of significance, which is slightly lower (.001). The confidence interval is also useful: it is .000- .000 and the fact that the boundary does not cross .05 is important. This gives us a lot of confidence that the significant effect is genuine. Overall, there was a statistical significant difference amongst the groups.

**Discussion:** The results of the various analysis conducted on this study, whether it be parametric or non-parametric, post hoc or not, all proved that there was a statistically significant difference among the universities regarding their students’ multiple choice results. Various reasons can be accounted for this result: The Eastern Mediterranean University is the first university on the island and its system is most probably well-established as compared to Cyprus International University and American University. Both of the latter mentioned are more recently founded thus they could be handicapped with issues such as staff, system setting, low numbers or less-qualified student portfolio.

#### **4.7 Summary**

The data collected for the study was evaluated and discussed in this chapter. On the whole, the research questions were tackled and answered and the results can be summarized as follows:

It can be concluded that students' English language skills are positively reinforced over a period of two semesters, with the vocational and language courses they take in the department positively supporting the improvement of their language skills and proving to be a direct prediction of their level of language development in the following semester. The results also argue that there is no significant difference in students' language competency with respect to genders, and yet there is a strong correlation between students' language competency and their socio-economic-cultural background. In addition, the study put forth the fact that there is a significant difference between students' L1 and English competencies and there is hardly any correlation between their L1 and L2 writing skills. Finally, when all five universities were compared with respect to their students' language test results, the study proved that there was indeed a significant difference between and among the universities.

## **Chapter 5**

### **CONCLUSION**

The purpose of this study was twofold. Firstly, it aimed to conduct a case study with the objective of analysing and evaluating the linguistic proficiency and the language improvement of the on-going ELTE Semester 1 and 2 students at the Eastern Mediterranean University over a time interval and thus reflect on their language learning, language developing and eventually teaching experience. Secondly, the research was a comparative and contrastive study of the language proficiency of the year 1 ELTE students at the 5 universities with a specific focus on the social, economic, gender and language background. The former part of the study involved continuous testing and assessment of students' language abilities both in English and in their native language, Turkish, over a time interval while the latter part evaluated the students' language competency at a specific time. The results of these tests were evaluated and discussed in chapter 4 and the following chapter will put forth an overview of the discussions, conclusions and the implications of the results by proposing suggestions for further studies so that the results may shed light onto the efficacy of the use of CBI in the current ELT programmes.

#### **5.1 Discussion of Case Study**

The EMU case study was the springboard of the current study and the first three research questions were set to investigate for this case study. The first of these questions scrutinized the language development of EMU students after being exposed to English (in profession and language related courses) through CBI over a



specific period of time, namely 2 semesters. The study proved that the English language skills of the students in this study were positively reinforced over a period of two semesters. Accordingly, the result for the pre-test was a mean of 52.62 with a standard deviation of 16.62, while the post-test mean was a higher 62.10 with a smaller standard deviation of 9.74. This meant that the students' language levels portrayed a development over the two semester period. Several reasons may be accounted for this result. Firstly, there is the fact that the ELT students are exposed to English via English medium instruction in the ELT classroom, a formal learning context, where they are obliged to function, discuss and communicate in English. What is more, their obligation to use English via the internet or during short meetings with their foreign professors forces them to utilize their English language skills effectively and efficiently. Furthermore, the language to which they are exposed in their vocational courses is mainly technical jargon which provides them with further and diverse awareness of the employment of their general language skills thus verifying the result obtained for the first question. In short, the English language that the ELT students are exposed to in their ELTE classes is supportive enough to favour the development of their English language skills.

The second research question investigating the correlation between the students' department course results and their degree of L2 competency' also proved to have a positive answer. The post-test results were used for the computation, and with a correlation coefficient of 0.364 giving a statistical significant correlation value of 0.024, the courses taken during a two-semester period proved to have reinforced the students' language skills. In reference to this result, if a correlation is significant at the 0.05 level, then the 0.364 value proves that the department courses had a medium

level positive effect on the students' degree of L2 competency. This result is also in line with the results of the first research question which proved that the language skills of ELT students showed a significant development over a two semester period. Thus, when both results are examined, it can be concluded that there is a positive yet medium level relationship between the students' L2 language competency and their department course results, resulting in a positive effect on their language development over two semesters. In short, instruction through the medium of English within the department, and the CLIL-like (Cummins, 2013) CBI approach proved to be successful (Aguiler & Rodriguez, 2012).

For the third research question as to whether there is a difference in the development of English language competency with respect to genders after being exposed to English in profession and language related courses over a specific period of time, the case study focused on the gender issue which has always provoked discussion. The mean measured for the development of English for the female learners was measured as 59.26 with a standard deviation of 9.987 and for the male learners, the mean was 59.22 with a standard deviation of 9.308. As the means and standard deviation values reveal, the study concluded that there is no significant difference with respect to genders thus rejecting the conventional argument supported by Burstall's study (1975 cited in Ellis, 1994) that female language learners are more prone to develop their language skills. In fact, the results of studies (Boyle, 1987; Nyikos 1990; Bacon 1992) in the last two decades maintain that the two genders actually display no difference in their language development. Similarly, in the EMU context, the language performance of both males and females was alike. Yet at this point, attention must be drawn to the difference between the numbers of male and female

student teachers. Overall, the female student teachers were slightly more than twice the number of male student teachers (129 and 56 respectively) while in the EMU case this proportion became even larger with a group of 62 females as opposed to the 23 males. Referring to the aforementioned close results, it can be argued that the male students on the programme are those with a more enhanced linguistic proficiency, hence the proximity of the results between the genders. Verification of such an assumption calls for further research.

As mentioned in chapter 4, this result may be due to the changes in the twenty-first century societal structure and the individual expectations (whether male or female) of this highly electronic and technological era. In the twenty-first century, all individuals, despite their gender, are obliged to function and compete at a professional level and this necessitates that they are equally well equipped with regards to their education and communicative skills. Thus, those who are more convincing in displaying their qualifications and skills will have an advantage over their rivals. Consequently, irrespectively of gender, individuals are intuitively obliged to concentrate on and expand their verbal skills in order to be successful in the professional arena.

Nonetheless, the insignificant difference should not be considered from a positive standpoint; this does not necessarily denote advancement in language skills. In fact, with the expansion in the use of computers, societal interaction and personal relations are weakening by the day, which in turn is limiting the use of language among individuals. The results could be a reflection of weakening language skills of both genders, thus approaching closer to each other on the communicative level.

## **5.2 Discussion of Further Research Questions**

The fourth research question ‘Is there a significant difference between students’ L1 and English competencies?’ was answered positively and the study proved that there is a significant difference between students’ L1 and English competencies which was a verification of the expectancy that participants have superior L1 competencies when compared to their English abilities. Accordingly, both the English and Turkish essays were evaluated for four criteria, namely task response, cohesion and coherence, lexical response, grammar range and accuracy. The overall result for the English essays was a mean of 17.94 out of 36 with a standard deviation of 4.88 while the mean of the Turkish essays was 23.49 out of 36 with a standard deviation of 6.45. Quite clearly, and as expected the Turkish (L1) writing skills were much better than the study group’s English writing skills (L2). Obviously, their minimal use of and limited exposure to English on a daily basis reinforced the divergence in levels between the two languages’ development. On the other hand, the low means reflecting the level of the participants’ writing skills in Turkish indicate that the writing skills of these university students are only minimally sufficient. That is to say, the ELT students who are being educated through the medium of English may be experiencing a negative backwash in their native language writing skills in the sense that these skills are sustaining their level and the advancement of this ability is being hindered due to the students’ focus on English and consequent distraction from their native language. Evidently, this turns the spotlight onto Cummin’s (2003) interdependence hypothesis and Kraschen’s ‘padding’ notion of transfer, mentioned in Chapter 2. What is more, the relatively low means in the participants’ English language skills could be in effect a reflection of their writing deficiency in L1.

Referring to the fifth research question as to whether there is a correlation between L1 and L2 writing skills, a positive yet insignificant correlation was detected implying that the participants' L2 skills were developing independently from their L1 skills (correlation was 0.165 which was a larger value than the statistical significance value  $p > 0.05$ ), and that there was hardly any interconnection between the development of the two competencies. The explanation of these values would be the development of the participants' L2 writing skills do not correlate with the development of their L1 writing skills. Interpreting this result, it can be purported that the participants' are in a fictitious setting where the main aim is to comprehend the framework of the profession while learning techniques and methods which will be utilized in the prospective teaching position. Thus, with such an immediate and imperative issue on hand, the ELT students are not focusing on, or possibly postponing the development of their written language skills whether this is their L1 or L2, consequently reflecting these results.

The participants who participated in the investigation for the sixth question as to whether there is a correlation between students' language competency and their socio-economic-cultural background represented quite a diverse background with regards to social, economic and cultural status. Cultural aspect in the Turkish Cypriot context may refer to diverse perceptions of family and educational structure with regards to varying areas of the country. Contradictory degrees of significance are assigned to the characterization and evaluation of economic and social status. Particularly, while affluent families from East or South-East Anatolia might have multiple children and minimally educated parents, the opposite formation could be noted in the big cities of Turkey and in Cyprus. Likewise members of the former

family type may know more than one language and speak them fluently due to their racial background, whereas the latter group may not know any other language other than the L1. Yet despite the differing values and preferences of these various groups, the results display a parallelism between the participants' language competency and their socio-economic-cultural and educational background (the Pearson correlation coefficient –  $r$  was a strong 1.000 for 153 participants).

Finally, the results of the various analyses conducted on this study, whether it was parametric or non-parametric, post hoc or not, all proved that there was a statistically significant difference among the universities regarding their students' multiple choice results. The means ranges varied from a low 46.67 for American University to a higher 58.12 for Eastern Mediterranean University. The three other universities, Cyprus International University, Near East University, and Eastern University of Lefke scored mean results 57.5, 54.63, 51.45 respectively. Various reasons can be accounted for these results: Unlike the Cyprus International University and American University, being the oldest university in North Cyprus, the well-established Eastern Mediterranean University applies an experimented and approved system. Both of the aforementioned universities were founded in more recent times, thus bearing the possibility of being handicapped with issues such as staff, system setting, lower numbers or less-qualified student portfolio.

### **5.3 Implications of Results**

The results of this prototype study conclude that while the students' English language skills are positively and adequately reinforced over a period of two semesters with the fortification they receive from the vocational and language courses during their departmental education, there is no significant difference in

students' language competency with respect to genders (Nyikos; 1990, Bacon; 1992). Yet, there is a strong correlation between students' language competency and their socio-economic-cultural background (Burstall; 1979, Preston; 1989; Olstain, Shohamy, Kemp and Chatow, 1990, Skehan, 1990). In addition, the significant difference between students' L1 and English competencies and the almost inexistent correlation between their L1 and L2 writing skills were further results obtained from the study. Finally, when comparing all five universities with respect to their students' language test results, the results proved that there was indeed a significant difference between and among the universities.

With these results in mind, it can be purported that the current structure may be continued with the expectation that the students' English language skills will slightly develop over an extended period of time. Consistent and insistent focus on the English language, increased utilization of it during meetings and discussions with instructors and the promotion of using English by blending in and socializing with students who are speakers of other languages, that is stressing the importance of the 'interplay between learning in formal and informal language learning environments' (Rauto, 2006) are suggestions that may be offered towards the further development of the case. It is necessary to understand "how higher and vocational education support deep understanding, and the creation and enabling of knowledge" (p.34) so that active participation can be promoted. (Jappinen, 2006). Richards (1998) states that the level of English proficiency for non-native English speaking teachers is of utmost importance, thus the language proficiency of student-teachers carries vital significance. Furthermore, in their study, Coskun and Daloglu (2010) reflect on a newly redesigned ELT programme at a Turkish university reminding the reader the

importance of the language proficiency aspect of student teachers' in ELT programmes. Likewise, in the Eastern Mediterranean University context, student teachers need to further their literacy skills to the highest possible level as this will prove beneficial in two perspectives. Firstly, they will be adequately equipped at the linguistic proficiency level in their future classroom. And secondly, their well-developed language proficiency will enable them to comprehend, evaluate and utilize their profession related courses.

With regards to the gender issue, the study implies that in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, with such significant variations in the role models that the two genders represent and, in fact with the development of the notion 'unisex', the obligations of the two genders have changed dramatically. After all, the characteristics of the two genders were and have been inflicted on them by society. Likewise, the individuals, regardless of gender, are coerced to compete against each other and this eventually leads to their striving to be as capable as the opponent, and thus to the equalization of the individuals' skills. In short, while the individual is being taught another language, the gender issue does not seem to be such an impediment as opposed to the past thus requiring the teacher and the teaching material preparing authorities to place less consideration on this issue and focus more on other pertinent factors.

Likewise, the socio-economic and cultural background of the Turkish student does not provide much implication with regards to the pedagogical needs of the students. With the eclectic societal, cultural and economic configuration of the Turkish and Turkish Cypriot people, students cannot be categorised according to the conventional norms of pedagogy. The requisites of the Turkish student can vary immensely as compared to the stereotype. Such being the case, the prosperous array of Turkish



culture and people requires that textbooks, teaching materials, techniques and approaches need to be reconsidered if they are to cater the Turkish learner with utmost efficiency. Additionally, the training teachers' awareness should be raised by equipping them with informative knowledge regarding the lifestyles, expectations and subtle cultural differences of the Turkish people. Only then can the novice teacher feel more able and secure in the classroom.

Indeed, with regards to the main theory this study has been based upon, that is taking Cummins' interdependence hypothesis into consideration, a successful language teacher needs to be able and efficient in his/her native language. This research has proven that the Turkish students' L1 writing skills are not as sound as they should be at this level of education. What's more, they lack the necessary English language skills specifically in writing which is unacceptable in their prospective profession. In order to overcome these limitations, ELT students should undergo a longer and more vigorous English learning and development period, preferably before they commence their vocational studies. An intensive language course, if possible, abroad will earn them the fluency, understanding and flexibility of both the language and the culture which will enable them to transfer this knowledge more effectively and expertly once they start the profession.

Finally, the difference between and among the 5 universities with respect to their students' level of English is an issue that should be tackled at an administrative level at the universities and possibly at the governmental level (YÖDAK- Board of Supervision and Accreditation of Higher Education). Evaluation of the language programmes, the level, type and reliability of related assessment, the amount of

language instruction provided to the ELTE students and the qualifications of the instructors are factors that require scrutiny.

Overall, the implications of this prototype study and the mode of action to be taken can be recapitulated by initially stating that the current CLIL-like English medium instruction through CBI may be continued with a more intensive concentration on the development of the students' English language skills. However, it is of utmost necessity that a constant and persistent concentration on the development of the English language and increased practice during both formal and informal gatherings is sustained. With reference to gender issue, the modern era notion 'unisex' and the equalization of the individuals' skills should also be considered in education. Individuals should be considered regardless of their gender, thus necessitating the teacher and the teaching material preparing authorities to place less consideration on this issue and focus more on other pertinent factors.

On the other hand, the socio-economic and cultural configuration of the Turkish and Turkish Cypriot student does not allow them to be categorised according to the conventional norms of pedagogy. Such being the case, the textbooks, teaching materials, techniques and approaches need to be reconsidered if they are to cater the Turkish learner with utmost efficiency. Additionally, the training teachers' need to be supported with awareness raising courses on delicate cultural variances, societal routines and personal beliefs. Finally, the language preparation period for the ELT students should be revised/amended, so that students have the opportunity to experience a longer and more intensive English learning and development period, preferably prior to the commencement of their formal vocational studies. An

intensive language course abroad would provide students the fluency, comprehension and flexibility of both the language and the culture.

As for the difference among the 5 universities with respect to the students' level of English, this issue should be dealt with both at university administrative levels and at governmental level. Language programmes, the level, type and reliability of assessment involved within departments, the amount of language instruction provided to the ELT students and the qualifications of the instructors require evaluation.

#### **5.4 Suggestion for Further Research**

The results of the current study can be fortified with further research. Suggestions for related research would be as follows:

1. The continual study which was conducted for two continuous semesters could be extended to 3 – 4 semesters so that the students' language development and the effect of the CLIL-like Content -based instruction can be evaluated over a longer period.
2. The prototype study can be expanded and used with a larger sample.
3. Since the L1 and English comparative study focused solely on the writing abilities of the participants, a further comparative study may be conducted for the reading and listening skills in the two languages, thus enabling an overall comparison.
4. The gender issue could be pursued for further detailed investigation.

5. A proposal may be submitted to YÖDAK (Board of Supervision and Accreditation of Higher Education) recommending a standardised vocational assessment system which would be taken in partial fulfilment of the requirements of an undergraduate degree. This would bring uniformity to the fundamental vocational and language knowledge required by any novice teacher while also securing individual universities with the flexibility to appraise their own students within their own system.

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## **APPENDICES**

## Appendix A: Multiple Choice Test

### Questions

1. "Why didn't James play baseball yesterday?"  
"He \_\_\_\_\_ his room instead."
  - a) must cleaned
  - b) must clean
  - c) has been cleaned
  - d) had to clean
  
2. "Why do you want to meet Professor Orwell?"  
"Because he is \_\_\_\_\_ wrote the book about my grandfather."
  - a) the one who
  - b) the one whom
  - c) the one
  - d) him who
  
3. "Do you like this cake?"  
"Yes, it is \_\_\_\_\_ I've ever had."
  - a) good
  - b) better
  - c) the good
  - d) the best
  
4. "Did you buy a shirt for Steve?"  
"No, because I don't know \_\_\_\_\_ he wears"
  - a) what size
  - b) the what size
  - c) of the size
  - d) what the size
  
5. "How did you spend your time in California?"  
"I \_\_\_\_\_ to enjoy walking by the sea."
  - a) was used
  - b) was using
  - c) used
  - d) got used

6. "What is Bill's mother sewing?"  
"She's making \_\_\_\_\_ a new shirt."
- a) him
  - b) his
  - c) to him
  - d) himself
7. "Who was at the door?"  
"\_\_\_\_\_ selling magazines."
- a) A one
  - b) Anyone
  - c) Whoever
  - d) Someone
8. "Can I help you?"  
"Yes, I'd like \_\_\_\_\_ a favour."
- a) ask you
  - b) to ask you
  - c) ask to you
  - d) to ask to you
9. "Do you know where I can buy a red pen?"  
"Well, that store sells green and blue, but I don't know if they have any \_\_\_\_\_."
- a) reds one
  - b) ones red
  - c) one red
  - d) red ones
10. "Are you going to go to the game?"  
"I don't know: I might not \_\_\_\_\_ this work in time to go"
- a) complete
  - b) to complete
  - c) completed
  - d) will have completed
11. "Who was that man?"  
"He's a student \_\_\_\_\_."
- a) of mine
  - b) of my
  - c) of me
  - d) to me

12. "Tom and Edward are brothers."  
"No wonder they look so much \_\_\_\_\_."
- a) like same
  - b) like
  - c) alike
  - d) same
13. "Did Mary go to Japan on her vacation year?"  
"No. She wanted to, but she \_\_\_\_\_ enough time."
- a) doesn't had
  - b) didn't have
  - c) hadn't had
  - d) didn't has
14. "Were Mike and his family at home when their house burned down?"  
"No, they \_\_\_\_\_ away for a week when it happened."
- a) have been
  - b) had been
  - c) having been
  - d) were being
15. "Did you enjoy your visit to the United States?"  
"Yes, I did. I \_\_\_\_\_ many things about American life"
- a) have learning
  - b) was learned
  - c) learned
  - d) learn
16. "Tony was unhappy because he wasn't invited to the party."  
"If I \_\_\_\_\_ lost his phone number, I would have invited him."
- a) hadn't
  - b) haven't
  - c) had
  - d) have
17. "Do you often go to Jumbo's?"  
"No, we \_\_\_\_\_ ever go there any more."
- a) not
  - b) enough
  - c) almost
  - d) hardly

18. "What did you get your son for his birthday?"  
"He has always wanted a bicycle so I finally \_\_\_\_\_"
- a) gave one him
  - b) to him gave one
  - c) gave him one
  - d) gave to him one
19. "How do you know what John said?"  
"I heard \_\_\_\_\_ on the phone"
- a) him talking
  - b) he is talking
  - c) his talking
  - d) him talked
20. "What is your job?"  
"I am an \_\_\_\_\_"
- a) archaeologist
  - b) archeologer
  - c) archaeology
  - d) archaeological
21. "Did you go shopping after class yesterday?"  
"No, I was so tired \_\_\_\_\_ I went home to bed."
- a) but
  - b) that
  - c) as
  - d) than
22. "Why does Ben want to join the army?"  
"He believes that \_\_\_\_\_ his country is an honour."
- a) serve
  - b) serves
  - c) serving
  - d) he serves
23. "Do you want coffee or tea?"  
"I prefer tea \_\_\_\_\_ coffee."
- a) to
  - b) than
  - c) either
  - d) rather

24. "Have you ever read Don Quixote?"  
"No, whenever I start it I \_\_\_\_\_ help falling asleep."
- a) won't
  - b) can't
  - c) couldn't
  - d) wouldn't
25. "My pencil is broken!"  
"Don't worry, I'll get you \_\_\_\_\_."
- a) one other
  - b) some other
  - c) other
  - d) another
26. "How was your vacation in Europe?"  
"Wonderful, but I would like to \_\_\_\_\_ more countries."
- a) have visited
  - b) have been visiting
  - c) be visited
  - d) visiting
27. "Are you going to learn to fly an airplane.?"  
"I don't know \_\_\_\_\_ driving a car, flying a plane is very difficult."
- a) Unlike
  - b) Except
  - c) Rather
  - d) Differing
28. "When did you see Anthony?"  
"As I \_\_\_\_\_ home last night."
- a) had gone
  - b) had been going
  - c) was going
  - d) was gone
29. "What did you think of Susan's idea?"  
"I found it very \_\_\_\_\_"
- a) surprise
  - b) surprised
  - c) surprising
  - d) surprisingly



30. "Did you go to the concert with Albert?"  
"He was sick, so I had to go ....."
- a) to myself
  - b) by myself
  - c) myself
  - d) myself alone
31. Many homes were \_\_\_\_\_ in the Great Chicago Fire.
- a) killed
  - b) departed
  - c) destroyed
  - d) thrown
32. I read a very interesting \_\_\_\_\_ in the newspaper yesterday.
- a) evidence
  - b) appearance
  - c) article
  - d) substance
33. It's a holiday, and all the stores\_\_\_\_\_.
- a) aren't working
  - b) are closed
  - c) are disconnected
  - d) are finished
34. The professor has read Otter's articles but he is not \_\_\_\_\_ with the work of Sparks.
- a) smart
  - b) knowing
  - c) familiar
  - d) friendly
35. On this recording, the London Symphony Orchestra was \_\_\_\_\_ by Toscanini
- a) conducted
  - b) displayed
  - c) mastered
  - d) produced
36. Bill is applying for a better \_\_\_\_\_ in the company.
- a) selection
  - b) business
  - c) position
  - d) success

37. When spring comes, all the ice on the ground will \_\_\_\_\_
- a) lose
  - b) melt
  - c) wet
  - d) water
38. Coffee trees are found in South America, but they are not \_\_\_\_\_ to the United States.
- a) friendly
  - b) native
  - c) independent
  - d) personal
39. Mrs. Jones looks so different now that I didn't \_\_\_\_\_ her at first.
- a) remark
  - b) view
  - c) separate
  - d) recognize
40. There were no \_\_\_\_\_ to the accident.
- a) viewers
  - b) members
  - c) witnesses
  - d) scenes
41. John graduated from medical school but can't decide what \_\_\_\_\_ of medicine to specialize in.
- a) branch
  - b) district
  - c) title
  - d) chamber
42. The way the new worker is doing his job \_\_\_\_\_ his boss.
- a) enjoys
  - b) likes
  - c) agrees
  - d) pleases
43. Alex told his friends about the trip he was planning, but he didn't \_\_\_\_\_ it to his parents.
- a) reply
  - b) mention
  - c) notice
  - d) recall

44. The winter in Florida is very \_\_\_\_\_
- a) little
  - b) tiny
  - c) small
  - d) short
45. It's hot in this room! Would you \_\_\_\_\_ if I opened the window?
- a) permit
  - b) satisfy
  - c) mind
  - d) spoil
46. That businessman owns a large automobile \_\_\_\_\_
- a) production
  - b) factory
  - c) machinery
  - d) convention
47. The lady wore a hat to \_\_\_\_\_ her face from the sun.
- a) disappear
  - b) defend
  - c) contain
  - d) protect
48. I know he `s very happy because he has a \_\_\_\_\_ smile on his face.
- a) various
  - b) flat
  - c) hollow
  - d) broad
49. You must have a ticket to be \_\_\_\_\_ to the movie theatre.
- a) located
  - b) admitted
  - c) attended
  - d) entered
50. Do you have your father's \_\_\_\_\_ to use his car?
- a) allowance
  - b) possession
  - c) permission
  - d) demand

51. The newspaper \_\_\_\_\_ a fire on Main Street.
- a) published
  - b) printed
  - c) announced
  - d) reported
52. The students came here to \_\_\_\_\_ their knowledge of engineering.
- a) increase
  - b) grow
  - c) suppose
  - d) climb
53. He hoped to \_\_\_\_\_ time by taking an airplane instead of the train.
- a) produce
  - b) attempt
  - c) gain
  - d) enlarge
54. What did you put in the soup to give it such an unusual \_\_\_\_\_?
- a) sense
  - b) dish
  - c) taste
  - d) fashion
55. The manager \_\_\_\_\_ the decision to hire Able instead of Parks.
- a) asked
  - b) made
  - c) chose
  - d) said
56. It's dangerous to sail a small boat when the water is very \_\_\_\_\_.
- a) dusty
  - b) proud
  - c) rough
  - d) huge
57. No one answered the phone when I called, so I \_\_\_\_\_ that no one was at home.
- a) concluded
  - b) finished
  - c) resulted
  - d) ended

58. The ship crashed on the rocky \_\_\_\_\_ of Ireland.

- a) bottom
- b) route
- c) coast
- d) limit

59. She talks about herself so much that she \_\_\_\_\_ everyone.

- a) occupies
- b) appeals
- c) sleeps
- d) bores

60. The boys went fishing in the \_\_\_\_\_ near their house.

- a) sport
- b) porch
- c) swing
- d) stream

61. Mark asked Kathleen if she would explain the situation to Jan.

Who didn't understand the situation?

- a) Jan
- b) Mark
- c) Kathleen
- d) Mark and Jan

62. Harley, despite his injury, finished ahead of Jamieson in the last race.

What were the results of the race?

- a) Jamieson did better than Harley.
- b) Harley did better than Jamieson
- c) Jamieson was hurt in the race
- d) Jamieson and Harley tied for last place

63. Mary would have studied engineering last year if she hadn't been as sick as she was.

What happened to Mary?

- a) She was sick of studying engineering
- b) She is sick because she studied too much
- c) She studied even though she was sick
- d) She was too sick to study

64. If a handsome face and hard work were what made a man a movie star, Rex Rubble would certainly be one.

What does the author say about Rex Rubble?

- a) He is a movie star
- b) He is too handsome to be a star
- c) He is not handsome enough to be a star
- d) He is handsome and hardworking

65. There are many students as diligent as Edwin, but only a few as intelligent.

What does the writer say about Edwin?

- a) He is unusually intelligent
- b) He is unusually diligent
- c) He is less intelligent than most students
- d) He is less diligent than most students

66. It wasn't so much his gigantic appetite as it was his rude table manners that offended Lady Grandiose so greatly.

What did Lady Grandiose dislike the most?

- a) His manners
- b) His bad mood
- c) His appetite
- d) His large size

67. The five beautiful race horses together weren't worth as much to Alan as any single work horse.

How much was a work horse worth to Alan?

- a) The same as 5 race horses
- b) The same as 1 race horse
- c) More than 5 race horses
- d) Less than 5 race horses

68. There is a chance that certain of the predictions of 1960 will not be fulfilled.

What does the writer say about the predictions?

- a) All have come true since 1960
- b) None have come true
- c) Some may not come true
- d) Some came true in 1960

69. Warren Piece was one of a team of three Huron High School students which was named Michigan's first place winner in the 1976 high school mathematics competition.

Who won the prize?

- a) Warren's 3 students
- b) A team of 3 students
- c) Warren and 3 of his team mates
- d) Warren alone

70. No matter what course the government takes, the future of the Collar Brewery seems reasonably sound.

The writer is certain that the \_\_\_\_\_

- a) government will have problems in the future.
- b) brewery will have problems in the future.
- c) brewery's future is independent of the government.
- d) brewery's future depends on the government.

71. The child's development was retarded, but not so much so that he was unable to cope with the curriculum in the middle school.

The child \_\_\_\_\_

- a) was better than the average students.
- b) was an average student.
- c) was slow , but could keep with the other students.
- d) was slow, and couldn't keep up with other students.

72. Trigger, last season's top two-year-old horse, came back to the race at Stafford last week looking as good as ever.

How has Trigger been performing and looking?

- a) Better last year than this year
- b) Better this year than last year
- c) Poorly last year and this year
- d) Well last year and this year

73. According to these figures, the largest town in Jackson County is smaller than the smallest town in Lincoln County.

How does the size of towns in Jackson County compare with those of Lincoln County?

- a) Only one town in Jackson is larger than towns in Lincoln.
- b) All the towns in Jackson County are larger.
- c) The largest town is in Jackson and the smallest in Lincoln.
- d) All the towns in Jackson County are smaller.

74. Had Jim not stayed up so late last night, he wouldn't be so exhausted today.

How does Jim feel today?

- a) He's not tired because he went to bed early.
- b) He's not tired although he went to bed late.
- c) He's tired because he went to bed late.
- d) He's tired although he went to bed early.

75. It's doubtful that Kearns is smart enough to win the scholarship.

What does the writer say about Kearns?

- a) Kearns probably won't win.
- b) Kearns probably will win.
- c) Kearns doubts he will win.
- d) Kearns is smart.

76. Harry told me that he can't believe it has been such a long time since he has seen Mary.

Has Harry seen Mary recently?

- a) No, but Mary has seen him.
- b) No, but he saw her a long time ago.
- c) No, but he will see her for a long time.
- d) Yes, he saw her for a long time.

77. She was an admirable woman in many ways, but having raised a large family on very little money and very high ideals she felt entitled in her old age to put her own interests ahead of the interests of anyone else.

As an old woman, she felt it was her right to \_\_\_\_\_.

- a) be selfish
- b) spend money
- c) have high ideas
- d) live with her family

78. Had John not broken his leg, he might have gone skiing with us.

What happened to John?

- a) He went skiing
- b) He may have gone skiing
- c) He broke his leg
- d) He didn't break his leg



79. The President's visit to France followed by 2 weeks his visit to Germany.

What did the President do?

- a) He went to France first
- b) He went to Germany first
- c) He visited France for 2 weeks
- d) He visited France 2 weeks ago

80. While everyone in the US society knows what TV cameras look like, some might be surprised by the appearance of the medical school colour cameras, which are equipped with massive close-up lenses and a pole on which is hung a mirror.

.What might surprise some people?

- a) That TV cameras are used in the medical school
- b) What TV cameras in the medical school look like
- c) Any TV camera
- d) A colour TV camera

**THIS IS THE END OF THE MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST. PLEASE GO ON TO THE ESSAY WRITING SECTION.**

## Appendix B: Questionnaire



**Dear Student,**

**Please answer the following multiple choice questions on the answer sheet provided and write the essay given on the final page. Legible and visible handwriting will be appreciated.**

**DURATION: 100 minutes**

**GROUP :**

**DATE :**

Dear Student,

The following questionnaire is designed to obtain data for research purposes and thus all information accumulated will be treated with discretion and confidentiality. Names and personal details will not be disclosed under any circumstances and the collected data will be revealed only in statistical and numerical format. Therefore your attentive stance and sincere reflection of the information will increase the reliability and validity of the study and is consequently of utmost importance.

The following questionnaire can be completed by

- i) writing the relevant answers
- ii) ticking (✓) in the appropriate boxes

80 Multiple Choice questions and a short essay question which can be written on the same page follows the questionnaire

Thank you for your participation.

**BACKGROUND INFORMATION (please circle)**

1. Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Number: \_\_\_\_\_

2. Age: \_\_\_\_\_ Place of birth: \_\_\_\_\_

3. Gender: M F

---

4. Education :

Primary School: \_\_\_\_\_ state private

Junior High School: \_\_\_\_\_ state private

Senior High School: \_\_\_\_\_ state private

Number of terms at university preparatory school:

none 1 2 3 4 more

---

5. How many years have you studied English?:

less than 1 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 more than 7

6. What type of English qualification/s have you had?

Proficiency Exam TOEFL IELTS IGSCE GCE FCE Other

7. What is your native language? \_\_\_\_\_

8. Do you know any other languages? Yes No

If Yes, which language/s? \_\_\_\_\_

9. Did you grow up in an environment where your native language was spoken?

Yes No

If No, a) where did you grow up? \_\_\_\_\_

b) which language/s was/were spoken? \_\_\_\_\_

---

10. Number of Brothers/Sisters: none 1 2 3 4 more

11. Approximate family income you are dependent on in TL: \_\_\_\_\_ TL

## MOTHER'S

11 Age: \_\_\_\_\_

---

12. Education :

i. No schooling:

ii. Primary School:      completed      left school

Name of school: \_\_\_\_\_ state      private      don't know

iii. Junior High School:   completed      left school

Name of school: \_\_\_\_\_ state      private      don't know

iv. Senior High School:   completed      left school

Name of school: \_\_\_\_\_ state      private      don't know

v. University Degree:      completed      left university

Name of university: \_\_\_\_\_ state      private      don't know

vi. Master's Degree:      completed      left university

Name of university: \_\_\_\_\_ state      private      don't know

vii. Doctorate Degree:   completed      left university

Name of university: \_\_\_\_\_ state      private      don't know

---

13. Level of English:

(*excellent*) 1      2      3      4      (*poor*) 5      none

14. What type of English qualification has she had?:(if any)

Proficiency Exam      TOEFL      IELTS      IGSCCE      GCE      FCE      Other

15. Knowledge of other language/s?      Yes      No

If Yes, which language/s? \_\_\_\_\_  
(*indicate*)

---

16. Profession : \_\_\_\_\_

17. Approximate Income in TL:      none      400 – 600 / month  
   650 – 900 / month      950 – 1300 / month  
   1350 – 2000 / month      more than 2000 / month

## FATHER'S

18 Age: \_\_\_\_\_

---

19. Education :

i. No schooling:

ii. Primary School:          completed          left school

Name of school: \_\_\_\_\_ state          private          don't know

iii. Junior High School:    completed          left school

Name of school: \_\_\_\_\_ state          private          don't know

iv. Senior High School:    completed          left school

Name of school: \_\_\_\_\_ state          private          don't know

v. University Degree:      completed          left university

Name of university: \_\_\_\_\_ state          private          don't know

vi. Master's Degree:        completed          left university

Name of university: \_\_\_\_\_ state          private          don't know

vii. Doctorate Degree:      completed          left university

Name of university: \_\_\_\_\_ state     private     don't know

---

20. Level of English:

(excellent) 1          2          3          4          (poor)5          none

21. What type of English qualification has she had?:(if any)

Proficiency Exam      TOEFL      IELTS      IGSCCE      GCE      FCE      Other

22. Knowledge of other language/s?          Yes          No

If Yes, which language/s? \_\_\_\_\_  
(indicate)

---

23. Profession : \_\_\_\_\_

24. Approximate Income in YTL:    none  
650 – 900 / month  
1350 – 2000 / month

400 – 600/ month  
950 – 1300 / month  
more than 2000 / month

## Appendix C: Writing Tasks

As more and more students enter universities, academic qualifications are losing their value. To ahead in many professions, more than one degree (extra certificate/s or another university degree or a master's degree or a PhD) is required and in the future it is likely that people will take more than one degree course before even starting work. This is an undesirable situation.

Do you agree or disagree? Discuss your opinion in about 250 words.

Bazı ülkelerde üniversite eğitimi hangi alanda olursa olsun yabancı dilde verilmesi gerektiği savunulurken, bu fikrin tam tersi olan görüşler de yadsınamaz. Sizce lisans eğitiminin alan gözetmeksizin yabancı dilde verilmesinin olumlu ve olumsuz yönleri nelerdir?

Bu konu hakkında 200 – 250 kelimelik bir yazı yazınız.

# Appendix D: Marking Descriptors for Writing Tasks



IELTS Task 2 Writing band descriptors (public version)

Band	Task Responses	Coherence and Cohesion	Lexical Resource	Grammatical Range and Accuracy
9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>fully addresses all parts of the task</li> <li>presents a fully developed position in answer to the question with relevant, fully extended and well supported ideas</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses cohesion in such a way that it attracts no attention</li> <li>skillfully manages paragraphing</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a wide range of vocabulary with very natural and sophisticated control of lexical features; rare minor errors occur only as 'slips'</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a wide range of structures with full flexibility and accuracy; rare minor errors occur only as 'slips'</li> </ul>
8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>skillfully addresses all parts of the task</li> <li>presents a well-developed response to the question with relevant, extended and supported ideas</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>sequences information and ideas logically</li> <li>manages all aspects of cohesion well</li> <li>uses paragraphing sufficiently and appropriately</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a wide range of vocabulary fluently and flexibly to convey precise meanings</li> <li>skillfully uses uncommon lexical items but there may be occasional inaccuracies in word choice and collocation</li> <li>produces rare errors in spelling and/or word formation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a wide range of structures</li> <li>the majority of sentences are error-free</li> <li>makes only very occasional errors or inappropriacies</li> </ul>
7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>addresses all parts of the task</li> <li>presents a clear position throughout the response</li> <li>presents, extends and supports main ideas, but there may be a tendency to over-generalise and/or supporting ideas may lack focus</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>logically organises information and ideas; there is clear progression throughout</li> <li>uses a range of cohesive devices appropriately although there may be some under-over-use</li> <li>presents a clear central topic within each paragraph</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a sufficient range of vocabulary to allow some flexibility and precision</li> <li>uses less common lexical items with some awareness of style and collocation</li> <li>may produce occasional errors in word choice, spelling and/or word formation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a variety of complex structures</li> <li>produces frequent error-free sentences</li> <li>has good control of grammar and punctuation but may make a few errors</li> </ul>
6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>addresses all parts of the task although some parts may be more fully covered than others</li> <li>presents a relevant position although the conclusions may become unclear or repetitive</li> <li>presents relevant main ideas but some may be inadequately developed/unclear</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>arranges information and ideas coherently and there is a clear overall progression</li> <li>uses cohesive devices effectively, but cohesion within and/or between sentences may be faulty or mechanical</li> <li>may not always use referencing clearly or appropriately</li> <li>uses paragraphing, but not always logically</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses an adequate range of vocabulary for the task</li> <li>attempts to use less common vocabulary but with some inaccuracy</li> <li>makes some errors in spelling and/or word formation, but they do not impede communication</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a mix of simple and complex sentence forms</li> <li>makes some errors in grammar and punctuation but they rarely reduce communication</li> </ul>
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>addresses the task only partially; the format may be inappropriate in places</li> <li>expresses a position but the development is not always clear and there may be no</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>presents information with some organisation but there may be a lack of overall progression</li> <li>makes inadequate, inaccurate or over-</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a limited range of vocabulary, but this is minimally adequate for the task</li> <li>may make noticeable errors in</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses only a limited range of structures</li> <li>attempts complex sentences but these tend to be less accurate than simple sentences</li> </ul>

	<p>conclusions drawn</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ presents some main ideas but these are limited and not sufficiently developed, there may be irrelevant detail</li> </ul>	<p>use of cohesive devices</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ may be repetitive because of lack of referencing and substitution</li> <li>■ may not write in paragraphs, or paragraphing may be inadequate</li> <li>■ presents information and ideas but these are not arranged coherently and there is no clear progression in the response</li> <li>■ uses some basic cohesive devices but these may be inaccurate or repetitive</li> <li>■ may not write in paragraphs or their use may be confusing</li> </ul>	<p>spelling and/or word formation that may cause some difficulty for the reader</p>	<p>■ may make frequent grammatical errors and punctuation may be faulty; errors can cause some difficulty for the reader</p>
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ responds to the task only in a minimal way or the answer is tangential; the format may be inappropriate</li> <li>■ presents a position but this is unclear</li> <li>■ presents some main ideas but these are difficult to identify and may be repetitive, irrelevant or not well supported</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ uses only basic vocabulary which may be used repetitively or which may be inappropriate for the task</li> <li>■ has limited control of word formation and/or spelling; errors may cause strain for the reader</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ uses only a very limited range of structures with only rare use of subordinate clauses</li> <li>■ some structures are accurate but errors predominate, and punctuation is often faulty</li> </ul>
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ does not adequately address any part of the task</li> <li>■ does not express a clear position</li> <li>■ presents few ideas, which are largely undeveloped or irrelevant</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ does not organise ideas logically</li> <li>■ may use a very limited range of cohesive devices, and those used may not indicate a logical relationship between ideas</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ uses only a very limited range of words and expressions with very limited control of word formation and/or spelling</li> <li>■ errors may severely distort the message</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ attempts sentence forms but errors in grammar and punctuation predominate and distort the meaning</li> </ul>
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ barely responds to the task</li> <li>■ does not express a position</li> <li>■ may attempt to present one or two ideas but there is no development</li> <li>■ answer is completely unrelated to the task</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ has very little control of organisational features</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ uses an extremely limited range of vocabulary; essentially no control of word formation and/or spelling</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ cannot use sentence forms except in memorised phrases</li> </ul>
1		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ fails to communicate any message</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ can only use a few isolated words</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ cannot use sentence forms at all</li> </ul>
0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ does not attend</li> <li>■ does not attempt the task in any way</li> <li>■ writes a totally memorised response</li> </ul>			