The 6th METU INTERNATIONAL
POSTGRADUATE CONFERENCE
in
LINGUISTICS and LANGUAGE TEACHING

Proceedings

Edited by
Derya ÇOLAK-KARADAŞ
Ferit KILIÇKAYA

METU

Murat Kitabevi

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FOREWORD

The Sixth International METU Postgraduate Conference in Linguistics and Language Teaching was hosted by Middle East Technical University. The conference included 14 concurrent sessions presented by both national and international presenterns.

We must sincerely thank the presenters, chairpersons and the students in our department, who contributed so magnificently to the success of the conference. We tried hard to ensure that the conference would be well-organised. We hope that it met the expectations.

We are grateful to the presenters and the participants for their thought provoking contributions. We extend our very best wishes to you wherever you may be around the world.

Derya ÇOKAL-KARADAŞ & Ferit KILIÇKAYA
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An Analysis of the Possessive Construction in Persian

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This paper will present an analysis of the Possessive construction from the perspective of the Minimal program and demonstrate how it is different from English possessive construction argued by Bernstein and Tortora (2005). I argue that in Persian, unlike English, neither the possessive pronouns (*-æm, -æt, …*) correspond to the copular forms nor does the possessive element *-e* in full DP possessives function as a number marker. A possessive head and an agreement head, according to my analysis, are the two functional heads argued to compose the different types of possessive construction of Persian. In some types, however, either the possessive head or the agreement head is not realized phonetically; rather, they are hypothesized to function underlyingly. A general theoretical repercussion attained through the analysis presented here is that making broad linguistic generalization based merely on a small corpus of data from one language or anoth should be avoided.

1. Introduction

In this paper, I will present a new analysis of the possessive construction in Persian from the perspective of the generativist approach, specifically from the view point of the minimalist program. My suggested pattern with respect to possessive construction of Persian distinguishes two different possessive forms: Possessive pronouns (distinguishers) *-æm, -æt,…* as in *ketab-æm* (my book) and the possessive element *-e* in full DPs in structures like *ketab-e armin* (Armin's book). I will argue, based on the data of Persian in this regard that the possessive construction of Persian does not fully correspond to Bernstein and Tortora's findings on English possessive construction. I will, especially, come to the point that both AgrP and PossP are assumed to be present in both possessive forms. In some structures (full DPs), however, the agreement head (Agr) does not have any phonetic realization, and in others (structures with singular possessive pronouns) it is the possessive head (Poss) which lacks phonetic realization.

Section 2 introduces a brief analysis proposed by Bernstein and Tortora on English possessive construction and related issues. Presenting and analyzing Persian data, section 3 focuses on comparison between English and Persian possessives based on the findings achieved by them. In section 4, conclusion of the proposed materials is presented.

2. Bernstein and Tortora's Argument on English Possessive Forms

In an article entitled "two types of possessive forms in English", Bernstein and Tortora (Bernstein & Tortora, 2005) have given a new analysis of possessive construction in English. They have distinguished two types of possessive structures in the language: 1) possessive pronouns *his, their,...,* and 2) full DP possessive forms. By presenting some arguments, they have assumed correspondence between pronominal endings with copular BE forms in English. Specifically, they argued, *-s* in pronouns like *'his'* corresponds with the copula *'is'* and *-r* in pronouns like *'their'* corresponds with *'are'*. Their evidence is the similar patterns found in paradigms for both possessive pronouns and copular BE forms depicted in (1) and (2):

(1) my name   ou<u>r</u> name
     xxxxxxxx   you<u>r</u> name
     her name   thei<u>r</u> name
     hi<u>s</u> name
     it<u>s</u> name

(2) I'm happy.   We'<u>re</u> happy.
     xxxxxxxxx   You'<u>re</u> happy.
     He'<u>s</u> happy.   They'<u>re</u> happy.
     She'<u>s</u> happy.
     It'<u>s</u> happy.

Specifically, they propose that the possessive pronoun consists of the nominative pronominal form plus a form of the copula, which agrees with the nominative pronoun in number. By adopting the idea proposed by Rouvert (1991), Ritter (1995) and Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002), that certain pronominal forms are NumP, they proposed the following diagram for exhibiting the internal structure of possessive pronouns: (3)
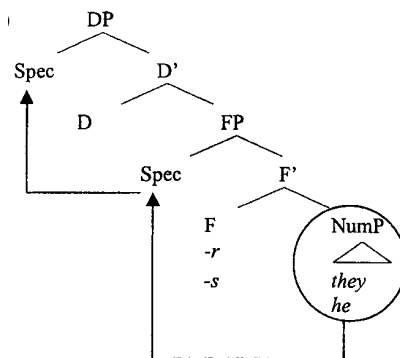
Given the proposal that *-s* corresponds with singular and *-r* corresponds with plural, the spec-head relation between the pronoun and the agreement yields *he + s* (=*his*) and *they + r* (=*their*).

On the other hand, given the data in (4), in which ϕ represents plural in the CP domain with main verbs, they propose morphological exhibition (5) for full DP possessives:

(4) a. She knows. b. They know ϕ.

(5) a. the kid's mother b. the kids' ϕ mother

In other words, *'s* in (5a) is a singular number, not a copular form. That is, *-s* and *-r* in the possessive pronoun, on one hand, and *'s* in the full DP, on the other hand, occupy two different syntactic positions. This distinction is approved by coordination facts depicted by (6) and (7):

(6) a. Jack and Jill'<u>s</u> house b. Jack and the boy'<u>s</u> house

(7) *we and thei<u>r</u> house (cf. ou<u>r</u> and thei<u>r</u> house)

These examples show that a single *'s* marker is sufficient per coordination with full DP possessives (6) , but not with pronominal possessives (7). This supports a more general rule that only structurally parallel elements are allowed to be coordinated.

To show ' tight ' connection between *–s/-r* and pronouns, on one hand, and a lack of such connection in DP possessives, on the other hand, they adopt Kayne's approach to possessives, which takes possessive DPs like *Mary's friends* to involve the structure (8).

(8)
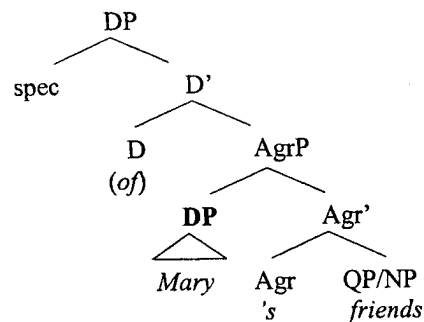
For Kayne, the *'s* of *Mary's* occupies an Agr head, which takes the possessive as its complement. If the QP/NP *friends* moves to the spec of the larger DP, the presence of the morpheme *of* is triggered (as the head of the larger possessive DP), yielding *friends of Mary's*. Thus, as exhibited in structures (3) and (8) , *-s/-r* are tightly connected to pronouns and form a constituent with them, and correspond to copular forms *is* and *are*; while a DP possessive element, exhibits an agreement pattern (singular/plural), a pattern found in lexical verbs (s/ϕ).

3. Possessive Construction in Persian

3.1. Introduction

In this section, I intend to provide a general analysis of Persian possessive construction. In my view, Persian possessive forms are dramatically different from that of English observed in the proceeding section, both morphologically and syntactically. To better grasp the issue, let's first compare Persian possessive forms with what Bernstein and Tortora argued to be correspondent in English. In other words, we want to see whether possessive pronouns and copular forms of BE on one hand, and -*e* in full DP possessives (*ketab-e armin* ' Armin's book ') and the number marker, on the other hand, are somehow correlated or not.

3.2. Possessive pronoun and copula

Observe, first, the possessive pronouns paradigm of Persian in (9):

(9) *ketab-æm*   ' my book '   *ketab-eman*   ' our book '
     ketab-æt   ' your book '   *ketab-etan*   ' your book '
     ketab-æš   ' his / her book ' *ketab-ešan*   ' their book '

If we are to attempt to discover a pattern in (9), we may want to adopt the following suggestion:
*"In the left column which exhibits singular possessive pronouns, we notice the pattern **-C**, in which C is a consonant realized as " m, t, š " for first, second and third persons, respectively. In the right column, too, we witness the pattern **-eCan**, in which " m, t, š ", again, are for first, second and third persons, respectively."*
Thus, as we observed, *m, t, š*, represent, respectively, first, second and third persons (either singular or plural). Their number value (singular/ plural) depends on the pattern (-*C* or -*eCan*) they are included.
Let's, now, notice the copula BE paradigm in (10):

(10) *xub-æm / hæst-æm* ' I'm well '   *xub-im / hæst-im* ' We're well '
     xub-i / hæst-i ' You're well '   *xub-id / hæst-id* ' You're well '
     xub-e / hæst- ϕ ' (S)he/It's well ' *xub-ænd / hæst-ænd* ' They're well '

Comparing (9) and its following proposed pattern, on one hand, and the paradigm in (10), on the other hand, we observe there is no correspondence, as witnessed in English, between possessive pronouns and copular verbs. As we observed, in Persian possessive pronouns paradigm, *m, t, š,* either in singular pattern (-*C*) or in plural (-*eCan*), are correlated with first, second and third persons, respectively, but there is no such correlation in copular BE paradigm; i.e., we can not correlate *m, t, š* in (10) with number agreement.

3.3. Full DP possessives and main verbs

In a DP, the possessive element is realized as -*e* :
(11) *ketab-e armin* ' Armin's book '

Unlike English, where the possessive element in regular plural nouns lacks phonetic realization, but is proposed as ϕ, in Persian the possessive morpheme of plural nouns is the same as realized in singular nouns, an example of which is exhibited in (11). This point is confirmed by the data in (12), as well:

(12) a. *ketab-e ostad* ' the teacher's book '
b. *ketab-e ostad-an* ' the teachers' book '
c. *ketab-ha-y-e ostad-an* ' the teachers' books '

(12) indicates the fact that either the possessor (12b) or the possessee (12c) is plural, the possessive morpheme does have phonetic realization (in 12c, -y- is intermediary). Even in cases where the possessee ends in -*e*, the possessive ending, too, ends in -*e*:

(13) *name-y-e ostad* ' the teacher's letter '

Thus, the possessive element in full DP possessives has phonetic realization, and it is -*e*. The examples (10)-(13) confirms this fact. Therefore, we face the first difference between full DP possessives in Persian and its equivalent in English where, in cases, ϕ functions as the possessive element (cf. *the kids'* ϕ *mother*).

Now, we turn to the pattern of the main verbs paradigm and, following Bernstein and Tortora, we study its correlation with the possessive element in full DPs (-*e*). Specifically, we want to specify whether there is any correlation, as proposed in English, between -*e* and verbal endings in main verbs in Persian (remember that Bernstein and Tortora, in their arguments on full DP possessives, have assumed *'s* in DPs correspondent with -*s* in main verbs (cf. *She knows.*), thus regarding it as Agr. Let's first consider the data in (14):

(14) *ræft-æm* ' I went ' *ræft-im* ' We went '
  ræft-i ' You went ' *ræft-id* ' You went '
  ræft-φ ' (S)he/It went ' *ræft-ænd* ' They went '

The underlined elements in (14) are the agreement (person and number) distinguishers in the paradigm of the verb " *ræft-æn* " (to go) in the past tense. Now notice the paradigm of the same verb in present tense:

(15) *miræv-æm* ' I go '   *miræv-im* ' We go '   *miræv-i* ' You go '
     miræv-id ' You go '   *miræv-æd* ' (S)he/It goes '   *miræv-ænd* ' They go '

By a careful look at the data in (14) and (15), on one hand, and (9)-(13), on the other, it will be convenient to perceive the idea that the possessive marker in Persian DP (-*e*) is not the same as the agreement (person and number) markers in main verbs. Thus, unlike in English, we can not freely attribute an agreement function to the possessive element -*e* in DPs. The interesting point, here, is that, in Persian, the agreement elements in both main verbs and copulas are approximately the same (compare the data in (10) and (14)-(15)). We observed earlier that in English, main and copular verbs differ in this regard. Furthermore, the uniqueness of the possessive element in all DPs in Persian, which is realized as -*e*, and also, due to

its structural difference with verbal endings it is inevitable to conclude that *-e* has a function different from that proposed for *'s* in English (agreement); its function is not but possessive function (Poss) which is under PossP in the tree diagram, specifically as its head. The assumption that *-e* functions as Poss, is, indeed, in line with the intuition of the speakers of the language, the point which, in my view, has been ignored in Bernstein and Tortora's arguments.

3.4. The coordination test

In Bernstein and Tortora's analysis of the English possessive construction, we observed they have used the coordination test for distinguishing two types of possessive forms. Due to their different behaviors, they had concluded that the two types of possessive forms must have occupied two types of syntactic positions. Now we need to examine this phenomenon about Persian possessive forms. Notice the data in (16):

(16)   a. *ketab-e armin væ ailin*   ' Armin and Ailin's book '
       b. *ketab-e mæn væ to*   ' my and your book '
       c. **ketab-æm væ to*   ' *my book and you '
       d. **ketab-e armin væ –æm*   ' *Armin's book and my '

(16a,b) confirm the fact that it is possible to coordinate nouns each of which bears the possessive element *-e*. (16c,d), on the other hand, rejects, practically, the possibility of coordinating structures bearing possessive pronouns. Two points are important in this matter: First, the possessive pronoun is tightly connected to its proceeding noun so that it is impossible to disconnect them (16c,d). The second point is that the possessive element *-e* and possessive pronouns (*-æm, -æt, -æš*) are syntactically different and can not be coordinated (16d). This Judgment is in line with the traditional general rule in syntax that only parallel categories can be coordinated. In other words, *-e* in full DP possessives and possessive pronouns belong to different syntactic categories. The question, now, is that on what category does each of the possessive form belong to? In the following sub-section we make efforts to give a plausible answer to this question.

3.5. Agreement phrase and possessive phrase

In sub-sections 2.3. and 3.3. we observed that the two types of possessive forms in Persian, i.e., possessive pronouns *-æm, æt, …* and *-e* in full DP possessives, are structurally different. To state another way, what we can learn by comparing the materials of the two sub-sections is that the possessive element in all forms of DPs (either singular or plural and for all persons) is the same and is realized as *-e*, but the examples relating to the possessive pronouns indicate the fact that the possessive pronoun is realized differently for different persons and numbers. On the other hand, discovering different behaviors of the two forms in the case of the coordination test, we supposed that the possessive pronoun and *-e* were syntactically different and belonged to different categories. As for multiformedness of the possessive pronouns for various persons and numbers, we may infer that these forms, in addition to the possessive function, which is in line with the speakers' intuition, function as the agreement, too. It is necessary, however, to have a closer look at the possessive pronoun paradigm depicted in (9), and repeated in (17) for convenience:

(17) *ketab-æm* ' my book '   *ketab-eman* ' our book '
        ketab-æt ' your book '   *ketab-etan* ' your book '
        ketab-æš ' his/her/its book '   *ketab-ešan* ' their book '

Comparing the phonetic realizations of the possessive pronouns for the 'singular' possessors in the left column with those for the 'plural' possessors in the right, we come to the reality that in the plural paradigm column, in addition to the possessive pronouns (-*man, -tan, -šan*), there exists another element that does not exist in singular paradigm, i.e., -*e*. We seem to be able to exhibit the plural paradigm in (17) (the right column) more accurately as (18):

(18) *ketab-e-man*
        ketab-e-tan
        ketab-e-šan

The logical inference attained through this evaluation is that the elements -*man, -tan, -šan*, in line with singular forms -*æm, -æt, -æš*, function as 'agreement', and -*e*, like -*e* in DPs, has the function of 'possessive'. Thus, the internal structure of the phrase ' *ketab-e-šan* ' which bears a plural possessive pronoun can be assumed to be as (19):

(19)
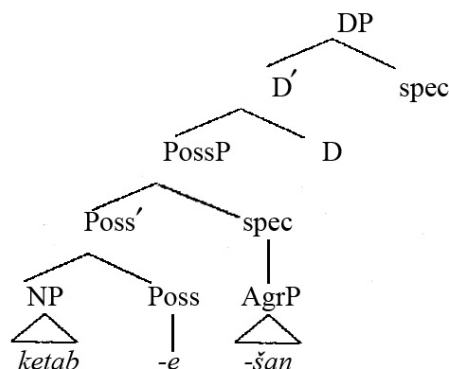
As seen in the diagram (19), -*e* occupies a possessive head and -*šan* functions as an Agr head of the AgrP which finds itself as the specifier of the possessive phrase. In this diagram both Agr and Poss are phonetically realized. It is possible, however, that in a structure either of them does not have phonetic realization.

Now, let's turn to the structure *ketab-æš*. We noted earlier that –*æš* functions as Agr. But Persian syntax must somehow reflect the intuition of the speakers that interpret it as a possessive structure. In other words, another element, specifically Poss, is assumed to be in the internal structure of the phrase. Thus, I propose the following morphological structure for the phrase *ketab-æš*:

(2) ketab-ø-æš

in which ϕ and -*æš* are Poss and Agr, respectively. The following tree diagram can, then, be proposed to mirror the internal structure of the above phrase:

(21)
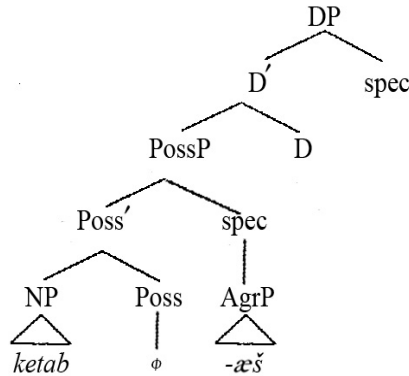
As seen, the only difference of (21) with (19) is that in it the Poss head is ϕ.

It's time now to investigate the last type of the possessive structure of Persian, i.e., the full DP possessive. Since the only phonetic realization for both singular and plural forms, as well as for all persons in this phrase is *-e*, and, too, in analogy with the two former phrases, we can infer that in this type of the possessive form we can also assume the Agr element in the syntax. But, it does not have phonetic realization. On this ground, it is obvious that the morphological structure and the tree diagram of the phrase *ketab-e armin* can be depicted as (22) and (23), respectively:

(22) *ketab-e-* ϕ *armin*

-e being the possessive head and *-* ϕ the agreement head.

(23)
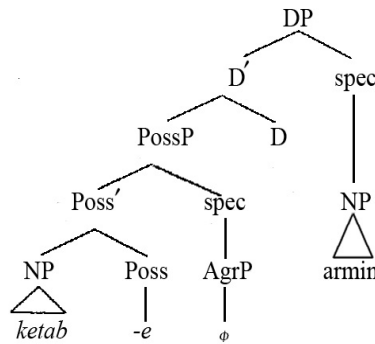
4. Conclusion

In this paper, by comparing Bernstein and Tortora's analyses on English possessive forms with the data of Persian possessive forms and their analysis in the perspective of minimalist program, we learned that unlike English, where possessive pronouns were supposed to be correspondent with copular forms of BE and combined with a pronoun plus a copula (*he + is = his)*, and, too, *'s* in full DPs

(*John's book*) was considered to be a singular marker, in Persian possessive construction this assumption did not turn out to be true.

The data in Persian reveals the fact that possessive pronouns (distinguishers) do not correspond with copular verbs, and *-e* in full DPs, either, is not like (singular) number marker in main verbs. In Persian, not only are copulas and main verbs' endings the same, but also these endings are different from possessive endings. The possessive morpheme in all forms of the paradigm (all persons and numbers) of the full DP is the same (*-e*) which suggests the idea that, unlike English, this element is not only correlated with singular number. Thus an element with Agr function is assumed in its underlying structure. Although the coordination test, as in English, showed that in Persian, too, the two types of the possessive forms are morphologically and syntactically different, a closer evaluation of the data from both morphological and syntactic points of view, suggests the idea that the internal structure of Persian possessive forms is different from what has been proposed about that of English. In Persian, in line with the speakers' intuition, all types of possessive forms are assumed to function as the possessive phrase (PossP) which takes an Agrp in its specifier position. The difference is that in full DP possessive *-e* functions as Poss head and Agr head is not realized phonetically (ϕ). On the contrary, in a singular possessive pronoun, the Agr head has phonetic realization (*æm, æt, æš*) but the Poss head does not; and, finally, in the plural possessive pronoun, both Agr head and Poss head are phonetically realized.

Taking the different linguistic behaviors of the possessive constructions in the two languages, i.e., English and Persian, another contribution attained through the data and its analysis in this research is a theoretical repercussion. It seems that making broad generalizations for language based merely on a small corpus of data from one language or another, as sometimes seen in generativist literature, should be avoided.

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Learner-Generated Collocations: Inter/Intra or Cross Languages

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The issue of collocations has only recently attracted sufficient attention in the field of second language acquisition; yet; with relatively higher variance between researchers about what the term collocation means and how to explain 'unnatural' occurrences of collocations present in second language learner language. As well, this collocational deficiency is a pervasive phenomenon in learner English. Language learners often fail to choose the correct combination of two or more words due to their unawareness of collocational properties in vocabulary. They are apt to adopt lexical simplification strategies such as using a synonymous or Ll-influenced expression. In this presentation, I aim at exemplifying some learner generated collocations trough a small-scale corpus study on learner-generated pieces of language in the ELT department at Çağ University. In this sense, this study will be a preliminary question-generating survey of second language learners' collocational errors rather than a conclusive piece of research.

1. Introduction

Collocation is a term that has been used and understood in different ways. Some researchers restricted it to an idiom whose meaning is not obvious from its components, like *blow the gaff*(e.g., Palmer, 1933); some used it to refer to a phrase in which a word is used in a specialized sense only found in the context of certain types of words, like *blow a fuse* (e.g., Bahns & Eldaw, 1993). This study adopts a broad notion of *collocation,* which is defined as "the co-occurrence of two or more lexical items as realizations of structural elements within a given syntactic pattern" (Cowie, 1978, p.132). In other words, the term collocation is used to describe any generally accepted grouping of words into phrases or clauses, for example, *compose music, begin to. as it were* (see Howarth, 1998; Moon, 1997; Nation, 2001 for a similar approach). In this broad sense, collocations can occur in a variety of forms and with a variety of relationships between the words that make up them. The common-ground taxonomy is presented below in Table 1.

Table 1. Taxonomy of Collocations

	Definition	Example
Free combination	Restriction on substitution can be specified on semantic grounds. All elements of the word combination are used in a literal sense.	want a car read the book
Restricted Collocation	Some substitution is possible, but there are arbitrary limitations on substitution. At least one element has a non-literal meaning, and at least one element is used in its literal sense; the whole combination is transparent.	perform a task play the role
Figurative idiom	Substitution of the elements is seldom possible the combination has a figurative meaning, but preserves a current literal interpretation.	do a U-turn do a favor
Idiom	Substitution of the elements is impossible. The combination has a figurative meaning does not preserve a current literal interpretation.	blow the guff rain cats and dogs

Free collocations, also referred to as open collocations or free combinations, are made up of elements used in their literal sense. The constituent words are not bound specifically to each other and they occur freely with many other semantically compatible lexical items. For example, *buy a book (TV, piano, car .. .), in the suitcase (room, house,box ...)*. On the other end of the continuum is the most opaque and fixed set: figurative and pure idioms. A figurative idiom has a metaphorical meaning in terms of the whole and a current literal interpretation (e.g., *blow your own trumpet). A pure idiom has a meaning* that cannot be determined from the meanings of the components and it does not have a reasonable literal meaning (e.g., *have a chip on one's shoulder)*. In the middle of the collocational continuum category is restricted collocations, which has one component, usually called a *node word (Stubbs, 1995),* used in *a* specialized sense and accompanied only by certain types of collocates.

Three major types of cases can be identified for restricted collocations: first, some words have a very narrow and specific meaning, so they occur almost entirely in the company of one or two other words, or a narrow set of words. For instance, the adjective *blond* normally occurs with the noun *hair,* or a noun referring to something made of hair (e.g., *locks, wig) or some entity with hair (e.g., student, doll)*. Second, sometimes a word is used in its metaphoric sense, so its possible collocates are limited to certain lexical items or sets rather than all the items that are semantically compatible with the word's basic meaning. Third, when a word is used in its delexical sense, the range of its possible collocates seems to be delimited for

no good semantic reasons. Delexicalisation is the tendency of a word, especially a verb, to lose its original meaning and become lexically "not full" when it is used in conjunction with certain other words (Allerton, 1984; Carter & McCarthy, 1988, p153). For instance, in *have a shower, the general meaning of the verb have, such* as "to possess, to receive, to hold", is dropped, and the meaning of the phrase falls upon the noun *shower. Verbs often considered delexicalised include give, have, make, take, do, hold, keep and set* all of which are of high frequency, and the first four are the most common ones used in this way (Sinclair & Fox, 1990).

In addition to the taxonomy above we should also consider grammatical and lexical collocations separately. A grammatical collocation generally consists of a dominant open class word (noun, adjective or verb) and a preposition or particular structural pattern such as an infinitive or a clause. The major types of grammatical collocations are:

(l) noun + preposition! To infinitive/ that clause (e.g., access to, pleasure to, agreement that".);

(2) preposition + noun (e.g., in advance, to somebody's advantage);

(3) adjective +preposition Ito infinitive/ that clause (e.g., aware of necessary to, afraid that.,,);

(4) a verb combining in different ways with a preposition, an infinitive with to, an infinitive without to, a verb form in -ing, that clause, an interrogative word, etc. (e.g., adjust to, begin to, keep doing, think that ... , ask why...).

A lexical collocation, on the other hand, normally does not contain infinitives or clauses. It typically consists of open class words (noun, adjective, verb or adverb). Six major types have been identified by Benson, Benson & Ilson (1997).:

(1) verb + noun/pronoun/prepositional phrase (e.g., compose music, perform a task, draw up a bill);

(2) adjective + noun (e.g., slight decline, rough estimate);

(3) noun + verb (e.g., The economy (is) booming. Bees buzz.);

(4) noun + noun (e.g., a bunch of flowers. a swarm of bees);

(5) adverb + adjective (e.g., deeply grateful, sound asleep); (6) verb + adverb (e.g., increase dramatically appreciate sincerely).

1.1. Properties of collocations

Precisely speaking defining what's a collocation and what's not requires some precise criteria. Yet, such parametric criteria is far from being feasible because while grammatical collocations are syntactically clear, lexical collocations are opaque and it is not easy to explain why we '*do homework'* not '*make homework'*. On these grounds we need some normative criteria as given below.

a. Frequency and regularity

Vocabulary items that we think to be collocations are habitually and frequently together. This mutual friendship is for the most part rule-based and regular. But the point is this regularity is not always structural or syntactically governed.

b. Textual proximity

Collocating items are always located within a textual proximity; say not more than four words in English. Usually collocates of a word occur close to that word but they may still occur across a span such as: *knock on the door; knock on X's door.*

We may easily explain these instances in terms of long distance-dependency. Yet, syntactic dependency is out of question here because lexical collocations are exclusively shaped semantically.

c. Limited compositionality

Yet another semantically determined aspect of collocations is their non-compositional meaning, you cannot easily guess the meaning from the total of referential meaning of the collocating lexical items, which provides evidence for exploitation of rules to the extreme to create intended pragmatic effect. This is again a matter of degree; while idioms are completely frozen in their structure and almost arbitrary in meaning. However, some frequent formulaic sequences are quite clear and referential.

d. Non-substitutability

Limited compositionality of collocations brings along non-substitutability of collocating items, namely you cannot freely substitute a synonym for one or more of the lexical items. Normativeness applies again as rule of thumb. While free combinations allow for some substitution, idioms practically do not yield themselves as such.

e. Non-modifiability

Often, there are restrictions on inserting additional lexical items into the collocation, especially in the case of idioms (e.g. kick the bucket vs. *kick the large bucket). Yet this is a matter of degree again. Non-idiomatic collocations are more flexible. Collocations on the right side of the continuum – say restricted collocations and idioms – are non-modifiable for the most part; however, non-idiomatic collocations act as rather like strong phrases.

f. Category restrictions

Frequent concordance does not indicate collocation alone. Most frequent concordances in English are that of function words, which do not exhibit any clear cut *tendency* 'to keep company'. Therefore, collocations are only restricted to content words. Only nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs could be the "node" or roughly the head of the collocational phrase.

A+N: powerful tea
N+N: regression coefficient, mass demonstration
N+PREP+N: degrees of freedom

2. Intra or Interlingua: Collocational errors Acquisition of Collocations

Although acquisition of L1 collocations seems to be quite "effortless", acquisition of L2 collocations appears to be a much more difficult process. It is by no means easy for a non-native speaker (NNS) to distinguish which of the grammatically well-formed L2 sentences are native-like, normal or unmarked and which are unnatural or highly marked. As noted by Gass and Selinker (2001), "The problem for the learner is to learn how not to be innovative and stick to the standard combinations" (p392). This section is going to review previous research on acquisition of L2 collocations, which is concerned with (1) the problems in the collocations produced by L2 learners; (2) the process of learning L2 collocations

2.1. Acquisition of L1 Collocations

People acquire a word's collocational features through mere exposure to numerous instances, without consciously searching for or paying focal attention to the formal collocational regularities. In this process, attended speech is automatically chunked by L1 learners. The chunked units and long-term knowledge base of word sequence can serve as memorized formulas that can be retrieved fast in language use and also be used as raw material for later analysis that leads to very abstract knowledge in frequencies and sequential probabilities of the words. This account of collocation acquisition corresponds to the view that knowledge acquired through implicit learning is both exemplar-based and rule-based.

L1 acquisition is laced with implicit learning which we can define as without consciously searching for or paying focal attention to the formal collocational regularities. Throughout L1 learning process attended speech is automatically chunked by L1 learners. Chunking units and long-term knowledge base of word sequence can serve as memorized formulas that can be retrieved fast in language use (Gass, Svetics & Lemelin, 2003).

2.2. L2 Acquisition of Collocations

Contrary to L1 acquisition most of L2 collocations are acquired trough explicit learning. We have noted that L1 acquisition is by large an implicit learning process but L2 learners rely on explicit learning strategies more, and do chunking less. According Ye (2005), focal attention is a crucial mechanism in the acquisition of L2 collocations. However, knowing a word's collocational features is not indispensable for meaning comprehension and those features tend to escape learners' focal attention. Therefore, the development of collocational knowledge is relatively slow and learners tend to rely solely on the compatibility of basic meaning or LI knowledge to combine words, which can cause various types of production errors.

Psychological barriers are at work in L2 acquisition. Perceptions of the learners regarding the target language and target culture (e.g. integrative attitudes] affect collocational use. When learners perceiveL1 and L2 to be very different they tend to use highly frequent and concrete collocations, avoiding abstract and less frequent ones.

Needless to say, collocations are dominantly socio-culturally bound and normative. With respect to socio-cultural characteristics, collocations are institutionalized combinations of words which, due to their frequency in the language, have become an integral part of the norm and not only of the system. Thus, given their relative frozenness, collocations are a constituent element of the phraseological inventory of a language. As Pawley and Syder (1983: 209) envisaged some years ago: "What makes an expression a lexical item, what makes it part of the speech community's common dictionary, is (…) that it is a social institution. This (...) characteristic is sometimes overlooked, but is basic to the distinction between lexicalized and non-lexicalized sequence. (...) Rather than being a 'nonce form', a spontaneous creation of the individual speaker, the usage bears the authority of regular and accepted use by members of the speech community".

A distinctive functional intrinsic feature of collocations is their arbitrariness. This characteristic is responsible for the fact that some words are more likely to combine with specific items to form natural- sounding combinations while other types of combinations are simply not found, even though they would be possible and

understandable, at least theoretically. For this reason, although the expression "to finish a war" is acceptable as grammatically and semantically correct, a native speaker would usually say "to end a war" following the arbitrary restrictions of the language.

Given above, as Sinclair (1990) projected, L2 learners naturally exhaust *open-choice principle* rather than chunking or *the idiom principle*. The open choice principle assumes that language is a result of many complex choices where the only constraint is syntactic well-formedness. However, according to the idiom principle, language users have available to them a large number of memorized or semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices and there are constraints and limitations beyond grammaticalness.

Last but not least, owing to structured classroom instruction, together with structure-favoring teachers lexical collocations might be underrated.

2.3. Sources of L2 Collocational Errors

Many researchers agree that it is the L1 influence that is the major source of errors. Collocational misuse is often traced to the mother tongue but also some other influences were noted. In Table 2. below Lombard (2001) lists four major sources, which also we will adapt in our study.

Table 2. Sources of L2 Collocational Errors (Lombard, 2001)

Lexical transfer	**_open_** the monitor and computer	*turn on* the monitor and computer
	borrow **_urgent_** funds	borrow *emergency* funds
Phonological similarity	tax rate **_basket_**	tax *bracket*
	intensive competition	*intense* competition
Grammatical influence	**_price_** strategy	*pricing* strategy
	key of the good strategies	*the key to* good strategies
	consumers of women	women *consumers*
Semantic choice	**_customer_** psychology	*consumer* psychology
	value **_concepts_**	value *judgments*

Lombard (2001) discussed the possible reasons that could have been involved in the four kinds of student collocational errors in Taiwan. First of all, collocational errors related to the lexical transfer were often direct translation (e.g., "open the monitor") or lexical overgeneralization caused by a mismatch between Mandarin Chinese and English (e.g.• "make a survey' versus "conduct a survey' and "do some changes" versus "make some changes. Invalid collocations in the phonological category possibly resulted from the similarity of spelling or pronunciation between words. When accessing a word in the lexicon, her subjects selected same-sounding lexical items. Therefore producing inappropriate collocations like "tax rate basket' and "intensive competition instead of "tax bracket and "intense competition"

The third group of idiosyncratic collocations consisted of problems of three types: word form. preposition choice, and genitive structures. The problem of word form (e.g., "price strategy' versus "pricing strategy') derives from Mandarin Chinese where changes in the morphology are rare. The other two--preposition choice (e.g., "key of the goods strategies" versus "the key to good strategies and genitive structures (e.g., "consumers of women versus "women consumers") were more of an issue of unfamiliarity with English structures of modification.

The last group, which constituted the largest portion in the learners' unusual use of collocations, involved semantic variations. Of all the five hundred and seventy-one identified learner collocations, those related to semantics accounted for sixty-nine percent Taiwanese students in her study seemed to be severely deficient in their control of collocations in this aspect. Whenever these students could not find a semantically equivalent collocation in Chinese, they replaced the targeted English collocation with a synonym. Therefore, "customer psychology' was chosen for "consumer psychology," "value concepts" for "value judgments," and "decrease the 1'8.of crime" for "lower the rate of crime."

3. The Corpus and Procedure

The corpus under inquiry comprises of 70 exam papers with open-ended questions of various subjects 28 take home assignments prepared 14 Literature and 56 ELT second year students who are all upper-intermediate and advanced learners. The gross total of word count is 18987.

I analyzed exam papers because they are spurs-of-the-moment, without any dictionary help or planning. The take home assignments did not yield many worthy errors partly because they were word-processed and net-based studies in which the students had ample opportunity to correct their mistakes. I have computer-scanned using Wordsmith and Collocate programs 70 exam papers including open-ended questions and 15 term papers for significant collocational errors. Though the gross total of errors is much more I have hand-tagged sixty of them then classified the errors in terms sources and types

4. Results and Discussion

In line with the research, errors of grammatical collocations were far less than of lexical collocations as shown below in Fig. 1.
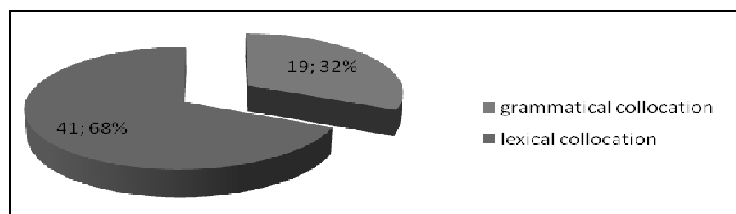
Fig. 1 Per. of Grammatical and lexical collocations

In terms of types of collocations, errors piled up on restricted collocations, again in parallel with other studies. However, evidently, there were no errors of idioms and very few of figurative ones. This might be due to the fact that my corpus included 80% academic writing which leaves not much space to figurative use language. Nevertheless, in papers, in which students were writing freely it was clear that learners simply avoided using abstract collocations and idioms.
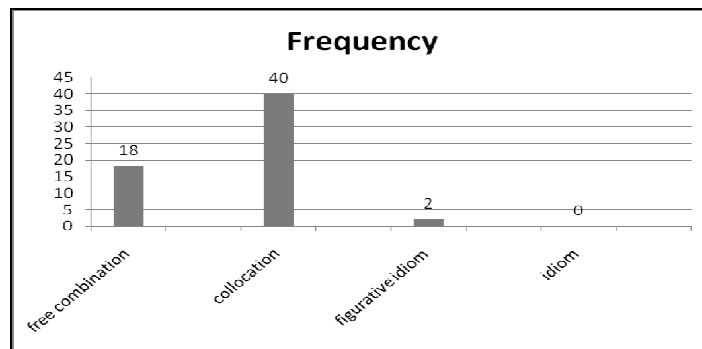
Fig. 2 Types and frequency of tagged errors

As for the sources errors identified, 42% of the errors were due to literal translation; that is, L1 influence. 25% percent of errors were strikingly due to phonological similarity, which I would say is a result of exam anxiety and slips of attention. Semantic choice errors were third and grammar last.
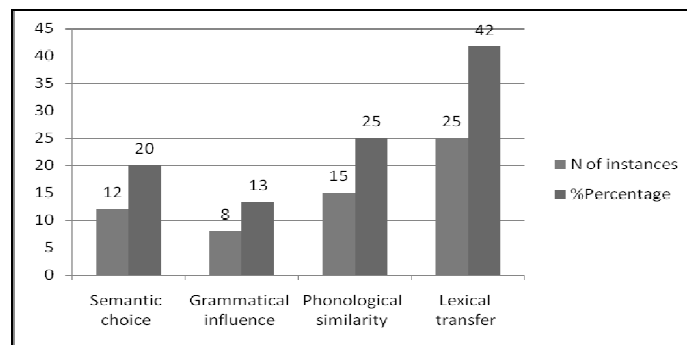
Fig. 3 Per. of sources of collocational errors

As sketched below in Fig. 4 the very nature of L2 use of collocations is revealed in L2 corpuses. L2 learners tend to utilize free combinations by and large. On the other hand idioms are also learned as single chunks without great difficulty. The problem just lies in the slippery middle ground where the figurative use of language is on stage. According to Howarth (1998) it may be claimed that the problem facing the non-native writer or speaker is knowing which of a range of collocational options are restricted and which are free". Unlike idioms and more restricted collocations, the "somewhat restricted" word combinations are not learned as wholes. "It appears that the ability to manipulate such clusters [collocations which are partly restricted] is a sign of true native speaker competence and is a useful indicator of degrees of proficiency across the boundary between non-native and native competence" (Howarth 1998: 38)
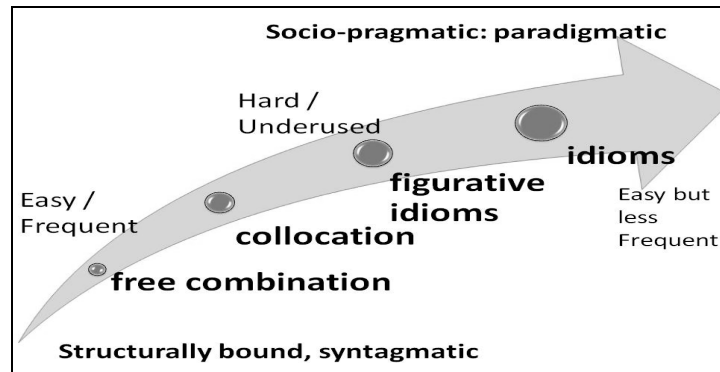
Fig. 4 L2 Learners use of collocations

In sum, the most prominent feature of collocational use is that learners explicitly avoid it. The result is a *bookish* language which is structurally correct, semantically processable, but sounding unnatural. Lewis (1993, 2000) introduces a series of ground-breaking thoughts for second or foreign language learning as well as refreshing classroom techniques which will facilitate the acquisition of multiword phrases, including polywords, collocations, fixed and semi-fixed expressions, which may provide some remedy for the findings of this paper.

5. Direction for future research

Lexical collocations are one of the most problematic area of L2 learning and teaching and still reamin to be investigated in detail. As well as purely linguistic properties the effect of socio-cultural attitudes towards target language, culture and society on vocabulary choice and collocations should be investigated. As well, variables such as integrative motivation, noticing/awareness, selective and focal attention etc. should be taken into account in researching collocational competence. Last but not least, all the studies I came across ignored the effect of instruction on such lexical choices and preference for open choices rather than collocational expressions. Research on the effect of instruction on vocabulary choice and collocational use could also be investigated.

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Playing Ostrichman or Keeping an Eye on Recasts

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There has been a surge of interest in both explicit and implicit corrective feedback in the field of language teaching. Defined as repetition of inaccurate utterances to provide learners with correct forms or reformulation of incorrect utterances with change and emphasis, recasts have made ample strides in both communicative language teaching and content-based learning in as much as these approaches consider errors as evidence for learner's progress (Long & Robinson, 1998; Spada et. al, 2001). Though some researchers have argued that recasts' provision of feedback immediately following an incorrect utterance is not conducive for the perception of accurate forms, others claim that recasts do provide opportunities for the replacement of the correct form. Discussion of both perspectives is elaborated and the effectiveness of recasts is assessed. This paper addresses the role of recasts in classroom environment at TOBB Economy and Technology University by focusing a number of issues rose in recent studies such as the difference between simple and complex recasts, cognizance of recasts by learners, uptake forms and the social structure of language classroom. Another issue addressed in this paper is that whether the dynamics of Turkish foreign language classroom influence learners' ability of accurately perceiving recasts in interaction with their peers. Most importantly, this article seeks to find an answer to what extent the learners identify recasts as corrective feedback on errors or mistakes. It is suggested that recasts vary in implicitness and complex recasts are more intriguing to attain than simple recasts. Additionally, uptake, repetition of recasts by learner, is not necessarily an indication of learning and error-free utterance in subsequent use. The efficacy and weakness of recasts in English as a foreign language context is delineated in this study.

In recent SLA research there has been a noticeable surge of interest in recasts with the advent of communicative language teaching and content based language learning. Defined as repetition of inaccurate utterances to provide learners with alternative forms or reformulation of incorrect utterances with change and emphasis, recasts explore causal relationship between focus on form, noticing and learning (Tarone & Morris,2003; Long & Robinson, 1998; Spada et. al, 2001; Mackey et. al, 2003; Leeman, 2003; Ayoun,2004; Long et.al,1998; Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001; Mackey & Philp,1998; Han, 2002; Braidi, 2002; Lyster,1998; Lyster, 2004; Nicholas, Lightbrown & Spada, 2001). Some researchers suggest that recasts provide learners with opportunities to realize how their utterances differ from the

target language (Long & Robinson, 1998) while others argue that recasts' provision of immediate feedback following an incorrect utterance is not conducive for the perception of accurate forms thereby development in language learning in long terms. This paper accordingly addresses discussion of both perspectives and inquires the difference between simple and complex recasts, cognizance of recasts, uptake followed by recasts, social features impacting the effectiveness of recasts.

Much research is dedicated to recasts in last two decades particularly to the effectiveness of recasts in SLA. The underlying reason for rise in interest is that both communicative language teaching and content-based language learning favor implicit corrective feedback in which recasts play a major role and in that recasts are preferable in meaning oriented classrooms. Further, recasts comprise a large percentage of the types of corrective feedback offered by teachers (Loewen &Philp, 2006; Lyster, 1997, 2004; Ellis et. al, 2001; Nicholas, Lightbrown & Spada, 2001). Dramatic change in presentation in communicative and content-based approaches also leads to change in medium of feedback because these approaches rely on implicit feedback rather than explicit feedback in that they consider incorrect utterances by learners as evidence of learners' progress. Explicit feedback switches the focus of interaction from meaning to form whereas implicit feedback places focus on meaning by implying the existence of an incorrect utterance.(Loewen & Philp, 2006). In drawing learners' attention to their inconsistent utterances without overt interruption and disturbance and showing target language (TL) form, recasts are invaluable form of feedback. Among the functions of recasts are; a) correcting ill-formed utterances without overt negative effect b) offering target-like model (Nicholas, Lightbrown & Spada, 2001) c) fill in the gaps in learners' utterances (Nelson, et al, 1973, cited in Nicholas, Lightbrown & Spada, 2001), d) provide alternative patterns for both lexical and grammatical forms e) acknowledging learners about the content of utterance produced. For instance;

Example 1
Student (S): Ayse is a student. She come to school early in the morning.
Teacher (T): Yes, Ayse comes to school early in the morning.⟵══ recast
Student: Yes, she comes to school early in the morning and meets her friends.

Example 2
S: Why they want to buy these flowers? Yeah, they want to give erm mother
T: Yeah, why do they want to buy these flowers? They want to give them to their mother.
S: They want to give them to their mother.⟵══ recast
S: Where do they buy flowers? Flower shop.
T: Yes, from florist's. ⟵══   recast

As seen in the examples above recast provide learners with feedback about their incorrect utterance without disturbing learners and maintain the focus on meaning. Loewen & Philp (2006) assert that recasts are time saving in the sense that teachers do not have to give an intricate grammatical explanation on learners' incorrect utterance, rather the reverse they provide learners with correct forms without bringing the conversation to a halt. Similarly, recasts are reported to be less disruptive for the flow of interaction in a number of studies (Tarone & Morris,2003; Long & Robinson, 1998; Spada et. al, 2001; Mackey et. al, 2003; Leeman, 2003; Ayoun,2004; Long et.al,1998; Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001; Mackey &

Philp,1998). In addition, from what we observed in our classes it appears that recasts are less threatening to students self confidence. Recasts have a facilitative role in second language development especially in grammar, lexicon and pronunciation. Though provided as corrective feedback recasts may be interpreted as the confirmation of the content as well.

Recasts have theoretical frameworks that cannot be underestimated and they have to do with attention span and working memory thus the most cited explanation for the effectiveness of recasts is Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1993). He asserts that learning requires awareness at the level of noticing and if learners notice input then it becomes intake for learning. Moreover he distinguishes noticing form understanding and states that "noticing is crucially related to the question of what linguistic material is stored in memory; understanding relates to questions concerning how that material is organized into a linguistic system" (p.26). Similarly, so as to acquire language learners have to notice them and recasts are good opportunities at hand. Noticing plays an indispensable role input into intake and it plays a as kind of rehearsal mechanism. Recasts draw learner's attention to mismatches between target language and erroneous forms and help learners to rehearse them. Among other theoretical explanations are Direct Contrast Hypothesis proposed by Saxton (1997, cited in Nicholas, Lightbrown & Spada, 2001). Saxton (1997) elaborated on the effectiveness of recasts in first language context and asserted that "the provision of feedback immediately following an erroneous child utterance was conducive to the child's perception of contrast between the original utterance and the adult from". The claim made in Direct Contrast Hypothesis can be attached to L2 or FL contexts in that the aim of second language acquisition is to achieve acquisition of language in the similar manner of first language acquisition namely in natural order.

Much of the research conducted in L1 development can be adapted to L2 context because the ultimate goal of L2 learning is to attain an acquisition process similar to the one in L1. In the same way, terms "simple and complex recasts" adopted in FLA can be transferred to SLA context. Proposed by Nelson, Denniger, Bonvillian , Kaplan, and Baker (1983, cited in Nicholas, et. al, 2001) simple recasts refers to "responses that involved minimal changes to the child's utterance" and complex recasts are "substantial *changes* and additions to what children had said" (italic added). Both simple and complex recasts are highly frequent in natural interactions in our classes. In simple recasts, we change one or two incorrect forms in utterances and these are moderate departures from the original utterance. In contrast, in complex recasts teachers do considerable changes and additions by topic continuation or shifts from preceding content. This may shift students attention to another content or topic; hence in the loss of concentration and failure of attention to mistakes. Examples for the simple and complex recasts are as follows:

Simple recast
Example 3:
S: (describing the picture) A lady talking to a man in the restaurant. They are friends.
T: Yes, A lady <u>is</u> talking to a man in the restaurant and they are friends.
Example 4:
S: (reporting news) There was an accident and the window of car was broke.
T: All right, there was an accident and the window of car was <u>*broken*</u>.
S: Yes, broke

Complex recast
Example 4

S: Little child was sad and walking on the street while he met an old man. This old man was wearing an orange hat. May be he going to have a party. He had a big celebrate and he was happy.

T: Yes, Ahmet. Little child was sad and he was walking on the street *when* he met an old man. Old man was wearing an orange hat. Perhaps he was going to have a party. He had a big *celebration* and he was really happy. Maybe it was his birthday.

As seen in the examples above, complex recasts are much more intricate and require close attention to be realized by the learner. On the other hand, simple recasts are noticed easier. The questions posed here are how teachers reach a conclusion that learners notice what is provided implicitly and how teachers can draw their learners' attention to complex recasts. Answer to the first question is partly answered by uptake, that is, in simple term response to feedback received from teacher (Lyster&Ranta, 1997). Though Lyster and Ranta (1997) restrain uptake merely to the response followed by teacher's feedback, this term can be broadened. Uptake refers to learners' attention to a linguistic feature in the flow conversation and their repetition of a certain linguistic feature to fill the gap in their knowledge or focus on a new linguistic feature produced by teacher. Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001) come up with a broader definition of uptake. In their definition they state that "uptake is a student move and it is optional". Ellis et al (2001) states in their definition that "the uptake move occurs as a reaction to some preceding move in which another participant (usually the teacher) either explicitly or implicitly provides information about a linguistic feature." Uptake engages students more actively in their erroneous utterances and the absence of learners' responses in Mackey & McDonugh's words (2006) limits the effectiveness of recasts. In other words, if recasts are responded, they appear to be more effective than when they are not. Major uptakes observed in classes are:

a) Repeating the same incorrect utterance and moving to next turn
b) No respond or simply nodding
c) Short answers like yeah, yes, ok, oh, himm (students-an expression of approval among Turkish)
d) Repeating teacher's utterance by partially or completely correcting erroneous form
e) Using the correct form of incorrect linguistic feature in following utterance that is delaying the correct form to next turns
f) Moving onto next turn without paying close attention to feedback provided.
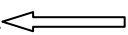
Elllis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001) states that there are theoretical grounds for the claim that successful uptake can promote L2 promotion; however successful uptake does not necessarily indicate acquisition of language features and language development. Moreover, uptake may not immediately occur after incorrect utterance and interlocutor reformulates the desired structure in subsequent utterances or following turns. Studies conducted in so far have not reached precise results about uptakes' effectiveness; nevertheless their facilitating effect cannot be

underestimated. For attaining a considerable effectiveness level, however, teachers must furnish recasts.

So as to enhance saliency of recasts teachers can make use of some cues such as prosodic emphasis, intonation, segmentation, length of recasts, and number of moves or turns in a conversation (Loewen and Philp,2006). First way to emphasize the place of error is prosodic emphasis that is stress on erroneous linguistic feature. Prosodic emphasis can particularly be adopted in recasting pronunciation mistakes or attracting attention of learners to problematic lexicon, linguistic form or offering an alternative form (example 5). This feature should be considered as a variable in recast studies. Another means of informing learners about their mistakes is intonation in a questioning manner for confirmation (example 6). Segmentation is another feature deployed in classroom environment in which teacher segments the erroneous form to recast in isolation (example 7). To heighten saliency shortening the length of a recast is highly important because "the degree of difference between recast and the incorrect form" help learners distinguish recasts.
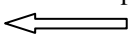
Example 5
S: Exercises given by the teacher in the class.
T: Exercises WERE given by teacher in the class.⟸   Prosodic emphasis
S: Yeah, they were given by teacher in the class.
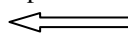
Example 6
S: She has been being rude in the party.
T: She has been rude? ⟸   Questioning for confirmation
S:Yes, she has.

Example 7
S: He is a poem.
T: poet ⟸   segmentation
S. uh yeah he is a poet.

Another point to be delineated is social context of classroom in which learners feel comfortable about making mistakes and correction of their mistakes. Observation in our classes indicates that solidarity among students provide learners with opportunity to be carefree about their incorrect utterances. Additionally, study conducted by Morris and Tarone (2003) revealed that perception of one another among learners has a major role in that the way learners interact with one another influence their perception of the L2 input to which they are exposed. Interaction on equal terms between students initiate student talk more and accordingly enhancement in the comprehension of feedback given by either teacher or peers. If learners are not at ease with their peers or interlocutors and they have a fear of being mocked or being the butt of jokes, they feel insecure to utter what they have and general tendency is to play ostrichman in the classroom instead of taking their heads out of sand and being the gift of the gab.

Recasts appear to be primary feedback form in meaning-oriented classes. It can be suggested from the observations in classes that the fewer the changes and the shorter the recasts, the more likely they are recognized and noticed. Though evidence from a variety of study has revealed a good amount of information about recasts and their effectiveness, some questions still persist. Among the issues need to

taken a step further and pinned down are effectiveness of recasts at different proficiency levels, perceptions and evaluation of recasts by teachers, the relationship between short term memory and the cognizance of recasts, the effectiveness of recasts without repetition, comparison of recasts provided by peers and teacher, the longitudinal study questioning the efficacy of recasts and so on. The objective in our classes should have our learners keep an eye on recasts.

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Towards a Theory of Hungarian Verbal Particles: a Case Study of *El-*

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This paper investigates the base-position of verbal particles in
Hungarian. I focus on the particle *el-* 'away' and show that it has
different meaning contributions to the predication when combined
with different types of verbs. I argue that despite the three seemingly
unrelated meanings of *el-*, two uses involve the same lexical item. In
these unifiable cases I analyze *el-* as a measure function that can
measure in both the spatial and the temporal domains.

1. Introduction
1.1. Basic facts about verbal particles in Hungarian

Verbal particles (or *particles* for short, also often called *preverbs*) in
Hungarian belong to the class of verbal modifiers and have a similar function to
particles in English and other Germanic languages and verbal prefixes in the Slavic
languages. An example is given in (1).

(1) *János*   fel*nézett*   *az égre.*[1]
     John.NOM PRT(upwards)-look-PAST.2SG the sky-to
     'John looked up to the sky.'

The particle and the verb form a complex predicate. The argument structure
of this complex predicate is often different from that of the verb in itself:

(2) a *Úsztam*   *(20 km-t).*
       swim-PAST-1SG 20 km-ACC
       'I swam (20 kms).'

     b Le*úsztam*   **(20 km-t).*
       PRT(downwards)-swim-PAST-1SG   20 km-ACC
       'I swam 20 kms.'

In sentences without negation or structural focus, the verbal particle directly
precedes the verb. (3) and (4) are sharply ungrammatical, but can easily be repaired
by removing the adverb (3) or the topic (4) from between the particle and the verb
(and placing them, for instance, to the front of the clause).

(3) Fel   (*gyakran) néztem   az égre.
     PRT(upwards) often   look-PAST-1SG the sky-to
     'I have often looked up to the sky.'

(4) *Fel   Péter   nézett   az égre.
     PRT(upwards) Peter.NOMlook-PAST.3SG the sky-to
     'Peter looked up to the sky.'

In sentences containing negation or structural focus, it is the negation marker *nem* 'not' or the focussed constituent that precedes the verb. In these cases the particle surfaces postverbally.

(5) János   nem nézett   fel   az   égre.
     John.NOM not   look-PAST.3SG PRT(upwards) the   sky-to
     'John didn't look up to the sky.'

(6) JÁNOS   nézett   fel   az   égre.
     John.NOM look-PAST.3SG PRT(upwards) the   sky-to
     'It was John that looked up to the sky.'

1.2. The problem

This paper focuses on the base-position of verbal particles. I investigate a so far neglected feature of particles, namely that the same particle has different meaning contributions to the predication when combined with different verbs. Some particles (eg. *meg* 'perf.') always express resultativity (7). My focus of interest is another group: the directionals (such as *el-* 'away'). These particles can combine with a motion verb, and when they do so, they express a direction (8). Crucially, directional particles can also combine with activity verbs not expressing motion. In this case they have a resultative meaning (9).

(7) Mari   megette   a tortát.
     Mary.NOMPRT(perf)-eat-PAST.3SGthe cake-ACC
     'Mary ate the cake (all of it).'

(8) Mari   elment   (a boltba).
     Mary.NOMPRT(away)-go-PAST.3SG the shop-ILLAT
     'Mary went away (to the shop).'

(9) Mari   elolvasta   a   regényt.
     Mary.NOMPRT(away)-read-PAST.3SG   the novel-ACC
     'Mary has read the novel.'

The obvious question arises: do we have the same lexical item in (8) and (9), or is this a case of accidental homonymy?

Some particles have a further type of use, too, in which they provide information on how the event progresses and do not change the argument structure of the verb. This makes them similar to the Slavic superlexical prefixes. *El-* (away), already seen in (8) and (9), is such a particle: *el*Verb can also mean 'spend some time Verb-ing'.

(10) Mari   eliddogált.
      Mary.NOMPRT(away)-have.drinks-PAST.3SG
      'Mary lingered over a drink or two.'

The question here, of course, is wheter the third type of use involves a different lexical item from *el-* in (8) and (9), or can it be unified with either (or better, both) of them.

The paper is structured as follows. In Section 2, I introduce the framework I use for the analysis: Ramchand (2008)'s First Phase Syntax for the structure of verbs and Svenonius (to appear)'s decomposition of PPs. In Section 3, I review some previous studies and show the problems they raise. In Section 4, I present an analysis in which the three readings of *el-* correlate with three different merge-in sites in the structure, and in which the first and third uses involve the same lexical item. Section 5 sums up the findings.

2. The framework

In my analysis I use the First Phase Syntax theory developed by Ramchand (2008). In First Phase Syntax, the verb is split up into 3 layers, each corresponding to a subevent of the verb. These are: *init(iation)*P, *proc(ess)*P and *res(ult)*P.

*Init*P identifies the causation subevent and introduces the external argument (it roughly corresponds to vP). When there is no causation subevent, as in the case of unaccusatives, there is no *init*P in the syntactic representation. *Proc*P, the only obligatory head in the extended verbal projection, identifies the process subevent (and roughly corresponds to VP). If the eventuality has a result, *proc*P takes *res*P as its complement. This lowest layer identifies the result state. *Res*P can optionally take various types of complements (eg. AP, DP or PP), with the material further describing the result state.

Verbs are specified in the lexicon as to which heads they lexicalize. *Enter*, for instance, is an *init, proc, res* verb, because it necessarily expresses a casuation, a process and a result state. *Write*, on the other hand, is only an *init, proc* verb, because it necessarily involves a causer and a process, but does not necessarily lead to a result.

The arguments of the verb are hosted by the specifiers of *init*P, *proc*P and *res*P. The specifier of *init*P harbours the subject of initiation. A DP occupying this position is interpreted as the INITIATOR of the event. The specifier of *proc*P is the subject of the process. A DP in this position is interpreted as the UNDERGOER of the event. Finally, the specifier of *res*P hosts the subject of the result. A DP in this specifier is interpreted as the RESULTEE (or holder of the result state).

(11)
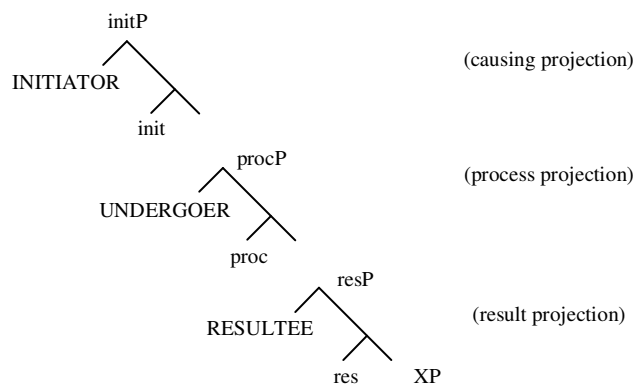
The interpretations associated with the 3 specifier positions are not mutually exclusive. For instance, *the apple* in *Mary ate the apple* has two subjecthood entailments: it is both the subject of process (UNDERGOER) and the subject of result (RESULTEE). Multiple subjecthood entailments occur when an argument moves from a lower specifier to a higher one (in this case from [spec, *res*P] to [spec, *proc*P]) and accumulates the entailments associated with each position.

Note that it is not the case that *init*P and *proc*P are just alternative names for vP and VP. First Phase Syntax is crucially different from the mainstream split-vP hypothesis in at least two ways. On the one hand, it dispenses with the Theta-criterion. Theta-roles are not assigned in a specific position (as opposed to the idea behind UTAH). It is thematic relations that are assigned in specfic positions, and Theta-roles are built compositionally out of these. On the other hand, the syntactic structure gives very explicit instructions to semantics because every position in the tree is closely tied with a specific semantic interpretation.

As regards the structure of PP, I adopt the fine-grained functional sequence laid out in Svenonius (to appear, shown here with some simplifications for expository purposes): DirectionalP > PathP > PlaceP > CaseP > DP. In this decomposition the PP in (12) has the structure in (13).

(12) *The boat drifted over from behind the hill.*
(Svenonius to appear, example 36 a)

(13)
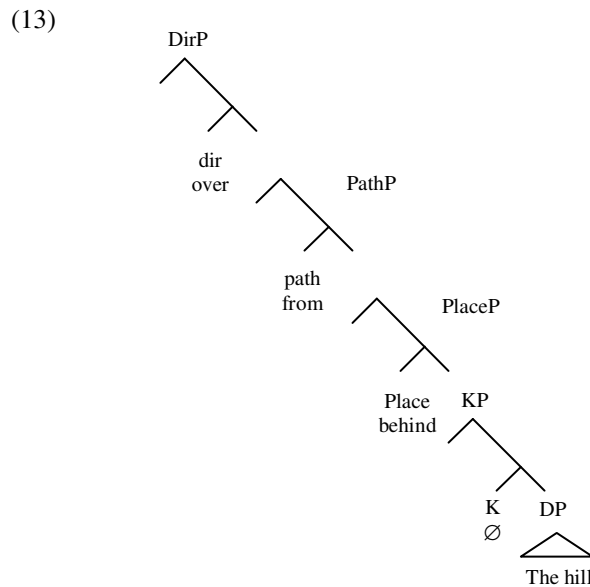
According to Ramchand (2008), *proc*P may naturally take a PathP complement with the Path further describing the process; and *res*P may take a PlaceP complement with the Place further describing the result state. Processes

embedding PlaceP and results embedding PathP do not materialize because of the semantic clash involved with such combinations.

In first phase syntax telic eventualities are built in one of two ways. On the one hand, *res*P makes the event telic on its own. On the other hand, an event can be telic in the absence of *res*P, too, if *proc*P has a complement that provides a temporal bound to the event. Both options will turn out to be highly relevant for the analysis of particles.

3. Previous Studies

As far as their base-position is concerned, particles are analized as adjuncts to the verbal head (Szendrői 2001; Ackema 2004) or as AdvP complements of the verb (Alberti 2004; É. Kiss 2008). Their surface position is assumed to be either [spec, AspP] (É. Kiss 2002) or [spec, PredP] (É. Kiss 2008). Consensus seems to have developed around the type of the movement: the particle moves as a phrase.

É. Kiss (2006) analyzes the particle as a secondary predicate, predicated of the theme argument. The theory makes the prediction that predicates not having a theme argument, such as unergatives, are incompatible with particles. É. Kiss also states that all particle + verb combinations must be stored in the lexicon and makes a distinction between three types of particles: terminative (the same group that I term 'directional'), resultative and locative. In (8) and (9) we have already seen examples of terminative and resultative particles. An sentence with a locative particle is shown in (14).

(14) *A kulcs*   kint   *van*   *a lábtörlő alatt.*
      the key.NOMPRT(outside)be.3SG the mat.NOM under
      'The key is outside under the mat.'

It is an in indisputable merit of É. Kiss's approach that it classifies particles into subgroups (most researchers treat particles as one big homogenous group). At the same time, she does not notice that the directional and resultative groups show a considerable overlap (cf. the meaning alternation in 8 and 9). The approach raises some additional problems, too. Although there are particle + verb idioms which need to be stored in the lexicon under any theory, it would be redundant to store every particle + motion verb combination, too, since in these cases the meaning contribution of the particle is predictably directionality. Also, locatives are treated on a par with the other particles, yet their distribution is different from that of directionals and resultatives. To begin with, intervention of adverbials between the particle and the verb in neutral sentences produces ungrammaticlaity with resultatives and directionals, but not with locatives.

(16) a * *János*   be   *meztelenfestette*   *a kerítést.*   resultative
         John.NOM PRT(inwards) naked   paint-PAST.3SG the fence-ACC
         'John painted the fence completely naked.

      b * *János*   ki   *meztelentolta*   *a*   *beteget.*   directional
         John.NOM PRT(outwards) naked   wheel-PAST.3SG the patient-ACC
         'John wheeled out the patient naked.'

      c   *János*   kint   *meztelenlocsolja*   *a virágokat.*   locative
         John.NOM PRT(outside)naked   water-3SG the flower-PL- ACC
         'John is outside watering flowers naked.'

Secondly, particles can co-occur with a DP/AP/PP that further specifies the direction, location or result state encoded by the particle. Unlike with directionals and resultatives, this DP/AP/PP is felicitous between the particle and the predicate with locatives.

(17) a * Be   zöldre   festette   a kerítést.   resultative
         PRT(inwards) green-TO paint-PAST.3SG the fence- ACC
         'He painted the fence green.'

      b * Ki   a folyosóra   tolta   a beteget.   directional
         PRT(outwards) the corridor-TO wheel-PAST.3SG   the patient- ACC
         'He wheeled the patient out to the corridor.'

      c Fent   a padláson találtam   egyegérfogót.   locative
         PRT(up) the attic-ON   find-PAST.1SGa mousetrap-ACC
         'I have found a spade down in the cellar.'

In addition, resultative and terminative particles must follow the verb in the progressive, while locatives may also precede it.

(18) a János   éppen vágta   fel   a tortát   amikor…   resultative
         John.NOM just   cut-PAST.3SG PRT(upwards) the cake-ACC when
         'John was cutting up the cake when…'

      b János   éppen tolta   ki   a beteget   amikor…   directional
         John.NOM just   push-PAST.3SG PRT(outwards) the patient-ACC when
         'John was wheeling out the patient when…'

      c János   éppen (kint)   locsolta   (kint)   a virágokat   amikor… locative
         John.NOM just   PRT(outside)water-PAST.3SG PRT(outside)the flower-PL-ACC   when
         'John was watering the flowers outside when…'

Finally, locatives never show the meaning alternation seen with directionals/resultatives. I take these differences between resultative and directional particle constructions on the one hand and 'locative particle constructions' on the other to indicate that locatives do not belong to the category of particles. I will treat resultatives and directionals as Ps and locatives as adverbs, and so I have little to say about locatives in the remainder of the paper.

4. Analysis
4.1 Directionals

When particles that have the potential to express directionality are combined with motion verbs, the result is a complex predicate in which the verb describes the manner of motion and the particle describes the direction or route of the motion. The presence of the particle also has a telicizing effect on the aspectual interpretation of the sentence. Consider (19), which is (8) without the directional PP.

(19) Mari   elment.
      Mary.NOMPRT(away)-go-PAST.3SG
      'Mary went away.'

My proposal is that in sentences where the interpretation of the particle is directional, $proc$P embeds DirP as its complement and the particle is in Dir^0. The first phase in (19) has the structure in (20).

(20)

```
                    initP
                   /\
                Mari  \
                      /\
                   init \
                   ment  \
                        /\      procP
                     Mari \
                          /\
                       proc \
                       ment  \
                           /\     DirP
                         Dir \
                         el
```
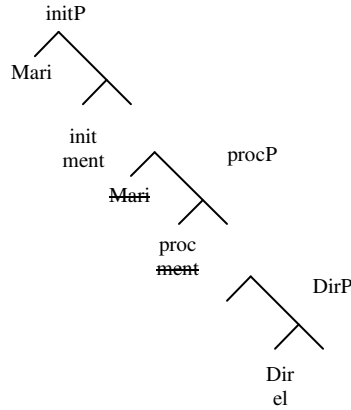
The structure does not contain resP (that is compatible only with PlaceP, not DirP), so the telicity effect must arise from the temporal bound of the event. This temporal bound is provided by the presence of the particle. A person must cover some minimal distance for the predicate 'X went away' to be true (Filip 2000). When this distance is covered, the event becomes temporally bound.

4.2 Resultatives

Particles that have the ability to express directionality may attach to a verb not encoding motion, too, provided the verb has an UNDERGOER argument. In the so-formed complex predicate the verb denotes the activity; but the particle does not seem to refer to anything in the real world: it merely encodes that the event is telic. I suggest that *el-* causes this alternation in telicity because here it lexicalizes res^0. The structure of the verb phrase in (9) is given as (21).

(21)

```
                    initP
                   /\
                Mari  \
                      /\
                 İnit  \
                 olvasta \
                        /\      procP
                 a regenyt \
                          /\
                       Proc \
                       olvasta \
                           /\     resP
                       a regenyt \
                              /\
                             res¹
                              |
                             res
                             el
```
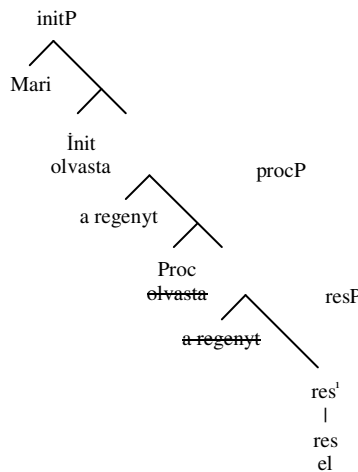
Directional and resultative particles thus make the sentence telic by employing two different strategies: directionals telicize the event by providing a temporal bound to it, while resultatives project a *res*P.

4.3 The third group

El- 'away' is one of those particles that have a further type of use, providing information on how the event progresses. In this use *el-*Verb means 'spend some time V-ing, at a leisurely pace or without exerting oneself'. A non-exhaustive list of predicates taking this type of *el-* is given in (22):

(22) el*álmodozik,*   el*ábrándozik ,*   el*babrál,*   el*bámészkodik,*
　　 EL-day.dream　 EL-day.dream　　 EL-fiddle　 EL-gape
　　 'day-dream'　　 'day-dream'　　　 'fiddle'　　 'stand gaping about'

　　 el*beszélget,*　　 el*betegeskedik*　　 el*borozgat,*　　 el*dolgozgat,*
　　 EL-talk　　　　 EL-be.sick　　　　 EL-have.wine　 EL-work
　　 'have a long conversation'　 'be sick for a while'　 'spend time drinking wine"　 work casually'

　　 el*cseveg,*　　　 el*fecseg,*　　　 el*gondolkozik,*　 el*iddogál,*
　　 EL-talk.away　　 EL-chatter　　　 EL-think　　　 EL-have.drinks
　　 'have a friendly conversation'　 'spend one's time chatting"　 be lost in thought'　 'linger some drinks'

　　 el*játszadozik,*　 el*kínlódik,*　　 el*mereng,*　　 el*piszmog,*
　　 EL-play　　　　 EL-struggle　　　 EL-muse　　　 EL-potter
　　 'play with sg'　　 'struggle with sg'　 'muse for some time'　 'potter around'

　　 el*rágódik,*　　 el*szórakozik,*　　 el*tréfálkozik,*　 el*üldögél*
　　 EL-brood　　　 EL-enjoy.oneself　 EL-joke　　　 EL-sit.about
　　 'brood over sg'　 'amuse oneself with sg'　 'joke with sy'　 'sit about for some time'
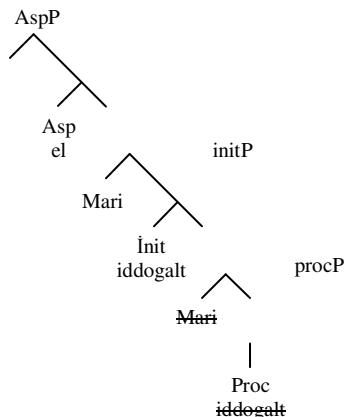
El- in these cases is importantly different from the directional and resultative uses. Directional and resultative particles contribute to the inner aspect of the event, *el-* in (22) contributes to the outer aspect of the event. In (8) and (9) it is plausible that the particle is a secondary predicate predicated of the theme argument, but this is not the case in (10) and (22). El*dolgozgat* 'work at a leisurely pace', for instance, has a single agentive argument (and so this complex predicate is also a counterexample to É. Kiss' prediction that unergatives do not combine with particles). In this third type of use *el-* does not change the argument structure either. Neither of these properties follow from É. Kiss' analysis.

In Slavic languages particles take the form of verbal prefixes and come in two groups: so-called lexical and superlexical. Lexical prefixes often change the argument structure and form idioms with the verb. Superlexical prefixes, on the other hand, don't change the argument structure; do not readily form idioms with the verb; and add a predictable, modifier-like meaning to the verb (Ramchand 2004; Svenonius 2004; Tolskaya 2007). The properties of superlexical prefixes seem to be the same as the properties of *el-* in the third type of use.

Ramchand and Svenonius place superlexical prefixes outside of vP. This accounts for all their properties listed above. I follow this line of thinking for *el-* in (10) and (22). Merging the particle outside *init*P guarantees that it will not change the argument structure and not form idioms with the verb. Since *el-* here encodes the outer aspect of the event, I merge it into Asp^0. The structure assigned to the relevant part of the sentence in (10) is shown in (23).

(23)

```
              AspP
             /\
            /  \
          Asp    \
           el     initP
               Mari /\
                   /  \
                Init    \
                iddogalt  procP
                      Mari /
                          /
                         |
                        Proc
                       iddogalt
```

4.4 How many els?

Looking back at the data in (8-10), is there any common meaning behind the 3 uses, or any two pairs? I suggest that the *el-* in (8) and (10) is the same lexical item. I analyze the *el-* found in these sentences as a measure function. It lexical entry is something like 'some, satisfying an anticipated amount/extent'.

Filip (2000) argues that the Slavic prefixes *na-* and *po-* express vague extensive measure funcions, whose "value is determined by contextual factors that narrow down the sort of entities that are intended to be measured by a given prefix" (p. 59). Filip (2003) and Soucková (2004) also analyze *na-* and *po-* as measure phrases. *El-* in (8) and (10) is used in an analogous fashion to these prefixes, though it is certainly not a direct equivalent of either of them.

El- represents a measure function that can be applied to objects in both the spatial and the temporal domains. (This is not surprising, as many morphemes in language express both temporal and spatial relations (Haspelmath 1997), cf. *in* twenty minutes and *in* the house.) *El-* measures the distance from the starting point of the movement in (8) and it measures the elapsed time in (10). The meaning of a measure-function-*el* + V complex predicate is computed compositionally: the verb determines the event to which the measuring applies, the point of insertion (Dir^0 or Asp^0) determines whether the measuring takes place in the spatial or the temporal domain, and *el-* determines the size of the event (i.e. its length in space or time). There is no need to store these complex predicates in the lexicon (contra É. Kiss 2002), which is a desirable result.

As for *el-* in (9), it is not obvious how a measure-function analysis could work in this case. At this point, I have to say that there are two lexical items *el-*: one is a measure function, the other is a pure resultative particle. This is not an entirely satisfactory solution, because particles regularly show an alternation between a directional and a resultative use, and in an ultimately successful account this polysemy would follow from something deeper than chance homophony. For the present, however, I must leave the unification of *el-* in (9) with the measure-function-*el* to further research.

5. Summary

In this paper I examined the verbal particle *el-* 'away' and its various meaning contributions to the predication. I proposed that there are only two lexical items behind the three different uses of *el-*. One of these lexical items is a pure resultative particle, the other is a measure function that can serve both as a temporal and spatial measure. It needs to be pointed out that I have only scratched the surface and many issues remain to be worked out in detail. However, I hope to have shown that the semantic contribution of the particle to the predication (i.e. the subgroup to which the particle belongs) must be taken into consideration in any thorough analysis, and that in certain cases the properties of *el-* receive a natural account only if a vP-external insertion site is assumed.

Acknowledgements

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A Case Study of Teachers' Beliefs and Classroom Practices on Grammar Teaching

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This paper presents a case study that examined and compared the beliefs and actual classroom practices of one less experienced and one more experienced English language teacher in terms of grammar teaching in a private university prep school in Istanbul, Turkey. Data were collected by means of questionnaire, classroom observation and interview. Areas that practices converge with or diverge from beliefs about grammar teaching are examined and discussed. As a result of the study, the findings suggest that teachers have complex belief systems that sometimes converge with or diverge from their actual practices for various reasons.

1. Introduction

In recent years, there has been a shift away from a view of teachers as people who master a set of general principles and theories developed by experts towards a view of teaching as a thinking activity and teachers as people who construct their own personal and workable theories of teaching (Fang 1996; Borg 2003; Richards 1998). Concomitant with this conceptualization of teaching as a thinking activity has been an increase in research into teachers' beliefs (Borg 2003).

Borg (2001) states a 'belief' as a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour. He also claims that beliefs play an important role in many aspects of teaching, as well as in life. As noted by Shavelson and Stern (1981), what teachers do in the classroom is said to be governed by what they believe and these beliefs often serve to act as a filter through which instructional judgements and decisions are made. Research indicates that teachers possess complex beliefs about pedagogical issues including beliefs about students and classroom practices (Berliner, 1987; Borg, 1998; Shavelson and Stern, 1981).

The purpose of this study is to explore the beliefs and actual classroom practices of one experienced and one inexperienced English language teachers with regards to grammar teaching in a university preparatory school in Istanbul, Turkey. Areas where practices converged with or diverged from beliefs related to the teaching of English grammar are going to be examined and discussed. Despite the increasing interest in language teachers' beliefs, there have not been many case studies which focus on the beliefs of teachers in Turkish context. This paper aims to attempt to fill this gap in the literature on this important topic.

2. Methodology

The case study of the beliefs of one less experienced and one more experienced university prep school teachers and their actual instructional practices in grammar teaching attempted to answer following research questions:

1. Is there a difference between the less and more experienced teachers' beliefs about the   way grammar should be taught and their actual classroom practices of teaching grammar?

2.   How do their grammar beliefs converge with or diverge from their classroom practices?

Participants and Setting

Two teachers were participated in the study; Nida was less experienced with seven years of experience, Deniz was more experienced with seventeen years of experience (names are given to the participant teachers as pseudonyms).At the time of the study they were both teaching grammar in the same institution and graduates of ELT department. The study took place in the English prep school of a private university in Istanbul.

Data Collection

This study adopted a qualitative case study approach to investigate the relationship between beliefs and actual classroom practices with regards to grammar teaching (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982). Data collection occurred over a period of two weeks. Sources of data included one scheduled pre-study questionnaire (for which I have benefitted from the belief interview prepared by Borg, 2003) with each of the two teachers, two non-participatory observations of the teachers' classes with post-lesson interviews(App.A). During the observations I benefitted from the checklist prepared by Farrell and Particia (2005). Classroom observations were carried out to obtain information about the teachers' teaching practices. The video recordings of the lesson observations were transcribed, as were the accompanying observer's field notes.

Data Analysis

Data which were collected in the classroom observations were analysed by means of Conversation Analysis Methodology. The collected data as a result of questionnaires, observations and discussions were matched for convergence and divergence between beliefs and practices (Farrell and Particia, 2005)

3. Results
Grammar Beliefs

Before giving the questionnaires to the teachers during the individual interviews, I asked them what grammar meant to them as a teacher.
Nida told that;

" The first thing that comes to my mind is using the structure correctly both in written and spoken English."

And Deniz commented;

"Being aware of the tenses and using correct tense at the correct time is grammar to me."

According to the information received from the questionnaires both of the teachers agree that grammar should be taught before expecting learners to use it.

They also think that grammar involves teaching language structures and is concerned with using the correct tenses. Nida, the less experienced teacher does not think that being aware of the grammar rules results in more effective language use. However, Deniz, the more experienced one, strongly believes that being aware of the rules is the only way of effective communication. When the teachers are asked about their opinions of teaching older students (> 18), they both agree with the necessity of teaching rules of English grammar directly. They also believe that grammar should come after communicative tasks during the lessons and should not be taught separately.

When they were asked about the role of the teacher in teaching grammar Nida thinks that the main role of the teacher should be explaining the rules whereas Deniz strongly disagrees with this role of the teacher. Neither of them has any idea about the importance of teaching grammatical terminology. Again both of them disagree with the idea that correcting learners' spoken grammatical mistakes is one of the teachers' key roles. The effectiveness of being worked out the rules by the students is strongly agreed by Nida. On the contrary, Deniz thinks that they may make some mistakes during the process and can learn wrong. Another point they both agree is that formal grammar teaching does not help learners become more fluent.

For incidental teaching of grammar (covert teaching where items are presented as part of another language activity such as reading, listening (Farrell and Particia,2005)) Nida believes covert teaching of grammar enables the students to acquire the language skills while Deniz has her doubts about the approach. Her main concern about the incidental teaching of grammar is that students without the necessary language skills may not be able to benefit from such an indirect approach. Deniz expressed a preference for overt teaching of grammar rules and sentence structures. As a follow up activity, they make use of drilling for practice. However, Nida chooses the oral form of drilling while Deniz prefers written practice in order to make them aware of their mistakes.

Classroom Practices

Table 1. Outline of the two teachers' actual classroom practices when teaching English grammar.

	Observed Classroom Practices	Nida	Deniz
1	Lessons followed a mainly traditional approach, with explicit teaching of grammar rules and meanings.	≠	O
2	There was noticeable use of grammar terminology by teachers and students	X	X
3	Lessons consisted of some form of communicative activities, either as an introduction at the start of the lesson or as a practice during the lesson	O	O

4	Lessons were integrated into other activities like speaking and writing	O	O
5	Teachers corrected grammar errors in the spoken language of the students	O	X
6	Teachers let the students work out on the rules .themselves	≠	X
7	Teachers make use of drilling for practice	O	O

KEY:
O : Observed
≠ : Limited occurrence
X : Not observed

As table 1 indicates, Nida partly uses traditional way of teaching grammar whereas Deniz prefers using it all the time when she teaches grammar. There was no use of grammatical terminology in the observed lessons. Both of the lessons consisted of some form of communicative activities and the teachers presented the grammar subjects in different activities at first. Nida preferred listening because she believes that they have to listen to the usage of the grammatical point and then asked the students to listen again and also follow from the transcript. Deniz directly asked the students to read a passage in their book and underline the item that she is going to present.

Nida always corrected the students' grammatical errors while they are speaking. On the contrary, Deniz never interrupted and corrected. When it was time to deal with the rules, Nida did not tell the rules explicitly and ask the students work out the rules. However, Deniz expressed the rules explicitly after presenting them in the context after asking students to find out the rule. In order to make practice of the structure taught in the lessons both of the teachers asked the learners use the structure in sentences orally.

Beliefs and Classroom Practices
Nida

I noted a divergence between the stated beliefs and actual classroom practices for Nida to some extent. She is in favour of explicit grammar teaching especially when working with older learners (<18). However, in practice it is seen that traditional way of grammar teaching (overt) is followed only when the students are really confused. She explains the reason for this:

> "I don't like being a kind of teacher who always writes some formulas on the board and then asks the learners take them down. Instead, I try to help to the students see the usage of the structure in context first and then when I ask them to use it in similar sentences if they fail, I tell the rule explicitly but again by the help of the students."

She also believes that correcting the spoken grammatical errors of students is not the role of the teacher whereas in the lesson, she continually corrected the oral mistakes about the newly taught subject. When I ask her this situation she answered:

> " I don't want the learners to form a wrong habit while using a new structure. Even though I don't like interrupting their speech, I often do this because of the danger of internalizing wrong."

Nida also states the effectiveness of making the students work out on the rules. However, she prefers to be in the process of working out the rules actively. She says that:

> "If I let them work on the rules themselves, they may make some mistake and learn incorrectly. I prefer working out the rules as a whole class including me as an expert (laughs)."

On the other hand, some convergence between her stated beliefs and classroom practices was noted. Her belief on the importance of oral drilling in the lessons after a grammar point is consistent with her actual classroom practice. She does lots of oral drilling to make the students internalize the structure.

She thinks that the lessons should include a communicative task and the grammar should be presented in another activity. It was noted that she presented the grammar point that was going to be taught afterwards in the listening context and its transcript. She comments:

> "Teaching grammar in an isolated way never works with the learners of any age. There should be some meaningful context to help them see the usage."

She does not believe the efficiency of teaching or using grammatical terminology in the lessons. And she wants the students deal with the meaning instead of terminology. No usage of terminology was observed in her lesson.

Deniz

Deniz's belief in a direct or overt approach to grammar teaching especially to the learners over 18 years old matched with her actual classroom practice to some extent. She also tried to present the subject in a reading passage first as she stated. However, after reading the passage and asking the learners to underline the words about the subject that is going to be told by telling the rule, she explained overtly with long formulas and definitions. She comments:

> "If I don't teach grammar that way they always ask me to write the formulas, and I know that it is the learning strategy of adult learners. Since I get good results, it is not a problem for me to be overt in grammar teaching. "

Even though she stated that teaching grammar should not be taught in a separate way, her way of grammar teaching is noted to be the opposite. In the post lesson discussion, she denied having told grammar separately since she presented the structure in the reading at first. However, there is a strong convergence with her stated beliefs about grammar teaching overtly, her way of teaching. She does not

believe that the teacher should correct every single grammatical mistake in the students' spoken language and she was not observed when correcting the mistakes in the lesson. If there appears a problem about the newly taught subject, she prefers asking the other students to correct the mistake.

In addition, another convergence with her belief and practice is that the students can make mistakes when they are asked to work out the rules themselves. In actual classroom practicing, she prefers to work out the rules herself on the board without any participation of the students in the process.

The only divergence of her stated belief from the practice is the use of drilling. Although she was noted as she is in favour of written drilling because of the danger of wrong habit formation while speaking and also helping the students see their mistakes on the paper. She was observed to do oral drilling after the subject was taught. She commented:

> *"In fact doing oral drilling is not my way but today they*
> *were very passive and I wanted them to utter something."*

4. Discussion

The present study aimed to find out the stated beliefs of participating teachers and areas where practices converged with or diverged from their beliefs about grammar teaching.

The results of the study have shown that both less experienced and the more experienced teacher has some convergences and divergences between their stated beliefs and actual classroom practices. However, it is clearly seen that the less experienced teacher's beliefs diverge from her practice more when compared to the more experienced teacher. The classroom practice of Deniz, the more experienced one, is more consistent with her stated beliefs.

The less experienced teacher in this case study was not consciously aware of her beliefs about grammar teaching until directly asked by the interviewer. In addition she was not aware of her actual classroom practice. On the other hand, Deniz was more conscious about her beliefs and practice. She explains the reason for this by attending the ELT seminars regularly and trying to keep herself up-to-date.

5. Conclusion and Implications

This case study examined the stated beliefs and actual classroom practices of one less experienced and one more experienced teacher in a university prep school in Istanbul, Turkey. The findings suggest that both teachers have a set of complex belief systems that are sometimes converge with or diverge from their classroom practices for various reasons stated in the results. Even though generalizations of this case study may be problematic, language teachers may learn much about the importance of accessing teachers' beliefs and comparing these beliefs with actual classroom practices. At least in my case study when I shared the results with the participant teachers they were very interested in the results and told that they will try to improve themselves.

Language teachers may learn much when they are given the chance to reflect on their beliefs and made to be aware of their actual classroom practices. This can be achieved by the INSET programmes prepared by the institutions and of course with the guidance of the expert trainers.

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Frequency of Exposure and English Learners' Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition through Reading

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In this study the researcher hypothesized that increased text exposures increases the chances of encountering the particular combination of context effects that make learning a word possible. To this end the researcher pre and post tested 10 Iranian students of English teaching on their knowledge of words with a vocabulary test of 20 items. 10 words which received the lowest credit by the subjects were recognized by the researcher in pre-test. During each session of treatment, the researcher exposed the subjects to one of the unknown words repeated in 6 different texts. During 10 sessions of treatment all the marked unknown words were incidentally acquired. Comparison of the results of pre and post-test indicated that participants learned new vocabularies incidentally. The finding of the present study has a straightforward pedagogical implication: Find texts that offer learners many exposures to many new words in context.

1. Introduction

In general, a language is learned not for its own sake but as a by-product of a given individual's socialization process. That is, children acquire the language(s) of their environment as part of learning to cognize the world around them. The socialization process is never completed because people need to adapt continuously to changes in their environment, even as adults. Such adaptation includes the acquisition and development of whatever language(s) the individual may be challenged to learn, regardless of whether or not the language is an L1, L2 or reacquisition, or whether a language is acquired in a natural context or in a classroom in which the language is the instructional medium. In this sense the acquisition of a language is incidental with respect to the situation in which it occurs because the language is not the primary object of the activity or process (Wode, 1999).

Hulstijn (2003) argues that much of the burden of intentional learning can be taken off the shoulders of the language learner by processes of incidental learning, involving the "picking up" of words and structures, simply by engaging in a variety of communicative activities, in particular reading and listening activities, during which the learner's attention is focused on the meaning rather than on the form of language (Hulstijn, 2003).

Ellis (2001 cited in Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis, 2004) has pointed out that in incidental focus on form, the teacher/researcher makes no attempt to predetermine which form or forms will be attended to; rather, the focus on form arises naturally

out of the performance of a communicative task with no pre-targeted language forms.

According to Gass (1999) one of the difficulties in coming up with a good definition of incidental learning stems from the fact that there is no way to show that a given word was incidentally learned. The concern is with cognitive processing and of course it is not possible to have direct access to what a learner is doing. Incidental is something that is learned without the object of that learning being the specific focus of attention in a classroom context. That is, incidental learning is a by-product of the classroom focus.

According to Wode (1999) language learning is a by-product of language use by the teacher or anybody else in the classroom, without the linguistic structure itself being the focus of attention or the target of teaching maneuvers.

2. Incidental Vocabulary Learning in L2 Literature

Nagy, Herman, and Anderson (1985, cited in Hunt & Beglar, 2002) argue that for native speakers of English learning vocabulary from context is a gradual process, given a single exposure to an unfamiliar word, there was about a 10% chance of learning its meaning from context. Likewise, L2 learners can be expected to require many exposures to a word in context before understanding its meaning (Hunt & Beglar, P. 259).

Hulstijn, Hollander and Greidanus (1996) believe that 3 factors favorably affect incidental vocabulary learning: (a) the provision of marginal glosses, (b) the use of a dictionary, and (c) the reappearance or reoccurrence of new words in the text.

Gass (1999) argues that learning a vocabulary item is a process that begins with the first meaningful encounter with a previously unknown word and continues through the successful integration of key features of that word into their mental lexicon. A first encounter with a word may draw a learner's attention to that item. Subsequent encounters provide learners with opportunities to determine relevant semantic and syntactic information.

It is generally agreed that at least some, if not a large part of one's second language vocabulary is acquired incidentally-that is as a by-product of other cognitive exercises involving comprehension.

After a decade of intensive research the incidental learning of vocabulary is still not fully understood, and many questions remain unsettled. Key unresolved issues include the actual mechanism of incidental acquisition, the type and size of vocabulary needed for accurate guessing, the degree of exposure to a word needed for successful acquisition, the efficacy of different word-guessing strategies, the value of teaching explicit guessing strategies, the influence of different kinds of reading texts and the effects of input modification (Huckin, & Coady, 1999).

With regard to vocabulary learning, Ellis (1994 cited in Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001) Claims that the perceptual aspects of new words, i.e. acquiring their phonetic and phonological features, are learned implicitly as a result of frequent exposure. Similarly, the motor aspects of the articulation of word forms develop implicitly as a result of practice. Successful learners use sophisticated metacognitive learning strategies, such as inferring word meanings from context.

Paribakht and Wesche (1997) argue that direct vocabulary instruction cannot account for a significant proportion of the words learners acquire, and the major way in which vocabulary knowledge is increased is by learning through context.

Although aural language experience is important, written language normally contains a higher proportion of difficult or low frequency (unfamiliar) words. Thus reading is normally the major vehicle for continued vocabulary acquisition in literate L1 and L2 learners.

Paribakht and Wesche (1997) further argue that successful incidental vocabulary learning through reading depends on the presence of a number of factors. Learners must attend to new words, and clear cues to their meanings and relationships must be present. Other text features, such as redundant presentation of given words and the learners' previous knowledge (such as partial knowledge of the word, of similar words or cognates), also play a role. The kinds of words to be learned and the clarity of their reference influence the ease of learning as well; thus, for example, concrete nouns are likely to be learned more quickly than discourse connectives. Ultimately, in some sense, the amount and variety of cognitive processing undertaken by the learner in dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary items will determine gains in knowledge; however, exactly what this consists of is not well understood.

Nation (2002) argues that the amount of vocabulary learning that occurs during meaning-focused reading of a text is small. It is likely to use sensitive tests of vocabulary knowledge to show any learning at all. However, it is likely to be cumulative if there are repeated opportunities to meet the partially learned vocabulary again. Best practice in vocabulary teaching and learning should provide large quantities of suitably graded input, by providing it across a range of genres and topics. (p. 268).

2.1 Empirical studies in incidental second language vocabulary learning

Mason and Krashen (2004) conducted a study in which they compared vocabulary growth in English as a foreign language through hearing a story with a combination of a story and supplementary activities designed to focus students specifically on learning the new words in the story. Subjects were first-year Japanese female students at a junior college in Osaka. One class was the 'story-only' group and the other was the 'story-plus study' group. The story-only group spent only 15 minutes hearing a story. The story-plus study group spent nearly the entire class period (85 minutes) hearing the story and doing supplementary activities. Calculations of words learned per minute revealed that the story-only group learned words more efficiently. The results suggest that additional focus on form in the form of traditional vocabulary exercises is not as efficient as hearing words in the context of stories. In this study the researchers demonstrated that hearing stories can result in considerable incidental vocabulary development, for both first and second language acquisition. They also claimed that direct instruction is more effective than incidental vocabulary acquisition and that combining both approaches will be more effective than incidental acquisition alone (Mason & Krashen, 2004).

In a computer-based study, Hill and Laufer (2003) compared the effect of three task types on incidental L2 vocabulary learning, on task-induced amount of dictionary activity and time-on-task. Ninety-six Chinese ESL students read a text containing twelve unfamiliar target items and performed one of the three tasks: a form-oriented production task, a form-oriented comprehension task or a meaning-oriented task. The text was presented on computer and the words could be looked up

in electronic glosses. The results showed that all three tasks let to some vocabulary learning.

In a study on meaning recall and retention, Ramachandran and Abdol Rahim (2004) investigated the effectiveness of the translation method in teaching vocabulary to elementary level EFL learners. The findings of the study reveal that the translation method has a positive impact on learners' recall and retention of the meaning of words that they learned. In this study the approach in teaching vocabulary has been communicative which emphasizes implicit, incidental learning.

Loewen (2003) investigated 12 ESL classes in Auckland, New Zealand in order to compare the frequency and characteristics of incidental focus on form episodes (FFEs) occurring in these classes. A total of 32 hours of meaning-focused classroom interaction was observed and recorded. Characteristics of the FFEs, such as type, linguistic focus and source, were coded and analyzed. This study showed that incidental focus on form can, and does, occur in meaning-focused L2 lessons, although its frequency and characteristics can vary considerably.

2.2 Incidental L2 vocabulary learning through written texts

Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) argue that in experiments investigating incidental vocabulary learning, learners are typically required to perform a task involving the processing of some information without being told in advance that they will be tested afterwards on their recall of that information. What subjects are not told in advance is that the text contains some unfamiliar words and that they will be tested afterwards on their recall of these words.

According to Hulstijn (1992 cited in Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001) when learners were asked to infer the meaning of words from context, subsequent retention of these words was better than when they were provided with a synonym of the words during a reading task.

Rott (1999) argues that the effectiveness of reading as an important source of L2 vocabulary development has been questioned because a number of learner and text variables have been identified that aid, but more often impede, beginning L2 readers' word inferencing process. The four major factors that can have an impact on the outcome of inferencing are: (a) learners' knowledge about the linguistic properties of an unknown word, (b) context properties in which the unknown word appears, (c) the approach taken by the language learner to infer meaning, and (d) cognitive processes that influence L2 readers' awareness of and attention to unfamiliar words.

According to Pulido (2004) vocabulary development through reading is a complex process. It first involves noticing that particular word forms which are unfamiliar and that there exists gaps in one's knowledge. Then in the absence of dictionaries or human assistance, it requires inferring meaning from context (lexical inferencing) using linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge. In addition, for vocabulary acquisition to occur through reading, readers must also attend to the connections between new lexical forms and their meanings and integrate the new linguistic information into their developing L2 system.

Coady (1993, cited in Rott, 1999) argues that extensive reading potentially provides learners with the opportunity to process an unfamiliar word in its various natural contexts in order to acquire the complex properties of the lexical item such as its syntactic, lexical and semantic properties. Reading is furthermore considered

an essential source for the acquisition of less frequent lexical items that are usually encountered in texts only.

Research on first language reading and vocabulary has identified several factors that influence the amount of incidental word learning while reading. Among these factors are the reader's age, reading skill, and several text and word characteristics. Other studies point at, for instance, student's existing topic knowledge, their vocabulary size, and their potential familiarity with the concepts represented by the unknown words (Swanborn & Glopper, 2002).

2.3 Empirical studies on incidental vocabulary learning through reading

In a study conducted by Paribakht and Wesche (1999), they investigated University ESL students' incidental acquisition of new lexical knowledge through the reading of thematically related texts. The researchers sought to identify the strategies and the kinds of knowledge and information learners used when dealing with new L2 words they encountered while reading. Taxonomy of knowledge sources they used in inferring word meanings from various textual and other cues was developed. Findings were interpreted in terms of existing research and theory on incidental vocabulary acquisition within an input-processing framework. The findings of this study suggests that a reading approach is useful for vocabulary development if recognition of key content words related to a given theme is the goal and if the text, word, task, and learner factors that play a role in successful input processing and retention are favorable.

Swanborn and Glopper (2002) examined how reading texts for different purposes affected amounts of incidental word learning. Grade 6 students were asked to read texts for fun, to learn about the topic of the text, and for text comprehension. Proportions of words learned incidentally while reading ranged from .06 for free reading to .08 when reading for text comprehension to .10 when reading to learn about the topic. Level of reading ability was a significant factor in all conditions. Low-ability readers hardly learned any words incidentally; high-ability readers defined up to 27 of every 100 unknown words when reading for text comprehension.

Pulido (2003) conducted a study to examine the impact of topic familiarity, Second Language reading proficiency, and L2 passage sight vocabulary on incidental vocabulary acquisition. Participants read narratives (2 more and 2 less familiar) containing nonsense words. Two and 28 days after reading, 2 gain measures were administered: (a) translation production and (b) translation recognition. Analyses revealed rebust effects of reading proficiency, differential effects of topic familiarity, and isolated effects of passage sight vocabulary.

There are few studies specifically investigating the role of background knowledge in L2 incidental vocabulary acquisition. Akagawa (1995, cited in Pulido, 2003) investigated the effectiveness of an advance organizer on L2 incidental vocabulary gain through reading expository passages. With a sample of low-proficiency English as a foreign language participants, there were inconsistent effects obtained for the advance organizer treatment on repeated measures of gain. There is a shortcoming with this study. Some of the measurements used to determine vocabulary gain were contextualized, containing excerpts taken directly from the experimental passages themselves. As a result, it is unclear whether or not any of the effects obtained were due to an increase in background knowledge produced by the

advance organizer treatment or simply resulted from the use of context and lexical inferencing strategies at the time of testing.

Pulido (2004) examined the relationship between passage comprehension and second language incidental vocabulary acquisition. The effect of topic familiarity was also examined in this relationship participants were a cross-sectional sample of L2 learners. All participants read more and less familiar script-based narratives containing nonsense words. After reading they performed a free-written recall in their first language. Two days after reading, an intake and 2 gain measures were repeated. Analyses reveal a generally robust consistent role of passage comprehension in lexical gain and retention, but differential patterns of relationships in intake due to effects of topic familiarity.

3. Research Questions

This research study investigated the following questions:

1. Do English students of University acquire vocabulary incidentally through reading?
2. Does frequency of exposure to a vocabulary item affect the incidental acquisition of that lexical item?

4. Method
4.1 Subjects

Subjects participating in this study were 12 learners of English as a foreign language enrolled in Advance Reading Comprehension course at the Islamic Azad University of Garmsar. All students enrolled in fifth semester language classes. However 2 subjects' data had to be excluded from the final analysis because they did not complete all treatments.

4.2 Materials

The texts selected for the treatment were on a wide range of topics including temperature, blood, social rules, culture, tribe, animal species, parliament and election, ancient civilization, customs and traditions. Each target word was repeated 6 times in 6 different texts.

To assess the vocabulary knowledge of the testees, the vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS) which had previously been developed by the researchers to distinguish stages in learners' developing knowledge of particular words was used (Paribakht & Wesche, 1999).

This instrument uses a 5-point scale combining self-report and performance items to elicit self-perceived and demonstrated knowledge of specific words in written form. The scale ratings range from total unfamiliarity, through recognition of the word and some idea of its meaning, to the ability to use the word with grammatical and semantic accuracy in a sentence (Figure 1). In order to indicate that the instrument can elicit acceptably reliable responses a reliability estimate for the VKS was established by Paribakht and Wesche (1999) through test retest administration of a word list (N=32) to 93 students at 6 different proficiency levels in the 1992 ESL summer school program. The resulting Pearson correlation was .89 for scores on the 24 content words, and .82 for scores on the 8 discourse connectives.

The subjects were to provide a self-report on their knowledge of target lexical items before the treatment and also after the treatment to evaluate their hypothesized mastery of the target words.

Test takers were presented with a list of 20 lexical items and asked to indicate their level of knowledge for each and give a self report shown in Figure 1 using Vocabulary Knowledge Scale.

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Self-report Categories
I    I don't remember having seen this word before.
II   I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.
III  I have seen this word before, and I think it means…………… (synonym
     or translation)
IV   I know this word. It means…………… (synonym or translation)
V    I can use this word in a sentence :………………(write a sentence)
     (if you do this section, please also do section IV.)
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Fig. 1. VKS elicitation scale – self-report categories (Paribakht & Wesche, 1999).

4.3 Procedure

10 lexical items which received the lowest scores in the pretest were selected. For each vocabulary item 6 short texts were prepared to be worked on during each treatment session.

The treatment lasted for 10 sessions, one hour thirty minutes each. In each session of the treatment the subjects worked on one lexical item. All 6 short texts were worked on in one session. The subjects were not allowed to use dictionaries when exposed to unknown words, and the teacher did not provide them with any advance organizers, synonyms or definitions. The unknown target words were neither bold nor underlined. The subjects had to infer the meaning of target words from the context. After each short text, one or two comprehension check questions were asked to elicit the subjects' overall understanding. This was done to create conditions conducive to incidental vocabulary learning; students' attention was turned away from particular unknown words and directed toward an understanding of texts as a whole. Thus instead of having to answer comprehension questions for which they had prepared, students were tested on their knowledge of vocabulary. After the completion of the treatment sessions, a post-test was administered. VKS elicitation scale was used again and the subjects were asked to self-report on the 10 target works in the pretest plus 10 distracters.

5. Results

The descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, variance, and t-test) are reported in table 2. The exposure frequency was 6 and for all the statistical analysis the alpha level was set at .05.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for the pre-test and post-test

	Pre-test	Post-test
Mean	3	5.4
Standard Deviation	1.15	0.51

Variance	1.33	0.26
Pearson correlation coefficient	0.71	
t-observed value	6.153	
t-critical value	2.262	
df	9	9

t-observed > t-critical

Table 1 shows that t-observed value (6.153) exceeds t-critical value (2.262), therefore the null hypothesis is rejected at the .05 level of significance.
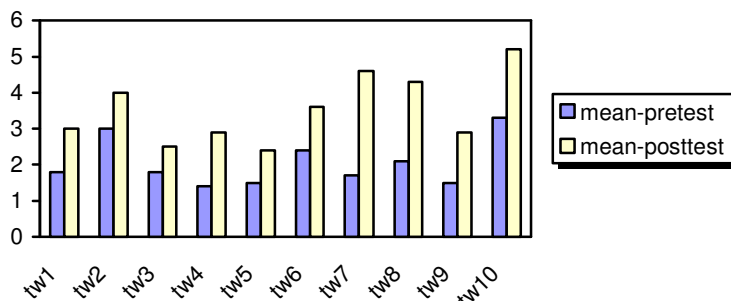
tw = target word
Fig. 1. difference of mean in pre-test and post-test

Figure 2 illustrates the differences between the means of subject scores on pre-test and post-test. The chart proves the statistical analysis as for the significance of the difference between two means, already computed through t-test.

The results of the statistical analysis showed the amount of vocabulary gained increased as the result of 6 times exposure to the target words in written texts.

6. Discussion

The overall result of the present study is that foreign language learners incidentally acquire vocabulary during reading. In addition to the significance of normal reading as an important source of input for L2 learners' vocabulary development, the present study indicated that 6 exposures to an unknown word resulted in significant receptive as well as productive word gain.

The present data approximated findings of L1 vocabulary research, which regards reading as a major source of lexical development during early school years. The direct comparison of L1 research and present findings is not possible because of the differences in study set up. But considering the present data in the light of L1 findings, reading seems to have a similarly important impact on L2 as on L1 lexical development, given texts that are sufficiently rich as to allow readers to assign meaning to unfamiliar words.

7. Conclusion

Huckin and Coady (1999) believe that incidental learning of vocabulary has certain advantages over direct instruction, including the following: (a) It is contextualized, giving the learner a richer sense of a word's use and meaning than can be provided in traditional paired-associate exercises, (b) It is pedagogically efficient in that it enables two activities-vocabulary acquisition and reading-to occur at the same time, and (c) it is more individualized and learner-based because the vocabulary being acquired is dependent on the learner's own selection of reading materials.

Learner attention is another crucial factor. In incidental vocabulary acquisition the learner's attention is focused primarily on communicative meaning, not on form. Krashen's Input Hypothesis makes a stronger claim-namely, that acquisition occurs only when the learner's attention is focused on meaning. Hulstikn, Hollander and Greidanus (1996) argue "meaning inferred" yields higher retention than "meaning given", there is no doubt that extensive reading is conducive to vocabulary enlargement.

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An Analysis of Learning Achievements in Writing Skill of English Language at Secondary School level in District Bahawalnagar Pakistan

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Language is a powerful and effective means of communication of thoughts, feelings, sentiments and intentions. Human beings alone use the language for communication. It can also be defined as set of human habits, the purpose of which is to give expression to human thoughts and feelings especially to impart them to others. English is a second language in Pakistan. The study was conducted in order to analyze the learning achievements of the students in writing skill of grade 10 at secondary school level. A sample consisting 440 students from 40 schools was taken. Eleven (11) students from grade 10 were selected randomly from each school. A test was developed to evaluate their achievement in dictation, diction, syntax, composition, comprehension, grammar and handwriting in writing skill. It was personally administered to the students. A comparison was also made on the basis of gender, geographical location and public & private sector.

Introduction

Language is a powerful and effective means of communication of thoughts, feelings, sentiments and intentions. Human beings alone use the language for communication. Carney, (1990) defined Language as a set of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group communicates. Hadely, (2001) pointed out language as a set of human habits, the purpose of which is to give expression to human thoughts and feelings especially to impart them to others. The child knows no language by birth and he learns it over a long period of time. He begins learning of language by making various isolated sounds. Finally he acquires language and grammatical construction of the language of his group by imitation. Human language is transmitted from one individual to another not by physical inheritance, but by learning.

Language acquisition is contrasted with language learning which is used with reference to a second language which a person learns deliberately; particularly in formal settings like school etc. The researchers like Littlefair, (1991), William Littleword (1988), and David Ingram (1989) distinguished language acquisition from language learning and use the expression of first language acquisition in contrast with second language learning but many researchers and theorists didn't distinguish between the two. Farzan (2000) for instance, treated language acquisition as a purely stylistic alternate to language learning.

English is one of the most important languages of the world. It is considered the medium of international communication. It is the language of science, technology, commerce, industry, diplomacy, research and higher studies.

English is taught as compulsory subject from class one up to graduation level. English is not the mother tongue of Pakistani students. It is second language for them. That's why they feel it difficult to learn. Most of the students think themselves handicapped and feel inferiority complex without the competency in the subject of English, because it is gaining popularity in Pakistan in all walks of life day by day and has become status symbol.

The four main skills of language are; listening, speaking, reading, and writing. To be able to use the language to convey thoughts, wishes, intentions, feeling, and information, a person needs a mastery of various elements (Pamela, J. S. (1991).

The four skills can be classified as receptive and productive skills. Listening and reading fall under the category of receptive skills. Contrary to this, speaking and writing are productive skills. Writing is one of the four basic skills. The Pupils learn to communicate through written form in their schools. It, too, is more complicated than it seems at first, and often seems to be the hardest of the skills, even for native speakers of a language, since it involves not just a graphic representation of speech, but the development and presentation of thoughts in a structured way.

Micro-Skills of Writing

Here are some of the micro-skills involved in writing. The writer needs to:
1. Use the script, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation correctly.
2. Use the correct forms of words to express the right tense, or case or gender.
3. Use the main sentence constituents; subject, verb and object appropriately.
4. Make the text coherent, so that other people can follow the ideas easily.

The students have to construct sentences bearing in mind grammatical coordination, appropriate lexis and correct spelling. It can be said that this is the best way of improving writing, skills. (Simmon, 1999)

The ultimate meaning of writing, skill is to construct grammatically correct sentences and to communicate a meaning to the reader. Real life communicative writing tasks, on the other hand, are letter-writing, form filling, report writing and so on. These communicative writing tasks are rarely practiced in our language classrooms. Communicative writing should be logical and coherent. Cohesion referrers to the grammatical or structural unity and coherence, on he other hand, refers to the unity of sense, or meaning. (Shahid, 1999) Writing can be divided into sub-skills like descriptive, narrative and expository writing skills. (Wilcox, B.L. 2002) This study is an attempt to find out the achievement level of writing skills among secondary school students in District Bahawalnagar Pakistan. This study will also help the students and teachers to know about the achievement level among students' different writing skills and would possibly locate language proficiency among students at school level.

Objectives of the Study

The major objectives of the study were bifurcated into following objectives:

(i). To find out the students learning achievements in different types of writing skills.

(ii).To compare the learning achievements of the students on the basis of gender, geographical location and

public & private sector.

Method and Procedure

The intended target population was the students of grade 10 in urban and rural secondary schools for boys and girls. A sample consisting 440 students (11students from each school) was selected through simple random sampling technique from 40 secondary schools of District Bahawalnagar Pakistan.

Research Instrument

After reviewing the related literature a test was developed to evaluate the students' performance in writing skills. Different items related to writing skills like dictation, syntax, composition, comprehension, grammar and handwriting were included in the test. The test was personally administered to the sample. The blank space was provided on the test to complete it.

Data Analysis

To analyze the data, scoring was made on the principle-one item, one mark. Mark 1 was awarded to correct response and mark zero was awarded to incorrect. The data was analyzed in three steps.

Firstly, the average score and frequency for each item were calculated. The marks obtained in the whole test were presented in the form of master table and then were tabulated according to different categories. Secondly the standard deviation was calculated to determine the reliability and validity of scores. It helped to know about the dispersion in mean scores. Thirdly the tables having mean scores, frequencies and standard deviation were drawn. Tables were drawn later on to make the picture clear.

Results

All the items included in the test were analyzed separately. The results of the study were also analyzed by comparing the gender, location and public & private sector separately for each class. However it was not possible to describe all those results here which were expanded in 36 tables. Hence here a result of study is given in five tables only.

(1) The mean score indicates students' better performance in completing the commonly used word 'Pollution'. And showed poor performance in word 'Revelation' which is not used commonly and had two blank spaces to fill.

Table.1.Showing the performance of the students in completing words (N=440)

Sr. No.	Words	Frequency	Mean	SD
1	Disc-pline	294	0.67	0.16
2	Opp-rtunity	166	0.38	0.17
3	Poll-tion	339	0.77	0.13
4	R-v-lation	122	0.28	0.14

5	Oc-as-on	281	0.64	0.16
6	Average	240	0.55	0.15
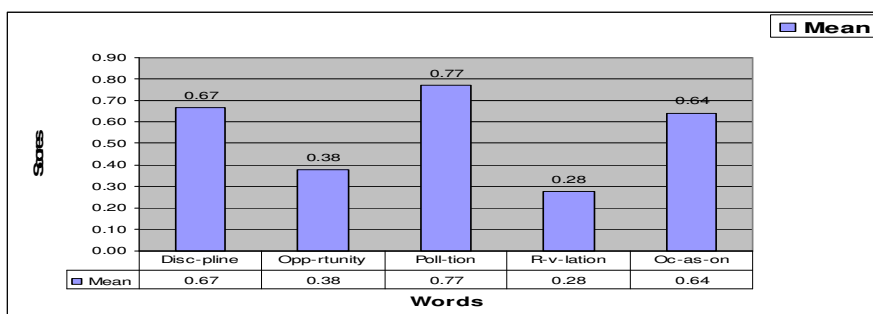
Fig.1. Students' performance in completing the incomplete words

(2).The arithmetic mean scores indicate that the students' performance is comparatively better in making sentences of 'Verb' and 'Noun' and lowest in making sentence of 'adverb' and idiom.

Table.2. Showing the performance of the students in sentence making (N=440)

Sr. No.	Words	Frequency	Mean	SD
1	Enjoy	270	0.61	0.17
2	With	249	0.57	0.17
3	Nation	280	0.64	0.16
4	Quickly	211	0.48	0.18
5	Ups and downs	162	0.37	0.16
6	Average	234	0.53	0.17
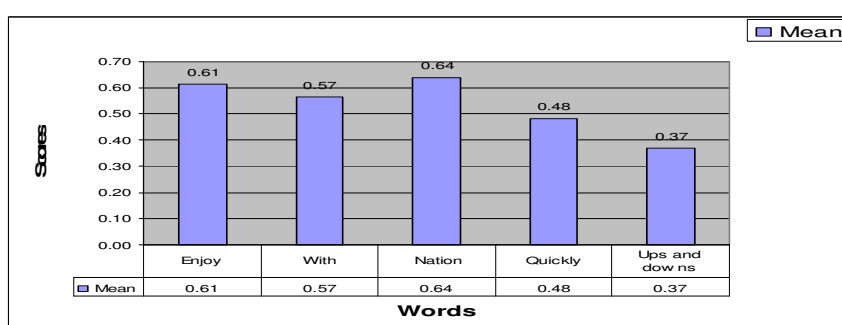
Fig.2. Students' performance in sentence making

(3) The arithmetic mean scores of words 'Sadder' and 'Quintessence' are better than others and lowest in words 'Psychology' and 'Philosophy'. It indicates that students can write easily those words which lie on upper three lines but they feel

difficulty in writing those words which lie on lower three lines. They also got low score in 'Stopped' and 'Hopefully'. They too feel difficult to write those words which lie on four lines.

Table.3. Showing the performance of the students in hand writing (N=440)

| Sr. No.	Words	Frequency	Mean	SD
1	Sadder	273	0.62	0.17
2	Consonant	252	0.57	0.17
3	Quintessence	273	0.62	0.17
4	Beginning	214	0.49	0.18
5	Stopped	207	0.47	0.18
6	Jurisprudence	257	0.58	0.17
7	Hopefully	216	0.49	0.18
8	Zoology	222	0.50	0.18
9	Psychology	282	0.41	0.17
10	Philosophy	288	0.43	0.17
11	Average	248	0.52	0.17
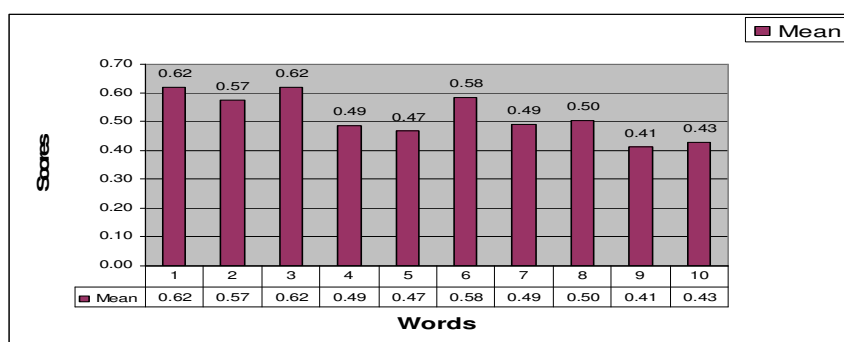
Fig.3. Students' performance in handwriting

(4) The arithmetic mean scores show that the performance of urban students is better than that of rural students. Only in handwriting level 2, the students of rural area showed better performance.

Table.4. Showing the performance of rural and urban students in writing skills   N (Rural) =220, N (Urban) =220

S #	Skills	Rural Students			Urban Students		
		Frequency	Mean	SD	Frequency	Mean	SD
1	Spelling	110	0.50	0.21	131	0.59	0.25
2	Sentences	101	0.46	0.16	133	0.61	0.17
3	Composition	137	0.62	0.17	166	0.75	0.15
4	Comprehension	130	0.59	0.27	159	0.72	0.21

5	Grammar	112	0.51	0.14	140	0.64	0.13
6	Handwriting Level 1	231	0.53	0.15	113	0.51	0.15
7	Handwriting Level 2	219	0.50	0.22	117	0.53	0.22
8	Average	149	0.53	0.19	137	0.62	0.18

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Rural	0.50	0.46	0.62	0.59	0.51	0.53	0.50
Urban	0.59	0.61	0.75	0.72	0.64	0.51	0.53
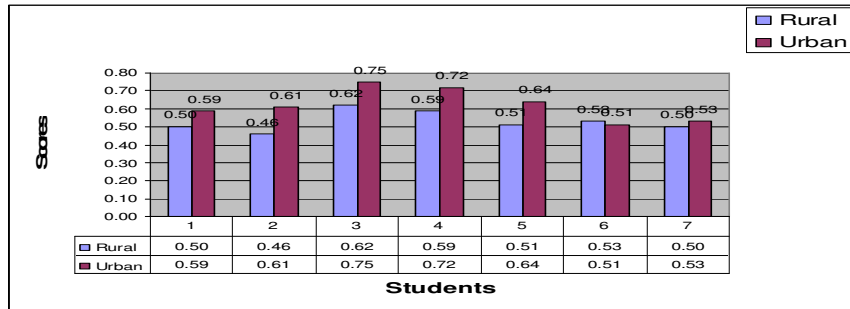
Fig.4. Comparison of urban and rural students in all writing skill

(5) According to the Table No.5, the performance of male students is comparatively better than that of female students.

Table No. 5. Showing the performance of male and female students in writing Skills N (Male) =220, N (Female) =220

S #	Skills	Male Students			Female Students		
		Frequency	Mean	SD	Frequency	Mean	SD
1	Spelling	125	0.57	0.22	116	0.53	0.24
2	Sentences	120	0.55	0.16	114	0.52	0.17
3	Composition	156	0.71	0.16	147	0.67	0.17
4	Comprehension	140	0.64	0.23	148	0.67	0.25
5	Grammar	131	0.60	0.14	121	0.55	0.14
6	Handwriting Level 1	119	0.54	0.14	109	0.50	0.15
7	Handwriting Level 2	117	0.53	0.23	110	0.50	0.21
8	Average	129	0.59	0.18	123	0.56	0.19

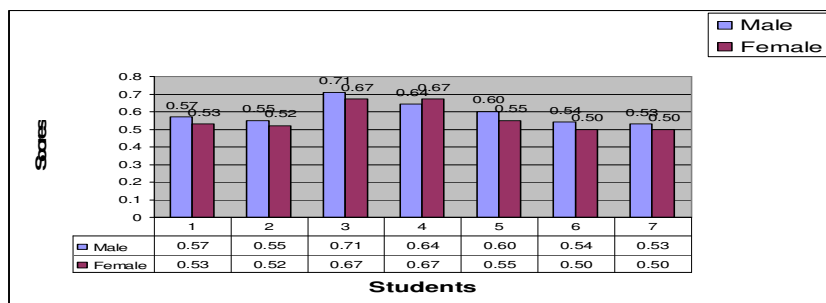|	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Male	0.57	0.55	0.71	0.64	0.60	0.54	0.53
Female	0.53	0.52	0.67	0.67	0.55	0.50	0.50

Fig.5. Comparison of male and female students in all writing skills

(6) According to the mean scores presented in the table.6, the performance of the students of private schools is comparatively better in spelling, sentence making, comprehension, grammar, and handwriting. On the other hand the performance of the students of public schools is comparatively better in composition and word hand writing.

Table 6 Performance of the students of public and private schools in writing skills   N (public) = 220 N (private) =220

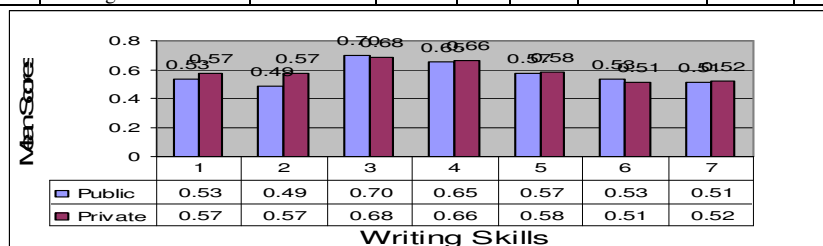| S.#	Skills	Public Students				Private Students		
		Frequency	Mean	%	SD	Frequency	Mean	SD
1	Spelling	116	0.53	53	0.24	125	0.57	0.22
2	Sentences	108	0.49	49	0.18	125	0.57	0.15
3	Composition	154	0.70	70	0.17	149	0.68	0.15
4	Comprehension	143	0.65	65	0.25	145	0.66	0.23
5	Grammar	125	0.57	57	0.14	127	0.58	0.14
6	Handwriting Level 1	116	0.53	53	0.15	112	0.51	0.14
7	Handwriting Level 2	113	0.51	51	0.23	115	0.52	0.21
8	Average	125	0.57	57	0.19	128	0.58	0.18

Fig.6 Comparison of the students of public and private schools in writing skills

Discussion

Writing skill plays a pivotal role in students' learning achievements. According to the examination system, the students are required to show their worth in writing in the classroom and examination hall as well. The results of this study reflect that students can use common parts of speech like verbs and nouns in sentences but they feel difficulty in making sentences of adverbs and idioms. It is noticed that the students belonging to the urban areas showed better performance than that of rural students because of the better provision of facilities, exposure and better learning environment. The results of the study showed that the male students' performance is better than that of female students in all types of writing skills. Moreover the students of private schools showed rather better results than that of the students of public schools. In some cases the public sector students performed well.

It is recommended that similar studies should be conducted to find out the achievement level of students in other skills like reading, listening and speaking. Moreover the teachers should pay more attention to the students at all levels so that they may have good command over all types of writing skills which play central role to improve written English. Students should write again and again the learnt material to make their handwriting beautiful and legible. In a nutshell the students should

devote themselves sincerely for improving English which has become the dire need of the day.

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Processing Japanese Relative Clauses in Different Syntactic Environments

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This study examines the processing difficulty of Japanese relative clauses in two different syntactic environments. We attempt to answer these two questions: 1) Whether or not the object relative clauses (ORCs) are less predictable than the subject relative clauses (SRCs) without any discourse-context. 2) Whether the predictability of relative clauses is directly reflected in their processing difficulty. To answer these questions we conducted a sentence-fragment completion experiment and a self-paced reading experiment. The results revealed that the ORCs are not less predictable than the SRCs, and their observed predictability was reflected in the processing difficulty. Moreover, the processing difficulty of the ORCs and SRCs varied depending on the syntactic environment in which they appeared. These results suggest that the distance based accounts alone cannot capture the whole range of facts observed in relative clause processing, and predictability of the relative clauses might be another important factor for the processing difficulty.

1. Introduction

In the psycholinguistics literature, it has been reported that in many languages, the subject relative clauses (SRCs) are easier to process (read) than the object relative clauses (ORCs) (e.g., Dutch: Mak et al., 2006; English: Traxler et al., 2002; French: Holmes & O' Regan, 1981; German: Schfriers et al., 1995; Japanese: Ueno & Garnsey, 2008; Korean: Kwon et al., 2006). In order to explain this phenomena, many hypothesizes have been put forward. The notion of "filler and gap dependencies" plays a crucial role in the relative clause processing. The "filler" is used for the moved WH-element and, the "gap" for the original sentence position of the moved WH-element. In the example (1), *who* is a filler, and "___" shows its gap position.

(1a) ORC: The student [$_S$ who$_i$ the professor [$_{VP}$ saw ___$_i$]...
(1b) SRC: The student [$_S$ who$_i$ ___$_i$ [$_{VP}$ saw the professor]...

It is assumed that in order to understand relative clauses, it is necessary to set up an association between the filler and the gap (e.g., Fodor, 1989; Hawkins, 1999). The determining factor for the processing difficulty between the ORCs and the SRCs is assumed to be distance between the filler and the gap (c.f., Gibson, 1998; O'Grady, 1997). According to Gibson (1998), the number of discourse referents (words) between the filler and the gap is the source for the processing difficulty. This is conventionally called "linear distance hypothesis" (LDH). The LDH predicts that the SRCs are easier to process than the ORCs because there are intervening words between the filler and the gap in the ORCs. On the other hand the filler and the gap are adjacent to each other in the SRCs. Alternatively; O'Grady (1997) assumes that the number of syntactic nodes between the filler and the gap is responsible for the processing difficulty between the ORCs and the SRCs. This is conventionally called "structural distance hypothesis" (SDH). According to the SDH, since there are fewer nodes between the filler and the gap in the SRCs, they are easier to process than the ORCs.

This paper examines whether or not the distance (linear or structural) between the filler and the gap is the main factor for the processing difficulty of relative clauses in the head-final languages through Japanese. In English or English-like languages both the LDH and the SDH predict that the SRCs are easier to process than the ORCs. This means that it is impossible to distinguish the validity between the LDH and the SDH through English or English-like languages. On the other hand, it is possible to distinguish the validity between the LDH and the SDH through head-final languages like Japanese (e.g., Ishizuka, 2005; Ueno & Garnsey, 2008), since these hypothesizes make different predictions for the processing difficulty of the ORCs and the SRCs in Japanese.

(2a) ORC: [$_S$ Kyouju-ga [$_{VP}$ ___$_i$ mita]] gakusei$_i$…
              [Professor-NOM [___saw]] student… (The student who the professor saw)
(2b) SRC: [$_S$ ___$_i$ Kyouju-o mita] gakusei$_i$…
              [___Professor-ACC saw] student… (The student who saw the professor)

In the case of LDH, the ORCs should be easier to process than the SRCs in Japanese, because there is only one word between the filler[1] (*gakusei*: student) and its gap-site in the ORCs, whereas two words in the SRCs. On the other hand, in the case of SDH, the SRCs should be easier to process than the ORCs since there are fewer nodes between the filler and the gap. In order to distinguish the validity between the LDH and the SDH, many studies have been conducted in Japanese (e.g., Ishizuka, 2005; Miyamoto & Nakamura, 2003; Ueno & Garnsey, 2008). These studies showed that the SRCs are easier to process than the ORCs. Hence, these results seem to support the SDH over the LDH.

However, Ishizuka (2005) pointed out that there is a confounding factor involved in Japanese relative clauses on the purpose of distinguishing the validity between the LDH and the SDH. According to her, this confounding factor is directly related to case-markers used in the relative clauses. Ishizuka argued that it is easier to predict an upcoming relative clause construction when a sentence starts with an accusative-noun rather than a nominative-noun. This is because, the sentence initial accusative-noun allows parser to have a relative clause reading rather than a main-

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[1] Since no relative pronouns such as *who* is used in Japanese, the head noun of the relative clause functions as the filler.

clause reading, since the nominative-noun is not in its original position. In other words, the SRCs are easier to predict than the ORCs since they start with an accusative-noun. In order to equalize the predictability of the SRCs and the ORCs in Japanese, Ishizuka, Nakatani, & Gibson (2006) used a discourse-context, and presented the relative clauses as an answer to given question. Results showed that the ORCs were read faster than the SRCs. They concluded that, when the SRCs and the ORCs are equally predicted (confounding factor is discarded) by a discourse context, the ORCs are easier to process than the SRCs. Hence, the LDH is the right hypothesis.

Although Ishizuka (2005) argued that predictability of the ORCs and the SRCs would be different, the following two questions remain unanswered. 1) We still do not know whether or not the ORCs are indeed less predictable than the SRCs without any discourse-context. And, 2) whether the predictability of relative clauses is directly reflected in their processing difficulty.

To answer these questions, we utilized a processing constraint: *local assignment of clause boundaries* (LACB), which was proposed by Miyamoto (2002) (See next section for the detailed explanation). In order to answer first question, we examined the Japanese native speakers' preferences for the ORCs and the SRCs through a sentence-fragment completion task. Assuming that the preference (production) of the ORCs and the SRCs would reflect their predictability, the results revealed that the ORCs are in fact not always less predictable than the SRCs without any discourse-context. In order to answer second question, we conducted a self-paced reading experiment. The results showed that the observed predictability of the ORCs and SRCs was reflected in their processing difficulty. Moreover, the processing difficulty of the ORCs and SRCs varied depending on the syntactic environment in which they appeared. These results suggest that the distance based accounts alone cannot capture the entire results, and predictability of the relative clauses might be another important factor for the processing difficulty of Japanese relative clauses.

2. Experimental background

Previous researches on Japanese relative clause processing revealed that relative clauses in Japanese are temporarily ambiguous and reanalysis is often required at the head-noun (e.g., Hirose & Inoue, 1998, Miyamoto, 2002). In other words, the parser detects the existence of a relative clause at the head-noun, since Japanese is a pro-drop language, and neither relative pronouns nor relative clause markers are used. Moreover, Ishizuka (2005) argued that the SRCs would be easier to predict than the ORCs, since the sentence initial accusative-noun allows parser to have a relative clause reading rather than a main-clause reading. In order to control the temporal ambiguity and the predictability of the ORCs and the SRCs, we utilized the idea of *local assignment of clause boundaries* (LACB) which was proposed by Miyamoto (2002). Miyamoto defines LACB as follows:

"Assign the left boundary of a new clause at the point where it is first clear that this new clause is necessary for the interpretation of the sentence." (Miyamoto, 2002: p. 322)

LACB is a processing constraint which is derived from the syntactic restriction that prohibits the occurrence of two or more accusative-noun phrases in

the same clause in Japanese (Kuroda, 1992). In other words, two accusative-nouns cannot be the arguments of the same predicate in Japanese. LACB basically assumes that when the parser realizes that it is reading a complex sentence, it assigns a clause boundary at that point. According to LACB, when the parser encounters the second accusative-noun phrase, it immediately inserts a clause boundary on the left side of the second accusative-noun. Clause boundary insertion indicates the existence and the starting point of an embedded clause, and hence the possibility of an upcoming relative clause construction as well.

Miyamoto (2002) conducted a self-paced reading experiment and compared the reading times for the sentences shown below.

(3a) Ofisu-de shokuin-ga kakarichou-ni ocha-o dashita josei-o teineini shoukaishishita.

Office-LOC employee-NOM manager-DAT tea-ACC served woman-ACC politely introduced

At the office, the employee politely introduced the woman who served tea to the manager.

(3b) Ofisude shokuin-ga kakarichou-o ocha-o dashita josei-ni teineini shoukaishita.

Office-LOC employee-NOM manager-ACC tea-ACC served woman-DAT politely introduced

At the office, the employee politely introduced the manager to the woman who served the tea.

(3c) Ofisu-de kakarichou-o shokuin-ga ocha-o dashita josei-ni teineini shoukaishita.

Office-LOC manager-ACC employee-NOM tea-ACC served woman-DAT politely introduced.

At the office, the employee politely introduced the manager to the woman who served the tea.

On the one hand, in example (3a) there is no repetition of the same case markers before the embedded verb *dashita* (served). In this sentence, the existence of the relative clause becomes obvious first at the head-noun *josei* (woman). On the other hand, in example (3b) and (3c), there is a repetition of accusative-nouns before the embedded verb. Due to the clause boundary insertion, the existence of an embedded clause, as well as the possibility of a relative clause becomes clearer before the head-noun. Miyamoto's prediction for the results was as follows. Reading times of the *ocha* (tea) in the sentence (3a) would be faster than that of (3b) and (3c). In the case of (3b) and (3c) parser encounters the second accusative-noun before the embedded verb appears, and it inserts a clause boundary at that point, whereas there is no clause boundary insertion at the *ocha*, since there is no repetition of the accusative case markers before the embedded verb. Reading times of the head-noun *josei* would be faster in (3b) and (3c) than in (3a), because, in the case of (3a), parser inserts a clause boundary at the head-noun, whereas clause boundary has been already inserted in (3b) and (3c) before the head-noun.

The results of Miyamoto's experiment indicate that the clause boundary insertion imposes a strong forward expectation for the upcoming relative clause construction. We thus made use of the logic of LACB in order to control the predictability of relative clauses. If the ORCs are more difficult to process than the

SRCs because of their less predictability, clause boundary insertion would make them more predictable. To execute this idea we conducted two experiments.

3. Experiment 1 (sentence-fragment completion task)

The purpose of Experiment 1 was to examine whether or not the ORCs are indeed less predictable than the SRCs without any discourse-context. We conducted a sentence-fragment completion task for this purpose. We set up a two by two experimental design. One factor was the existence of a clause boundary while the other factor was the type of case markers provided in the sentence-fragment. Sentences consisted of 28 target items and 36 filler items. We divided these sentences into 4 lists by Latin square design. Thirty-two native speakers of Japanese from Hiroshima University participated in the experiment. We asked them to complete these sentence-fragments as shown below.

Experimental sentences:
(4a) LACB[-] ACC: Shinai-no hoteru-de shikisha-o hihanshita_____.
City-GEN hotel-LOC conductor-ACC criticized
(4b) LACB[-] NOM: Shinai-no hoteru-de shikisha-ga hihanshita_____.
City-GEN hotel-LOC conductor-NOM criticized
(4c) LACB[+] ACC: Shusaisha-ga kisha-o shikisha-o hihanshita_____.
Organizer-NOM journalist-ACC conductor-ACC criticized
(4d) LACB[+] NOM: Shusaisha-ga kisha-o shikisha-ga hihanshita_____.
Organizer-NOM journalist-ACC conductor-NOM criticized

In the case of LACB[-] conditions there is no case-marker repetition. The only difference between the (4a) and (4b) is the type of repeated case-markers. In sentence (4a) the sentence-fragment contains an accusative case-marker, whereas a nominative case-marker was provided in sentence (4b). In the LACB[-] conditions, the starting point of an embedded clause is not obvious and completion as a simplex sentence is still possible. On the other hand, in the case of LACB[+] conditions, there is a case-marker repetition. In sentence (4c) and (4d) accusative case-markers and nominative case-markers are repeated, respectively. In the LACB[+] conditions, due to the clause boundary insertion, the starting point of an embedded clause is obvious and completion as a simplex sentence is impossible[2]. In the LACB[+] conditions, in order to complete the sentences, participants have to produce complex sentences. On the other hand, there is no need to produce a complex sentence in the LACB[-] conditions. Since the relative clause is one way of producing a complex sentence, we predict that more relative clauses would be produced in LACB[+] conditions in comparison to the LACB[-] conditions.

3.1 Results

Participants produced 686 sentences in total. We first compared the production rate of relative clauses and other type of sentences in the LACB[-] and LACB[+] conditions. Then we compared the production rate of ORCs and SRCs in the both LACB[-] and LACB[+] conditions. Table 1 shows the production rate of

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[2] In fact two nominative-noun phrases can be used in the same clause in Japanese: "*Taro-ga Eigo-ga hanaseru*" (Taro can speak English). However, in our experimental sentences (4b), since an accusative-noun intervenes between two nominative-nouns, it is impossible to interpret that these nominative-nouns are in the same clause.

relative clauses and other types of sentences, while Table 2 shows the production rate of ORCs and SRCs in both the LACB[-] and LACB[+] conditions.

Table 1. The production rate of relative clauses and other type of sentences

	Relative clauses	Other	Total	x^2
LACB[-]	311 (89%)	40 (11%)	351	209.23**
LACB[+]	131 (39%)	204 (61%)	335	15.9**
Total	342 (64%)	244 (36%)	686	

$**p <.01$

In the LACB[-] conditions 311 relative clauses were produced. The number of other types of sentences was only 40 in total. Other types of sentences include adjunct clauses and complement clauses. In the case of LACB[+] conditions, 131 relative clauses were produced. Other types of sentences such us adjunct clauses and complement clauses were produced 204 times. This result shows that more relative clauses were produced in the LACB[-] conditions than the LACB[+] conditions. These results go against our prediction.

Table 2. The production rate of the ORCs and the SRCs

	ORCs	SRCs	Total[3]	x^2
LACB[-]	152 (49%)	158 (51%)	310	.12
LACB[+]	76 (64%)	42 (36%)	118	9.8**

$**p <.01$

In the case of LACB[-] condition, the number of ORCs and SRCs did not differ statistically. On the other hand, in the case of LACB[+] condition, the number of ORCs were statistically higher than the SRCs. This result shows that, although the production rate of ORCs and SRCs do not differ in the LACB[-] condition, more ORCs were produced than SRCs in the LACB[+] condition.

3.2 Discussion
We can first simply summarize the results as below.

1. More relative clauses were produced in the LACB[-] conditions than the LACB[+] conditions.

2. Production rate of ORCs and SRCs did not differ in the LACB[-] condition.

3. Production rate of ORCs were higher than SRCs in the LACB[+] condition.

In order to complete the sentence-fragments above (4), participants had to produce complex sentences in the LACB[+] conditions. On the other hand, in the case of LACB[-] conditions, there was no need to produce complex sentences. Since the relative clause is one way of producing a complex sentence, we predicted that more relative clauses would have been produced in LACB[+] conditions in

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[3] Since there were small number of relative clauses other than ORCs and SRCs, production rate of the relative clauses slightly differ in the Table 1. and Table 2.

comparison to the LACB[-] conditions. However, the result was contradictory to our prediction. A possible explanation for this result might be that:

In the LACB[+] conditions three argument-nouns already appeared before the predicate. Participants might have felt perplexed to add an extra noun to the incomplete sentence. For this reason, they might have avoided adding an overt-noun to the sentence, and instead might have preferred to use an empty-pronoun. Therefore, the use of an empty-pronoun might have influenced the production of adjunct and complement clauses. On the other hand, in the LACB[-] conditions, there was only one argument, that appeared before the predicate. In other words, one argument of the predicate was missing from the sentence. In order to fulfill the missing argument, participants might have preferred to use an overt-noun. Therefore, the use of overt-nouns might have influenced the production of relative clauses.

In the LACB[-] conditions, the production rates of ORCs and SRCs did not differ. From the previous relative clause processing studies in Japanese, one may expect that more SRCs would be produced than the ORCs in a sentence-fragment completion task. However our result does not fit with this prediction. Possible explanations for this result might be that:

As mentioned above, participants might have preferred to use an overt-noun in order to fulfill the missing argument. As a result, relative clause production was influenced in both LACB[-] ACC and LACB[-] NOM conditions. Ueno & Garnsey (2008) also conducted a sentence fragment-completion task. In their experiment, production rates of ORCs and SRCs were higher than 80% (the number of ORCs were significantly higher than the SRCs). They discussed that subject-drop is much more common than the object-drop. Thus, participants might have particularly wanted to fulfill the missing object in the LACB[-] NOM condition. And as a result, production rate of ORCs were increased in comparison to that of SRCs. Additionally, animacy of the head-noun can also be considered another possible factor for the result. In order to produce SRCs, only animate-nouns were available, whereas both animate and inanimate nouns were available for ORCs. The availability of both the animate and inanimate nouns for the head-noun of relative clauses might have made ORCs easy to produce.

In the LACB[+] conditions, though fewer relative clauses were produced than the other type of sentences, the production rate of ORCs were higher than SRCs. As we discussed for the LACB[-] conditions, the availability of both the animate and inanimate nouns for the head-noun of ORCs might be responsible for this result as well.

Overall, assuming that the preferences for ORCs and SRCs reflects their predictability, as an answer to first question (whether or not the ORCs are indeed less predictable than the SRCs without any discourse context), we can say that ORCs are, in fact, not less predictable than SRCs without any discourse context.

In Experiment 2, through a self-paced reading task, we compared the reading times of ORCs and SRCs in two different syntactic environments; where the clause boundary insertion occurs before the embedded-verb appears, and after the embedded-verb at the head-noun of relative clauses.

4. Experiment 2 (self-paced reading task)

Our purpose was to examine whether or not the observed predictability of relative clauses in Experiment 1 is directly reflected in their processing difficulty. In

order to do this we set up a two by two factorial design. One factor was the existence of a clause boundary insertion (LACB: [-]/[+]), and the other factor was the relative clause type (ORC/SRC). Sentences consisted of 24 target items and 60 filler items. We divided these items into 4 lists by Latin square design. Forty-eight Japanese native speakers from Hiroshima University participated in the experiment (they did not participate in the Experiment 1). They read sentences in a phrase by phrase moving window self-paced reading paradigm (Linger Ver. 2.94 developed by Dough Rohde). Experimental sentences are as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Experimental sentences in the Experiment 2

Region →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(5a)	Shinai-no	hoteru-de	shikisha-ga	hihanshita	kashu-ni	shusaisha-ga	kisha-o	hikiawaseta.
LACB[-]ORC	City-gen	hotel-loc	conductor-nom	criticized	singer-dat	organizer-nom	journalist-acc	introduced
	The organizer introduced the journalist to the singer who the conductor criticized at the city hotel.							
(5b)	Shinai-no	hoteru-de	shikisha-o	hihanshita	kashu-ni	shusaisha-ga	kisha-o	hikiawaseta.
LACB[-]SRC	City-gen	hotel-loc	conductor-acc	criticized	singer-dat	organizer-nom	journalist-acc	introduced
	The organizer introduced the journalist to the singer who criticized the conductor at the city hotel.							
(5c)	Shusaisha-ga	kisha-o	shikisha-ga	hihanshita	kashu-ni	shinai-no	hoteru-de	hikiawaseta.
LACB[+]ORC	organizer-nom	journalist-acc	conductor-nom	criticized	singer-dat	City-gen	hotel-loc	introduced
	At the city hotel, the organizer introduced the journalist to the singer who the conductor criticized.							
(5d)	Shusaisha-ga	kisha-o	shikisha-o	hihanshita	kashu-ni	shinai-no	hoteru-de	hikiawaseta.
LACB[+]ORC	organizer-nom	journalist-acc	conductor-acc	criticized	singer-dat	City-gen	hotel-loc	introduced
	At the city hotel, the organizer introduced the journalist to the singer who criticized the conductor.							

In the case of LACB[-] conditions, there are no repetition of case-markers before the embedded verb *hihanshita* (criticized). The only difference between the LACB[-] ORC and LACB[-] SRC conditions is the use of case-markers. In the LACB[-] ORC condition, a nominative case-marker was attached to *shikisha* (conductor) and, in the LACB[-] SRC condition, an accusative case marker is attached to *shikisha*. On the other hand, in the case of LACB[+] conditions, case-markers were repeated before the embedded verb. In the LACB[+] SRC condition, accusative case-markers were repeated. And in LACB[+] ORC condition, nominative case-markers were repeated.

In this experiment, we mainly compared the reading times for the head noun of relative clauses (kashu-ni). Based on Experiment 1's results, we expected following results. The reading times for the head-noun in the LACB[-] conditions should be faster than in the LACB[+] conditions, since more relative clauses were produced in the LACB[-] conditions than LACB[+] conditions in Experiment 1. In the LACB[-] condition, since the production rates of ORCs and SRCs did not differ, there shouldn't be a statistical difference between the ORCs and SRCs. On the other

hand, in the LACB[+] condition, ORCs should be read faster than SRCs, since production rate of ORCs were higher than SRCs.

4.1 Results

Analysis for reading times was conducted only on the correct answers. Overall accuracy was 77%. ANOVA showed that the effect of LACB was significant (F_1 (3,129) = 4.89, p <.005; F_2 (3, 54) = 3.64, p < .05). This indicates that accuracy was higher in the LACB[-] conditions (83%) than in the LACB[+] conditions (71%). Four subjects and 1 item were excluded from the data analysis because of low accuracy (subjects: < 60%; item < 50%). We conducted a norming study in order to test the plausibility of the used items. We compared 24 sets of sentences (The singer criticized the conductor at the city hotel. / The conductor criticized the singer at the city hotel.) in pairs by *t*-test. As a result, plausibility rate of 4 sets were significantly different. We also excluded the data exceeding 4000 millisecond from data analysis. In total, 44 subjects and 19 items were used for the data analysis. Reading times per-word in the LACB[-] and LACB[+] conditions are as shown below.
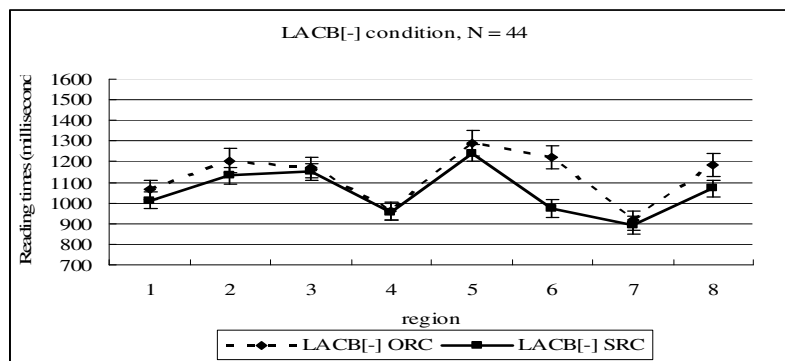

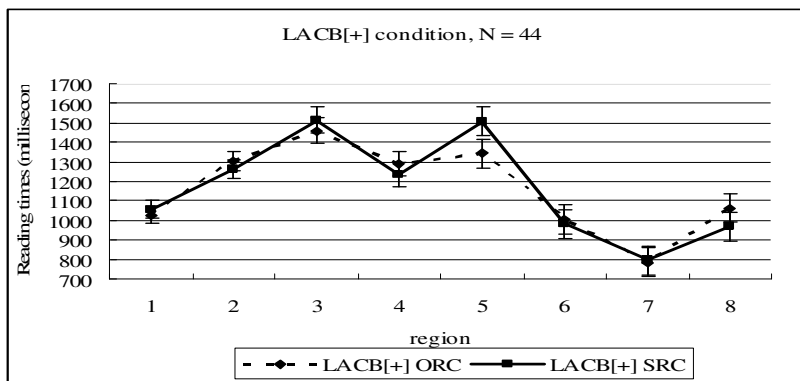Fig. 1. Reading times for the ORCs and SRCs in the LACB[-] condition

Fig. 2. Reading times for the ORCS and SRCs in the LACB[+] condition

Reading time analyses were conducted only on the relative clauses (region 3,4,5) and the spill-over region (word 6). At region 3, the main effect of the LACB

was significant (F_1 (1,43) = 23.49, p <.001; F_2 (1, 18) = 16.55, p < .001). This indicates that the reading times of *shikisha* (conductor) was faster in the LACB[-] conditions than the LACB[+] conditions. At region 4 (embedded verb), the main effect of the LACB was significant (F_1 (1,43) = 22.64, p <.001; F_2 (1, 18) = 16.52, p < .001). This indicates that the reading times of *hihanshita* (criticized) was faster in the LACB[-] conditions than the LACB[+] conditions. At region 5 (head-noun), the main effect of LACB was significant (F_1 (1,43) = 8.08, p <.01; F_2 (1, 18) = 4.89, p < .05), indicating that the reading times of the *kashu* (singer) was faster in the LACB[-] conditions. At this region the interaction effect was also significant in the subject analysis (F_1 (1,43) = 5.52, p <.05; F_2 (1, 18) = 2.23, p = .15). Pair wise comparisons revealed that ORCs were read faster than SRCs in the LACB[+] condition (F_1 (1,43) = 3.15, p <.08; F_2 (1, 18) = 5.25, p < .05). At region 6, the main effect of the relative clause type was significant (F_1 (1,43) = 6.3, p <.05; F_2 (1, 18) = 3.2, p < .09). The interaction effect was also significant (F_1 (1,43) = 4.03, p <.05; F_2 (1, 18) = 6.86, p = .05). Pair wise comparisons revealed that SRCs were read faster than ORCs in the LACB[-] condition (F_1 (1,43) = 9.63, p <.005; F_2 (1, 18) = 12.83, p < .005).

4.2 Discussion

We can summarize the results as below for the critical regions (region 5 or 6):

1. Relative clauses were read faster in the LACB[-] conditions than the LACB[+] conditions.

2. In the LACB[-] condition SRCs were read faster than ORCs.

3. In the LACB[+] condition ORCs were read faster than SRCs.

Result 1 was as we expected from Experiment 1. Although it is possible to explain this result from the viewpoint of predictability, complexity of the experimental sentences which is related to repetition of case markers and the number of arguments appeared before the relative clauses would also be responsible for the results. Kuno (1974) argues that since there is a limitation for the working memory, sentence initial relative clauses are easier to understand than the center embedded relative clauses. We can say that the burden for the working memory in our experiment was heavier in the LACB[+] conditions than the LACB[-] conditions, because relative clauses were more deeply embedded and more arguments appeared in the LACB[+] conditions than the LACB [-] conditions. Thus, we can explain this result with the complexity.

In the LACB[-] condition, we expected that there would not be a processing difficulty between ORCs and SRCs from Experiment 1.; however, results showed that SRCs were read faster than ORCs at the spill-over region. Although the result does not fit with our expectation, it is similar to previous studies in Japanese. Thus, this result can be explained by the SDH.

In the case of LACB[+] condition, ORCs were read faster than SRCs. This result fits with our expectation from Experiment 1. Although it is also possible to explain this result by the LDH, it contradicts with the results in LACB[-] condition which can be explained by the SDH. On the other hand, in the LACB[+] condition, the results were parallel in Experiment 1 and Experiment 2. Thus, it is possible to explain this from the viewpoint of predictability. Hence, as an answer to our second question (whether the predictability of relative clauses is directly reflected in their processing difficulty), we can say that the predictability of ORCs and SRCs was reflected in their processing difficulty in the LACB[+] condition.

5. General discussion and conclusions

This study attempted to examine the processing difficulty of Japanese relative clauses in two different syntactic environments. Taking the predictability of relative clauses into consideration, we particularly attempted to answer these two questions: 1) Whether or not the ORCs are indeed less predictable than the SRCs without any discourse-context. 2) Whether the predictability of relative clauses is directly reflected in their processing difficulty.

In order to answer the first question, we conducted a sentence-fragment completion task. Assuming that the preference of the ORCs and the SRCs would reflect their predictability, we found that the ORCs are, in fact, not less predictable than the SRCs without any discourse context. This suggests that the predictability of ORCs and SRCs in Japanese might not be considered as a confounding factor on the purpose of distinguishing the validity between the LDH and the SDH. If we take the distance between the filler and the gap as the main factor for the processing difficulty of Japanese relative clauses, the SDH can explain our result of the LACB[-] condition in the Experiment 2, as in the previous studies (e.g., Ishizuka, 2005; Ueno & Garnsey, 2008).

However, the results of Experiment 2 showed that the processing difficulty of the ORCs and the SRCs varied depending on the syntactic environment in which they appeared. While the SRCs were processed more easily than the ORCs in the LACB[-] conditions, the ORCs were processed more easily than the SRCs in the LACB[+] conditions. Thus, we can say that the SDH alone cannot explain the entire results. At the same time, in the LACB[+] conditions, results were parallel in Experiment 1 and Experiment 2. From these results, it can be said that the observed predictability of the ORCs and SRCs was reflected in their processing difficulty, and predictability might be another important factor for the processing difficulty of Japanese relative clauses.

In this study we utilized the logic of LACB in order to control the predictability of ORCs and SRCs. However, results of the Experiment 1 indicate that we could not achieve this purpose, since more relative clauses were preferred in the LACB[-] conditions than the LACB[+] conditions in opposition to our prediction. Moreover, whereas the preferences for the ORCs and the SRCs did not differ in the LACB[-] conditions, ORCs were preferred over SRCs in the LACB[+] conditions.

Miyamoto (2002)'s theory of clause boundary insertion is based simply on the case-marker information. Muraoka (2005) proposes another theory of clause boundary insertion which takes into account the lexical information as well as case-marker information. In the present study, we did not directly manipulate the lexical information such as animacy. In the future studies we must take the lexical information into consideration in order to use the logic of LACB more effectively.

The overall results suggest that multiple factors are associated with the processing difficulty of Japanese relative clauses. The structural distance between the filler and the gap and predictability of relative clauses are two major factors which influence on the processing difficulty of relative clauses. At the same time, from our results, it is hard to determine whether the structural distance or the relative clause predictability is more important. The present study leads to a suggestion that their relative impact might be dependent on the circumstance of their syntactic environment. Future studies are necessary to answer which factor has a stronger impact on the processing in which environment they appear.

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A Three-Step Model of Implicit Argument Licensing

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The licensing of implicit arguments has often been analyzed as a bottom-up process in language. More specifically, it has long been argued that it is mainly lexical-semantic factors and syntactic regularities that can be considered to be responsible for the occurrence of null complements. In recent years, however, the role of pragmatics has also been emphasized in the licensing process. Moreover, it has also been proposed that discourse-pragmatic factors may play the primary role in allowing seemingly obligatory arguments to be unexpressed in a sentence. This research is aimed at establishing a theory that promotes a division of labor between syntax, semantics, and pragmatics in order to provide an exhaustive analysis of the phenomenon under scrutiny.

1. Introduction

This paper is concerned with the licensing of implicit arguments in general, and the grammatical factors that play a role in the licensing process, in particular. As for general issues regarding implicit arguments, researchers have been trying to provide an answer to the following questions : (1) what are the conditions under which null complements may occur with various types of transitive verbs; (2) what are the semantic and referential values which these null complements may assume in different contexts; (3) what are the principles which make these values possible (cf. Cornish (2005), Németh T. (2000, 2001), Mittwoch (1982), among others) In this paper, I will focus on the conditions that facilitate the occurrence of null complements in English, German, and Hungarian.

The structure of my paper is as follows: I will first introduce the notion of implicit arguments. I will present a brief overview of a lexically-based approach and conclude this section with some critical remarks. Second, I consider a second argument in favour of a strictly semantico-pragmatic approach of implicit arguments and then take issues with it in its original form. Third, I will outline relatively recent cognitively-based accounts. Finally, I will propose a three-step model of implicit arguments and draw some conclusions.

2. The Notion of Implicit Arguments

Verbs can occur with various complement options across languages. On the one hand, the lexical entry of intransitive verbs specify that they appear with no complements on the syntactic surface. In other words, they are in a predication relation only with their external argument. By way of illustration, let us see the

example in (1), in which the verb *cry* predicates that the agent of the event *Sarah* carries out the act of crying.

(1) Sarah cries a lot.

By contrast, transitive verbs occur with a minimum of two arguments, one in subject position, and one in object position, as in (2). The main function of arguments is that they supply coordinates of properties or relations. Therefore, the absence of an argument results in absence of a value for the coordinates, which, in turn, leads to an ungrammatical sentence, as in (3).

(2) I locked the door.
(3) *I locked.

In certain cases, however, there is no full correspondence between the semantic valency of the predicate and its syntactic valency, contrary to our expectations.

(4) Pat gave and gave, but Chris just took and took. (Goldberg 2001)
(5) The sewing instructor cut in straight lines. (Goldberg 2001)
(6) He theorises about languages but I just describe. (Dixon 1991)
(7) [You] hit or miss. (Fellbaum and Kegl 1989)

Although the verbs in (4)-(8) require a patient argument ontollogically, the syntactic configurations of these sentences do not contain an object complement. These arguments, which are present at the level of ontology but missing at the level of syntax, are ususally referred to as implicit arguments, null complements (Fillmore 1986), or understood arguments (Velasco and Munoz 2002), which are surrounded by numerous controversies calling for clear explanations. For instance, it needs to be resolved whether it is a purely syntactic mechanism, or the sole responsibility of pragmatics to assign interpretation to utterances that lack certain constituents. Another intriguing problem is whether the omission of an object is specified in the lexicon or it is a particular semantic frame (scenario) that tends to evoke objectless clauses. In order to provide possible answers to these questions, I will continue with a brief survey of previous relevant work.

3. An Overview of Different Approaches
3.1 Fillmore's lexical approach

The advocates of lexical accounts argue that argument omission is a lexically-determined phenomenon. Fillmore (1986), for instance, put forward a theory according to which null complements are licensed by syntactic features in the subcategorization frame of the verb, as in (8a) and (8b):

(8) (a)   lock <NP,   NP>
                nom, acc
          [- can be omitted]

(b)   drink <NP,   NP>
                nom   acc
          [+ can be omitted]

In (8a) the verb *lock* subcategorizes for an object argument, which may not be omitted in the syntax, whereas in (8b) *drink* allows its object to be unrealized in the sentential structure in which it occurs. Fillmore also points out that verbs can mark their object arguments as omissible with either a definite or indefinite interpretation. Indefinite Null Complements (INC) receive an "existentially quantified" interpretation, as in (9):

(9) Mary is eating in her room. ≈ 'Mary is eating something', not 'Mary is eating it.'

eat <NP, NP>
    nom acc
    [+can be omitted], INC

In contrast, Definite Null Complements (DNC) receive an anaphoric interpretation, which means that the null instantiated argument is entailed to have a referent. By way of illustration, let us consider (10):

(10) Sam and Kate were playing tennis and Sam won again.

win <NP, NP>
    nom acc
    [+can be omitted], DNC

Although Fillmore's approach seems convincing at first sight, Groefsema (1995), a representative of the semantico-pragmatic approach claims that a lexically-based account is not adequate empirically. She discusses the following examples in (11) and (12), which prove to be problematic for a lexical-syntactic account.

(11) John brought the sandwiches and Ann ate.
(12) Roger Federer has won again.

Along the lines of Fillmore's theory, the implicit object of *eat* should be disjoint with the sandwiches brought by John, which is against native speakers' intuition. In a similar vain, Fillmore cannot account for (12) since the null complement after the DNC verb *win* is, in fact, an indefinite competition.

Having considered these examples, we can now contend that a purely lexically-based approach is inadequate for the description of implicit arguments.

3.2 Semantico-pragmatic approaches

The assumptions of semantico-pragmatic approaches (Groefsema (1995), Németh T. (2000, 2001)) are twofold: They claim that (1) null complements can be accounted for on purely interpretational grounds by considering pragmatic factors, such as world knowledge, the situational context, and the linguistic context, and that (2) selectional restrictions can significantly determine argument omission. Based on these claims, Groefsema proposes two requirements that must be met so that an argument can be left unexpressed. According to her view, an argument can remain implicit if (1) a selection restriction of a verb makes it possible to recover the implicit argument in accordance with the principle of relevance, or (2) if the rest of

the utterance in which the argument occurs makes immediately accessible an interpretation which is consistent with the principle of relevance.

Németh T. (2000, 2001) elaborates the above requirements by adding a third condition, namely that, an argument may remain implicit if extending the immediate context of the argument leads to an interpretation consistent with the principle of relevance. She provides the following example to support this view:

(13) "I'll step back to the nurse", says the mother to the kids; the baby starts crying. The mother comforts her child:
"Ne sír-j,   Áron tologat [ ]."
Not cry-imper.2sg, Áron push.indef.3sg
'Don't cry, Áron will push you.'

In (13) the subject of the verb *tologat* is expressed *(Áron)* but its object is missing. From the inflectional suffix of the verb form, namely, the suffix that expresses indefinite object agreement, we can only tell that the implicit object must be either first or second person singular or indefinite third person singular ('something'). On the basis of the situation (the speaker, the hearer, and other people present) and world knowledge (people usually push babies in carriages and this way they comfort them) we can infer that it is not the mother (first person singular) or an indefinite third person singular (something) that is being pushed, but rather the baby that is the addressee of the utterance (second person singular).

Although we must acknowledge the fact that discourse-interpretational factors play a role in the licensing of implicit arguments, we may have reservations about a purely interpretational approach for the following reasons. First, as these approaches consider implicit argument licensing as a purely top-down process, they cannot account for constructional regularities in argument omission. Second, it is often argued that selectional restrictions become meaningless both in the case of indefinite and definite null complements. Scott (2006) provides the following example to take issue with Groefsema as for her second condition:

(14) The dog ate my take-home essay.

Scott claims that that as soon as something is eaten, it becomes food in some sense. Consequently, the idea of selectional restrictions is meaningless in (14). Similarly, the sentences in (15) and (16) are another example of the redundancy of the notion of selectional restrictions.

(15) Mary is eating.
(16) John is reading.

Goldberg (2001) and Scott (2006) emphasize that in the above sentences it is the event that is at the forefront of attention, which proves to be a sufficient condition for the licensing of null complements. As a result, it is unnecessary to involve selectional restrictions in the licensing mechanism.

3.3 Cognitively-based accounts
In this section, I will elaborate on the theories of two representatives of cognitively-based accounts. First, I begin with Scott (2006), who argues that previous approaches proposing specific conditions and different means of

classification do not provide a comprehensive coverage of the data examined. Instead, the implicit argument phenomenon is better accounted for by the general principles of Relevance Theory (Wilson 2003). More specifically, Scott assumes that complements can be omitted, where syntactically permissible, in an attempt to optimise relevance. In order to show how this theory applies to naturally occurring data, she illustrates the workability of her former thesis with the example in (17):

(17) All doctors drink.

Scott states that if we took this example literally, it would mean all people with doctoral degrees drink some kind of liquid. This would cause problems during the processing of the information content of (17) since it would not produce the cognitive effects that relevance depends on. Hence it would not be worth the hearer's effort to process the utterance. Therefore, in such situations, the hearer will adjust the concept DRINK so that enough implications will be derived to satisfy the expectations of relevance. In other words, DRINK is narrowed to an ad hoc concept DRINK* which denotes 'drinking alcohol to a significant degree' (Scott 167).

Another cognitively-based account is Ruppenhofer (2005)'s frame-semantic analysis, which claims that lexical units are organized in the mental lexicon by which scenarios or experiences they are used to talk about. Ruppenhofer gives the following example to explain the concept of scenarios:

> […] *buy* and *sell* both evoke an overall commercial transaction but they are distinct from each other in that the former takes the Buyer's point of view and highlights their getting of GOODs, whereas the latter takes the SELLER's point of view and highlights their giving of GOODs.

Based on the basic ideas of frame semantics, Ruppenhofer puts forward the generalization below to account for the occurrence of implicit arguments:

> **Uniformity of interpretation**: If an argument encoding a particular frame element/semantic role is lexically omissible with a particular interpretation (either anaphoric or existential) for one lexical unit in a frame, then for any other LUs in the same frame that allow the omission of the FE, the interpretation is the same.

By way of illustration, he defines the Revenge frame in the following way: "An AGENT performs a RESPONSE_ACTION on an OFFENDER as a punishment for an earlier action , the INJURY, that was inflicted on an INJURED_PARTY. The punishment of the OFFENDER by the AGENT is seen as justified by individual or group opinion rather than by law." He also enumerates the lexical units, such as avenge, avenger, get even, retaliate, retribution, vengeance, revenge, and so on, which are included in this frame. According to his view, the former predicates, when used to refer to specific events, allow the licensing of an implicit INJURY frame element under anaphoric interpretation, as in (18), which I have borrowed from Ruppenhofer (2005):

(18) John intended to get even with/take revenge on/retaliate against Sue [DNI Injury].

The purpose of this section has been to briefly outline major approaches to implicit arguments. Furthermore, it has also served as evidence for the need for a multi-level model, which accommodates syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic factors in the licensing process.

4. A Three-Step Model

The approach which I would like to propose acknowledges the role of syntax, semantics, and pragmatics by distinguishing between 3 types of argument omission: (1) lexically-based omission, (2) syntactically-based omission and (3) pragmatically-based omission. In what follows I will describe each type separately.

4.1 The lexical level

This level enables us to distinguish between transitive verbs that denote a relation and a property and those that denote only a relation. The former group is represented by *eat-type* words (cf. (19), and (20)), and the latter by *notice-type* words (cf. 21).

(19) Sarah is eating a banana. (relation)
(20) Whenever Sarah is nervous, she eats. (property)
(21) I noticed that you are fond of chocolate. (relation)

In addition, this level is responsible for specifying the semantic combinatory possibilities of words. I assume, for instance, that it is lexically determined that (22) can be assigned an interpretation according to which the object of *drink* is some kind of alcoholic beverage.

(22) John drinks (alcohol).
*(water).

4.2 The syntactic level

The syntactic level has a role in the licensing mechanism when the omission is construction-related. It may either facilitate or debilitate the omission process. The examples in (23) and (24) are meant to demonstrate how certain syntactic constructions enable object arguments to remain unexpressed on the syntactic surface.

(23) Satan swoops to devour but gets more than he bargains for. (BNC)
(24) He theorises about languages but I just describe. (Dixon 1991)

In (23), *devour* can occur with an implicit object (which is a very rare phenomenon) due to the infinitival construction, which licenses argument omission. Similarly, in (24) the construction expressing contrastive focus makes it possible for us to assign a meaning to the sentence despite the fact that the object of the transitive verb *describe* is missing.

At the same time, certain syntactic structures block similar omission phenomena. For instance, as Kardos and Petho have noticed, it is never allowed to leave out the patient argument of the verbal predicate in a resultative construction, as in the Hungarian example in (25):

(25) *János egész délután <u>a fürdőszobában</u> volt és pirosra festett.
　　*'John spent the whole afternoon <u>in the bathroom</u> and painted red.'

As the verb *fest* ('paint') can normally be used intransitively, it is very likely that the resultative pattern imposes a restriction, namely, the obligatory occurrence of the object argument, on the verb.

In a similar vain, particle verbs also force the internal argument to occur explicitly, even if the simplex version can be used without an object. By way of illustration, let us consider the German examples in (26) (a) and (26) (b):

(26) (a) Sie näht für ihre Kinder.　　　　　　　　nähen
　　　'She sews for her children.'

(26) (b) Wir nähen *(die kleinen Stoffstücke) <u>zusammen</u>.　　<u>zusammen</u>nähen
　　　'We sew *(the small pieces of fabric) <u>together</u>.'

The same restriction applies to the following Hungarian examples, as well:

(27)　(a) *Kati írt délután.*　　　　　　　　　*ír*
　　　'Kati wrote in the afternoon.'

(27)　(b) *Kati <u>ki</u>írt *(három kérdést) a könyvből.*　　<u>ki</u>*ír*
　　　'Kati <u>copied</u> *(three questions) <u>out of</u> the book.'

4.3 The semantic-pragmatic level

I also intend to integrate a semantic-pragmatic level in my approach since I claim that it is not only semantics but also pragmatics that contributes to the truth-conditional content of utterances (see Larson (1998), Wilson (2003), Recanati (2004) for a similar view). This level accommodates two interpretational processes, namely, saturation and free enrichment (cf. Recanati (2004) for a thorough analysis of these processes). Saturation is necessary because it makes the meaning of a sentence propositional through the assignment of semantic values to the constituents of the sentence. Although Recanati claims it to be a primary pragmatic process, I would like to propose that it is part of the semantics as it is triggered by something in the syntax of the sentence. This process takes place whenever the meaning of the sentence inludes a 'slot', as in (28):

(28) Travel insurance: simple and flexible

You can buy [ ], extend [ ]and claim [ ]online even after you've left home.

Free-enrichment, on the other hand, is a purely pragmatic process as it is not triggered by anything in the syntax of the sentence. It is a top-down process in which the hearer must rely on background knowledge to determine what the speaker's communicative intentions are. For example, (29) demonstrates that Mary's husband is able to assign a meaning to Mary's utterance in spite of the fact that the object argument of *leave* is missing, since his background knowledge (their plans) and the discourse situation enable him to do so.

(29) (Mary arrives home from work and she and her husband are about to leave for a road-trip.)

Mary: Shall we eat before we leave? (≈leave our home for the purpose of a road-trip.)

5. Conclusion

The aim of this paper has been to demonstrate that the omission of arguments must be investigated on different levels of grammar. First, we need to examine the lexically specified features of words in order to assign a meaning to truncated sentences. Second, it may also occur that a syntactic rule allows or blocks the omission of a component in complement position. Finally, the pragmatic level may also help us interpret an utterance that contains omitted information even if there is nothing in the linguistic context that allows us to retrieve the referent of the implicit constituent.

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The Importance of Acquiring Mother Tongue as the First Language

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This paper endeavors to answer the question ' If a child acquires a language other than his/her mother tongue as the first language, what problems may he/she encounter later when acquiring his/her mother tongue?' According to the present author's observations and interviews with some of those who have not acquired their mother tongue first, the child may encounter some problems later when he/she is going to acquire his/her mother tongue. There may be some social, historical, cultural and other problems. The writer believes that the solution to these problems is that we had better let the children acquire their mother tongue first and then due to interest or necessity they can learn other languages.

Introduction

Before dealing with the main subject, it seems necessary to present a few definitions about linguistics. Linguistics is the scientific study of natural languages. This phenomenon has a close relation with different aspects of human life such as education, anthropology, sociology, philosophy, language teaching, and psychology of cognition, computer sciences, neurology and artificial intelligence. Linguistics, basically, deals with the nature of language and communication. Answering the questions such as 'What is the nature of language?' or 'How do we communicate?' is not an easy task. They are similar to 'What is energy?' or 'What is matter?' In fact, all the branches of physics try to find acceptable answers to these questions. Linguistics, likewise, has such a condition and tries to change these general questions into more exact ones with more specific answers. Linguists, in dealing with language, have some presuppositions the most important of which may be that language, in all its levels, is rule-governed. All the languages we know have some regular rules governing pronunciation, grammatical structures and morphology. Furthermore, the phrases of a language and the meanings are related according to these rules. Finally, using language to communicate takes place through some important generalizations which can be stated through the rules.

Now, having given a brief explanation about language and linguistics, we had better have a short look at some definitions of mother tongue. It seems necessary for the writer of the present paper to present a clear definition of MT as we are going to discuss its importance and the issues involved. We face different definitions of MT in the literature such as:

a. MT is the language one learns first, i.e. the language in which one has established the first long-lasting verbal contacts.

b. MT is the language one identifies with as a native speaker of.

c. MT is the language one is identified with as a native speaker of, by others.

d. MT is the language one knows and speaks best.

e. MT is the language one uses most.

f. MT is the language that a person learns at home (usually from his parents).

g. MT is the language that a person is as proficient in as a native inhabitant of that language's base country.

As it is clear, the above-mentioned definitions have been presented according to different criteria such as: origin, identification (external and internal), competence and function of which the writer of the paper considers the origin criterion the most important. Accordingly, the writer of the paper defines mother tongue as: *'MT is the language one normally learns first. It is the language of the society one belongs to (i.e. the language with which one has ancestral links.) and usually lives in.'*

After presenting some introductory definitions and explanations, we will discuss the main subject of the article, i.e. if a child acquires a language other than his/her mother tongue as the first language, what problem(s) may he/she face later when acquiring his/her mother tongue? First, we had better have a short look at the acquisition of language by children. Chomsky believes that the child has the genetic ability to acquire language. He calls this innate ability Language Acquisition Device or LAD. According to him every human being, provided that he/she is sane, has this ability. This does not mean that a child is born with a certain language but it means that the child, using this innate ability, is able to acquire a language and since language is a social phenomenon, the child, to acquire it, should be in a language environment, i.e. he should be exposed to linguistic data. If a child grows up in a nonhuman environment (far from the humans), he acquires no language. This happens as the child's innate ability to acquire language is potential and in order to have this ability developed (actual), it is necessary for the child to be exposed to linguistic data.

A child, first, uses his/her hearing ability to listen to the language of the environment. Regarding phonology, for instance, the child selects some certain features out of the sound system of his own language while listening to the sounds and words of the language around.(Out of the very wide range of sounds the human vocal apparatus can produce, only a relatively small number are used distinctively in any one language.) These features belong to the language of the environment in which the child lives. A child, for example, who is exposed to Turkish finds out (subconsciously) that this language has the sound /Ü/=[+high, +round, −back] ,whereas if this child is exposed to English, he/she, from among the above features, will select the feature [+back] instead of [−back], so he/she will acquire the phoneme /U/ having the features [+high, +round, +back], and consequently the English-speaking child will not produce the phoneme /Ü/.

Similarly, the child acquires other language systems such as morphology, semantics, and syntax. The result is that the child can use the language of his/her environment fairly completely at four or five while he/she is not exposed to any formal or direct education .Now, we return to the main question mentioned earlier, i.e. if we try to make a child learn a language other than his/her mother tongue as the first language, what problem(s) may he/she encounter later when acquiring it?

According to my personal observations and interviews that I have had with some of those who (for any reason) have not acquired their mother tongue as the first language, especially with some of my students, I suggest that there may be some problems of which I will discuss a few in the present paper.

1. The First Problem

Now if the child is exposed to a language at home different from that of the environment, a kind of contradiction appears in the child's language-learning process and the child will not be able to acquire that language normally, easily, and completely. Vygotsky (1962) believes that egocentric speech (i.e., one of the two developmental levels which determine the learning process) is important in the development of thought

and language. To him, children mostly choose to remain silent or speak less on their own (less egocentric speech) when they are alone. However, they prefer to speak to other children when they play games with them (more egocentric speech). Children, first, need to be exposed to social interaction that will eventually enable them build their inner resources. He suggests that egocentric speech is social and helps children interact with others and claims that child language acquisition is the result of social interaction. The Discourse Theory emphasizes that language development should be viewed within the framework of how the learner discover the meaning capacity of language by taking part in communication. Halliday (cited in Ellis, 1985) conducted a study on his son's first language acquisition experience and asserted that basic language functions arise out of interpersonal uses and social interaction. Piaget's view (1987), in this regard, is that the development (i.e. language acquisition) results mainly from external factors or social interactions.

As a result, such a child will not be able to communicate with the other children naturally and successfully as he/she is not normally learning other children's language. Unfortunately, this causes the child to have some problems regarding his/her social behavior. As such a child can not communicate with the others well; he/she will often try to be away from the other people. This will negatively affect the child's social and psychological growth.

2. The Second Problem

Another problem is that when the child is going to acquire his/her mother tongue as the second language, he/she will surely encounter language interference (of course this is natural in L2 learning.), i.e. he/she will apply the rules and systems of his/her first language to the second one when learning it and consequently it will take the child a rather long time to acquire English. This happens since most probably only his/her parents speak English with him. Yule, G. (2006) argues:" Transferring an L1 feature that is really different from the L2 results in negative transfer and it may make the L2 expression difficult to understand. We should remember that negative transfer (sometimes called 'interference') is more common in the early stages of L2 learning and often decreases as the learner develops familiarity with the L2." (p. 167)

As an example, suppose a child has acquired English as his/her first language and now he/she is going to learn Persian. He/she knows, subconsciously, that in English an adjective precedes a noun, so he/she will apply this rule to Farsi and the result is that he/she will commit an error (in Farsi an adjective follows a noun). Of course, it does not mean that the child can not learn his/her mother tongue, but the point is that he/she will have many problems in the learning process especially if learning does not take place during the critical period, i.e. a time span approximately from 2 to 12 years old, during which children have the ability to acquire language naturally, easily and rapidly. (Lenneberg, 1967)

In order to make the matter quite clear, suppose we decide to make a child, born in a Farsi-speaking environment, acquire English as his/her first language, the first problem is that it will take the child a rather long time to acquire English. This happens since most probably only his/her parents speak English with him. Furthermore, as the child's parents may not be native speakers of English, they are not completely fluent in that language. So the child is not fully exposed to language data and probably, in some cases, these data are incorrect. (For instance, the parents may give the child wrong pronunciations.) Therefore, whatever the child is exposed to is a combination of correct and incorrect language forms and the result is that the child cannot be a full and fluent speaker of English. In fact, teaching a child a language that is not the mother tongue of either parent is usually not a good idea. If the parents are not completely bilingual

themselves, then the sounds that are produced for the child to imitate will be tinged with a strong foreign accent. Similarly, if the parents do not speak the non-native language well, then the child will learn the mistakes that parents make in that language.

Supposing that the child learned English to some extent, he/she faces another problem: he/she has to learn the language of the environment, Farsi, in order to communicate with the others. In fact, this is both difficult and time-consuming. As mentioned before, syntactically, an adjective precedes a noun in English, whereas in Persian it follows a noun. Semantically, we cite the word */shir/* in Farsi as an example. Depending on the context in which it occurs, this word may have different meanings such as *water tap*, *a kind of food*, and *lion*. But in English there is no equivalent for this word having these meanings. For each meaning there is a different word in English, i.e. water tap, milk, and lion respectively. So the child who has acquired English as his/her first language and now is going to learn Farsi has to learn only one word in Farsi instead of three in English. We may encounter some cases contrary to this, i.e. we can convey several concepts in Persian through one English word. For example, */nu:r/,* [1]*/sabok/,* [2]*/cherag/,* [3] */a:san/,* [4]*/ro:shan kardan/* [5] in Persian can be stated by only one word in English, i.e. *light*. So the child has to learn a Persian word for each meaning mentioned above.

3. The Third Problem

Another important problem is that the child who acquires a language other than his/her mother tongue as the first language becomes unfamiliar with the culture of his/her mother tongue. Here, it seems necessary to talk a little about the relationship between language and culture. But first let us have a short review over a few definitions of culture. According to Yule, G. (2006, the term culture refers to "all the ideas and assumptions about the nature of things and people that we learn when we become members of social groups. It is a kind of knowledge that, like our first language, we initially acquire without conscious awareness." (p. 216).

Culture is used by cultural anthropologists as something that everybody has, in contrast with the *culture* which is found only in *cultured* circles (in opera houses, universities and the like). Goodenough, W. (1957) believes that culture is a socially acquired knowledge. He suggests that a society's culture consists of whatever one has to know or believes in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members and it must consist of knowledge in a most general sense of term.

About language, he believes that the language of a society is one of the aspects of its culture and the relation of the language to culture is that of part to whole. The area of overlap between language and culture consists of all those parts of language an individual learns from others. Some aspects of language, however, are not learned this way. A child, for example, does not learn some concepts such as noun, verb or phonetic features from others. Therefore, the culture of a society does not cover all parts and aspects of its language. Hudson (1980) explains the relation between language and culture. To him many parts of language are covered by culture, i.e. language is one of the aspects of the culture of a society.

Language is used to convey meaning, but meaning is determined by the culture. Damen(1987) notes that to be meaningful, language must be culture-bound and culture-specific. For example, eating is an action common to all people, but what, when, where,

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[1] Energy from the sun, a lamp, etc that makes it possible to see things

[2] Not heavy

[3] Something, esp an electric lamp, that produces light.

[4] Easy

[5] Give light to something or a place

how, and with whom vary from culture to culture thereby giving this universal activity a culturally-specific character.

According to the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis such a child will view the world differently from those who speak in a different language. This happens because his/her language leads him/her to do so. In Whorf's words we categorize nature along lines laid down by our native language. So this child will categorize different phenomena in different ways. Every language looks like a different window through which we look at the world.

Paying attention to the above-mentioned discussions, we can conclude that the child who does not acquire the language of his/her society as his/her first language feels strange to the culture of that society in which he/she lives. As we know, culture is the identity of a society. So, the child will have some problems regarding cultural matters and communicating with other people. In other words, he/she cannot identify himself/herself with the culture of his/her society.

4. The Fourth Problem

One more problem is related to history. Such a child won't be able, historically, to establish a relation between past, present and future of his society. In fact, language unites different generations of a society as a historical identity. Here, we will try to mention some of the historical matters about which such a child will gain little or no knowledge as he/she does not have the opportunity to be exposed to them. When a mother tells her baby a story, in addition to posing a strong emotional connection with him/her and communicating cultural beliefs to him/her, connects the child, like a ring to a chain, to the history of the society in which he/she lives. This way, he/she becomes aware of the historical events, heroes, heroines, their actions, victories, failures, etc, thus being able to have a clear historical perspective of his/her society. When a child hears the old sayings and proverbs of his/her MT, he/she gets familiar with how his/her ancestors thought and behaved in the society. All of these help the child to have successful social and historical relations with the people of his/her society.

Crystal (1987) believes that language provides a particular clear link with the past – often the only detailed link – in the form of literature. Consequently, as it was mentioned above, the historical connection between different generations (past, present, and future) is cut and there develops a kind of incongruity and disconnection between them. Of course such an individual can learn the language of his/her environment later but he/she can use it only as a device to do his/her verbal activities.

Children, through MT, learn the everyday life patterns of their contemporary age-groups, cultural, traditional, and social conventions, historical roots, relationships with other cultures, cultural achievements, current events and regional and geographical concepts, historical evidence of civilization in different countries including their own.

5. The Fifth Problem

The fifth problem is that as such a child has not gained an acceptable degree of fluency in the language exposed to (because most probably his/her parents are not natives of that language.) it may be difficult and time-consuming for him/her to acquire his/her mother tongue as the second language.

According to researches done by Baker (2000), Cummins (2000), and Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) the level of development of children's MT is a strong predictor of their L2 development. Children who come to school with a solid foundation in their MT develop stronger literacy abilities in the second language. Cummins (2000) argues that when parents and other caregivers (e.g. grandparents) are able to spend time with their children and tell stories or discuss issues with them in a way that develops their MT vocabulary

and concepts, children come to school well-prepared to learn the school language and succeed educationally.

In accordance with Vygotsky's views, as we mentioned before, the existence of language universals is a strong reason to accept that the languages share many properties. In other words, the entire languages share the same deep structure and whatever makes the languages look different are due to their different surface structures. Therefore, the fundamentals and bases of language take root in a child who acquires his/her mother tongue as the first language and this way his/her rational and linguistic development get to a point that he/she can learn another language without much effort. Mother tongue is considered as the foundation of a building, if it is built strong enough, we can build more than one floor on it.

Vygotsky (1962) believes that making progress in learning a foreign language is dependent on acquiring a certain level of fluency in mother tongue, the child transfers the semantic system of his/her mother tongue into the new (foreign) language.

According to linguistic evidence, the normal and logical procedure is that the child, first, should acquire his/her mother tongue. The writer of the present paper believes that the best solution to the problems discussed is that we, adults, should let the children acquire their mother tongue first and then, due to interest or necessity, they can learn other languages as well. If we let the child act this way, he/she can learn a second / foreign language easier and faster.

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The Uniformity of Constraints on Code-switching: A Comparison of the Intra-sentential Code-switching Patterns of Neurologically Normal and Aphasic Bilinguals

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This study originates in two complementary questions: Is code-switching also constrained in bilingual aphasics? If so, are the constraints restricting code-switching in bilingual aphasics the same as those in neurologically normal bilinguals? As such, this paper mainly focuses on the comparison of code-switching patterns of normal and aphasic bilinguals on the basis of two competing models of constraints on intra-sentential code-switching in neurologically healthy bilinguals: Myers-Scotton's (1993) Matrix Frame Language model and Poplack's (1980) Equivalence and Free Morpheme constraints. The present review considers the differences and similarities between code-switching of normal and bilingual aphasics in terms of pathological code-switching. It questions the two models of code-switching by means of code-switching data collected from a Turkish-English successive bilingual. It concludes that sociolinguistic explanations are insufficient to capture the range of issues involved in pathological code-switching. A general discussion of the findings and conclusions drawn follow.

1. Introduction

Language seems to be one of the most fascinating inventions of the human species. As a complex system in itself, it is a discrete combinatorial system (like DNA) whose competence and performance is magical in that the brain has the capacity to tackle with such a complex system and it is unique to human beings. Just like many other things that have become our routines in our lives, language seems to be on the periphery of our awareness most of the time. However, a few minutes of reflection on it, "How can I write in another language than Turkish? or "How can I understand what I am writing?", just like I am doing right now, is enough to find oneself in a land of wonder. Besides, there are a lot of people who have more than one language. Making things more puzzling and breathtaking, bilinguals, trilinguals, or others having more languages can tackle with more than one language. That is not the whole story: we have code-switching phenomenon in which people blend their languages into a coherent whole, which refers to our ability to switch between two languages that are already complex in themselves.

Code-switching shows not only the intricateness and flexibility of language faculty but can also mirror the organization of languages in the brain. The differential usage of the terminology "language mixing" and "code-switching" are worth making here. Hyltenstam (1995) uses "language mixing" as an umbrella term to refer to different interaction types among two or more languages. On the other hand, code-switching is used to name the alternate use of two languages in a sentence or discourse (Poplack, 1980, as cited in Hyltenstam, 1995: 307). Code-switching, especially that of neurologically normal bilinguals has been studied a lot from different perspectives ranging from sociolinguistic to psycholinguistics. Code-switching is considered to be grammatically restricted by grammatical and pragmatic constraints, thus not being "wild" in bilinguals. What is more, studies on code-switching in bilingual aphasics suggests that code-switching in bilingual aphasics can be explained by the same constraints as those offered for normal bilinguals. This is really interesting, since different aphasia types inflect the human language faculty in different ways. In other words, we face the possibility that code-switching, by and large, remains unaffected by aphasia. How come?

The main focus of the current review is to compare the intra-sentential code-switching patterns of neurologically normal and aphasic bilinguals. In "data analysis section", the paper questions the two models through code-switching collected from a Turkish-English successive bilingual. The type of code-switching this paper focuses on is intra-sentential code-switching. So, "code-switching" refers to intra-sentential code-switching whenever it is used in the paper. The present review also questions whether there are any grammatical aspects of pathological code-switching other than sociolinguistic explanations and tries to bring some worthy research questions onto the stage of investigation.

In what follows, the paper firstly summarizes Matrix Frame Language Model and Poplack's two constraints in the first section. The second section includes review of studies on "code-switching in neurologically normal bilinguals", "code-switching in bilingual aphasics", and "comparison of code-switching on normal and bilingual aphasics". Pathological switching is presented and compared with code-switching patterns of both normal and aphasic bilinguals in the third section. In section 4, the code-switching data of a Turkish-English bilingual is presented and discussed under MFL and Poplack's constraints. A general discussion & conclusion constitute the fifth section.

2. Two Models of Constraints on Code-switching

There are two widely discussed and accepted theories of constraints on intra-sentential code-switching. The first one is Matrix Frame Language Model suggested by Myers-Scotton (1993); the second one belongs to Poplack (1980) and has two constituents: equivalence constraint and free morpheme constraint (as cited in Prince & Pintzuk, 1984: 3).

2.1 Matrix frame language model

Myers-Scotton (1993) offered Matrix Frame Language Model (henceforth referred to as MFL) as a model for the explanation of the grammatical structure of frequently observed code-switching behavior of bilinguals (as cited in Myers-Scotton, 1997: 92). MFL approaches code-switching within Complement Phrase (henceforth CP), because Myers-Scotton (1997) argues that CP of a sentence is a

unit where the components of the grammaticality of code-switching are in contact with one another. The model subsumes four premises:

a) Complement phrase: The unit of analysis in MFL is the CP constituent of a sentence. The head of a CP is a complementizer that is not actually realized in most sentences. Myers-Scotton (1997) argues that a CP is the best candidate for analysis, "because the CP can be defined more precisely than either the sentence or the clause, it is the best unit for discussing grammatical structuring in code-switching" (Myers-Scotton, 1997: 92). CP is the top most maximal level within a syntactic tree, thus embracing all the other constituents like IP, VP, adjuncts.

b) The matrix language vs. embedded language: During code-switching, bilinguals make more use of their grammatically dominant language that frames the CP where code-switching happens. This language is called matrix language and argued to shape the frame of code-switching in CP throughout a given discourse; it can be changed depending upon the context and situation, though. The other language is the embedded language that is dominated by the matrix language during code-switching.

c) The content vs. system morpheme distinction: Content morphemes take part in the thematic-role elations in a CP by receiving or assigning such thematic roles as agent, location, and goal. While verbs and some prepositions are thematic-role assigners; nouns, adjectives, pronouns are thematic-role receivers. On the other hand, system morphemes neither assign nor receive thematic roles like "the" and "a".

d) Three constituents: Under the first and second premises, MFL offers three possible constituents in code-switching: a) mixed constituents: these consist of morphemes from both languages which are formulated as "matrix language+ embedded language" by Myers-Scotton (1997: 93). Even though mixed constituents include morphemes from embedded language as well, the frame of the constituent is shaped by the matrix language. b) matrix language islands: these are also framed by the matrix language and the morphemes of these constituents come only from the matrix language. c) embedded-language islands: these constituents are framed by the grammar of the embedded language and their morphemes originate from the embedded language.

2.2 Poplack's equivalence and free morpheme constraints
Poplack (1980) suggests two constraints on code-switching:

a) Equivalence constraint: Equivalence constraint supposes that code-switching can occur in any place in a discourse where code-switching is not at odds with the grammar of the two languages of a bilingual. In other words, code-switching is licensed only when it does not violate the grammatical rules of either language. Code-switching is possible at points "around which the surface structure of two languages map onto each other" (Poplack, 1980, as cited in Genesee, 2002: 182).

b) Free morpheme constraint: This constraint states that bound morphemes, be them inflectional or derivational, are resistant to be switched. As such,

we can't see code-switching patterns where bound derivational or inflectional morphemes like suffixes of a language are switched onto the words of the second language. So, as long as a constituent is a free morpheme we can expect codes to be switched.

The two models mentioned above seek insight into the intra-sentential code-switching of bilinguals with no neurological illnesses. These two models have different expectations regarding the possible regulatory constraints on code-switching. Not favoring one over the other, "code-switching in bilinguals" section reviews the results of research done on code-switching in order to find out which model's predictions are held more in the normal and aphasic bilinguals together with a subsection comparing code-switching patterns of normal and aphasic bilinguals.

3. Code-switching in Bilinguals
3.1 Code-switching in neurologically normal bilinguals

Grosjean (1985) argues that not only bilingual aphasics but also normal bilinguals do utterance level mixing, thus contradicting the Perecman's (1984) conclusions that the language switching or mixing seen in bilingual aphasics are related to the pathology of aphasia (as cited in Bhat & Chengappa, 2003: 4). Grosjean (1999) talks about the concept of "language mode" and defines it as "the state of activation of bilingual's languages and language processing mechanisms at a given point in time" (Grosjean, 1999: 3). While interacting with one another bilinguals choose a base language and start to communicate through it first and whenever needed, depending on the situation or context, they change their language mode by code-switching or borrowing, thus bringing their guest language onto the stage. He further suggests that when bilinguals are in monolingual mode they would not ideally switch between their languages whereas this can be prompted in the bilingual mode. Moreover, Grosjean (1999) asserts that during a high level activation of both of the two languages in the bilingual mode, it is more probable that a bilingual produces code-switches and that the base language is changed frequently, which could be triggered by a change in situation, communicators, or topic. However, code-switching or borrowing is less likely to occur in the monolingual mode where one of the languages is "deactivated" even though there could be situations where bilinguals switch into other language that is deactivated. Grosjean (1999) calls such phenomena as "interferences" from the deactivated language (Grosjean, 1999: 6).

Genesee (2002) argues that code-mixing patterns of children are not indicators of a "bad" state in terms of language learning in bilingual children. In other words, he claims that bilingual children's code-mixing behavior is not inferior to adult bilingual's code-switching in that code-mixing is not unsystematically based upon some constraints while adult bilingual code-switching is grammatically constrained. The contrary assumption to this position implies that child bilinguals code-mix in a random unpredictable way that is not observed in systematic adult bilingual code-switching. Genesee (2002) reviews some research on code-mixing behavior of some bilingual children including one of his own experiments from cognitive, linguistic and communicative perspectives and concludes that code-mixing in child bilinguals is not a sign of an inferior language state and unsystematic. One point is worth making here: Genesee (2002) says he prefers to use code-mixing while talking about child bilinguals not code-switching in order to

escape the presupposition that code-mixing and code-switching share the same properties. He accepts that the similarity of code-mixing to adult code-switching waits to be discovered. So, the overall aim of Genesee (2002) seems to assert that child code-mixing is not unsystematic or unconstrained, thus being wild. Genesee (2002) repeats the well-accepted idea that adult bilingual code-switching is systematically restricted and constrained.

After stating that code-switching is a widespread phenomenon of bilingual interaction, Muysken (1995) pinpoints that code-switching is not random but happens at specific points in a sentence. Namely, his point is that code-switching is a systematic aspect of bilingual language capacity. Muysken (1995) accepts that we lack a specific description of the characteristics of code-switching. Especially talking about the intra-sentential code-switching, Muysken (1995) does not seem to be happy with the general conclusion that the studies done so far provide us with a clear understanding of the mechanisms governing code-switching. He also raises the possibility that the constraints could be "relative" not "absolute", thus changing from situation to situation.

Köppe & Meisel (1995) comment on the pragmatic and grammatical constraints on child bilingual code-mixing in their review of their own longitudinal research and other previous studies. They claim that child bilingual code-mixing is constrained by both grammatical and pragmatic constraints. Plus, the bilingual child's pragmatic competence seems to be shaped by his or her grammatical competence of the two languages, they suggest. All in all, Köppe & Meisel (1995) propose that the properties of child bilingual code-mixing are directly related to the grammatical development of bilingual children, so some minor mistakes can be observed that cannot be regarded as a pathologic symptom. One important point is that Köppe & Meisel (1995) do not seem to differentiate between code-switching and code-mixing like Genesee (2002).

The research on code-switching of neurologically normal bilinguals indicates that code-switch is not wild or abnormal in the sense that it is not unrestricted by our linguistic ability, thus violating certain principles present in the language production of monolinguals. Answer to the question of whether code-switching behavior of aphasic bilinguals is also restricted by certain constraints and of whether code-switching of bilingual aphasics are comparable to those of normal bilinguals in terms of constraints regulating code-switching could give us more insights into code-switching as a constrained linguistic phenomenon, which is dealt with in the upcoming section.

3.2 Code-switching in bilingual aphasics

Chengappa, Daniel, Bhat (2004) focus on the comparison of language mixing and switching patterns of Malayalam-English bilingual aphasics. They claim that it is debatable whether the language mixing behavior observed in their subjects are pathological or not. As for code-switches, the writers point out that there are both similarities and differences between aphasic and neurologically normal bilinguals. Plus, Chengappa, Daniel, Bhat (2004) make three observations that are consistent with the previous two studies mentioned above: 1) The effects of individual differences on the frequency and type of code-switching and those of context were more apparent in bilingual aphasics. 2) both normal and aphasic Malayalam-English subjects made use of their "other" language not known by their monolingual interlocutor. 3) aphasic group showed more code-switching patterns that are

problematic and random language mixing. The interesting point Chengappa, Daniel, Bhat (2004) make at this point is that the inappropriate or problematic code-switching patterns of aphasics were also observed in normal bilinguals. Plus, all those code-switching instances appeared to be "OK" in the community of the bilinguals.

Chengappa, Daniel, and Bhat (2004) further suggest that the language proficiency and use of bilingual aphasics before their acquired aphasia have impacts upon their code-switching after injury. They claim this becomes clear thanks to the observation that both normal and aphasic bilinguals who were less proficient in English than in Malayalam showed similar patterns of code-switching. The researchers conclude that aphasic and normal Malayalam-English bilinguals show similar types or patterns of code-switching; however, aphasics produce more code-switches than normal bilinguals. Chengappa, Daniel, Bhat (2004) also state that aphasic bilinguals in their study code-switched and mixed their two languages after the injury.

Paradis (1995) notes that language mixing and switching is a common phenomenon among recovery patterns of bilingual aphasics (as cited in Chengappa et al., 2004: 69). So, it could be useful to take a look at studies on recovery patterns of bilingual aphasics with a magnifying glass to catch up on code-switching. Riccardi, Fabbro & Obler (2004) discuss the case of a quadrilingual with Wernicke's aphasia who produced pragmatically appropriate code-switching and who recovered all his four languages. By reminding the reader that neurologically normal bilinguals code-switch in line with the appropriateness for the situation and the interlocutor, the researchers put forward that their quadrilingual subject was code-switching appropriately for the situation and the interlocutor as well. They concluded that the pragmatic constraints like situation or interlocutor-specific ones were also present in their subject during his recovery while code-switching.

Having seen that bilingual aphasics also code-switch and that code-switching of bilingual aphasics is also constrained, we are ready to question to what extent precisely the constraints regulating code-switching of normal and bilingual aphasics are comparable. Are they the same or similar? So, it is time to look at research comparing code-switching of normal and bilingual aphasics with the hope of finding answers to the questions.

3.3 Comparison of code-switching in neurologically normal and aphasic bilinguals

Sapna & Chengappa (2003) discuss the comparison of the code-switching behavior of 2 Kannada-English aphasics and 2 neurologically healthy subjects who were matched on the basis of age, gender, education, and language use. Sapna & Chengappa (2003) found both similarities and differences between normal and aphasic bilinguals. Their data suggested that there were more code-switching cases in aphasic bilinguals. The most interesting (for the purpose of this paper) result of the study is that even though bilingual aphasics produced more code-switching than neurologically normal bilinguals, their code-switching patterns were explainable within MFL. In other words, Sapna & Chengappa (2003) found a difference between neurologically normal and aphasic Kannada-English bilinguals in terms of the quantity of code-switching but not of the qualitative features. This further means that bilingual aphasics did not produce ungrammatical or unexplainable code-switching cases at least within the frame of MFL.

Another interesting finding of Sapna & Chengappa (2003) that is related to Genesee (2002) is that both bilingual aphasics and normal subjects switched their languages in communicating with monolinguals as well. Like Genesee (2002), Sapna & Chengappa (2003) suggest that this could be a communicative strategy to enhance the communicative power. This result is also in line with Munoz, Marquardt, and Copeland's (1998) study of code-switching in normal and aphasic English-Spanish bilinguals and Bhat & Chengappa (2002, 2003) in normal Kannada-English and Hindi-English bilinguals (as cited in Sapna & Chengappa, 2003: 14). Sapna & Chengappa (2003) point out the non-occurrence of problematic code-switches in aphasic bilinguals in their study is not surprising because the subjects were balanced bilinguals. Therefore, Sapna & Chengappa (2003) suggest that researchers think about the specific context where code-switching happens, since their result of switching into L1 was contradictory for some previous studies.

Another study that is specifically a comparison of the code-switching patterns of neurologically normal and aphasic bilinguals is Munoz, Marquardt, Copeland (1998) that is also based upon MFL of Myers-Scotton (1993). The investigators worked on code-switching of English-Spanish bilinguals in the conversational contexts of monolingual English, monolingual Spanish, and bilingual English-Spanish to come up with available code-switching patterns. Four aphasic and four neurologically normal English-Spanish bilinguals who are matched in terms of age, gender, and language use involved in the study.

Munoz, Marquardt, Copeland (1998) report that not only Hispanic aphasic bilinguals but also normal Hispanic bilinguals produced both problematic and predictable code-switching instances on the basis of MFL. However, aphasic Hispanics showed a greater amount of embedded islands, matrix language and embedded language; and inserted more embedded language (Munoz, Marquardt, Copeland, 1998: 267). As for communication difficulties, production of problematic code-switching patterns and individual differences together with the context factor, Munoz, Marquardt, Copeland (1998) conclude that the effects of these factors were more observable in bilingual aphasics (p. 267).

Code-switching patterns of Hispanic bilingual aphasics showed that, as is the case with the code-switching behavior of normal Hispanic bilinguals, code-switching of aphasic subjects were in line with the expectations of MFL model. In line with the results of Sapna & Chengappa (2003), Munoz, Marquardt, Copeland (1998) report that both normal and aphasic Hispanic bilinguals used their "other" language that is not known by the interlocutor in monolingual communication.

Munoz, Marquardt, Copeland (1998) claim that Hispanic bilingual aphasics had a tendency to code-switch more when they had a difficulty in retrieving a word from one of their languages, which was regarded as problematic previously. On the other hand, Munoz, Marquardt, Copeland (1998) claim that this kind of code-switching in their bilingual aphasics could be a communication strategy: the patient uses a word from his or her other language, simply because they cannot access the related word of the language they are using. The researchers argue that this is like paraphasia except for the fact that the chosen word from the other language was semantically consistent and appropriate. At this point, Munoz, Marquardt, Copeland (1998) point out that there could also be some conversational restrictions on the code-switching of bilingual aphasics and suggest that researchers take sociolinguistic aspects of the context into account.

Munoz, Marquardt, Copeland (1998) highlight the finding that aphasic English-Spanish bilinguals exhibited more reliance on both of their languages, which could have led to the observation of more code-switching tendency in aphasic subjects in the study. The researchers pinpoint that the results of their study indicate that aphasia affects code-switching selectively. They conclude that aphasic English-Spanish bilinguals produced more MFL related patterns in their code-switching behavior together with some code-switching cases not observed in normal bilinguals.

Taking the findings presented above that are related to code-switching patterns of both neurologically normal and aphasic bilinguals, it seems that code-switching in both groups are constrained and, except for some unexplainable data coming from aphasic subjects, the constraints governing code-switching in both groups are similar if not the same totally. This implication is worth noticing from at least one perspective: Since aphasia affects linguistic ability, the possibility that it does not affect code-switching is a breathtaking conclusion and can provide us with further insights into: a) humans' linguistic ability; b) diagnosis and treatment of aphasia. What is more, the remaining question occupying one's mind is "Isn't there wild or "pathological" switching?" Asking this question lead us also to ask similar complementary questions: "If there is pathological language switching, what makes it "pathological" or different from the proper code-switching we see in not only normal but also aphasic bilinguals? Is pathological switching also constrained? If so, how and in what ways?" The next section is devoted to pathological language switching and tries to come up with answers to the questions just stated.

4. Pathological Code-switching

Fabbro, Scrap, & Aglioti (2000) report that the subject involved in the study produced pathological switching between Italian and Friulian when there were interlocutors who did not know the language to which the patient switched. Interestingly, the patient commented on or apologized after switching into the "other" language. This seems to suggest that he was aware of the necessity that he should speak in one language that is the language his interlocutors also speak. The MRI on the brain of the patient revealed that the lesion to anterior left hemisphere could be related to the pathological switching of the subject. This study implies that pathological switching observed in bilingual patients with brain lesions is breaking a sociolinguistic constraint on code-switching: a bilingual should not switch into the other language in the presence of interlocutors who do not know the language in question.

Fabbro (1999) divides pathological code-switching phenomenon seen in bilingual aphasics into two: "pathological fixation on one language" and "spontaneous switching". Fabbro (1999) states that "pathological fixation on one language" refers to the inability of bilingual aphasics to switch to the "other" language when the context entails it (like arriving of a newcomer who cannot understand the fixed language of the bilingual aphasic patient), even though the comprehension of the language is not broken down most of the time. Fabbro (1999) mentions one of his own studies, Fabbro (1995b), in which he studied on an Italian-Friulian housewife who was suffering a stroke to the left temporal lobe and fluent aphasia in her both languages. The patient had a tendency to fix on Italian while speaking no matter which language her interlocutor was using. Moreover, even

during the assessment of her speaking in Friulian and when asked questions in Friulian, she continued to communicate in Italian.

As for "spontaneous switching", Fabbro (1999) refers to the neurolinguist Yvan Lebrun who defines "spontaneous switching" as "the systematic and uncontrolled production of several sentences with constant switching between languages" (Lebrun, 1991; as cited in Fabbro, 1999: 147). In other words, spontaneous switching is characterized by, for instance, the production of the first sentence in L1, the second one in L3, the third sentence in L2 and the like. Fabbro (1999) writes also about his previous study on a patient who had difficulty in speaking fluently (Fabbro, 1995b). The patient showed spontaneous switching in that he alternated sentences in Friulian and sentences in Italian involuntarily. After his operation, he took a language assessment test (BAT). During the testing session in Italian, the patient did not produce pathological switching, while he continued to produce cases of pathological switching in Friulian.

It can be inferred that the word "pathological" does not refer to the breaking of grammatical constraints we talked about during the discussion of the code-switching of normal and aphasic bilinguals. Pathological switching is intended to refer to the case of switching from three perspectives: 1) switching from one language to another even in the case of interlocutors who cannot understand the other language; 2) aphasic bilinguals' inability to switch to the other language when it is necessary; 3) when bilingual aphasics utter sentences in different languages consecutively.

5. Code-switching of a Turkish-English Successive Bilingual

The data included in this part was taken from a Turkish-English bilingual (henceforth, referred to by the pseudonym "Cabbar"). He is a 23 years old master student who started to learn English at the age of 9. The data show that Poplack's equivalence constraint cannot explain most of the cases of code-switching. First, Turkish and English have different word orders: SOV and SVO respectively. Most of the CPs in the data are in SOV word order, thus violating the word order of English as the following examples show:

(O) Sadece differencelardan konuşuyor
  S   O   V
s/he only   difference+ PL+ ABL talking
…insanlar ethnorelativisme yaklaşırlar…
   S   O   V
  people   ethnorelativism + DAT   move
(O)…iki taraflı bakmamız lazım diyor language teachingle ilgili.
 S   O   V   O

PL= plural	LOC=Locative
DAT=dative	GEN = genitive
ABL= ablative	neg= negative
COMM= commitative (ile)	
POSS= possessive	
C= complement	
ACC= accusative	

s/he   two sides   look necassary saying language teaching+ COMM about

Notice that the third example is totally out of question in English, however we see that there is code-switching there, thus violating equivalence constraint in that even though the code-switching does not violate Turkish word order it violates that of English. Another construction where Turkish and English differ is the possessive constructions that are noun phrases:

Tamam difference anlayış**ları** değiştikçe insanlar… =
          C   H PL POSS
OK, understandings of difference change, people…
 H   C

   …ethnorelativism**e** yaklaşırlar…
        DAT

Turkish is a head final language while English is a head initial one. Even though understanding or "anlayış"(understanding) is the head of possessive constructions both in Turkish and English, they are different in terms of head position. Here, English is head initial while Turkish is final. Even though possessive constructions (actually noun phrases) of Turkish and English do not map onto each other, we see code-switching in possessive constructions as well. As for "free morpheme constraint", the data indicates that it does not seem to hold either:

Difference**a** … bu stage**ler** …   …language teaching**le** ilgili
      DAT   PL   COMM

…homogeneity**e** bakar. Difference**lar** vardır diyor.
      DAT   PL

…language teaching**le** ilgili
        COMM

As you see, Turkish inflectional morphemes, especially case markers can be switched onto English words or phrases, which are ruled out by free morpheme constraint. Moreover, as in the example "culture**ları**" more than one Turkish inflectional bound morphemes (plural and accusative) can be suffixed onto the English word "culture" consecutively. I want to take attention to one example: "difference**lar**"**.** The code-switching data of Cabbar includes "difference**lar**" but not "differences**lar**" that involves using both English plural and Turkish plural suffixes together which may show that code-switching is not redundant.

MFL includes some criteria to label a matrix language in a code-switching phenomenon. The first one says that matrix language is the language that shapes the morphosyntactic frame for the whole CP. The second one is that matrix language contributes relatively more morphemes in intra-sentential code-switching. There are sociolinguistic criteria as well: Matrix language is the language speakers perceive as the language they are speaking. Second, matrix language is the language that is the unmarked choice. The unmarked choice is the language that contributes more morphemes to code-switching. In the light of these criteria, I suggest that Turkish is the matrix language because: a) it contributes relatively more linguistic item to code-

switching, thus also being the unmarked choice of the communication; b) the CPs in the code-switching is shaped by Turkish morphosyntactically:

Language teaching**de** bir şey   öğret**irken**
                        LOC a thing teach aorist while

…kültür anlayışın**da**   insanlar homogeneity**e**   bakar
culture understanding +LOC people   DAT   look + aorist

Our data seem to consist of a lot of exceptions for Poplack's equivalence and free morpheme constraints. Are our code-switching data is explainable under MFL? *Coding: ML = matrix language, EL= embedded language, ML island = constituents including only ML morphemes and showing syntactic scructure, EL island = constituents consisting of at least two EL morphemes and showing syntactic structure, ML + EL = matrix language and embedded language constituents occurring side by side, Q = question marker, 2.sng = second person singular, POSS = possessive, DAT = dative, EL insertion = multiple EL insertions with no syntactic structure among any number of ML morphemes, CP = complementizer phrase:*

1) [**do you agree**]   mi-sin   olu- m   sen   bu-(n)a
   internal EL island   Q+ 2sng   brother + POSS   you   this + DAT

2) kültür anlayışında insanlar **homogeneity**e bakar   : ML + EL
ML island_

3) **Tamam** *difference* **anlayışları değiştikçe₁** insanlar *ethnorelativisme* **yaklaşırlar diyeceksin değil mi?₂**
EL insertions   **bold** $_{1,2}$ **=** ML islands

4) iki taraflı bakmamız lazım diyor **language teaching**le ilgili. : ML + EL
  ML island

5) Kız herkes demiş, **homogeneous** değildir; **culture difference**lar vardır demiş.
        ML island   ML + EL   ML + EL
            Tamam da bunun **move** etmeyle alakası ne?
                ML + EL
 [Kız [[herkes **homogeneou**s değildir]$_{CP4}$; [**culture difference**lar vardır]$_{CP3}$]$_{CP2}$ demiş.]$_{CP1}$

The examples above suggest that MFL seems to be better at predicting code-switching in our data. As the last example shows, intra-sentential code-switching happens within the boundaries of CP units. The constituents (three main constituents: ML + EL, ML islands, EL islands) are observable in the data above. Munoz, Marquardt, Copeland (1998) pinpoint that the assumptions of Poplack's equivalence and free morpheme constraints have been provided with counterevidence by studies on neurologically impaired bilinguals. In other words, Poplack's (1980) constraints have been attacked by a lot of exceptions. De Santi et

al. (1995) identified code-switching patterns violating the equivalence constraint in their study of four English-Yiddish bilinguals who had senile dementia (as cited in Munoz, Marquardt &Copeland, 1998: 250). The code-switching instances that violate the bound morpheme constraint have also been observed (De Fina, 1989; Myers-Scotton, 1993b; as cited in Munoz, Marquardt & Copeland , 1998: 250)

3. General Discussion and Conclusion

The issues focused on so far indicate that code-switching is not wild or random, thus not being symptom of a linguistic disorder. Actually, it seems that code-switching requires competence in bilinguals, because it is constrained and systematic. Sapna & Chengappa (2003) report that the code-switching patterns of neurologically normal and aphasic bilinguals differ in terms of quantity not quality from one another substantially. Other studies provided us with the conclusion that code-switching patterns of adult bilingual aphasics may be regulated by the same constraints seen in normal bilinguals at least within the frame of MFL, we have come across an increase in the number and more problematic cases of code-switching in adult bilingual patients though. These general points were supported by the findings of studies comparing code-switching of normal and aphasic bilinguals.

The end of the story may not be reached here. If it is empirically proven that code-switching behavior of aphasics and neurologically normal bilinguals are governed by the same or at least similar rules we have to face the need to explain how a language disorder like aphasia cannot affect code-switching seriously. One caution is worth paying attention to: The papers on pathological code-switching that are covered in this paper are talking about pathology of code-switching in the sense of: 1) the inability to switch from one language to another when a bilingual communicates with a monolingual who do not know the language being used; 2) uncontrollable frequent code-switching among languages. Plus, pathological code-switching is only observed in bilingual aphasics. Even though normal bilinguals can make use of their other language while communicating with monolinguals, this is not a permanent fixation that is the case in pathological switching.

The code-switching of the Turkish-English successive bilingual mentioned in the paper points out two things: 1) there may be a strong relationship between context and code-switching in terms of both quantity and the need to code-switch; 2) code-switching is not redundant, just like our general linguistic ability we do not overuse certain linguistic items during code-switching meaning that if a certain concept is realized through the morpheme of a language, it isn't realized once more in the other language.

In conclusion, at least the studies covered in this paper show that the code-switching behavior of bilingual aphasics appear to be regulated by the same norms as those exist in neurologically normal bilinguals. Furthermore, pathological switching also seems not to violate the grammatical rules of code-switching, since the pathological switching studies reported here do not mention it. Therefore, code-switching seems to be a grammatically complex and amazing linguistic phenomenon requiring for competence on the part of the bilinguals. As such, code-switching can enhance the understanding of our linguistic abilities.

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Intercultural Competence from the Perspective of Turkish Prospective Teachers: A Case Study

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Since the 1980s the greater emphasis on language learning for communication and social interaction has led to a new perspective in language teaching, i.e., the intercultural perspective. The intercultural perspective in language teaching entails a change in the role of the foreign language teachers. Teachers are now expected not only to teach the foreign linguistic code, but also to promote the acquisition of intercultural communicative competence (Castro, Sercu, & Mendez, 2004). The present study aims to understand the attitudes of prospective teachers of English, coming from different cultural backgrounds and having different amount of exposure to the target culture, towards teaching cultural issues in English and to investigate their actual teaching practices of culture. Five PTs of English participated in this study. They were given a culturally embedded reading text and asked to prepare a lesson plan and teach it in real classroom setting. The findings revealed that exposure to foreign cultures affected a teacher's practices and attitudes positively.

I. Introduction

The debate about the relationship of culture and language has long been part of the study of language (Wierzbicka, 1992) and has steadily gained in importance in the modern age of language teaching (Byram, 1991; Harrison, 1990; Robinson, 1988; Valdes, 1986). Since the 1980s cross-cultural approaches to foreign language education with greater emphasis on all aspects of communication across cultures and in all kinds of social interaction rather than a monolingual methods has led to a new perspective in language teaching, i.e., the intercultural communicative competence. Unlike the traditional approaches, which limited the teaching of culture to the transmission of information about the target language culture, this perspective encompasses the interplay of cultures, including attempts to deal with, understand and recognize each other (Byram & Zarate, 1997; Hammer, 1989; Martin, 1989; Kim, 1991; Risager, 2002; Wiseman & Koster, 1993).

Within the field of foreign language education, the concept of intercultural competence is defined as 'the ability of a person to behave adequately in a flexible manner when confronted with actions, attitudes and expectations of representatives of foreign cultures' (Meyer, 1991, p. 137). According to Byram (1997), intercultural competence refers to 'the ability to decentre and take up the other's perspective on their own culture, anticipating, and where possible, resolving dysfunctions in communication and behavior' (p. 42).

Byram and Zarate (1997) suggest new objectives for foreign language education, such as the enlargement of the learners' familiarity with the target language cultures and stimulation of their interest in establishing relations with people from other cultures. Within this framework a foreign language learner is regarded to be an 'intercultural speaker' and teachers are expected not only to teach the foreign linguistic code, but also to promote the acquisition of intercultural communicative competence (Castro, Sercu, & Mendez, 2004). In other words, the promotion of cultural awareness is considered to be an integral part of the language teacher's task (Fantini, 1995).

As can be seen, the role of the language teacher has become highly important within this framework: the teacher mediates between the native language and target language culture(s) to help learners acquire their own capacity for mediation and to stimulate learners' interest in other cultures in general (Byram & Risager, 1999; Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Edelhoff, 1992; Kramsch, 1993). However, although the teachers themselves may be well informed about the target language culture(s), they generally do not perceive themselves as 'cultural mediators' (Buttjes & Byram, 1991). Thus, Sercu (2002) indicates that the intercultural approach requires changes in teachers' self-concept, professional qualifications, knowledge, attitudes and skills.

Yet, research studies, though few in number, have shown that the knowledge of intercultural competence is not easily put into practice by the teachers. For example, Sercu (2005) aimed to enquire into how the current professional self-concepts of Flemish teachers of English, French and German related to their envisaged profile of the intercultural foreign language teacher and into the extent to which their teaching practice could be characterized as directed towards the attainment of intercultural communicative competence instead of towards communicative competence. Findings revealed that although teachers supported intercultural objectives and were willing to promote the acquisition of intercultural communicative competence through their foreign language teaching, their teaching practice could not be characterized as intercultural. Even when being favorably disposed towards the teaching of intercultural competence, Flemish teachers appeared to not yet have left the traditional foreign cultural approach for the intercultural approach to language and culture teaching. They defined culture teaching mainly in terms of the passing on of cultural information, not in terms of promoting the acquisition of intercultural skills and attitudes, and devoted only small a proportion of their teaching time to culture teaching.

Similarly, Atay (2006) in a study with 65 Turkish prospective teachers of English found that although participants in general indicated the importance of the cultural dimension of language learning, they were also aware of their own lack of knowledge related to the target cultures. Moreover, some considered teaching culture as transmitting the cultural knowledge given in the book to their students, and others who defined cultural awareness within an intercultural perspective felt that it was not necessary to teach language according to this perspective.

In the present study we aimed to find out whether there would be any differences between prospective teachers who had exposure to target language culture(s) and those who did not in terms of their teaching practices of culture and their attitudes towards teaching cultural issues in class.

II. Methodology
Participants

Five prospective teachers (PTs), all third year students, enrolled at the English Language Teaching Department of a highly competitive state university in Istanbul, Turkey, participated in this study. The PTs were all Turks with an average age of 20.34 (Sd =0.62). The ELT department offers linguistics and methodology courses, yet, there is no course on culture or teaching cultural issues.

Having the role of instructor/researcher, we informed the PTs about the aims of our study in one of the method courses, and 14 out of 89 PTs volunteered to participate. For the purposes of the study, we selected the PTs on the basis of their cultural background and the amount of exposure each had to any target language culture. Background information was gathered about the participants by means of a demographic questionnaire. The names of the participants have been changed to maintain confidentiality.

In the demographic background questionnaire the PTs were asked to write down their place of birth, the place they grew up, the schools they had been educated in before entering university, and if they followed any foreign publications or watched foreign films.

The first participant, Mert, is a male student. He was born and grew up in Saudi Arabia, until he was 16 years old. He came to Turkey 3.5 years ago to study at university. He had his primary and secondary education in a Turkish/Arabic bilingual school and attended an American school in Saudi Arabia for one year. He reported that he often followed the publications, films and TV programs in English and Arabic.

The second participant, Selen, is a female student. She is 20 years old. She was born and grew up in Bulgaria. She came to live in Turkey with her family 8 years ago. She had her primary education in Bulgaria in a Turkish school, where she had lessons both in Turkish and Bulgarian. She attended an English medium private college Istanbul, Turkey, for her secondary education. She said she often watched English films without subtitles and sometimes read publications in Bulgarian and English.

The third participant, Esra, a 20-year-old female student, was born and grew up in Istanbul, the biggest city and center of culture of Turkey. Esra completed her primary and secondary education in İstanbul. She stated that she read some magazines in English once a month. She had been to Europe twice for leisure.

The fourth student, Yağmur, 20 years old, was born and grew up in a city in the eastern part of Turkey. The city is a small but a well developed one in terms of industry and tourism. She completed her education in the same city and came to Istanbul for her university education and she reported that she rarely read an English magazine or watched foreign channels on TV. She did not have any communication in English

The fifth and the last student, Yonca, female, was born and grown up in a small, not well-developed city in the eastern part of Turkey. Yonca completed her education in her hometown and came to Istanbul 2.5 years ago to study. She stated that she rarely read or watched something in English.

To illustrate the difference between the western and eastern regions of Turkey, we can say that cities in western Turkey provide richer opportunities for the students in terms of education and social and cultural activities than those in the

eastern section. For example, students in western cities have more and easier access to libraries and through cable TV they can watch TV programs in English. Moreover, they have more opportunities to be in contact with English speaking tourists or visitors.

The purpose of the study was thoroughly explained and the six participants were given an opportunity to raise questions about the study.

Data Collection and Procedure

We used the case study approach in this study so that we could develop an in-depth understanding of Turkish PT's practices and attitudes towards teaching cultural aspects of the target language. The study took place in the first term of the 2006-2007 academic year. At the time of the study, the PTs were being taught how to prepare lesson plans in the 'Special Methods in Teaching English' course, a three-hour per week course taken by all 3rd year students of the teacher education program.

For the purposes of the study, the participants were given a culturally embedded reading text taken from *Open Doors,* a young learner course-book (Whitney, 1995) commonly used in many primary schools in Istanbul. The text was about three festivals; namely, Christmas, Hanukka and Diwali and focused on the way these festivals were celebrated and the time when each took place. The participants were asked to prepare a lesson plan, in the format of pre- during- and post-reading activities for one class hour, as detailed as possible. They were told they were going to teach the unit in real classroom setting.

We carried out the study in the professional development school of the university where we work at. The school is in a suburb of Istanbul. We divided the two seventh grade classes into five, so that every student teacher had a class of 15-20 students. After giving information about our research to the school administration, we arranged a day for the teaching of the PTs. We talked to the teacher of the 7th grade and collected information about the student profile. We also informed the PTs of the day of teaching and gave information about the professional development school. We also told them that they could also go to school themselves and be acquainted with the teacher and class.

After analyzing the lesson plans, we prepared some questions on each lesson plan and had semi-structured interviews with each PT after classroom observation. Each interview began with some opening questions, which were largely biographical, e.g., about their plans for the future careers. We then asked them to define intercultural competence and whether this type of competence was important for language teachers and/or learners or not. The interviews continued with questions about their lessons, e.g., reasons underlying their teaching practices related to the cultural issues given in the text and their attitudes towards teaching cultural issues.

The interviews, 20 minutes to 30 minutes in length, were conducted with each participant and all interviews were audio-taped. The tape-recorded data of each question were analyzed by means of pattern coding as suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994).

Data from the four sources (the lesson plans, classroom observations, the interviews, and background questionnaires) were triangulated to ensure that the data was consistent throughout. Coding was carried out for each participant and themes were drawn from the data. A case study was then written on each participant. The

next stage was to scrutinize the data across the participants to find out commonalties.

IV. Results

The findings of the study will be presented separately for each participant. Then commonalities among the participants will be discussed

Mert: Mert started his lesson by asking the students to list the festivals they knew. Two students coming from different parts of Turkey said Izmit cherry festival and Malatya apricot festival. Another student mentioned our religious festivals. After discussing why people celebrated these festivals in detail, Mert moved on to the festivals in the text. Students had heard about Christmas but did not know why Christian people celebrated it. One student mentioned the Christmas tree and the 'old man with a white beard' bringing gifts to children. Another student said it was not a Christmas tree because Turkish people, though they were muslims, were also buying trees at new year's time. Mert gave some information about Christmas to students and also referred to his own experiences in S. Arabia,

I had a number of American friends when I lived in S. Arabia. They could not celebrate Christmas there because S. Arabia is a muslim country with strict rules. My friends were very sad because they couldn't buy a Christmas tree and have Santa Claus (shows the picture of St. Claus)

While going over the texts, Mert asked students some comprehension questions, yet, he did not add anything to the information given on the other festivals. As homework, he asked the students to collect some information about a festival of a different culture and prepare a poster about it in groups.

When asked the reasons of his teaching practices, Mert stated the following:

I believe that starting with something students are familiar with works better in class. They should then learn about other cultures as such knowledge would provide them with different perspectives. This is also important for their intellectual development.

He further mentioned that his teaching was limited with the information given in the book, as he had only known Christmas well and did not have time to do internet search for the festivals.

Selen: Selen started her lesson with the following questions:

　　　　Have you ever been abroad? If yes, where?

　　　　Do you know any festivals celebrated in other countries?

　　　　Do you know why people celebrate Christmas, Diwali, or Hanukka?

As she could not get any positive answers to any of these questions, she asked the students to read the text and underline the unknown words. She explained these words in English and used them in sentences with the help of the students.

After reading the text and answering the comprehension questions, Selen explained how they celebrated Christmas when she was in Bulgaria. Though they were not Christians, they used to follow a tradition of their neighbors:

On our table there were five dishes without meat, like bean soup, baklava, and a loaf with a coin. You know a loaf of bread with a coin in it. The oldest person in the family, my grandma, split up the bread in several pieces and whoever finds the piece with coin is believed to be happy the whole year. This was our way of celebration. Do you know how other Christians celebrate it in other parts of the world?

Then she explained how people in other parts of the world celebrated it based on her general knowledge. Although in the interview she said that 'knowledge of

different cultures is necessary as this knowledge would make students more aware of their own culture', she did not discuss any Turkish festival as she did not have much knowledge on this topic. Moreover, she did not focus on our religious festivals because "students already knew about these" and would get bored to discuss something which everybody was familiar with. She believed it was important for the students to have information about different cultures for cultural enrichment. She added that she should learn more about these festivals and would bring some pictures to the class in the future.

Esra: Esra started her lesson with the following questions:

What are the festivals of Turkey?

How do people celebrate them?

After discussing some local festivals mentioned by the students, she asked the students to look at the pictures in the text and wanted them to make guesses. Afterwards, she drew a chart about the text on the board and told the students to copy it in their notebooks. While the students read the text silently, they were supposed to underline the unknown words as well as complete the chart with information such as name of the person, his/her country, name of the festival and things people do to celebrate it. She talked about each festival briefly.

Then she asked the students which religious festivals Turkish people celebrated. Students willingly discussed what they did on Seker Bayramı and Kurban Bayramı (two religious festivals), how they celebrated each with their families. As homework, she asked them to work in groups of five and do a project about a festival of their own choice.

Esra said she started the lesson by asking some general questions about the festivals in Turkey as her aim was to make students familiar with the topic. She thought it was very important for the students to be aware of their own culture.

Yağmur: In the pre-reading phase, Yagmur asked the students some questions about the pictures accompanying each passage and wrote some new words and their explanations in English on the board.

Then, she wanted some students to read the text aloud and check if their answers about the pictures were correct. After reading, she asked the students some comprehension questions and completed the lesson by asking students to write a paragraph about their favorite festival.

When asked if the information given in the text was enough for the students to have knowledge about the festivals, she said 'yes' and added that the aim of her lesson was not teaching the students those cultural issues, but to understand the text and learn new words. She did not focus on the cultural issues, as 'studying culture was not very important as long as students understood the meaning of the text and learn the new words'. Yet, she also added that teaching about the culture(s) of the target language might help to make students more intellectual.

Yonca: Yonca started her lesson by asking her students about their favorite festivals, e.g., what they usually did during these festivals, what they wore, etc. Students then read the text silently, found the unknown words, checked their meanings in the dictionary, and wrote them down into their notebook. After reading, she asked them to write a paragraph about their favorite festival.

During the interview, she said, 'as the festivals in the text belonged to different cultures, I thought they would not appeal to Turkish students'. Moreover, she did not give extra information about the festivals, as she did not have sufficient

knowledge. Yonca believed that teaching cultural issues in a language class was not very important, but it might help improve their intellect.

'Intercultural competence' and 'culture teaching' in a foreign language teaching context

During the interviews, the researchers asked the PTs to define intercultural competence and to discuss their opinions on teaching cultural issues in a foreign language context in general. The first participant Mert defined 'intercultural competence' as the 'understanding of cultures of different religions and different nations'. Selen's definition of 'intercultural competence' was similar: 'Intercultural competence is the knowledge of different cultures and their way of lives'. Both Mert and Selen believed that for both a language teacher and student it was very important to have intercultural communicative competence for a more successful language education and that language teaching should involve teaching its culture and she added that teaching culture of the target language would bring authenticity to the language study. Esra, from the western part of Turkey, defined intercultural competence as 'the ability to compare one's own culture with other cultures'. She said intercultural competence was very important for language teachers and students, and that language teachers should encourage their students to know more about other cultures and develop their intercultural competence, for example, by assigning a project work based on research.

Yağmur's definition of 'intercultural competence' was not very clear. She could not give a proper answer and said she was not sure what it meant. She said she guessed it was something about different elements forming the culture. She said in one culture there could be some different cultures and intercultural competence could be something related to it. She said in the same classroom, there might be students from different parts of Turkey, so teachers should be aware of these differences and when possible ask those students to talk about heir own cultures so that others would know more about them. When she was asked about her opinions on teaching about the culture of the target language, she said it might help to make students more intellectual.

Yonca, from a small city of the eastern part of Turkey, defined 'intercultural competence' as 'the ability to be able to communicate in another country', and she said students might need to have it only if they traveled to another country. For teaching cultural issues in a language class, she said it was not very important, but it might help improve the students' intellect.

V. Discussion

Findings of the study revealed that Turkish PTs of English were not so clear about the definition of intercultural competence. Although they all emphasized the importance of teaching culture, their classroom practices did not reflect their beliefs in the most effective way.

Our hypothesis at the beginning of the study was that exposure to foreign cultures would affect a teacher's practices positively. Data collected from the PTs with higher amount of exposure to other cultures have some commonalities. First, they tried to enrich the cultural knowledge of their students referring to their own experiences, which was enjoyed by the students a lot. Moreover, as they had firsthand experience the knowledge they were transmitting was internalized by them. That is, unlike others who had to follow the book line by line, they were teaching in a very confident and relaxed manner. On the other hand, PTs with no

exposure to other cultures seemed to focus on the methodology of their lesson. Rather than seeing themselves as cultural mediators, they were trying to follow the prescribed stages of a lesson in a mechanical way.

As Turkey is facing membership in international markets, cultural enrichment of Turkish students through education should be given high priority. Thus, the findings of the study have the following major implications for language teacher education: To begin with, teacher education programs should provide the prospective teachers with relevant knowledge necessary for international and intercultural learning, as suggested by Edelhoff (1992). Prospective teachers should also be made to read more on culture and language teaching, and asked to reflect on their own culture while discussing the target cultures, and they should be guided on how to use this knowledge in their micro teaching sessions. Moreover, the teacher education programs should offer more opportunities to the prospective teachers to go abroad for education through exchange programs in order to gain and help their future learners to develop an intercultural approach to teaching English. Finally, prospective teachers should be asked to demonstrate their understanding of the intercultural perspective in the classroom setting and help their own students to understand the importance of developing an intercultural perspective when learning a foreign language.

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The Position of Spanglish in a Panhispanic Language Norm

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This paper analyzes the role of Spanglish within the creation of a panhispanic language norm. It is argued that the current development of panhispanicity does not corrode the Spanish language to the extent many purists claim. Although partly profound changes in the lexical, semantic and syntactic structure of US-Spanish can be observed, most of these changes may be seen as enriching, rather than corroding the Spanish language. In addition, the *Real Academia Española* will be shown to carefully control the influx of Spanglish items into an official Spanish language norm. As for the sociolinguistic dimension, a carefully controlled integration of Spanglish items seems to be necessary and justified, since Spanish-English code-switching constitutes an essential part of the bilingual speakers´ identity in the USA.

1. Introduction

Traditionally, a prescriptive norm of the Spanish language has almost exclusively been determined by Spain´s *Real Academia Española* (RAE). Since the 1990s, however, debates have centered on establishing a pluricentric, panhispanic norm that pays more tribute to the varieties of Latin American Spanish. Even the RAE itself has taken a first step into this direction by publishing its *Diccionario panhispánico de dudas* in 2005. This dictionary contains quite a lot of regionalisms from Latin America. However, hardly any attention has been paid to the role US-Hispanics and their language varieties play in the debate. The central questions dealt with in this paper will be: What are the linguistic pros and cons of integrating Spanglish into a panhispanic norm? Which phenomena of Spanglish should be accepted, which ones may be problematic? What would be the socio-cultural consequences of leaving Spanglish aside?

2. Panhispanicity

The concept of panhispanicity implies the establishing of a pluricentric[4] norm for the Spanish language that respects both European Standard Spanish and the American varieties of Spanish. The RAE collaborates with the 21 Spanish language academies of America in order to achieve such a norm. On its homepage, the RAE itself describes the project as follows:

"(...) la norma del español no tiene un eje único (...). Se consideran, pues, plenamente legítimos los diferentes usos de las regiones lingüísticas, con la única condición de que estén generalizados entre los hablantes cultos de su área y no

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[4] A pluricentric language is a language with several standard versions.

supongan una ruptura del sistema en su conjunto, esto es, que ponga en peligro su unidad."

[(...) the Spanish language does not have one single center (...). It is therefore legitimate to use the different varieties of the linguistic regions, as long as they are of common usage among the educated speakers of a respective area and do not constitute a rupture with the system´s unity.]

Although the Spanish language academies work together, in fact, the RAE takes on the leading role in establishing a panhispanic norm, because there is no other language academy with a similar tradition. Thus, the success of panhispanicity will mainly depend on the RAE´s will to loosen its rather strict norms. The following chapters will examine whether it has already begun to do so by integrating Spanglish items into the *Diccionario panhispánico*. Previously, however, a definition of 'Spanglish' becomes necessary.

3. Spanglish

Spanglish — also known as *espanglish*, *ingleñol*, *espan'glés*, *jerga fronteriza* or *Tex Mex* — refers to a wide range of language-contact phenomena that appear primarily in the speech of Hispanics living in the USA, who are constantly exposed to both Spanish and English. These contact phenomena result from close border contact and large bilingual communities all over the USA. However, *Spanglish* is not a linguistic term. Rather, it groups together various linguistic phenomena such as code mixing, code switching or borrowing. As a result, many phenomena labelled *Spanglish* are not comparable to each other. For example, the speech of a fully bilingual Spanish and English speaker in the U.S., who spontaneously switches between Spanish and English in mid-sentence, is fundamentally different from a monolingual Puerto Rican Spanish speaker whose native vocabulary contains a number of English words and expressions.

4. English Loanwords in US-Spanish

Two types of language contact phenomena subsumed in the term "Spanglish" shall be analyzed here: single loanwords and (intrasentential) code-switching. Both phenomena will be analyzed with regard to their frequency, function and socio-cultural necessity in the USA.

4.1. Types of English loanwords

The Spanish of Hispanics living in the USA is characterized by an extensive employment of anglicisms, such as the term *pichar* (from English *to pitch* / Standard Spanish *lanzar*). The *Diccionario Panhispánico de Dudas* (2005) states:

"Del verbo inglés *to pitch* (´lanzar`), se ha creado en el español americano el verbo *pichar*, que significa, en el béisbol, `tirar la pelota el lanzador al bateador`."

[*From the English word 'to pitch', which in baseball means to throw the ball from the pitcher to the catcher, American Spanish has created the verb 'pichar'.*]

Borrowings such as 'pichar' in baseball seem to be necessary, because the respective term refers to a cultural aspect typically associated with the USA. Another borrowing which lacks a corresponding term in Spanish is *esnob* (= snob):

"Adaptación gráfica de la voz inglesa *snob,* '[persona] que imita con afectación las maneras, opiniones, etc., de aquellos a quienes considera distinguidos'."

[Graphic adaptation of the English word 'snob', which denotes a person who imitates the manners (...) of a person he or she considers 'distinguished'.]

Apart from such 'necessary' borrowings, there are items which do exist in Spanish, but have different meanings there compared to Spanglish: 1) Terms which exist both in Spanish and Spanglish, but have gained a different meaning in Spanglish, due to the influence of English, e.g. *vacunar* (Standard Spanish *to vaccinate*, English *to vacuum*) or *carpeta* (Standard Spanish *folder*, English *carpet*). 2) New Spanglish terms directly borrowed from English, which compete with a corresponding term in Spanish, as in the case of *rentar* (Standard Spanish *alquilar*, English *to rent*) or *parquear* (Standard Spanish *estacionar*, English *to park*). Finally, English discourse markers such as *so* (`No sé, *so* no lo puedo decir`) are often adopted. - The various types of borrowing just presented raise two central questions: 1.) How widespread are these English loanwords in US-Spanish?, 2.) What kind of anglicisms are included in the *Diccionario panhispánico*, and what are the criteria for determining whether a single loanword is acceptable or not?

4.2. The spread of English loanwords

According to Espinosa (1975:102f.), of the entire vocabulary borrowed from English, only perhaps 50 % is of general use among the Spanish-speaking inhabitants:

"The mechanic who works in the railroad shops uses continually und unsconsciously such words as: šopes > shops, estraique > strike, boila > boiler (...), words absolutely unknown to the New Mexican wood-seller or inhabitant of the mountain districts."

However, it has to be noted that the study by Espinosa dates back to the 1970s. In the meantime, terms such as the ones just mentioned have spread quickly, and once a word is adopted, it usually becomes phonetically Spanish and thus fully integrated into US-Spanish. Even the media make frequent use of anglicisms, because Spanish newspapers in the US usually publish American news taken from the English newspapers. As a result, there is often a direct linguistic influence of English on the Spanish texts, e.g. in constructions such as "si gusta = if you please" or "haga fuerza venir = make an effort to come"[5]. Considering both people´s widespread unawareness of anglicisms and their frequent usage in the media, there is no denying the fact that English loanwords have become fully integrated into the vocabulary of a whole nation, a fact that certainly strenghthens the position of Spanglish. The following chapter will look at how open-minded the RAE has already become towards the official acceptance of anglicisms.

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[5] Espinosa (1975:105)

4.3. Criteria for the integration of loanwords into the Diccionario panhispánico

What are the criteria for accepting English loanwords for inclusion in the *Diccionario panhispánico de dudas?* Generally not accepted are anglicisms with an equivalent in Spanish, as is the case with *mall* [Spanish: *centro comercial*]:

"(...) La existencia de estos equivalentes españoles hace innecesario el uso de las expresiones inglesas *shopping center* o *shopping mall,* así como el de sus abreviaciones *shopping* y *mall.*"

[*The existence of Spanish equivalents makes it unnecessary to use the English terms 'shopping center' or 'shopping mall' (...).*]

However, it is striking then that a term such as *picher* is accepted, although there is also the corresponding Spanish term 'lanzador'. The dictionary explains the term *picher* as follows:

"Adaptación gráfica de la voz inglesa *pitcher*, usada con frecuencia en el español americano."

[*Graphic adaptation of the English term 'pitcher', frequently used in American Spanish*.]

Concerning the term *básquetbol*, the dictionary advises the reader that

"se desaconsejan, por su menor uso, las grafías semiadaptadas básketbol y básket."

[*It is advised against the half-adapted versions 'básketbol' and 'básket', due to their rare usage*.];

and under the anglicism *fútbol* the dictionary states

"(...) existe también el calco *balompié*, que no ha gozado de mucha aceptación entre los hablantes y suele emplearse casi siempre por razones estilísticas (...)."

[*There is also the loanword 'balompié', which is not well accepted among the speakers and is mostly used for stylistic purposes*.]

As a result, it seems to be the frequency of usage that primarily determines the acceptability of a given term. However, the frequency of usage is favored by two points: a) the lack of a corresponding Spanish term with the same denotation, as in the case of *lonche*:

"La voz inglesa *lunch,* que se emplea ocasionalmente en español con el sentido de 'comida ligera que se toma al mediodía o a media tarde', se ha adaptado en varios países americanos en la forma *lonche: «Julius tomaba su lonche»* (*Mundo* 1970)."

[*Various American countries have adopted the English term 'lunch', sometimes used in Spanish for "a light meal served around midday or in the afternoon", as 'lonche': (...)*],

and b) complex Spanish equivalents. A good example is the anglicism *fast food*, since the English term corresponds to two different Spanish ones here:

"Expresión inglesa que se usa con los sentidos de 'comida que se prepara en muy poco tiempo' y 'establecimiento donde se sirve este tipo de comida'. En español debe sustituirse por el calco *comida rápida,* en el primer caso, y por *restaurante de comida rápida,* en el segundo."

[*English expression for both 'a quickly prepared meal' (Spanish: comida rápida) and 'the establishment in which it is served' (Spanish: restaurante de comida rápida).*]

Currently not accepted by the RAE are terms which already exist in Spanish, but have acquired new meanings under the influence of English (carpeta, vacunar etc.), as well as direct borrowings from English, such as *parquear*, which compete with a traditional Spanish term (in this case *estacionar*). As a result, although there seems to be a tremendous influx of anglicisms in the *Diccionario panhispánico* at first sight, a closer look shows that their acceptance is limited to those borrowings which lack an equivalent in Spanish, either because the English term implies a specific denotation deviating from the more general Spanish term (*lonche* / comida)[6] or because the Spanish terminology is more complex (*fast food* / comida rápida, restaurante de comida rápida). The current criteria for accepting English loanwords thus seem to be primarily functional ones. Loanwords can both differentiate and simplify, which signalizes a profound change, but not necessarily a corrosion of the Spanish lexicon. The next chapter will analyze if and where these lexical changes may constitute a danger of corrosion in the fields of semantics and syntax.

5. Corrosion of US-Spanish through Code-Switching?
5.1. The syntax and semantics of Spanglish

A common argument against the spread of Spanglish is that it corrodes the structure and typical features of Spanish. Is this fear justified? – The most common changes occur, as is known, on the lexical level. Many linguists believe that the lexicon constitutes the outer edge of the linguistic system and that therefore the spread of anglicisms in the lexicon is unproblematic. However, Morales (2001:24) has shown that lexical items and collocations also influence the syntactic structure of a language, e.g. a literal translation from English such as *ignorar a alguien* [= to ignore somebody] implies that the verb *ignorar* can be used with a human object. Even more decisive are the fundamental changes in the semantic organization of word fields, since the Spanish and the new English term are likely to develop divergent denotations and / or connotations, as in the case of *worker / trabajador*: In Puerto Rico, 'worker' always implies a positive connotation among friends ('a good worker'), whereas 'trabajador' is a neutral term (Morales 2001:13). Thus, Morales is right in claiming that the lexicon does affect both the syntax and semantics of a language.

Serious problems may arise from the adoption of English functional words, such as the discourse marker *so* ('No sé, *so* no te lo puedo decir'): Lipski (2005:11) suggests that English *so* has first entered bilingual speech in phrase- peripheral position, i.e. as a discourse marker, but now has begun to be also used in phrase-

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[6] For more examples of this kind see Sánchez (1983:124ff.)

internal contexts. The grammaticalization of discourse markers and thus their spread from outer to inner positions within a sentence is typical.[7] As a result, it is not only the lexemes, but also and particularly the functional words that can profoundly alter the structure of a language. – However, there is also another point to it: In its range of meanings, English *so* is virtually identical to Spanish items such as *pues, así que, de manera que, de modo que* etc., and thus has the advantage of being a short monosyllabic form with a wide range of uses.[8] Now does this mean that the Spanish language may lose its richness in conjunctions and functional words? Indeed, lexical simplification occurs frequently and is even not restricted to functional words: The Spanglish verb *chequear* – derived from the English 'to check' – replaces both the Spanish verbs *verificar* (to verify) and *comprobar* (to ascertain). Likewise, the Spanglish word *boiler* denotes both a 'water heater' and a 'boiler', while Standard Spanish makes a difference between a *calentador de agua* and a *hervidor*. In sum, there is no uncontrolled 'explosion' of anglicisms in the *Diccionario panhispánico*, and most of the semantic and syntactic changes mentioned do not necessarily have to be regarded as corrosive. However, the tendency towards simplifying the vocabulary of US-Spanish seems to be stronger than may be suspected at first sight, and it is alarming that the RAE tends to accept precisely such loanwords.

5.2. Types and functions of code-switching

Since loanwords only constitute one part of Spanglish, the next step is to look at the possibilities and impediments of code-switching. Generally speaking, code-switching can occur in:

> full sentences: *Pa, ¿me va(-s) (a) comprar un jugo? It co´25 cents.*
> independent clauses: *You know how to swim but no te tapa.*
> subordinate clauses: *Because yo lo dije.*
> prepositional phrases: *I´m going with her a la esquina.*
or personal pronouns: *Oye, you!*   [Zentella 1997:118f.]

Although (intrasentential) code-switching is claimed to only occur in the speech of native bilingual speakers in densely bilingual areas, this does not weaken the power and spread of Spanglish, since the densely bilingual areas are quickly expanding, and therefore the use of code-switching is also likely to increase. Traditionally, code-switching has been regarded as reflecting a lack of competence in the two languages involved. Will this fact constitute an obstacle to the official acceptance of Spanglish in society? - Regarding the speakers´ motivation to use code-switching, recent studies have shown that functional code-switching occurs due to diverse strategic reasons such as:

> topic shift: "Vamos a preguntarle. *It´s raining*!"
> quotations: "El me dijo, '*Call the police*!', pero yo dije (...)."
> declarative / question shift: "I wiggle my fingers, *¿qué más*?"
> 'checking', to seek the listeners´ opinion or approval, usually in the form of a tag:
    "¿Porque estamos en huelga de gasolina, *right*?"

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[7] For a detailed analysis of the grammaticalization of English discourse markers see, e.g., Traugott (1997)
[8] Lipski (2005:10)

> role shift: "Mi nombre es Lourdes. *Now we´re going to my sister*."
> clarification: "¿No me crees? *¿You don´t believe me?*" [9]

The strategy of 'clarification' seems to be of particular importance for bilingual speakers, because what monolinguals hope to accomplish by repeating their utterances louder and / or slower, they can accomplish by switching languages. Besides, speakers usually seem to know most of their utterances in both languages, as the following two examples illustrate:

(1) "Her suegros are from Tennessee y los van a traer y quieren llevarlos a una *corrida de toros*. So (...) she wrote to me yesterday and asked me to find out if there is a *bullfight*." [Valdés 1982:219]

(2) "And he *was laughing* cause he saw me coming in. *Se estaba riendo* de mí, you know." [Valdés 1982:222]

Thus, code-switching is by no means an expression of insufficient language skills in English and / or Spanish. Rather, it seems to constitute an essential part of the bilingual and bicultural speaker´s personality. As a result, it cannot be regarded as corroding the Spanish language, but is rather another argument for promoting Spanglish as an officially recognized language.

6. Conclusion

The goal of this paper was to analyze to what extent Spanglish has been and will be accepted for incorporation into a panhispanic language norm. First of all, three different types of English loanwords incorporated into US-Spanish were discovered: (1) terms that enrich the Spanish vocabulary (e.g. *esnob*), (2) terms that alter their Standard Spanish meaning under the influence of English (e.g. *carpeta* > folder / carpet) and (3) direct translations from English, with a corresponding Standard Spanish term existing (e.g. *parquear* > to park / estacionar).

So far, the *Diccionario panhispánico* has almost exclusively accepted members of the first group, which hints at a careful selection of anglicisms. However, frequency has also turned out to be a decisive characteristic, and therefore, with the expected further spread of Spanglish, the RAE will have to make careful, difficult decisions as to what to accept. While it has been shown that most of the structural changes provoked by borrowing do not have to be regarded as corrosive, certain tendencies such as a systematic reduction of functional words do have a negative effect on (US-) Spanish if they are admitted excessively. Anyway, a look at the functions of code-switching has revealed the socio-cultural importance of Spanglish in the USA. As a result, the question is no longer *if*, but rather *how* to integrate Spanglish into a concept of panhispanicity.

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[9] Examples taken from Zentella (1997:94 ff.)

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Language Contact and Language Change: Evolution or Putrefy?

(A Cross-Cultural view of Multilingualism)

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The present study aims to consider the cultural and linguistic influence of official standard Persian on non-official languages, Kurdish and Turkish, across the Western Azerbaijan province. Kurdish is a branch of the Indo-European language family having more than 35 million native speakers the majority of whom reside in the Middle East. Turkish is a member of the Altaic language family and as a subgroup of Oghuz languages has some dialects as Azeri and Gagauz. Research conducted in this topic area investigates both regional social dialects. The causes of language change are double-layered: Linguistics and non-Linguistics. The linguistic factors have three main aspects phonological, lexical, and syntactical aspects, in which obvious changes have been observed.

1. Introduction

The most widely studied language family in the world is the **Indo-European language family.** The Iranian languages are a branch of the Indo-European language family. With the Indo-Aryan language they form the Indo-Iranian language group. Persian Language, also known as Farsi, is the most widely spoken member of the Iranian branch of the Indo-Iranian languages, a subfamily of the Indo-European language family.

Kurdish is an Indo-Iranian language spoken by the Kurdish people in Turkey, Syria, Iraq, and Iran (Kalbasi 1982; Mackenzie, 1959; Minorsky, 2003; Oransky 2000; Sadeghi 2002 cited in Asadpour, Pahlavannijad 2007). There are more speakers in Armenia, Azerbaijan, and Russia. There are actually three variations of Kurdish, which are not always mutually intelligible: Northern, spoken in Turkey, Armenia, Azerbaijan, and Syria; Central, spoken in Iraq; and Southern, spoken in Iran—although there are significant overlaps (Pahlvannijad, Asadpour 2007).

Azeri was spoken in Azerbaijan at least up to the 17th century, with the number of speakers decreasing since the 11th century due to the Turkification of the area (Pahlavannijad, Asadpour 2007). Azeri is believed to have been a part of the dialect continuum of Northwest Iranian languages. As such, its ancestor would be close to the earliest attested Northwest Iranian languages, Median. As the Northwestern and Southwestern Iranian languages had not yet developed very far

apart by the first millennium AD, Azeri would also still have been very similar to classical Middle Persian (also called Pahlavi).

2. The aims of research

The aim of the research is to analyze the effect of globalization and Standard Persian on phonological, lexical, and morpho-syntactic variations, as well as dialectal change, linguistic and non-linguistic factors that may promote or inhibit changes in non-official languages and to reflect their mutual interaction. Moreover this study wants to specify language diversity, to describe documents, texts and genetic or areal linguistics that affect each other. The effects of these characteristics on the development and expansion of languages will face language change and in other side, cultural changes empirical or hypothetical. (Aitchison Jean 2001: 201)

Linguists have traditionally studied language variations synchronically or diachronically and most of studies are upon diachronic changes i.e. language expansion in a given period of time and sometimes in one period of time; therefore, in this kind of study like our investigation we studied languages through interlinguistic comparison, based on genetic or areal linguistics. In the areal linguistics studies in this paper we scrutinized the effects of standard languages such as Persian upon other non-official languages, because tendencies of language changes shared by adjacent dialects of different languages which are neighbor (Thomason 2001).

3. Research methodology

Research design was based on a questionnaire which the speakers were asked to complete. The questions included linguistic factors as phonological, lexical, and morpho-syntactic variations. Moreover, there are non-linguistic factors which asked orally by the researchers. The questionnaire contained about 135 linguistic items and a number of social ones. The program is mainly directed at empirical study of variation, which includes both qualitative and quantitative analysis. Our research also tests the applicability and validity of modern linguistics methodologies in the field of diachronic study. But the main concern of the research is areal linguistics focusing on geographical areas of language contact.

Researchers have adopted linguistic analysis, text linguistics and discourse analysis, as well as pragmatic method. Non-literary prose, especially instructive and scholarly writings, are of foremost interest for collecting the materials, but, as far as the methods are concerned, there are some points in common with the study of literature for the materials as well.

4- Significance and Statement of the Problems

Many of us are aware of the issue of 'biodiversity' in biology. In nature, ecosystems host a wide variety of plants, animals, and microbes which rely on each other in complex ways to survive. Because of human activity, many species are now becoming endangered or extinct. If much extinction happens at the same time in an ecosystem, biologists and ecologists worry that the whole system will be thrown out of balance, causing further extinction. At the moment, so many species are becoming endangered that biologists talk of a 'biodiversity crisis' in progress. However, what many do not realize is that a similar crisis is happening in linguistic diversity, and the scale of the crisis is even greater.

Language is common to all humans; we seem to be "hard-wired" for it. Many social scientists and philosophers say it's this ability to use language symbolically that makes us "human." For decades, linguists' main task was to track and record languages. And they paid special attention to features such as: the sounds of speech and how different sounds function in a language, the way of children acquires language capabilities, social and cultural aspects which are in language use, variation and change. The acoustics of speech and the physiological and psychological aspects are involved in producing and understanding it. This special report touches on nearly all of these areas by answering questions such as: How does language develop and change? Can the language apparatus be "seen" in the brain? Does it matter if a language disappears? How can sign language help us to understand languages in general? Could we imagine a language that does not change? Is this even a reasonable question? Instead, shall we not ask ourselves if we could imagine a people that never change its language? I shall come back to this alternative later. Answers to these and other questions have implications for neuroscience, psychology, sociology, biology and more.

5. Language change as a process

Language as a social variation is an independent phenomenon, it never exposed to be changed and permutated quickly. Particular to this hypostatization is the fact that even, any utterance implication on definite meaning is based on arbitrariness and agreement which appeared between a speech community and for discovering the purpose of this agreement, it shouldn't change more; otherwise, familiar people will be stranger to each other and never attain their intention. Furthermore, language is not only a living thing and tool but also it is a vast system of social habits and conventions, inherited from our forebears, and showing every sign of being an artifact rather than an organic growth. As a living being, language is always changing, i.e. like other social institutions it is expected to develop and evolve, so it can't be ever stable and unchangeable.

Moving back through the time, we consider languages nobler. Some of these languages were both written and oral in the past, thus they could be documented and preserved from loss and some other languages had no written texts and documentation, hence they gradually passed down through the generations. The shortage of documentation in extinct languages makes the study of these languages difficult because linguistic changes of languages are different and should always be documented; for example, in Iran Persian is one of those languages which was written and oral and we have lots of documentations and texts, consequently it could be preserve from dying out and we can study the etymology of this language easily, Turkish (Azeri) also is both written and oral, subsequently it can be investigated diachronically while it is one of endangered languages. Among these languages Kurdish is on death row.

6. Causes of language change

Languages change for a variety of reasons. Before a language can change, speakers must adopt new words, sentence structures and sounds, spread them through the community and transmit them to the next generation. In relation with social, behavioral and economical sciences—children serve as agents for language change when, in the process of learning the language of previous generations, they internalize it differently and propagate a different variation of that language, e.g.

during the research across the province after the native speakers answered the questionnaire, they were interviewed and answered some questions, one of the questions was; why their children's language, and culture changed? The answer was clear. In these societies especially in central part of province Uremia, Mahâbâd, Naqada, Miyândoâb, parents decide not to pass on their own language to their children because Persian is the overwhelming culture in Iran and Persian language is the prestigious language. When their children learn and speak Persian, they exploit deep-seated fears about non-assimilation among the Persian people in society, academic places, schools, companies, etc. furthermore; in this community they feel that they would be better off economically, politically or socially if they spoke a different language like Standard Persian. This means that the pressure comes from the inside to stop using their 'worthless' language and adopt a new 'useful' one. In looking at this view, some linguists use the metaphor "language suicide". (Liamas, et al. 2007: 201)

7. The factors involved in Dynamicallity and metamorphosis of languages

Before explaining these characteristics, we should mention that the causes of language change are double-layered. On the top layer, there are non-linguistic triggers. These set off or accelerate deeper causes, hidden tendencies which may be lying dormant within the language and linguistic factors, and the second layer is linguistic factors.

7.1 Social and economical factors

The world is continually changing and along with this change, so are languages. Any transition in society makes an effect on the language and culture of that society. Some vocabularies loss their sense, some will be abolished or because of necessity of new words, new lexical terms will be created or old vocabularies will compound with each other and new senses and words will appear. The words in any language undergo some changes; the most important is semantic changes. Semantic change deals with changes in meaning understood to be changes in the concepts associated with a word, and have nothing to do with change in phonetic form of a word (Campbell 2004: 254). When these changes take place new words will arise and will be used as part of language, semantic, and its grammar and hereafter speakers use these new words predominantly; subsequently, when we study an old written text we can distinguish words and terms but we will have problem in understanding the texts and we think it is not used in its place.

In this part of study, we aim to examine terms of address in Kurdish and Azeri as a by-product of history. Terms are closely related to different periods of time and different geographical places. Traditional Kurdish and Azeri societies had a social structure that was predominantly hierarchal, feudal and elitist. In this structure, the non-reciprocal power governed the address of behavior and power was distributed by birthright. **âqâ** or **"first name + âqâ"** was used to address those noblemen who had a lot of land and employed others to work on their land. They were also the government's representative in towns and cities. In other words, **âqâ** had connotations of class, wealth and status. In the Kurdistan province, they were addressed **bag** and in the cities like Mahabad, Boukan, Sardasht, etc, people used **xân** to refer to their landlord. The headman of a village was **čwexâ**. The **čwexâ** were

intermediotors between the **âqâ** and the lay people. The power of **čwexâ** was less than that of an **âqâ** and he was also in lower class standing. The people who worked on the **âqâ**'s lands and home referred to themselves as **nokar** "peasant". Because in such a society status was fixed, every person had enduring rights and obligations of address and there was little mobility in the address system. Before the Islamic Revolution, there were a few educated people in Kurdistan and education was restricted to people of higher social class and the noble. Address forms like **mirzâ** and **mâmostâ** were linguistic badges of elitism. There was also true about Azeri. In north and central regions of Western Azerbaijan province some terms were used such as **bag, âqâ, mirza, arbâb, xân** and their circumstances were the same as Kurdish, but all of these address terms appeared in Azeri first and then transferred into Kurdish and even Persian.

With the Islamic revolution, the Kurdish and Azeri societies like other societies in Iran changed quickly. These changes were tangible in every aspect of life, even in using language. The Islamic Revolution had an idea that all people are equal and there is no superiority of one person over another, and in the cornerstone of this belief, solidarity semantics developed. Solidarity is reciprocal and has grown with social mobility and equalitarian ideology. It is believed that the approval of agrarian reform changed the Iranian social structure, but it did not affect the Kurdish and Azeri societies. When the Islamic Revolution reached victory and class distinctions were abolished, **first name + âqâ** was replaced with **âqâye + last name** as a polite form. **Bag** and **čwexâ** were eradicated. **xân** is now used with first name as a title of respect for addressing men and women. **mirzâ** is now only used to address old people in villages and towns who are nearly literate. In a dynamic society, solidarity semantics tends to govern the address behavior, while in a static society, power semantics is the prevailing rule. Regarding the Kurdish and Azeri societies, with the change of social structure, solidarity semantics has priority over power semantics and this confirms Brown and Gilman's (1960) prediction with regard to overcoming solidarity over power.

7.2 Religious and cultural factors

Religion is one of the dominant factors in language change. In any society sacristans and religionists distinguish their personal distance in language use and interpersonal communications. Any religion has its own culture, and customs, and terminology. Before Islam come to this province, the people had different creeds, like Zoroastrian, and they used diverse religious terms as **Ahorâmazdâ** (God). After Islam Zoroastrian's Terms changed into Arabic word, e.g. Persian used **Allah**, and **Xodâ** instead of **Ahorâmazdâ** then Kurdish borrowed **Allah** without any changes but **Xodâ** with some phonological changes as **(Xudâ)**, some other terms which are changed in Persian, Kurdish, and Azeri are as follows: **Axlâqe nik** (well-behavior), **pendâre nik** (well-reflection), **goftâre nik** (well-speech) are other words which changed mainly. These terms replaced with phrases such as **amre be ma?ruf and nahy az monkar** (Arabic) (calling people to goodness and probation of what is not good). Persian used these phrases with some changes in vowels **(amre be ma?ruf and nahy az monkar)** then the same entered Kurdish and Azeri. Some new words like (**salât** (Arabic word), **namâz** (Persian)) (prayer) appeared in Persian and then entered Kurdish and Azeri with some phonetic changes like **namâz** (Persian → **nwež** (Kurdish), **namâz** (Azeri); **ruze** (Persian) → **rožu** (Kurdish), **ruze** (Azeri); and lots of other Arabic words which did not exist in Persian, Kurdish and Azeri

before Islam came to Iran. In the present time most of the Legal books, social rights, political rights, etc. are using Arabic and Islamic words. All three languages are affected by Islamic words and vice-versa, and Kurdish and Azeri are also impressed by the force of Persian (See table 1).

Table 1. Some religious and cultural terms borrowed from Persian

English Meaning	Persian	Kurdish	Azeri
general amnesty	?af va baxšudegi	?afo baxšudegi	?af va baxšudegi
word	kalame	Kalmia	čalima
pencil	qalam	Qalam	galam

8. Linguistic factors
8.1 Lexical change

Vocabulary can change quickly as new words are borrowed from other languages, or as words get combined or shortened (See table 2 and 3).

Table 2. Some Lexical changes; borrowed words from Persian into Kurdish

Borrowed words in Kurdish	Kurdish Native Word	Persian Word	English Meaning
Fasl	warz	fasl	season
Târix	mēžū	târix	history
Šumâl	bâkūr	šomâl	north
Nisbat	rēža	nesbat	relation

Table 3. Some borrowed words from Persian into Kurdish, and Turkish (Azeri)

Kurdish	Azeri	Persian Word	English Meaning
?azola	?aḍale	?azole	muscle
moqâvala, ?aqd	mukâvele, ?aqd	moqâvele, ?aqd	contract
?âmil	?âmil	?âmel	factor
bâriz	bâriz	bârez	obvious

For example:
Common trait of suffixes like
1. (-dâ, -de) (in-into)
   ēv**dâ** (Azeri) → mâl**da**/mâl**dâ** (Kurdish, Kurmânji) (at home)
2. (-ĉī) (owner)
   devaĉī (Turkish) → devaĉī (Kurdish, Kurmânji) (person who care camel)
These are common between Azeri and Kurdish, while the original suffixes in Kurdish are (-wân, -qâl). Persian borrowed these suffixes too, despite the fact that

the native equivalent in Persian is (-bân). In Persian also (-čī) is borrowed from Turkish in words like (šekârčī) (hunter).

Other common features between Turkish and Kurdish are consonants and vowels like /o/ and /ē/ which are transferred from Turkish into Kurdish (Kurmânji), for instance, (čol) (desert), (bēlča) (shovel), (bēl) (back).

/a/ is another phonological feature which is common between Azeri and Kurdish and it is used at the end of words while in Persian /e/ is used (See table 4, and 5).

Table 4. Some borrowed words from Persian into Kurdish, and Turkish (Azeri)

Turkish (Azeri)	Kurdish	Persian	English Meaning
parda	parda	parde	curtain
?âyena	)Sorani(?âwena)،Kurmanji(?âyina	?âyine	mirror

Table 5

Some words which are transferred into Kurdish from Turkish (Azeri)

Kurmânji	Azeri	English
karpēč	karpēč	brick
âluča	âlčâ	plum
tâneš	tâneš	known

The more palpable changes in all dialects of Kurdish (Sorâni, Kurmânji, Shekaki,…) that we can exemplify are names of months, which are totally modified, and original forms are not used in present time.

1. (nosân, xâkalewa, âxalewa, nauroz) are names which are used for (April), but the new word (farvardin) is borrowed from Persian and is entered Kurdish with some phonological changes like (farwardin).

2. (bânamar, bâzbarân, gulân) (May), (?ordibehešt) is (Persian), new word (?urdibehešt) (Kurdish).

8.2 Phonological changes

Changes in sound are somewhat harder to document. But the already done deliberations shows that most of phonological changes in these languages, especially Kurdish ensued. Analyzing old texts and interviewing with old peoples demonstrated that before Islam there were no laryngeal or hard phonemes while after Islam came to these regions Kurdish took more effect than Azeri and it borrowed some Arabic laryngeal consonants such as /ħ/, /q./ and these work as allophones not phonemes.

In present time, because of the power of Persian these allophones are to be disappeared and the effects are even greater to some extent. Some phonemes such as /h/, /q/ are replaced with /ħ/, /q./. In some strategic cities like Mahâbâd, Uremia,

Naqade, Ošnaviye residents used new phonemes /h/, /q/ and other cities followed them. Also inside these vernaculars people modify some phonemes like /w/, /f/, / ł / to phonemes such as /v/, /r/, /l/. Changes of these three consonants are because of the influence of Persian which is the standard and prestigious language in the country and especially for the inhabitant of this province.

When someone uses the phonemes /w/, /f/, / ł / others make fun of him. This condition is prevalent in new generations. Particularly among ladies, the changes are greater. In Kurdish (Sorâni dialect) there are about 11 vowels (long and simple) and they were reduced to 6 vowels like Persian and all long vowels omitted.

8.3 Syntactic changes

In this part we exemplified some data both in Kurdish and Azeri which changed syntactically.

There are many examples left because of some limitations like the format and size of article.

In Kurdish Sorâni the negative structure of a sentence was as tables 6 and 7:

Table 6.The past and present structure of negative form in Kurdish

Past structure	Present structure	Persian equivalent
batamâni bei?	nâthawe bey?	nemixâhi biyâyi?
Lit. do want not you come?	Lit. not do you want come?	Lit. not do you want come you?
Do not want to come?	Do not want to come?	Do not want to come?

In this sentence negative marker appeared after the verb while in present time it analogized with Persian structure

Table 7. The past and present structure of ergative structure in Kurdish

Past structure	Present structure	Persian equivalent
/wân nân čəkir/	/wân nân čəkirin/	(ʔânhâ nân dorost kardand
Lit. They bread baked.	Lit. they bread baked (pl.)	Lit. they bread baked (pl.)
They baked the bread.	They baked (pl.) the bread.	They baked (pl.) the bread.

Note: The verb /čəkir/ (baking) was the same for all pronouns (singular and plural) but nowadays it is modified and is altered when different pronouns are used like Persian. Also the verb (čəkirin) changed itself into Persian word (dapazen) which is analogized of Persian word (poxtan).

In sorâni there are some traces of ergativity too, but these structures are also passed down over the time and Persian structures are substituted. In all of these sentences there are agreements between object and verb but based on the effect of Persian they analogized and new structures replaced them. In Azeri syntactic

structures are not changed apparently. Just some Persian words are replaced with native vocabularies and sometimes Azeri structures are expressed with Persian words. Like: (o gede bâqâ) (he went garden) (he went to the garden). This native structure is now expressed like Persian structure (?u be bâq raft) (o bâqâ gede). The verb and the object are exchanged.

9. Conclusion

As "globalization" increases, so does the loss of human languages. People find it easier to conduct business and communicate with those outside their own culture. Children are not being educated in languages spoken by a limited number of people. As fewer people use local languages; therefore, these languages gradually die out. At the moment, linguists believe, around 6000 languages are spoken around the world and the foundation for Endangered languages estimates that half the world's languages are moribund, which means that they are no longer being passed on to younger generations. (Liamas, et al. 2007: 199)

We scrutinized lots of grounds, but as a summery we can point the follows:

- The enormous variety of these languages represents a vast, largely unmapped terrain on which linguists, cognitive scientists and philosophers can chart the full *capabilities—and limits—of the human mind*.
- Each endangered language embodies *unique local knowledge* of the cultures and natural systems in the region in which it is spoken.
- These languages are among our few sources of evidence for *understanding human history*.

There is conformity between linguists about some points about language changes which are as follows:

1. The universal features among languages are the only aspects that change never.
2. Revolutionizing in languages is in different direction not in amelioration or deterioration.
3. Language revolution from one generation to the next is universal, even if a standard variant exert its conservative influence on these languages.
4. Language revolution can reflect the impact of standard variant on non-standard variants or vice versa.
5. Language revolution takes place for a variety of reasons, e.g. sociolinguistics causes (like influence on variant on another, may be communication necessitates change, or schools and language planning interfere), and psycholinguistics grounds for instance misunderstanding in speech community and so on.

Shortly, the loss of languages is disheartening. For linguists, the loss of a language is a loss for science. In the same way that biologists hate to lose an animal or plant species, linguists hate to lose languages. Like all scientific disciplines, linguistics works by formulating hypotheses and then testing them against the available evidence. In this way, linguists try to work out what is or is not a possible structure or system for human language, and this in turn has important consequences for what we know about the human brain and human societies. In many cases, endangered languages show us the possible 'limits' of language. Each language contains a sound system, words, and rules for putting words together, but it is also a

keystone of cultural identity. Languages are where we store our names, jokes, puns, stories, songs, myths, and information about the plants, animals and land around us. Language also offers a glimpse into the world view of the people who speak it. The statistics of language death are certainly depressing and we should revitalize of endangered languages and reversing language shift and moreover the study of endangered languages has implications for cognitive science for the reason that languages help illuminate how the brain functions and how we learn. Based on the gathered data, it is also concluded that the structure of Kurdish and Turkish languages are for the most part influenced by Standard Persian.

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Morphology of Persian Sign Language

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This paper is concerned with the morphology of Persian sign language. It attempts to reveal the word formation rules within the Movement-Hold framework, (Liddell and Johnson, 1989), and structural linguistics. The morphemes are either bound or free. Bound morphemes include plural morpheme, comparative and superlative morphemes, and collective morpheme, whereas free morphemes comprise negative morpheme, place morpheme, and person morpheme. The paper also refers to certain other morphological processes and considers such concepts as antonymy and polysemy, bringing in different ways of sign development such as borrowing and manual alphabet. Finally, it concludes with some exceptional cases.

1. Introduction

Sign languages have now evolved into growingly efficient means of communication among people with hearing and/or speech impairment. Every sign language, with its specific signs deeply rooted in a given culture and its conventions, is capable of satisfying the communicative needs of the users. Furthermore, it makes the expression of feelings and emotions possible and helps the user to establish affective and emotional relationships with others. Persian sign language (PSL), as an example, demonstrates all these capabilities by means of 3000 different signs. What the present study is concerned with is the morphology of PSL, that is, it attempts to show how different "words" are formed in this language and what kind of rules they are governed by.

2. Morpheme

The signs used in PSL are mostly made up of two parts and a few of them consist of three parts. Compared to the spoken language, these parts can be considered as syllables. These syllables have different structures. They may be made up of one or more segments. Furthermore, a syllable may be meaningful by itself and form a morpheme, the smallest meaningful unit that cannot be further analyzed without any meaning loss. Or it may not carry any meaning by itself but combine with other syllables to form meaningful units. As an example, consider the sign for [olæmpik] (Olympics) in Fig. 1 (A). This sign consists of two parts (syllables). Each part, within the Movement-Hold framework, (Liddell and Johnson, 1989), has the structure H (hold) with neither part carrying a meaning. However, the sign for [AsyAbAn] (miller) in Fig. 1 (B) which also consists of two parts has a meaningful

second element. This part is a morpheme meaning "one who …" and can be found in other combinations as well (see Section 3.2.3).
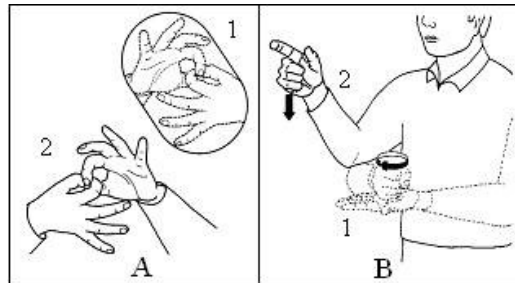

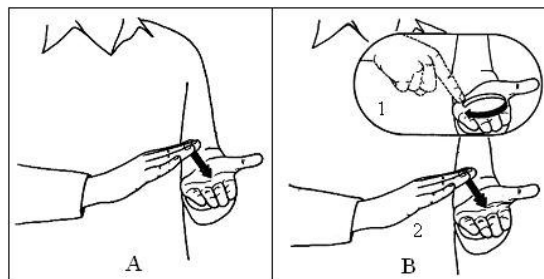Figure 1. Signs for Olympics (A) and miller (B)

Figure 2. Cutlet (A) and wimpy (B) compared

Thus, by comparing different signs, we can identify the morphemes, and find out about the morphology of the sign language. For instance, consider the signs for [kotlet] (meat cutlet) and [SAmi] (wimpy) (Fig. 2). The former is repeated in the structure of the latter with an extra syllable added before it. For further examples, consider [neveStæn] (writing), [tæ?lif] (authorship; writing a book), [mæqAle] (article, paper) and [dæftær] (notebook) (Fig. 3). As can be seen from the pictures, the sign for <u>writing</u> is monosyllabic, consisting of a meaningful movement and thus forming a morpheme. This morpheme is repeated in the other three signs which are all related to writing. The repeated element functions as a syllable in the structure of the bisyllabic signs. What is interesting here is that in <u>authorship</u> and <u>article</u> the element meaning writing constitutes the second part of the sign, that is, it functions as the second syllable, whereas in <u>notebook</u> it forms the first syllable of the sign.
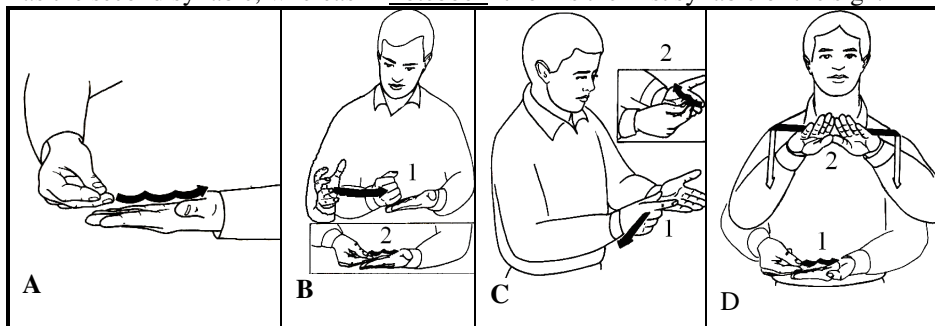
Figure 3. Writing (A), authorship (B), article (C), and notebook (D)

It must be noted that the analysis based on comparison, though useful in most cases, may be misleading in some others. Therefore, this approach has to be supplemented by other approaches that take the meaning into account.

3. Classification of Morphemes

Depending on whether the morpheme can stand alone independently or not, it can be considered as free or bound. A free morpheme is a meaningful unit that can be used by itself as a "word", but a bound morpheme becomes meaningful only if it is attached to other morphemes and functions as an element in the structure of a "word". In other words, the bound morpheme cannot be used as an independent sign ("word") in the language. In what follows, the bound and free morphemes of Persian sign language are presented and exemplified.

3.1 Bound morphemes
3.1.1 Plural morpheme

Plural morpheme is one of the most frequent morphemes in PSL, and has two allomorphs as shown in Fig. 4. Allomorph A is used to pluralize abstract nouns whereas allomorph B is used with concrete nouns. Therefore, to pluralize [tæsmim] (decision), a bisyllabic sign itself, sign A is used and to change [gorbe] (cat) into plural, we make use of sign B. Thus, these allomorphs are semantically conditioned and their use depends on the meaning of the noun to which they attach.
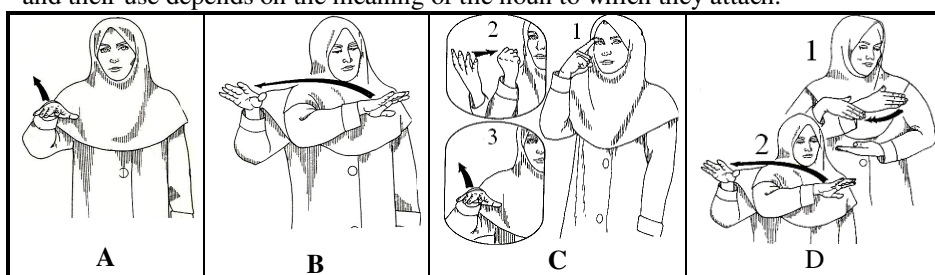
Figure 4. Plural allomorphs (A & B) used in <u>decisions</u> (C) and <u>cats</u> (D)

There is another semantically conditioned plural allomorph which is mostly used with signs referring to human beings. The signs denoting human can be of two types, those which have person morpheme (see section 3.2.3) as their final syllable and those which do not have this morpheme at the end. All nouns of the first type and most of the nouns in the second group form their plural by repeating the person morpheme twice. Figure 5 (A & B) shows [rAnænde] (driver) and [rAnændegAn] (drivers) to exemplify the first type of nouns which have a person morpheme in the singular. However, the signs C and D in Fig.5 are examples of the second type of nouns, with no person morpheme in the singular. The person morpheme, repeated twice, is added to the singular to change it into plural.
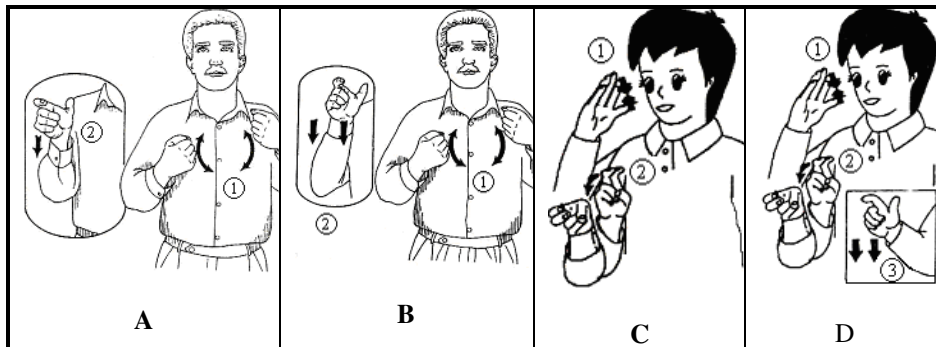
Figure 5. Driver (A), drivers (B), cousin (C) and cousins (D)

There are other allomorphs of the plural morpheme that are lexically conditioned and change according to the sign to which they attach. This kind of plural formation can be considered as irregular. For example, the plural of [nAxon] (finger nail) is made by pointing to different finger nails (Fig. 6). The plural of [bætS-tSe] (child) is made by adding three movement segments to the sign of child.
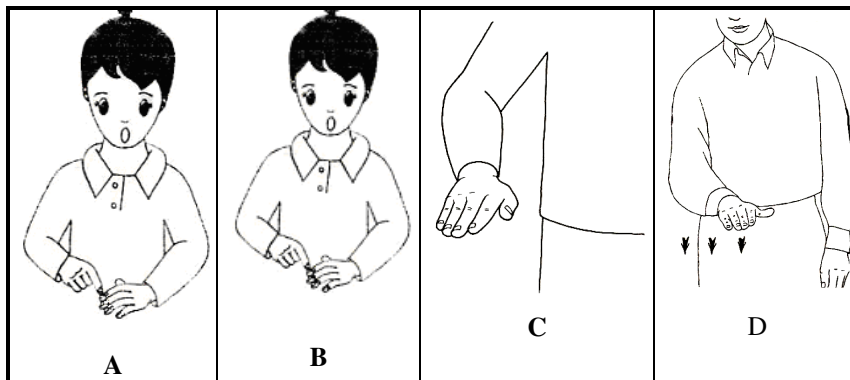

Figure 6. Fingernail (A), fingernails (B) child (C) and children (D)

3.1.2 Comparative and superlative morphemes.

Comparative and superlative morphemes are bound morphemes that are attached to the end of adjectives. In Fig. 7 (A & B) these morphemes are shown in isolation, but it should be remembered that they are bound and would never be used independently. However, they are attached to adjectives such as [ASofte] (disturbed) (C) to form [ASoftetær] (more disturbed) (D) and to [qævi] (strong) to form [qævitærin] (the strongest) (F).
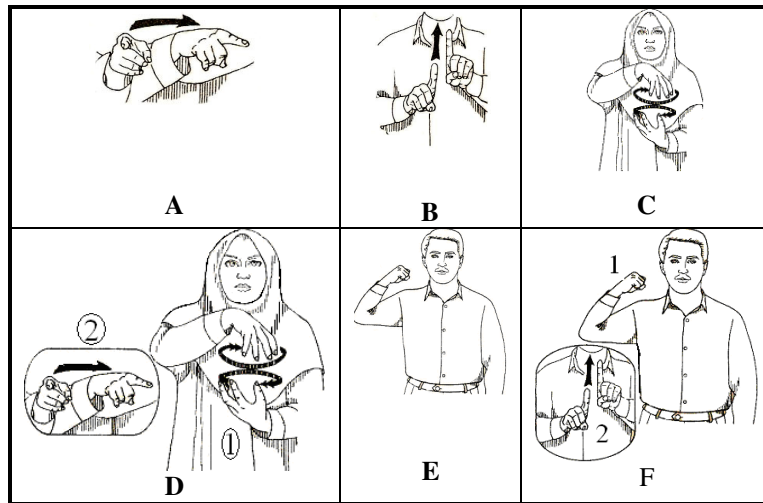
Figure 7. Comparative (A) & superlative (B) morphemes. C= disturbed, D=more disturbed, E= strong & F=the strongest

3.1.3 Collective morpheme

There is a morpheme in PSL, the equivalent of which is not found in the spoken language. This morpheme is used to refer to a collective group, that is, a class of members that share a specific feature. For example, [læbæniyyAt] (dairy products), [γællAt] (grains), [sæbziÙAt] (vegetables), [lævAzemottæhrir] (stationery) and [æbzArAlAt] (tools) all refer to a class of similar members. [sæbziÙAt], for instance, is not just the plural of [sæbzi] (vegetable), but indicates different types of vegetables. Therefore, the sign used to show this kind of collective noun is different from the plural morpheme used to pluralize countable nouns. For this collective noun no singular form may be postulated. However, the collective morpheme is added to the singular form of the representative member in the class. For example, [læbæniyyAt] (dairy products) is made by adding the collective morpheme to [Sir] (milk), and [lævAzemottæhrir] (stationery) by adding it to [xodnevis] (fountain pen). This morpheme is shown in Fig. 8 as the second element in vegetables and stationery
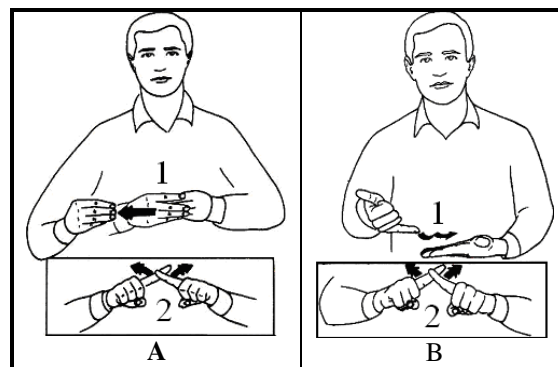
Figure 8. Vegetables (A) and stationery (B)

3.2 Free morphemes
3.2.1 Negative morpheme

The negative morpheme is one of the most frequent morphemes in PSL. This morpheme is the sign "No" which is added before or after the sign which should be negated. To negate the verbs, this morpheme is used after them, but the negative form of an auxiliary like [bAyæd] (must) is formed by adding the negative morpheme before it. Figure 9 shows negative forms of forget and must
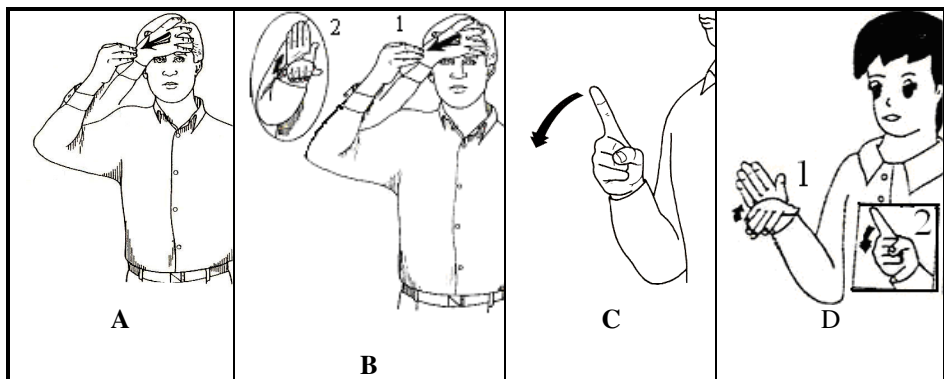

Figure 9. To forget (A), not to forget (B), must (C) and must not (D)

3.2.2 Place morpheme

The place morpheme is used to construct words referring to place. This morpheme has different allomorphs, one of which is used as a free sign (word) to denote place (Fig. 10 A). Its use can be seen in [AzemAyeSgAh] (laboratory) and [doxAniyyAt] (Tobacco Department) (Fig. 10 B & C). Figure 10 (D) shows another allomorph of the place morpheme at the end of [golxAne] (greenhouse).
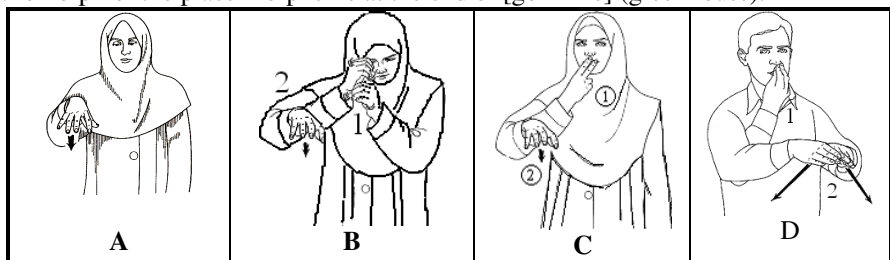
Figure 10. Place (A), laboratory (B), tobacco department (C) and greenhouse (D)

It must be mentioned that in some cases this morpheme is realized as zero morpheme and is not overtly represented by a sign.

3.2.3 Person morpheme

Person morpheme is a free morpheme that can be used independently to mean man. When combined with other morphemes, it creates signs that refer to people who do something. In Fig. 11, the signs [dAneSÙu] (student) and [xærAbkAr] (rebel), both referring to man, can be seen. However, not all signs referring to man reveal this morpheme. In other words, like the place morpheme, it

may also be recognized as zero morpheme. For example, [kArgær] (worker) (Fig. 11 C) lacks this morpheme; that is to say, the morpheme does not have an overt representation.
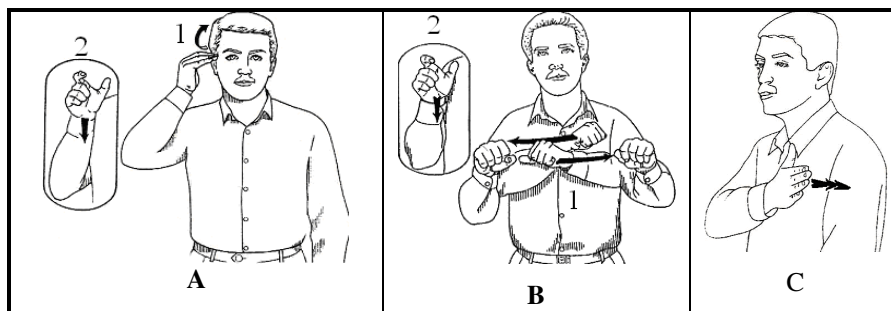

Figure 11. Student (A), rebel (B) and worker (C)

4. Compound Signs

Sometimes independent signs are combined together to form compounds. In this case, the combining elements may keep their original meaning or the compound may denote something quite different which does not have anything to do with the meanings of the combining elements. Examples of both types are presently given. The sign [yAd dAdæn] (to teach) is a two part sign that combines [ʔelm] (science) and [tærbiyæt kærdæn] (to train) (Fig. 12). In this sign the meaning of the combining elements has been preserved. The same is true about [dAneSmænd] (scientist) which is made up of [ʔelm] (science) and the person sign (Fig. 13).
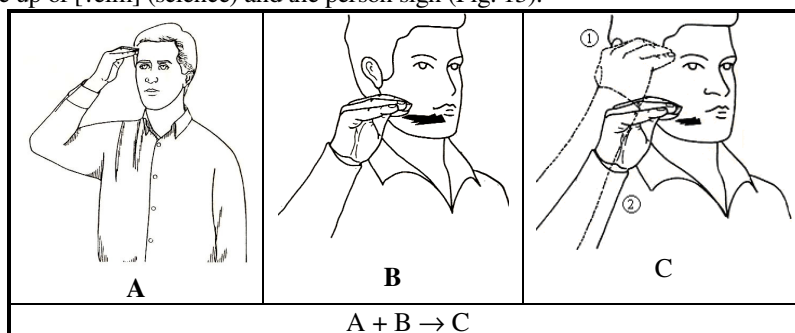

A + B → C

Figure 12. Science (A), to train (B) and to teach (C)
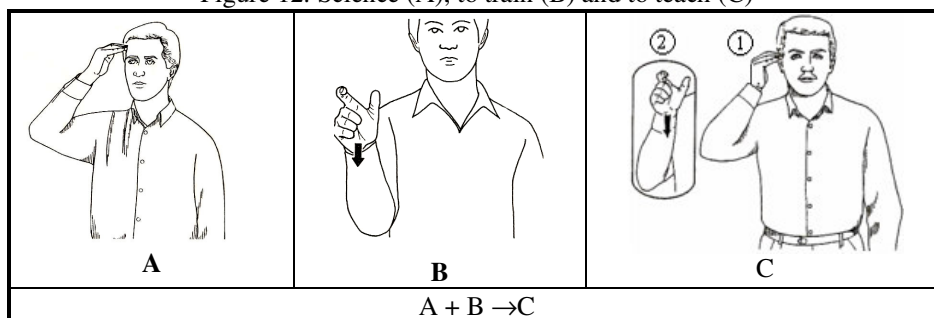

A + B →C

Figure 13. Science (A), person (B) and scientist (C)

There are, however, some other compounds whose meanings cannot be extracted from the meanings of the parts. For example, consider [gAzoʔil] (gas oil). It is made up of the signs [næft] (petroleum; kerosene) and [benzin] (petrol) and the meaning of the compound is not predictable from the combining elements. The sign for [estekAn] (tea cup), too, is a compound made up of the signs [SiSe] (bottle, glass pane) and [nuSidæn] (to drink).
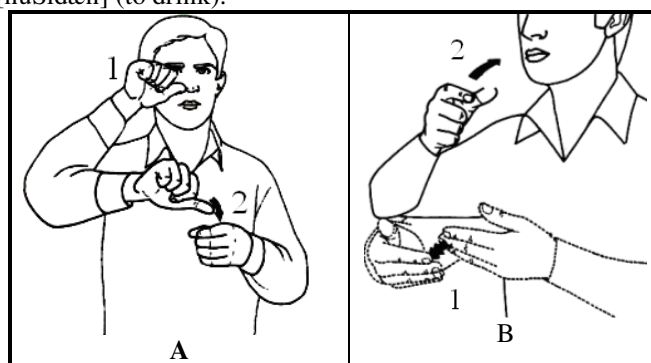

Figure 14. gas oil (A)and tea cup (B)

The fact that the meaning of some compounds can be predicted whereas some others cannot may be compared to the transparent and opaque words in the spoken language. There is transparency in signs (words) whose meaning can be predicted from the combining elements, but those signs whose meaning is totally different from the meaning of the components are opaque.

5. Other Morphological Processes

There are some derivatives that are formed in an interesting way. Sometimes the repetition of a segment at the end of a sign creates a new sign with a different meaning (Fig. 15)
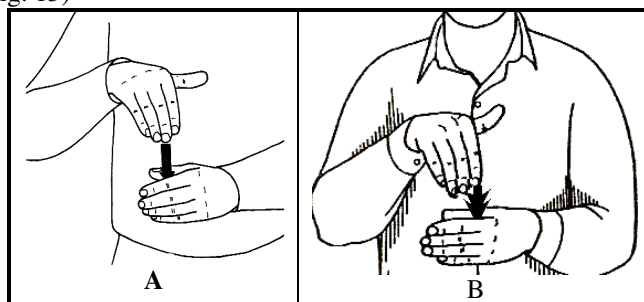

Figure 15. Inside (A) and voting (B)

Another procedure used in sign formation is to change one-handed signs to double-handed ones. That is, instead of performing the action with just one hand, the same sign is created simultaneously by both hands. Figure 16 presents examples of these signs. When performed by both hands, the sign [meygu] (shrimp) changes to [buSehr] (Bushehr, an Iranian city on the Persian Gulf). Similarly, [dAdæn] (to give) changes to [tæqdim kærdæn] (to offer) when both hands are used.
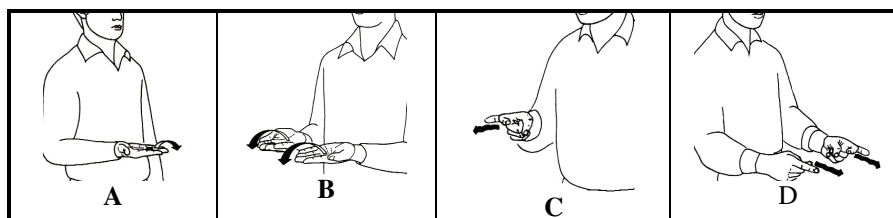
Figure 16 . Give (A), offer (B), shrimp (C) and Bushehr (D)

6. Antonymy and Polysemy
6.1 Antonymy

Antonyms are the signs that indicate opposite meanings. Signs of this category may be of two types. In one type, the sign or a segment thereof is created in an exactly opposite manner by the hand. One sign may be created by opening the hand whereas the antonym would be communicated by closing it. Figure 17 shows the signs [rouSæn kærdæn] (to turn on) and [xAmuS kærdæn] (to turn off) in which the hand moves in opposite directions. In the other type of antonyms there are no opposite segments that would reveal antonymy. The signs [xub] (good) and [bæd] (bad) are two antonyms of this type (Fig. 17).
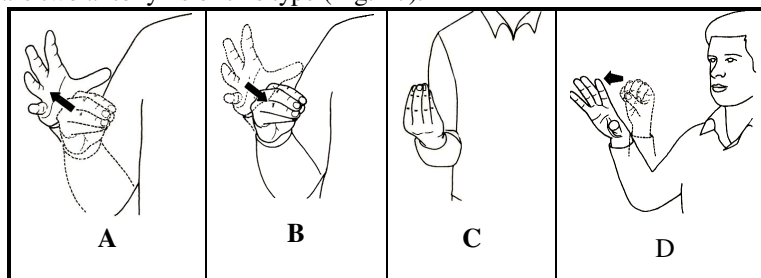

Figure 17. Antonyms: turn on (A), turn off (B), good (C) and bad (D)

6.2 Polysemy

In the spoken language we may encounter words that are spelled and pronounced in the same way but denote different meanings. A similar case is found in the sign language as well. A single sign may have different meanings. For example, the same sign is used to refer to Israel and Jew (Fig. 18). Similarly, [boɣz] (lump in the throat) and [govAtr] (goiter) are represented by the same sign (Fig. 18).
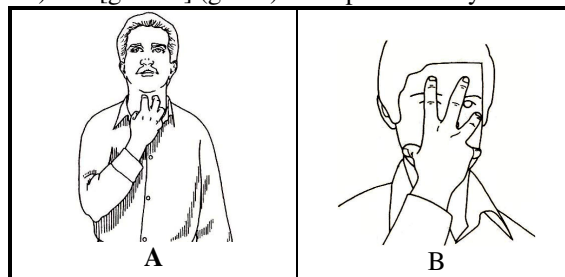

Figure 18. Polysemous signs: A. lump in the throat; goiter & B. Israel; Jew

7. Sign Development
7.1 Borrowing

One of the ways to increase the lexical items and thereby the expressive power of a language is to borrow items from other languages. This phenomenon which is common in spoken languages may also take place in sign languages with or without changes in the original sign. For example, the sign [itAliyA] (Italy) in PSL is borrowed from Italian Sign Language (LIS) and used with a slight change. (Fig. 19)
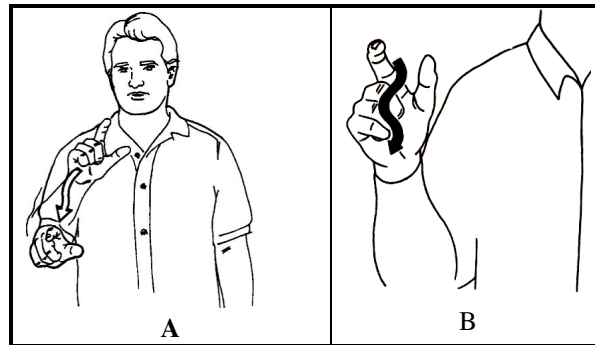

Figure 19. Italy in LIS (A) and PSL (B)

7.2 Manual alphabet

Another way to increase the number of signs is to make use of manual alphabet. Although, according to Stokoe (1972), the use of manual alphabet is totally different from sign language, it is a common practice among the users of sign languages to make use of the alphabet to convey meaning. This technique utilizes a specific sign for every letter in the spoken language and comes in handy especially when proper nouns are being used. The technique can be considered as code-switching in which the interlocutor switches from sign language into a different code.

8. Exceptions

It is true that languages are rule-governed, but in every language there may be cases that do not follow the known rules. These are usually treated as exceptional cases. In PSL, too, we may find certain cases that, though very small in number, do not fit the usual pattern of signs in the language. For example, in creating the signs one hand is usually dominant and the other is passive. For right-handed people the right hand is usually dominant, but in a few cases this is not so. The right hand becomes passive, as in [SiSe] (bottle, glass pane) shown in Fig. 14 B.

There are also four signs that do not fit in the normal pattern of signs. They are [qædrdAni] (appreciation), [sæÙde] (prostration), [ʔætse] (sneezing) and [sorfe] (coughing). In these signs, contrary to others, the hands do not move but the head does. In three of the signs the head moves only once, but in the fourth the movement is repeated.
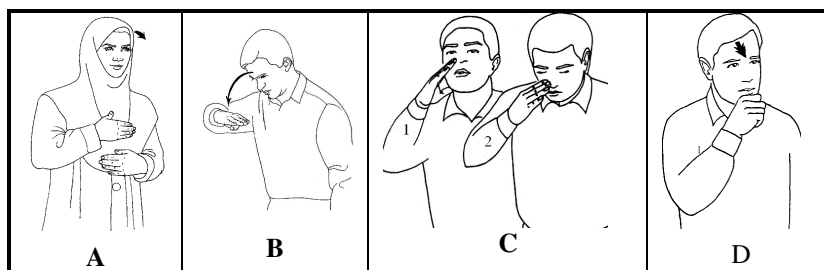
Figure 20. Appreciation (A), prostration (B), sneezing (C) and coughing (D)

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Designing Grammar Activities in Line with the Principles of NLP: the Modal Case

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The English Modality System is one of the most problematic areas for learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) due to the complexity of the modal meanings, the incoherent presentation of the modal auxiliaries in commercial textbooks and the inefficiency of teachers merely indicating form-meaning associations in a repetitive cycle. For this reason, this study is aimed at proposing a practical methodology for the teaching of the past modal verbs of deduction in line with the principles of Neurolinguistic Programming (NLP). The NLP-based activities are sequenced according to the BRIDGE format with the purposes of increased retention and recall.

1. Introduction

A major grammatical concept which poses significant difficulties of teaching and learning in grammar instruction is the English Modality System. The complexity of the multiple meanings the English modal verbs convey together with the incoherent presentation of the material in commercial textbooks make it notoriously difficult for the EFL students to recognize and realize the distinctive uses of the English modal verbs. As for the teachers, for whom it suffices to point out a myriad of form-meaning associations, they have to teach and reteach what should otherwise be polished in such a spiral approach. For this reason, this study aims to present a practical methodology for the teaching of the English modal verbs in line with the principles of Neurolinguistic Programming (NLP). Three sets of NLP-based activities are prepared for the teaching of the focal grammatical point, "past modals of deduction", and sequenced according to the BRIDGE format.

1.1. What is NLP?

Neurolinguistic Programming, which can be traced back to the early work of John Grinder and Richard Bandler in the 1970s, has gained popularity for its state-of-the-art techniques of training in effective communication and personal development. Identifying the patterns used by outstanding therapists like Virginia Satir, Fritz Perls and Milton Erickson, Bandler (an American professor of linguistics) and Grinder (a psychology student) discovered how they reached their levels of excellence and began to develop NLP in order to reproduce their skills, so that others might be shown how to achieve success too (Shapiro, 1998, p. 8). Though being originally developed as "a system of techniques therapists could use in building rapport with clients, … and helping them achieve goals and bring about

personal change", NLP now has many applications in a wide range of fields, including management training, sports training along with communications sales and marketing (Richards & Rodgers, 2002, p. 125).

Neurolinguistic Programming is defined as "a collection of techniques, patterns and strategies for assisting effective communication, personal growth and change, and learning" and provides a model that enhances the understanding of our thinking processes, our words and our behaviour because the *neuro* part of NLP refers to "how we experience the world through our five senses and represent it in our minds through our neurological processes", and the *linguistic* part of NLP is concerned with the way we use language and how it influences us as well as people around us, whereas the *programming* part of NLP involves "training ourselves to think, speak and act in new and positive ways in order to release our potential … ." (Revell & Norman, 1997; Shapiro, 1998). In the build-up of NLP, which can also be described as "the study of excellence", there are four pillars: i. *Outcomes* in NLP involves knowing precisely what you want; ii. *Rapport* is concerned with creating and maintaining a harmonious relationship or appreciating the other person's map (view) of the world; iii. *Sensory Acuity* refers to noticing what another person is communicating – often non-consciously and non-verbally; iv. *Flexibility* means changing what you do until you get what you want (Bradbury, 2000; Revell & Norman, 1997; Richards & Rodgers, 2002; Shapiro, 1998). Based on these four pillars, the basic action model of NLP is designated: firstly, know your outcome (what you want to achieve); secondly, do something about it (involving rapport with other people); thirdly, notice the response (linked to sensory acuity); and finally, respond flexibly (having a range of options about what to do next) (Revell & Norman, 1997, p. 17).

1.2. Why NLP?

Neurolinguistic Programming cannot be considered as "a teaching method in the way that the direct method or the Silent Way are methods" (Revell & Norman, 1999, p. 4). However, the far-reaching repercussions of NLP have crossed the boundaries of psychotherapy and NLP, with its central ideas now being "incorporated into many approaches to commnication, learning and change", has been introduced to the EFL circles, where it already became "a buzzword" in the late eighties, in spite of the confusion about "what it could contribute to the field of language teaching" (Puchta, 2002; Revell & Norman, 1997). Since NLP emphasizes the moulding effect of language on thought and behaviour, many aspects of the multifaceted practice can be applied to ELT either directly or indirectly. Among the ten core concepts of NLP, the NLP-based activies, here, capitalize on VAKOG, sensory acuity, anchoring and modelling in the teaching of past modals of deduction because these four core concepts of NLP achieve the strategic difference "that makes the difference" between traditional grammar instruction and a more affective-humanistic approach. In the former, the students are exposed to lists of rules and supposed to practise usage in controlled exercises as in the following extract from a reference grammar book: "You can use *must* to say that you believe something is certain … You can use *can't* to say that you believe something is not possible … For the past, we use *must have (done)* and *can't have (done)*" (Murphy, 2005, p. 56) ; as a follow-up to the presentation of the rule, the students are asked to rewrite the sentences with prepacked deductions by using *must have* and *can't have* as in: "The phone rang, but I didn't hear it. (I/asleep)" (Murphy, 2005, p. 56). As opposed to the

traditional grammar teaching, which favors rule-learning, the NLP view of grammar "provides an alternative to the standard grammar book definitions" and aims "to help students become aware at a feeling level of the conceptual meaning of a grammatical structure" (Revell & Norman, 1999, pp. 99-100). In order to enable the students to feel the experience of developing an inner grammar, NLP draws heavily on multisensory activities, which involve a great deal of right-brain learning. In a recent study, Kök (2007, pp. 56-57) has found that English language education based on the principles of NLP provided better academic achievement and a more positive attitude towards learning English, and when the students' academic achievement and attitudes are studied with respect to the brain dominance as a variable, significant differences were observed between the right-brained students in favour of the experimental group, who received NLP-based education; which can be attributed to the fact that NLP helps students identify and use which one(s) of the five senses they most use, and makes the classroom instruction more effective including activities which involve more representational systems.

1.3. Why in the BRIDGE format?

The idea of increasing right-brain learning through multisensory NLP activities has its roots in the distinction between two types of memory, namely, episodic and semantic memory. *Episodic memory*, which "refers to the storage and retrieval of personally dated, autobiographical experiences", is localized in the right brain, while *semantic memory*, which "refers to general knowledge of concepts, principles, and meanings that are used in the process of encoding or comprehending particular inputs", is localized in the left brain (Stevick, 1996, p. 37). Unlike semantic memory, which "contains factual information that transcends a particular context", episodic memory embodies "recollective experience", which concerns events of one's life; not only what happened but where and when, context as well as fact" (Stevick, 1996, p. 37).

Against the backdrop of the interaction between episodic memory and right-brain learning, Stevick's tristratal organization of memory as *working memory*, *holding memory* and *permanent memory* gains more understanding. Abandoning the famous dichotomy between the short-term/long-term memory, Stevick (1996, pp. 27-28) designates the working memory (the Worktable) concept, which "involves the simultaneous storage and processing of information", and divides the long-term memory into two parts: "holding memory" and "permanent memory". While permanent memory (the Files) corresponds to "whatever remains available in memory after the expiration of the 20 seconds", holding memory refers to "information that was still clearly available in memory after 20 seconds", but is "gone a day or two later", and is resembled to the material "on top of the filing cabinet", which is "ready to be fitted into the Files" but is "also subject to being knocked off onto the floor and lost" (Stevick, 1996, p. 29). Between the Worktable and the Files, Stevick (1996) postulates a two-way traffic, which enables the bidirectional flow of information in memory: configurations of sensory data appearing on the Worktable evoke the retrieval of various kinds of memories from the Files, which "in turn work with the other material on the Worktable to trigger the formation of new configurations for storage in the Files" (p. 30).

Building on i. "the distinction among sensory persistence, working memory, holding memory and permanent memory", ii. "the role of richness and complexity of networks in getting material into permanent memory", and iii. "the central role of

purposes and emotions in the quality of networks" in the mind; Stevick proposes the BRIDGE format – an alternative procedure based on an idea from Henry Widdowson (Stevick, 1996, pp. 201, 208). In the light of the previous discussion on right-brain learning and episodic memory, the NLP-wise lesson organized in the BRIDGE format can, therefore, be used to ease the retrieval and storage of information in memory, which means a better retention and recall on the learner's side because "our students' memory contains more than just … structures of language plus their meanings"; in fact, in addition to data from the five senses, they retain information about time, their past emotions and purposes (Stevick, 1996, p. 17).

2. The NLP-wise Lesson in the BRIDGE Format

The mere use of visuals (pictures) or imperatives does not suffice to maintain the richness and complexity of networks in which material has been stored, but what counts is the learners' reactions to the material itself, more precisely, "what the learner has done with the material since first meeting it" (Stevick, 1996, p. 208). For this reason, Stevick (1996) has formulated the BRIDGE format, which consists of: i. an OBSERVE phase, where "learners encounter a sample of native speaker accomplishing some interesting task"; ii. a SPAN phase, where "learners engage in activities that focus their attention on details of the sample"; and iii. a DO phase, where "learners use the language in accomplishing a similar task" (p. 209).

2.1. The OBSERVATION phase

In the OBSERVATION phase, learners are given the opportunity of reading, hearing or possibly seeing how competent speakers of the language handle the same of sort of task they'll be undertaking in the DO phase (the task of deducing/speculating) (Stevick, 1996, p. 203). As for memory, the meanings and forms focused enter the holding memory and become available for use in the DO phase, so nuances of meaning and form are overlooked here (Stevick, 1996, p. 203). However, what is observed in the model (a dialog for memorization, a reading or a TPR session) is "to provide answers to questions in the students' minds" and to prompt the students "to generate some of the forms and/or meanings" (Stevick, 1996, p. 203). For this reason, a "*Listen and guess the appearance*" type of exercise is designed: the students listen to a song and try to describe the appearance of the singer from the sound of her voice (Revell & Norman, 1999, p. 35). Secondly, they are shown the picture of the singer and asked to check their guesses and thirdly, given an incomplete script of the lyrics, the students are expected to listen for specific information and fill in the gaps with the modal auxiliaries they hear from the tape as in "I … (can't have put) it in my trouser pocket / I suppose I … (might have left) it in my bed / I … (could have held) it in my hand / Or buried it in the sand / But I think I … (must have eaten) it instead" (Vince, 1997, p. 73). The learning benefits are three-fold: the students not only develop "good auditory acuity … good listening and sound discrimination skills" (Revell & Norman, 1996, p. 35) (an NLP outcome), and attempt to draw logical conclusions from the auditory input, but they also notice the focal grammatical item in its context of use.

2.2. The SPAN phase

The middle phase in using a bridge is the SPAN phase, where "meanings are explored and forms are observed for their own sake" (Stevick, 1996, p. 203). With

regard to memory, the SPAN phase adds additional material to the content of holding memory; which in turn will be moved farther into permanent memory in the DO phase (Stevick, 1996, p. 203). Typical activities of the SPAN phase include flash cards, mimicry, comprehension questions and grammar drills (Stevick, 1996, p. 203). Therefore, three groups of exercises are designed on the basis of the principles of NLP: the first of these is a "*Listen, decide and act*" type of exercise, where the students respond to the teacher's modal sentences both verbally and physically. For instance, the teacher utters a modal sentence like "I *must have eaten* it instead" and if the speaker believes that something was certain, the students put their right hand up and say firmly: "*That was certain*". In exchange for a modal sentence like "I suppose I *might have left* it in my bed", they are expected to put their left hand up and say slowly: "*That was possible*"; and if the speaker believes that something was impossible as in "I *can't have put* it in my trouser pocket", then the students are supposed to cross their hands and cry out: "*That was impossible*". In this way, it is possible to check the students' understanding of the conceptual meaning of past modal verbs of deduction. Secondly, the students are given a situation where the teacher utters a sentence indicating certainty/possibility/impossibility like "Situation 1: What has happened to my cell phone? I'm sure I didn't leave it at home / Perhaps I had it stolen on the bus / I'm sure I dropped my cell phone on the way to school". Students listen, decide on the modal meaning conveyed by either clausal or adverbial modals and reword the original sentence this time by using a past modal of deduction like "That was *certain* (again putting their right hand up). You *must have dropped* it on the way to school". This transformation drill can be followed by a freer dyad activity, where Student 1 invents a situation like "Our teacher didn't come to school yesterday" and signals the modal meaning by hand movements (bodily); for instance by putting his right hand up, as Student 2 is expected to deduce what has happened and formulate a modal sentence accordingly as in "She must have been ill".

These first few exercises are especially important in that they reflect a core concept of NLP – VAKOG. The acronym represents the five senses or "representational systems" through which we experience the world, namely, *Visual* (we look and see), *Auditory* (we hear and listen), *Kinaesthetic* (we feel externally/internally/movement), *Olfactory* (we smell things) and *Gustatory* (we taste) (Revell & Norman, 1997, p. 31). Three of these *primary representational systems* (visual, auditory, kinaesthetic), called VAK, are predominantly used by most people, but the focus is on writing (visual) and listening (auditory) in the traditional classroom; as a result of which kinaesthetic students tend to lose out academically (Revell & Norman, 1997, p. 32). Observing that their students have different preferred primary representational systems or learning styles, teachers should use as many channels as possible (Revell & Norman, 1997, p. 32). Besides satisfying all learner preferences, multisensory teaching enhances memory because the research on educational kinesiology shows that certain physical movements, which involve using opposite arms and legs, help to forge pathways in the brain, "either creating new connections or radically improving old ones that may have been working less well through lack of use" (Revell & Norman, 1999, p. 43). Since "the word kinaesthetic refers to movement (psychomotor), to touch and sensation (tactile), and also to emotion (visceral)", an emotional component is also added to the first exercise by getting the students to respond to modal sentences in a different tone of voice in order to get them excited and involved (Revell & Norman, 1999, p.

43). Ultimately, mindmapping is used to clarify and summarise the modal meanings and associated forms in the SPAN phase. Mind maps, which has a central idea in the middle and supplementary ideas or examples radiating out from the key word, "are not specifically an NLP technique"; yet they are highly *visual*, quick to do and easy to remember; and are, thus, widely used in NLP as they "reflect the way the brain works best naturally – in a radial, branching fashion … ." as in the following example in Fig. 1 (Revell & Norman, 1999, pp. 32-33):
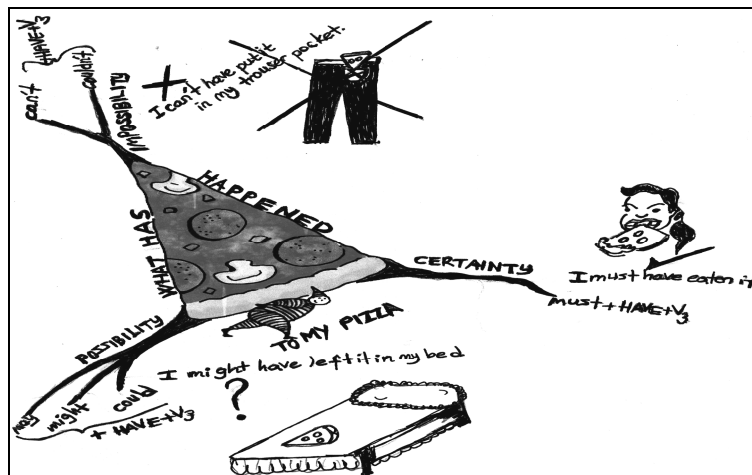

Fig. 1. Mindmapping

2.3. The DO phase

The last phase in using a bridge is the DO phase, where "learners use language in the process of accomplishing something that is outside of language" (Stevick, 1996, p. 202). In the DO phase, "the pedagogical aim is to help move words, sounds, structures, and the like into permanent memory" and since it is "communication-oriented and imagination triggering", what is accomplished should be: i. "relevant to learners' interests and expected needs", ii. rewarding because the bridge (its meanings, words, structures) is more likely to get replayed in learners' minds if the emotional content of a bridge is pleasant or stimulating, iii. rich, which can be achieved by increasing imaginative involvement through the use of nonverbal imagery (Stevick, 1996, p. 202).

Stevick (1996) also emphasizes the role of needs assessment in constructing a bridge because personal involvement necessitates "meeting students' needs for long-muscle activity, fun, social interaction, competition, cooperation or feeling of competence in some nonacademic area" (p. 203). For this reason, a multi-sensory storytelling activity is used to involve the students in the DO phase. Since stories "engage the emotions" and "seem to satisfy some deep psychological need for narrative", they are "highly motivating" and provide "wonderful vehicles for language in a meaningful context" (Revell & Norman, 1999, p. 83).

Therefore, in this exercise, another core concept of NLP – *anchoring* – is used "in order to get students into *listening-to-a-story* mood": the teacher chooses a particular place (a storytelling corner), uses a particular tone of voice for the

preliminaries and the phrase from the children's radio programme: "Are you sitting comfortably? Then I'll begin" (Revell & Norman, 1997; Revell & Norman, 1999). In this way, a deliberate connection between a state of mind and an anchor (an action) is made and as a trigger for the memory, anchoring helps to recall the state of mind easily (Revell & Norman, 1997, p. 84).

In getting into a story, sensory approaches can be used to stimulate their interest: here, the students, having been shown a picture of the main characters, are asked to speculate on different storylines before they hear the story; and secondly, with accompanying music (from the period), the teacher starts reading (Revell & Norman, 1999, pp. 84-85). The students listen to a tale from *1001 Arabian Nights*, with some missing information in it, and then, imagine *what must/might/could/can't have happened* each time the teacher pauses as the story is being unfolded as in the following extract:

> *"Once upon a time, there were two brother kings called Shahrayar and Shahzaman. One day, Shahrayar went hunting and left his wife with Shahzaman in the palace. When he returned, he killed his wife • After that, he decided to marry a new woman each night and have her killed the next morning • This went on until the Vizier's daughter, Shahrazad decided to marry the king. Although her father was against it, she married Shahrayar • On her wedding night, Shahrazad sent for her sister, Dinarzad. And when the king entered the bedchamber, Dinarzad asked Shahrazad to tell her a story • The king started listening but couldn't learn the end because Shahrazad stopped just before the morning came and said: "The morning has arrived. Am I going to die?" • The king didn't kill her. That night she finished the story and immediately started telling a new one • This continued until the king married Shahrazad again and all lived happily ever after."*

The students may also be asked to take notes as they listen and write their conclusions by using the past modals of deduction. Finally, in groups, they rewrite the story by adding descriptions (sensory details) from a different sense (VAKOG), possibly in a given order and spot the differences between the original and their own version of the story (Revell & Norman, 1999, p. 87).

2.4. The BRIDGE format in modelling

The original aim of NLP, developing excellence by duplicating the skills of successful therapists, has paved the way for the offspring of "a basic tenet of NLP", *modelling*. Modelling can be simply described as "the process of understanding the thoughts and actions that enable someone to accomplish a task" (Shapiro, 1998, p. 92).Therefore, the aim of the NLP modelling process is to analyze abilities or skills of people who excel in a certain field and make these patterns of excellence available to others (Puchta, 2002, p. 251).

Typically, modelling is composed of "the observation and mapping of behavioural and linguistic patterns" and a simple modelling strategy involves the following few steps: i. "first, have a well-formed outcome in relation to a skill you

would like to have or improve", ii. "find two or three models, people who have the skill you want to have", iii. "observe what they do externally", iv. "interview your models to find out what's going on internally", v. "next, try out the strategy to see if it works for you" (Puchta, 2002; Revell & Norman, 1997).

As the saying goes, "To really know someone you must first walk a mile in their moccasins", and this advice in the old Red Indian proverb suggests three perceptual positions of NLP: i. first position (self, ME): "how I experience something", ii. second position (other, YOU): "how you experience it or how I imagine you experience it", iii. third position (NEUTRAL OBSERVER): "how a third person might experience it" (Bradbury, 2000; Revell & Norman, 1999; Shapiro, 1998). Implicit in the modelling process is the tripartite organization of the BRIDGE format. To display the OBSERVATION, DO and SPAN phases inherent in the NLP modelling process, the following exercises are designed:

For the OBSERVATION phase, a variant of "native speaker watching" is provided: students watch a short video of native speakers first with the sound turned down in order to concentrate on visual cues like the body language (facial expressions, gestures, posture, mouth movements) (Revell & Norman, 1999, p. 108). When the sound is turned on, they hear the news about a "Desperate search for missing 12-year-old girl".

Observing how it is to be like a native-speaker, the students are asked to discuss the main differences between the people on the video and people of their own culture in a similar situation and to identify the things they could copy in order to speak like a native speaker (Revell & Norman, 1999, p. 108).

According to the NLP presupposition, "Communication is non-verbal as well as verbal", it is important for both teachers and students to use all the resources (linguistic and non-linguistic) or the three channels (body, voice and words) as fully as possible in order to get the message across because Mehrabian's research, which indicates that 55 % of our message is communicated bodily, 38 % through our tone of voice and only 7 % through the words, emphasizes the importance of the harmony sustained between "what we say (our words) and how we say it (our body and voice tone)" in becoming good communicators (Revell & Norman, 1997, p. 91).

The OBSERVATION phase concludes with a final remark on the task of logical deduction in the past: the students are asked to guess *what must/might/could/can't have happened* to the missing girl by using the information in the news.

In the SPAN phase, the students are supposed to pay attention to the intonation and rhythm of the news reporter. Given the below script, they are asked to spot the boundaries of the native speaker's breath groups as in the following:

> *"An emotional plea • from the father of a missing 12-year-old girl • Brook Bennett vanished • Wednesday night after she was dropped off at a convenience store in Randolph, Vermont • The girl apparently said she was going to meet her friend • but police now believe she actually went there • to meet someone she was talking to on MySpace • Family members say • some items that belong to Brook • were found near a lake • Dive teams are now searching that area • but officials aren't ruling out any possibilities • including that she may now be out of state • Brook's disappearance prompted the state's first ever amber alert • Edd Donough • the Associated Press •"*

Secondly, in order to drill the intonation patterns of the native speaker, the students do *echo listening*; that is, "as they listen, they repeat what they hear as exactly as possible (sounds, timing, intonation, rhythm etc) without stopping the tape" (Revell & Norman, 1999, p. 36).

The NLP modelling process ends up with a variant of "*acting like a native speaker*" exercise in the DO phase, where the students are to "practise acting out the role as if they are the character" (Revell & Norman, 1999, p. 110). Here, the students read three mysterious headlines: "Climber disappears on the steep snow slopes of Mount Mclaughlin", "Woman, 44, dies on plane with two empty oxygen tanks" and "Dali picture sprung from jail". After deducing *what must/might/could/can't have happened* from the visual and verbal cues in Fig. 2, they write out the news stories; and by adopting the role model of the news reporter and others involved in each incident, the students try copying the gestures and fluency of native speakers they have observed in the video:

Fig. 2. Deducing from visual and verbal cues

3. Conclusion

Despite the halo of misunderstanding around the NLP-based instruction, NLP cannot be relegated to a commercial venture of popular psychology. On the contrary, in his foreword to "Frogs into Princes", Bandler (1979) defines it as "an explicit and powerful model of human experience and communication" (p.i). NLP is in line with most humanistic approaches as it appeals to different learning styles and strategies through its multisensory teaching activities and values the whole person (the mind

and body are interconnected in NLP) as well as removing the burden of rote-learning (of grammar rules) on learning and memory.

NLP has come under attack from Richards and Rodgers (2002), who do not regard NLP as a language teaching method, for "it does not consist of a set of techniques for teaching a language based on theories and assumptions at the levels of an approach and a design" (p. 130). However, "no great teaching method will be enough" if educators are unwilling to question themselves, and neither better classrooms with more equipment nor new tools and methods may help as "it lies in you" (Puchta, 2002, p. 259). To put it in another way, the NLP presuppositions needn't be accepted as "the absolute truth, but acting as if they were true can make a world of difference in your life and it your teaching" (Revell & Norman, 1997, p. 15).

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The Effect of Fill-in-the-Blank Type of Authentic Dialogues on Focus-on-Form Approach in EFL Classrooms

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This study explored whether a new type of technique which is implementing fill-in-the-blank type of authentic dialogues to EFL students develops and contributes to Focus-on-Form Approach in EFL classes. For that purpose, a fill-in-the-blank type of dialogue was applied to 37 intermediate EFL participants. The results indicate that students were successful in detecting the correct form of the words independent of their appropriateness in meaning; on the other hand, they were not as successful in finding the suitable words for the context as they are in identifying the correct word formations for the blanks. The findings suggest that foreign language educators should continue efforts to provide more authentic and longer fill-in-the-blank type of dialogues instead of short and structured exchanges for EFL students, especially in order to improve their fluency which may accordingly help to create a Focus-on-Form Approach in EFL classes.

1. Introduction

There are lots of approaches and techniques suggested in the field of second language teaching and learning which has always been the reason for seeking the best way of teaching a second/foreign language and led to the efforts to create the most influential one. Among the most popular was Communicative Language Teaching developed by the British applied linguists during 1970s as a reaction to traditional way of teaching a new language. Communicative methodologies made the distinction between accuracy based and fluency based activities especially in the field of grammar teaching. Despite its popularity, Communicative Language Teaching could not escape from receiving some criticism. As Williams (as cited in Fotos, 1998) puts it

The inability of communicative ESL teaching alone to promote high levels of accuracy in learners is now clear, but there is growing concern that a return to grammar instruction should not lead to a revival of 'old ways' of language teaching—traditional grammar-based syllabuses, pattern drills, and the like (p. 301).

Let alone, this concern began to be influential in the field of teaching a second/foreign language and it is suggested that ESL and/or EFL teaching be neither based on pure linguistic forms nor on pure communicative functions and fluency. "These two extremes have been encapsulated by Long's proposal (as cited in Sheen,

2002) that grammar instruction may be of two types: 'Focus-on- FormS and 'Focus-on-Form' favoring the latter which is an eclectic approach rather than advocating specifically accuracy or fluency" (p. 303). In this respect, Williams (2001) noted the following:

Although a strictly experimental study of Focus-on-Form is perhaps not feasible, empirical investigations of the effects of attention to form are both possible and necessary to determine whether it actually occurs in classrooms and whether the information generated in such episodes is used by the learners (p. 327).

Therefore, this study was conducted with the aim of identifying whether a new technique which is the use of authentic fill-in-the-blank dialogues can make any empirical contribution to the application of Focus-on-Form Approach in EFL classes. For this aim, this descriptive study will evaluate the answers for each of the 6 blanks in an authentic dialogue in terms both of accuracy (correct word-formation) and fluency in that context of dialogue.

Then, in examining this issue, the following part includes background to the study. Third part includes methodology of the study that is conducted. The results will be displayed in the following part. The last part covers potential conclusions inferred from the study along with the limitations and suggestions for further studies.

2. Background to the Study

Petrovitz (1997) signifies that "the main shortcoming of traditional grammar materials is a lack of context, and in recent years the need to correct this has been recognized" (p. 202). **"**With the introduction of the communicative approach in second language teaching and learning, there appeared a strong tendency not to focus on linguistic forms and a consequent downplaying of the status of grammar teaching" (Nassaji, 2000, p. 242). However, as Gass (1997) suggested, "processing language only at the level of the meaning will not and cannot serve the purpose of understanding the syntax of the language, a level of knowledge that is essential to production of language" (p.148). As Ellis (2005) puts it:

In particular, there is no agreement as to whether instruction should be based on a traditional Focus-on-FormS Approach, involving the systematic teaching of grammatical features in accordance with a structural syllabus, or a Focus-on-Form Approach, involving attention to linguistic features in the context of communicative activities derived from a task-based syllabus or some kind of combination of the two (p. 210).

Sheen (2003) mentions two examples-those of Doughty and Varela (1998), and Lightbown (1998) adding that "they are of particular interest, for they provide empirical evidence in support of the greater effectiveness of Focus-on-Form" (p. 227). In another study conducted by Burgess and Etherington (2002), 'it is found out that, 'teachers' concern for grammar in connection with an apparent inclination towards the use of authentic, full texts and real-life tasks for practice may indicate that these teachers are well-disposed to a Focus-on-Form approach'(p. 450).

"As much of the English language instruction in the world is not ESL-based, but takes place in the EFL situation, often with teachers who themselves are not native speakers of English (Fotos, 1998, p. 301), a 'Focus-on-Form' syllabus would combine communicative language use with instruction on grammar forms in context" (Fotos, p. 302)**.** Among all these discussions, to the outer are knowledge, there are restricted studies and articles on how to develop a Focus-on-Form

Approach in EFL classes. The aim should be to Focus-on-Form via authentic activities which are either in the textbooks or prepared by the teacher himself/ herself.

3. Method

This part involves the participants, data collection instruments and procedure used for this study. A data analysis section is included to describe both to what extent students provide the blanks with the correct form of the words and how relevant they are in terms of the context.

3. 1 Participants

Participants used in this study include 37 intermediate level EFL students in a high state school in 2006-2007 semester. The fill-in-the-blank dialogues were handed out to the students who were expected to fill in the 6 blanks with a suitable word in 30 minutes, as stated in the instruction above each sheet.

3. 2 Data collection instruments and procedure

With the purpose of finding out whether the use of fill-in-the blank type of authentic dialogues develop and support Focus-on-Form Approach in EFL classes, a long fill-in-the blank dialogue was used adapted from the book 'Conversation in English'. The name of the dialogue was 'Film Director'. It was decided to use such a dialogue after a personal interview with the teacher of that class who acknowledged that the topic was popular jobs in today's world.

Before the implementation of that dialogue, the following modifications were applied:

1. Dialogue was simplified so many times in the light of the feedback received each time from the teacher in order to make it more suitable for the levels of the participants.

2. 6 words ranging from noun, verb and adverb were crossed out of the dialogue paying attention to contextual clues in the dialogue.

3. A brief, simple instruction was added preceeding the dialogue which provides the participants with a summary of what the dialogue is about, who the characters are and what they are expected to do.

In the application phase, a brief explanation in students' mother tongue, in Turkish was made because students are presumed to have difficulty in comprehending what to do with this new type of dialogue exercise. Then, they were expected to fill in the blanks in half an hour. Lastly, dialogues were gathered and examined. The results were evaluated in terms of accuracy and fluency as explained in the following chapters.

3. 3 Data analysis

The data was gathered as a result of the application of a long and an authentic fill-in-the-blank type of dialogue to 37 intermediate level of students. The results were evaluated quantitatively and qualitatively in terms of both accuracy and fluency as shown in the following section.

4. Results

As noted above, the dialogues applied involved 6 blanks: 2 Adverbs, 2 Nouns and 2 Verbs in a mixed order in total. The first aim was to analyze the words in terms of accuracy in word formation then in terms of their meaning and appropriateness for the context. In the tables that follow the relationship between response rates and word formations are stated. The words that students wrote for each of the category of word formation are also added with the aim of evaluating fluency.

4.1 Analysis of accuracy and fluency results

Table 1. Response rates and words for the first gap

RESPONSE RATES	*VERB* 24,3 %	*NOUN* 48,6 %	*ADJECTIVE* 0 %	*ADVERB* 24,3 %	*PREPOSITION* 0 %	*LEFT BLANK* 2,7 %
	To shot	*House*		*Suddenly*		
	Stay	*The shot*		*Now*		
	Stand	*Broken leg*		*Smoothly*		
	Going	*Cowboy*		*With pain*		
GAP 1	*Come*	*Man*				
	Broken her foot	*Building*				
	Read	*Shot*				
	Be busy	*It*				
	To feel pain					

As indicated above, the first blank requires an Adverb. 9 of 37 students wrote an Adverb in the first blank. It is equal to (24,3%) of the students. On the other hand, in terms of fluency, Adverbs they wrote are meaningful and relevant for the context, except for 'With pain'. Conversely, Nouns and Verbs written by the rest of the students do not match with the first gap.

Table 2. Response rates and the words for the second gap

RESPONSE RATES	*VERB* 18,9 %	*NOUN* 13,5 %	*ADJECTIVE* 8,1 %	*ADVERB* 5,4 %	*PREPOSITION* 54 %	*LEFT BLANK* 0 %
GAP 2	*Come on*	*Leg*	*New*	*Worst*	*Forward*	
	Come	*Shot*	*Bad*	*Fast*	*Front*	
	Going	*Place*			*Front of*	
	Look	*Airplane*			*Behind*	

				Next	
				Between	

Second blank requires a Noun. 5 students (13,5%) of 37 were successful in putting the right form of the word. Except for the Nouns 'Shot' and 'Place', all of them are possible alternatives for the gap. On the other hand, more than half of the students preferred to fill the blanks with a Preposition. When the table above is examined, Prepositions they used are more relevant than the Nouns. The rest forms of the words that students used such as 'Verb, Adjective and Adverb' are irrelevant.

Table 3. Response rates and the words for the third gap

RESPONSE RATES	VERB 67,5 %	NOUN 29,7 %	ADJECTIVE 0 %	ADVERB 0 %	PREPOSITION 0%	LEFT BLANK 2,7 %
	Read	Right				
	Change	Forward				
	Hear	Script				
	Know	Me				
	Go	Idiot				
GAP 3	Was	Airplane				
	Drop the gun	That				
	Mix	University				
	Shot from behind					

Students were required to put a Verb in the third blank. 25 (67,5%) students of 37 were able to detect that this third blank required a Verb. However, only two verbs seem to be relevant for this gap, which are 'Hear' and 'Know'. The rest of the Verbs and Nouns do not match with the context in terms of their meaning.

Table 4. Response rates and the words for the fourth gap

RESPONSE RATES	VERB 62,1 %	NOUN 13,5 %	ADJECTIVE 8,1 %	ADVERB 5,4 %	PREPOSITION 8,1 %	LEFT BLANK 2,7 %
GAP 4	Look at	Natural	Interesting	The best	In	
	Show	They	Bright	When	Yes, on	
	You are		Artificial			

use					
Turn					
Have					
Look					
They are					
Called					
What is					
There are					
Use					

The fourth blank in the dialogue requires a Verb. 23 (62,1%) of 37 students wrote a Verb in that blank. Among the Verbs, the acceptable ones in terms of meaning appropriateness are assumed to be 'Look at', 'Show', 'Turn' and 'Use'. Other than the Verbs, the preposition 'In' and 'Yes, on' indicate approximately the same meaning intended in the dialogue. Then it can be said that (8,1%) of the students were successful in finding the suitable word for the gap. Also, students who wrote the Adjective 'Bright' are assumed to identify the suitable meaning from the cue sentence that follows the fourth gap.

Table 5. Response rates and the words for the fifth gap

RESPONSE RATES	VERB 16,2 %	NOUN 56,7 %	ADJECTIVE 18,9 %	ADVERB 5,4 %	PREPOSITION 0 %	LEFT BLANK 2,7 %
	Run	*Dust*	*The big*	*The best*		
	Get	*Part*	*Different*	*How much flower*		
	Going	*Light*	*A beautiful and big*			
GAP 5		*Cameraman*	*Wonderful*			
		Horse	*Beautiful*			
		Bad man				
		Chair				
		Table				
		That				

As displayed above, fifth blank requires a Noun. 21 (56,7%) of the 37 students were able to put the right word formation which is Noun. As for the relevant meaning of these nouns, only the Noun 'Dust' can be accepted as

appropriate for that gap. All the rest of the Nouns along with the Adjectives, Verbs and Adverbs seem irrelevant for the context.

Table 6. Response rates and the words for the sixth gap

RESPONSE RATES	VERB 8,1 %	NOUN 27 %	ADJECTIVE 59,4 %	ADVERB 0 %	PREPOSITION 0 %	LEFT BLANK 5,4 %
	Play the film	Cowboy	Nice			
	Doing	(of)Shock	Real			
		(a)Camera	Natural			
GAP 6		Assistant	Serious			
		Man	Dramatical			
			Different			
			Bad			
			Loud			
			Already			
			More			

The sixth and last gap in the dialogue requires an Adjective. 22 (59,4%) of the 37students were able to identify it. Suitable ones among the Adjectives students filled the blank with can be as follows: 'Nice, Real, Natural, Serious, Dramatical and Loud'. On the other hand, the rest of the words that belong to Noun, Verb and Adjective forms seem inappropriate for the meaning of this context.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

As Focus-on-Form Approach suggests, it is believed to be fundamental to divert students' attention to the linguistic forms via communicative and meaningful instruction and practices while teaching a second language. However, to the outer's knowledge, there are limited studies both in the field of ESL and EFL learning and teaching contexts which put forward empirically the ways to realize this aim. This study was initiated in order to examine whether a new type of technique which is fill-in-the-blank type of authentic dialogue can make contribution to the Focus-on-Form Approach in EFL classes.

For this aim, this study followed both a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data gathered from 37 intermediate level high school students. Initially quantitative analysis was applied in order to examine to what extent students were able to identify the correct word formations for the blanks in the dialogues regarding the accuracy that is referred in Focus-on-Form Approach. At the end of the analysis, it was found out that students were successful to write the correct form of the words for 4 out of 6 blanks. Secondly, a qualitative analysis was applied regarding the answers of the students this time in terms of fluency. In this analysis it was also

made use of the preceding quantitative analysis. This time it was examined whether the correct form of the words required for each blank are also relevant for the context in terms of their meaning.

It was found out that students are not as successful in finding an appropriate word as they are in identifying the correct word formation. It was also discovered that fitting the correct form of a word does not mean that it is appropriate in meaning for the intended context, as it is the case in for the first two and the fourth gaps. This brings us to the following conclusions: (i) using this new technique can be beneficial in terms of its contribution as a feedback for teachers of EFL classes, for it suggests a way for the teacher to evaluate students in terms of both accuracy and fluency at the same time as a practical process development test applied as an activity in a unit, (ii) as it is an authentic dialogue in which there are smooth natural transitions and exchanges and also as it focuses attention on linguistic forms, it is not wrong to mention that this kind of a new technique may help create a Focus-on-Form Approach in EFL classes, (iii) this fill-in-the-blank type of dialogue also can be used as a motivating activity because it is less boring than other activities such as text structuring.

It may be possible to draw more concrete and fundamental conclusions from this study if the number of the participants is increased. This study is based on the potential results of a new technique and that is the reason for it to be applied to only one class. As the study seems promising for future applications, it is required to be applied to the other levels of English language classes such as elementary and advanced levels as well. On the other hand, one of the most important limitations of this technique for the teachers of EFL classes is that it is hard to find both long and authentic dialogues which are aimed to be used for each unit. One solution in overcoming this difficulty can be that of textbook writers who should provide more authentic and longer fill-in-the-blank dialogues instead of short and structured exchanges. This will probably make it easier for both the researchers and teachers to evaluate to what extent these dialogues can be beneficial in creating more motivating Focus-on-Form Approach based EFL classes.

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