

LANGUAGE LEARNING FRAMEWORK FOR TURKISH*

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The goal of this report is to introduce a general Language Learning Framework for Turkish within the American experience and to offer curriculum guides for formal programs in Turkish in academic settings in the US. This will enable instructors who are teaching Turkish at American universities to follow the same general curriculum and will guide them in devising their syllabi. Turkish, a less commonly taught language, is being taught in several major universities; class attendance is relatively small. Because of the small numbers of the students, this report focuses on developing curriculum guidelines mainly for first and second year classes. We assume that a uniform set of goals for these programs will enhance teaching of this language in institutions of higher learning, lead to further development of teaching materials, and improve the quality of teaching overall.

The particulars of the goals that the working group suggests is guided by a set of principles within a language learning framework developed by the National Council of Less Commonly Taught Languages.¹ A working group consisting of five teachers of Turkish met during 1993, 1994 and 1995 and discussed the basic principles of the framework. A workshop was organized during the 28th Annual Meeting of Middle East Studies Association where overall principles which are expounded in the following sections were discussed.

1. DIAGNOSIS OF NEEDS

Before setting curriculum guidelines and design syllabi for universities in the US, it is important to consider the role of Turkish in an academic setting in the US. Clearly,

* This framework was developed under the directorship of Erika H. Gilson with funding from the National Council of Organizations of Less Commonly Taught Languages (NCOLCTL).

¹ "Second Language Learning Framework," a report prepared by The National Council (NCOLCTL).

describing the conditions in which Turkish is taught will determine the kind of curriculum and the kind of framework to be devised. The key questions in any program are: Who are the learners? Who are the teachers? What is the place of Turkish in American universities? In order to determine these conditions, two questionnaires, one for teachers and another one for students, were developed by Ralph Jaeckel. These questionnaires were sent to teachers to obtain comments and responses. Responses to these questionnaires are included in the preparation of this report.

1. 1. The Language Setting:

Turkish as a less commonly taught language is offered at several major American Universities. In the institutions where the language is offered, enrollments are generally small. In most of these universities, Turkish courses are generally not an integral part of M.A. or Ph.D. programs where the language may be the main focus of a student's career. Thus, Turkish is not generally a part of "career-oriented" programs but it is often a product of a "language learning career" which aids students to do research in their specific fields. As an example, not many students take Turkish to get degrees in that language, but many do attend language courses in order to fulfill a specific language requirement of their department when they specialize in a field related to Turkish linguistics, anthropology, history, Islamic studies, comparative literature, physics, engineering, or other languages and literatures (such as Russian, Arabic, etc.). Some students take the language due to personal interest in the country and language, some for reasons such as tourism and business.

The number of students who want to specialize in Turkish language and literature and get an M.A. or a Ph.D. are extremely small. In most universities only first and second year Turkish classes are offered as organized courses. Third year and other advanced courses are often conducted on an individual basis. Since Turkish language courses aid other major programs such as history, anthropology, archeology, etc., many of the students who sign up for them are graduate students who want to use their language skills in the target culture in order to conduct graduate research. The number of students significantly decreases after the first year, and only a few students go beyond two years of language instruction. In many universities, Turkish language programs are isolated in language departments and are not well integrated with other existing programs. Therefore, only a very small number of students from other programs such as history, anthropology, sociology, etc., come to take Turkish as a language to use in their research. This situation varies from one university to another. In some universities this integration is better than the others.

The less visible position of Turkish at universities also has a negative effect on teachers who often find themselves teaching many extra hours without the help of teaching assistants. In most universities, teaching loads are heavy and some teachers may teach as much as 15-20 hours a week. In many of the American universities, faculty positions for Turkish are not tenure track. Half-time or full-time lecturers often teach beginning, intermediate and advanced classes. These teachers also develop teaching materials since many necessary course materials and teachers' aids are either inadequate or do not exist.

In recent years this situation has begun to change. Enrollments are higher, there seems to be more interest on the part of students to study Turkish. Several major universities have received grants from the Mellon Foundation to develop Turkish programs in their institutions and have been hiring new full-time instructors. These instructors are expected to focus on improving the quality of instruction in Turkish and to know something about teaching methods. These new instructors are also expected to develop new instructional materials for their classes.

Students who take the language courses usually want to develop the four basic skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing. A good number of students especially prefer to develop their aural understanding and speaking and reading skills, while they give slightly lower preference to developing writing skills. A good number of students taking Turkish are history majors, and these particular students need to develop their reading skills more than others in order to conduct research.

1.1.1. Existing Textbooks

Partly as a result of the above reasons, there are not very many good textbooks which have been developed for teaching purposes. Most materials which are available are marginal and are not compatible with the particular needs of language programs. Teachers spend a lot of time developing their own materials in order to meet the needs of their program. Some of those who develop their own materials do not know what other additional teaching aids and materials are available nationwide. For this reason it would be beneficial for teachers to begin to work on new teaching materials and source materials in consultation with those who might make use of them. Developing new materials would provide better alternatives for teachers and learners.

1.1.2. Existing Teaching Methods

Existing teaching methods vary from one university to another. A number of programs still use grammar based approaches to teaching and some instructors employ a variety of eclectic approaches. Most teachers believe that since Turkish is very

different from English in terms of structure that therefore it is imperative that grammar should be given high priority in teaching. Solely depending on various innovative methods in teaching without giving a solid structural basis to students would undermine the importance of grammar and would not benefit learners. In second year and advanced classes, techniques used may be more communicative as learners get more comfortable with the structure of the language. The question then is how to introduce grammar in classes. A cyclical method which introduces grammar whenever appropriate and then reintroduces it again later in different contexts may benefit students since they would be exposed to certain grammatical patterns early on with subsequent reinforcement. However, each teacher must make an effort to teach students to communicate in the target culture. Teachers could be encouraged to introduce patterns of speech which are used in real life situations, and patterns of grammar which these particular speech patterns encompass. A variety of teaching approaches, especially the communicative approach, could be used in teaching.

There have been important developments in the area of language teaching in the recent past. A number of teachers are unaware of these new developments in the field of second language teaching. Teacher training workshops are necessary to share ideas and disseminate new techniques. Teachers would benefit greatly from a workshop which could be organized by AATT on teaching techniques and techniques that work for Turkish.

1.1.3. Opinions and Perceptions Expressed by Teachers and Students

In approaching the problem of how Turkish should be taught, opinions of teachers of Turkish vary. Most of the disagreements stem from the different approaches to the role of grammar in language teaching. Although most teachers agree that it is very important to introduce grammar to students and that one of the most basic components of Turkish teaching is to introduce grammar in the class, there are basically two different schools of thought on how to present grammar:

- i) Grammar should be taught to students in a graded manner;
- ii) Grammar should be presented cyclically; and a variety of methods and approaches could be used, including the communicative approach.

These two approaches are not contradictory but in fact may be complimentary. In language classes, regardless of the teaching approach teachers utilize, students learn simpler structures first and more complicated ones later. Teachers have leeway in the type of approach they wish to use based on personal preferences and experience.

Students vary in their opinion depending on what their aim in learning the language is. The majority of them would like to be able to communicate in the target culture, and most of them are anxious to be proficient in speaking, in addition to listening, and reading.²

2. FORMULATION OF OBJECTIVES

To meet the needs of students as fully as possible, significant overall objectives need to be set for Turkish programs at American universities. Establishing realistic goals by translating needs and expectations into operational and attainable goals is critical. "The main objective in learning an additional language, (in this case Turkish) is to allow personal and professional growth and enrichment...The student finishing this program will be able to converse effectively with a native speaker on topics of interest, will be able to read authentic materials for pleasure or professional needs, and will be able to correspond with friends, colleagues or business associates in the target language."³ The goal of teachers, therefore, should be to prepare students to communicate in the target culture with necessary cultural sensitivity.

In the first year classes, all basic skills should be emphasized. In the first year, the syllabus needs to be designed to prepare students to speak at intermediate low to intermediate mid level in the proficiency scale. The ACTFL Guidelines describe the intermediate-low level speaker as:

"Able to handle successfully a limited number of interactive, task-oriented and social situations. Can ask and answer questions, initiate and respond to simple statements and maintain face to face conversation, although in a highly restricted manner and with much linguistic inaccuracy. Within these limitations, can perform such tasks as introducing self, ordering a meal, asking directions, and making purchases. Vocabulary is adequate to express only the most elementary needs. Strong interference from native language may occur. Misunderstandings frequently arise, but with repetition, the Intermediate-Low speaker can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors."

The Intermediate-Mid speaker is:

² These partial results are taken from the returned questionnaires which were prepared by Ralph Jaeckel and given to students and teachers.

³ Freida Dubin and Elite Olshtain. Course Design: Developing Programs and Materials For Language Learning. London: Cambridge University Press, 1986. p.24.

"Able to handle successfully a variety of uncomplicated, basic and communicative tasks and social situations. Can talk simply about self and family members. Can ask and answer questions and participate in simple conversations on topics beyond the most immediate needs; e.g., personal history and leisure time activities. Utterance length increases slightly, but speech may continue to be characterized by frequent long pauses, since the smooth incorporation of even basic conversational strategies is often hindered as the speaker struggles to create appropriate language forms. Pronunciation may continue to be strongly influenced by first language and fluency may still be strained. Although misunderstandings still arise, the Intermediate-Mid speaker can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors."

Students should be able to reach intermediate low in listening, and intermediate mid in both reading and writing. ACTFL Intermediate-Low listener is:

"Able to understand sentence-length utterances which consist of combination of learned elements in a limited number of content areas, particularly if strongly supported by the situational context. Content refers to basic personal background and needs, social conventions and routine tasks, such as getting meals and receiving simple instructions and directions. Listening tasks pertain primarily to spontaneous face-to face conversations.

Understanding is often uneven; repetition and rewording may be necessary. Misunderstandings in both main ideas and details arise frequently."

The ACTFL Intermediate-Mid reader is:

"Able to read consistently with increased understanding simple connected texts dealing with a variety of basic and social needs. Such texts are linguistically non-complex and have a clear underlying internal structure. They impart basic information about which the reader has to make minimal supposition and to which the reader brings personal interest and/or knowledge. Examples may include short, straightforward descriptions of persons, places, and things written for a wide audience."

ACTFL Intermediate-Mid writing is:

"Able to meet a number of practical writing needs. Can write short, simple letters. Content involves personal preferences, daily routine, everyday events, and other topics grounded in personal experience. Can express present time or at least one other time frame or aspect consistently, e.g., non-

past, habitual, imperfective. Evidence of control of the syntax on non-complex sentences and basic inflectional morphology, such as declensions and conjugation. Writing tends to be loose collection of sentences or sentence fragments on a given topic and provides little evidence of conscious organization. Can be understood by natives used to writing of non-natives."

Second year classes may emphasize speaking and reading, and students may be expected to attain intermediate-mid to intermediate-high levels of proficiency in speaking, and advanced level in reading.

ACTFL Intermediate-High level speaker is:

"Able to handle successfully most uncomplicated communicative tasks and social situations. Can initiate, sustain, and close a general conversation with a number of strategies appropriate to a range of circumstances and topics, but errors are evident. Limited vocabulary still necessitates hesitation and may bring about slightly unexpected circumlocutions. There is emerging evidence of connected discourse, particularly for simple narration and/or description. The Intermediate-High speaker can generally be understood even by interlocutors not accustomed to dealing with speakers at this level, but repetition may still be required. "

ACTFL Advanced level reader is:

"Able to read somewhat longer prose of several paragraphs in length, particularly if presented with a clear underlying structure. The prose is predominantly in familiar sentence patterns. Reader gets the main ideas and facts and misses some details. Comprehension derives not only from situational and subject matter knowledge but from increasing control of language.

Texts at this level include descriptions and narrations such as simple short stories, news items, bibliographical information, social notices, personal correspondence, routine business letters and simple technical material written for the general reader."

First year classes should have five contact hours each week. Teachers are encouraged to use notional-functional or situational-functional approaches in order to achieve the best results. However, the teacher should also take into account particular needs of his/her program and institution. Teachers are recommended to test their

students in the four basic skills. In order to aid the teachers in this matter, a standard sample test may be prepared and be made available nationwide.

To facilitate the design of a comprehensive syllabus, a sample list of topics, functions, and grammatical structures is given below:

CHECKLIST

TOPICS	FUNCTIONS	STRUCTURES
name, nationality professions age, gender address	introductions, greetings leave taking ask for repetition command	personal pronouns interrogative pronouns interrogative particle endings /-dA/-dAn/-II/ non verbal copulative sentences, /-lAr/
weather, time price/money food schedules direction city	request help request information express need	vowel harmony adverbs of place numbers present tense negative
self daily activities school/work food, hospitality weather, leisure	describing invitation express gratitude accept/decline express likes/dislikes give/respond to compliments	consonant harmony personal possessives /-dA var/yok/ ablative /-dAn/ imperative polite request (gelin, geliniz)

family	describing	demonstrative pronouns
leisure activities		dative case
house/home		imperative command
school/work		negative imperative
(one's environment)		genitive-possessive
food		
occupation		

daily activities	make a request	more interrogative
clothing	request additional	pronouns, /ne kadar?/ /kaça?/
money	information	
food	bargain	past tense
shopping	make arrangements	/-mAk istemek/
school/work	give/receive advice	conjunction /ile,/(y)lA/ and /(y)Ip/
health		

transportation	make appointment	accusative case
communication	give/respond to	possession with locative
banking, money	orders	/-gen-poss. var. yok/
occupations	ask for permission	polite requests
	apologize	/-Ir/-Ar mIsInIz?/ nominal ending /-lIk/

special occasions	polite requests	future tense
visiting friends	make offer	endings /-lI/ and /-sIz/
birthdays	agree/disagree	present /-dIr/
bayrams	polite expressions	comparative
invitations	special greetings	

daily life city country directions	polite questions giving /receiving information ask for clarification	comparative/superlative directions postpositions aorist
cultural activities radio, television domestic politics housing	agree/disagree compare/contrast request/provide information	necessitative /-mAk gerek/ abilitative /-(y)A bilmek/ hem... hem ne... ne
health hospitals hygiene	give/ask opinion elicit information give/take advice	necessitative /-mAII/ causative
travel geography purchasing tickets	give/solicit information	time expressions /-(y)A kadar/, /-dAn başka/
history traditions religion	give/ask information state main ideas describe	past, evidential past /-mIş/ conditional
cultural activities art, music literature	summarize express joy, ask for clarification express opinion respond to opinion	reason clauses relative clauses

Second year classes should also have five contact hours each week. In the second year, more abstract topics may be taught. Topics like history and the geography of Turkey, economy, important dates, arguments, and more complex situations which make use of inferential expressions need to be introduced. In the first year classes, students should achieve a level where they can describe themselves, their friends and their environment. Second year students may begin to use argumentation and to learn inferential uses of the language. In the second year more complex situations are introduced. The students are expected to learn how to handle these situations using their newfound language ability. In order to facilitate the design of a comprehensive syllabus for second year classes, a sample list of topics, functions and grammatical structures is given below:

CHECKLIST

TOPICS	FUNCTIONS	STRUCTURES
family environment	describing telling, stating eliciting information directions, personal information	review of structures from first year
professions language and ethnicity	describing, inquiry	relative clauses /-(y)An/, /-dIk/ /-(y)AcAk/, /-mIş/
history geography	describing, narrating, feelings, states of mind expressing certainty, summarizing	adverbial constructions /-dİğI zaman/, /-dİktA/, causal constructions non-specific pronouns passive

hamams, coffeehouses, teahouses	emotions, mental state describing, narrating inviting, declining accepting	noun clauses /-mA/ and /-(y)Iş/, reflexive, causative, subjunctive uses, compound verbs with idiomatic uses
mosques, palaces, historical monuments	describing, arguing one's point, impressions	compound tenses, connectives, transitional expressions, pronoun <i>artık</i> , compound verbs with idiomatic uses
art history, arts (calligraphy, miniatures, etc) music	describing, narrating, providing information, obtain information	complex sentences, conditionals, adverbial constructions
rug making crafts	describing, providing information, discussing historical, social issues	indirect speech, compound verbs, connectives, transitional expressions causatives, reflexives, passives
political situation institutional structure hypothesizing	judgment, arguing, expressing one's opinion impressions,	passive, causative, pronoun <i>kendi</i> , <i>kendisi</i> , adverbial constructions, causal constructions, time clauses, indirect speech.
economy and trade		

In order to aid teachers in their preparation of appropriate teaching materials and a comprehensive syllabus, a structural checklist consisting of grammar points that need to be emphasized in first and second year classes is given at the end of this report as Addendum I .

2.1. Need for New Materials

In order to achieve these goals, new source materials need to be collected, edited and made available. As a first step for developing new texts, teachers should be encouraged to exchange existing materials they have been using in their classroom teaching. A list of existing textbooks, teaching materials, and reference grammars should be compiled and made available to teachers. One of the first goals for teachers of Turkish should be development of a textbook which would address actual student needs. Such materials are needed especially for First Year classes. One suggestion is that this book may have a storyline. Lessons may connect to one another with a central theme. This new textbook could include lesson topics and incorporate teaching approaches that will be discussed in the following sections.. Teachers involved in this project may use accumulated classroom materials to aid them in developing such materials. Another useful project is to compile a list of most commonly used idiomatic verbs. Since Turkish is a highly idiomatic language, having such a list would be immensely helpful for students. Teachers should also be encouraged to teach the most commonly used 1000 words to their students as their minimal basic vocabulary.⁴ In order to aid teachers in testing student success in meeting the goals of a standardized curriculum, a working group should be formed to prepare a sample test for use by instructors within the US. Teacher training should also become available to teachers.

2.2. Basic Principles for a Nationwide Curriculum

It is very important to adopt basic principles for a nationwide general curriculum for Turkish. By definition, "a curriculum is concerned with a general rationale for formulating policy decisions, and it combines educational-cultural goals with language goals."⁵ In accordance with this definition, the curriculum principles discussed and adopted for Turkish by the working group are given below.⁶

⁴ A basic list of 1000 most commonly used Turkish words was prepared by AATT several years ago and sent to the teachers of Turkish in the U.S. Teachers are encouraged to use this basic vocabulary list so that every student learning Turkish in the U.S. would know at least these basic words.

⁵ Dubin and Olshtain, p.35.

⁶ Some of these principles are discussed in "Second Language Learning Framework," a report prepared by NCOLCTL, p.4.

2.3. Teaching

1. Teaching should be learner centered:

Students will differ in terms of background, learning style and motivation. A program should be responsive to those differences. Course design must be based on student needs. Although teachers provide different learning activities, students do most of the work in class. Teachers monitor student performance and give feedback. Teachers should pay attention to learners' needs and different learning styles and discuss what the best method for learning a language may be. To help learners and teachers in this process, a list of books to aid students in learning is given at the end of this report.

2. Teaching should be learning centered:

Teaching should take cognitive and developmental factors into account. The learner's ability to recognize utterances, and his ability to declare and to perform occurs at different stages of learning. His/her personality and motivation should also be taken into account.

3. Learners must acquire the ability to perform in a cultural setting.

Language learning should prepare the student to perform and interact appropriately with the natives of the target culture.

4. Programs should be goal-oriented:

The structure of the course should be determined by its place in a larger curriculum or program. The goals of the program must be explicitly stated and understood by students (and teachers).

5. Content of the curriculum should adapt to the changing range of language.

Teaching should reflect, to the greatest extent possible, socio-linguistic diversity (gender differences, etc.).

6. Programs should have a humanistic orientation: Teaching must be concerned with each individual's linguistic development.

7. The language is taught as a foreign language in an American setting. Learning is limited to the classroom and limited by it.

2.4. Learner:

1. Learners must be responsible for their own learning.
2. Learners must develop their own learning preferences.
3. Learners must be open to cultural differences.

2.5. Teacher:

1. The teacher acknowledges different learning preferences and is flexible.

2. The teacher creates opportunities for the learner to acquire ability to perform in L2.

3. The teacher adapts to local conditions. These local conditions may vary from one university to another depending on who the teachers are, when the classes are taught, where these classes are taught, and whether or not the university dictates a particular approach or whether the teacher can use a variety of mediums to teach.

2.6. Assessment

In a well integrated program, assessment is an important part of instruction. This section dwells upon two types of assessment: testing, and evaluation.

Testing: Tests should be constructed to sample and evaluate specific concepts or skills contained in instructional objectives specified in the syllabus and the curriculum. Tests can be of various types: progress, achievement and proficiency. All these types of tests may be given to students at various stages of teaching. A progress test measures a student's or a group's mastery of concepts and materials taught during the classroom and laboratory sessions. An achievement test measures what the student or group has learned without reference to any specific set of materials. These tests assign grades to students depending on how well they perform on a specific test. Proficiency testing on the other hand, does not assign grades but rates the levels students achieve after a certain period of instruction. These ratings are expressed in global terms by comparing the totality of a student's performance in speaking, listening, reading and writing to standards for each level. A sample of proficiency standards for the end of the first and the second year instruction is introduced in section 2. Teachers may give individual achievement and progress tests during a specific semester or quarter. However, at least at the end of each term, a proficiency test should be given in order to determine the level at which students perform. For this purpose a sample set of listening and reading tests should be prepared and sent to teachers. Since the student is responsible for his/her own learning, teacher may ask for periodical self assessments from his/her students about their progress in the class.

Students who take two years of Turkish may choose to go to Boğaziçi University in Istanbul, Turkey, in the summer following the completion of their program in the US to participate in an intensive Summer Language Program. This summer program in Istanbul is sponsored by the American Research Institute in Turkey (ARIT). Every year ARIT prepares a national test to be given to students who are completing their second year of Turkish language instruction. These tests need to be reevaluated and modified in the light of suggestions made in this report and a committee may be formed to

prepare a sample test incorporating the topics, functions, and structures suggested in the previous section. In preparing such a test, appropriate proficiency levels suggested in Section 2 need to be taken into account.

Program Evaluation: In most universities, there are standard evaluation forms given to students at the end of each term to evaluate the specific foreign language program. A separate evaluation form may be developed by AATT and sent to departments teaching Turkish in order to standardize this process. This will help Turkish Programs at universities to understand which areas need to be developed and how to serve students' needs better.

2.7. Immersion

Immersion is an important part of learning languages. 'Immersion' in language teaching involves intensive exposure of students to the target language and culture by either sending them to the country where that language is spoken or creating these conditions at home in a specific location by cutting them off from the primary language and culture for a specified period of time. Immersing students in the target language and culture for a period of time will help students significantly. However, such an immersion program at the end of each semester or each year is impossible for all of the Turkish programs at American universities at this point.. Instead, teachers should encourage their students to apply to the Intensive Summer Program at Boğaziçi University which is mentioned in the previous section. The Boğaziçi program serves as the immersion program for all the Turkish Language Programs in the US.

3. SELECTION OF CONTENT

Programs need to develop comprehensive instructional plans in order to meet the goals and objectives stated above. In this context, some of the most debated points were:

- a) the place of grammar in the teaching of Turkish,
- b) the place of culture in the teaching of Turkish,
- c) the place of literature in the teaching of Turkish.

It is extremely necessary to teach the students grammar, in other words, whatever method or technique a teacher employs in the class, structural and grammatical considerations should be central. A situational approach to teaching is more conducive to cyclical introduction of grammar. This may be preferred over the linear introduction of grammar which presents simple grammar points first and

complex structures later. Culture needs to be introduced from the first year. The cultural points which need to be introduced are socio-linguistic rules that Turkish people utilize in their everyday speech such as gestures, body language, linguistic fillers (such as *şey*, *efendim*, etc.), slang, names, etc. Culture also encompasses other values, traditions, and persons that are crucial aspects of cultural identity such as holidays (*Bayrams*, etc.) history, national heroes and leaders (such as *Atatürk*). All these need to be integrated into the program by means of utilizing appropriate texts and contexts. Introducing literature into the syllabus from the first stages of teaching is very important since it is one of the forms of cultural expression. Songs, poems, and simple literary texts could be included as a supplement to teaching materials.

4. CURRICULAR IMPLICATIONS

4.1. METHODOLOGY

For decades language teachers have been bombarded with a succession of new methods of instruction, each of which has been heralded as the dawning of a new age of excellence. A vast number of books and articles have been written expounding the theories underlying the methods, but very little work was ever done showing the reflection of the theory in actual classroom practices. Moreover, in recent years, the realization has gradually dawned that even to propound a single method as uniquely capable of meeting the needs of all students at all levels of instruction is severely misguided. No comparative study has been able to demonstrate the superiority of one method over another. This is not surprising, given the complexity of language acquisition and many variables to which it is subject. It might therefore be said that the whole concept of method is irrelevant, and that what should be done is to define (one's) teaching in terms of concrete techniques and activities. In classroom teaching it is advisable to combine techniques, activities and options that seem most fitted to serve the objectives of students. Underlying the choice of teaching strategies is the recognition that the central goal in language teaching is the act of communication. However, communication is not the simple exchange of speech but a complex process of interaction, involving far more than easily identifiable linguistic forms. Gordon Wells has defined interaction as a "collaborative activity" involving the "establishment of a triangular relationship between the sender, the receiver, and the context of situation."⁷ This definition applies to the reading of a text as well as a dialogue, in the

⁷ Gordon Wells, et. al. (1981) Learning Through Interaction: Study of Language Development, p.29.

sense that the author of the text is a silent sender, although in the nature of things he cannot fully interact with the receiver. The important and original perception underlying Wells' definition is the third element, the context situation. Modifying the definition, the context of situation might be considered not as the third corner of a triangle but as a sum of variable factors that modify or even determine the precise nature of the interaction between sender and receiver; to put it differently, they delineate the sphere within the bounds of which sender and receiver negotiate meaning. Kramsch, in her article "From Language Proficiency to Interactional Competence,"⁸ distinguishes two types of context, external and internal. The external is the shared universe of meaning established by a common language and culture, despite the variations that inevitably exist within it. The inner context involves more subtle and subjective elements, such as the precise intentions, perceptions and expectations that are not immediately apparent from the linguistic forms used. For example, the apparently simple imperative form, "open the door!" might be a true and urgent command, but it might equally well be a suggestion that opening the door is desirable, or permission to open the door if the listener is so inclined. The ability to perceive such internal contexts or, as Kramsch puts it, to establish a "sphere of inter-subjectivity," is an essential part of true interactive competence.

It is important to emphasize that interaction should be understood in terms of conceptual as well as behavioral functions. In other words, it is not enough for the correct form of words to be used in order for the desired result to be obtained; it is necessary also to understand how those words will be conceptually received by the listener. This requires that cultural awareness be built into language instruction from the outset; it is not something that can be added once the student is judged to have acquired a desired minimum of linguistic skills.

Interaction implies also a recognition that language skills are not acquired in a linear fashion, with successive assimilation of linguistic forms logically graded according to degrees of difficulty or complexity. For example, one cannot introduce, in orderly progression, the present, past and future tenses of the verb, for interaction at all levels including the simplest, necessarily involves references to the past and future as the present. To put it differently, language skills are acquired in cyclical, not linear fashion: whatever has been learned is constantly recycled and exploited to utmost in order to express meaning, which is the purpose of all speech. It is only in an interactive

⁸ Kramsch (1986) "From Language Proficiency to Interactional Competence," The Modern Language Journal. p.367.

setting that such comprehensive retrieval can take place; even the most rigorous and repeated review exercises administered by the teacher cannot achieve the same result.

This being the case, it is essential that collaborative activities be included in the teaching of language from the very outset. Structured activities, while better than nothing, are only of limited utility, because they discourage the emergence of the subjective element—the discovery of the "sphere of inter-subjectivity"—that characterizes all real speech. As Wilga Rivers has pointed out,⁹ "part of the teacher's art is," therefore "to create, or stimulate student creation of, the types of situations in which interaction naturally blossoms and in which students can learn for actual communication what they already have been learning in a more formal fashion." By reading and reacting to authentic linguistic materials, and by engaging collaboratively in problem-solving tasks and discussions, the students find themselves involved in genuine interaction, in the creation of real speech. Although interactive activities or tasks vary widely in theme and design, one important quality they all share is that they have an information-gap nature, as in natural discourse. From the very first day of instruction, whether at the elementary or intermediate level, problem-solving or information gap tasks of varying degrees of difficulty could be integrated into instruction. In these activities each student in a pair or group has exclusive access to an item of knowledge; the students need to communicate, elicit and impart information to accomplish a task.

One excellent example is the completion of forms on the squares of a grid, each student making his contribution in accordance with oral instructions. Another task is finding one's way on a map: four students, each having a different version of the same map, different locations being marked on each version, try to find their way to the locations not marked on their own version, aided by each other's instructions. A similar exercise consists of the exchange of telephone numbers. Look-alike pictures are the basis of another useful activity. Each student has a slightly different picture of the same person, or two nearly identical pictures with four to eight differences which the students have to identify. In another activity, each in a group of fourteen students is given a card with information about a certain person and his or her family background. By talking to each other, they discover the interrelations among the persons described on the cards. In another example students call a radio show host who asks them what

⁹ Wilga M. Rivers. Ed. (1987) Interactive Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. p. 4.

they would like and not like in a potential partner. Examples of such tasks can be found in numerous books written for this purpose.

There are also oral grammar tasks in which students talk about others' likes and dislikes. These help students in the use of the aorist (e.g. constructions like *severim/sevmem*) and verbal nouns (e.g.: *uyumayı/yazmayı*).

In recent years there has been much discussion about authenticity of language. Poems and songs are authentic, linguistically and emotionally, as Alan Maley explains.¹⁰ The teacher can devise different ways of making it easy for students to write simple poems. For example, by giving them the word *sevgi*, telling them to make each letter the beginning of a poem that will reflect the meaning of the word.

In conclusion, it may be pointed out that to set oneself the apparently laudable goal of proficiency may be self-defeating. All too often, proficiency is conceived of in terms of the static mastery of linguistic structures, and the fact that interactive speech is essentially a process, fluid and often unpredictable, is overlooked; a command of structure is no guarantee that successful interaction will take place unless it is combined with ability to discern the internal context. Similarly, accuracy as measured by proponents of proficiency is frequently understood in the restrictive sense of grammatical accuracy, and the claims of what has been called "discourse aptitude" are neglected. "Discourse aptitude" entails the ability to enter into the frame of reference of the speaker of the target language, to anticipate correctly the conceptual impact one's words will have on him, and to be in a position to respond approximately. This is very essence of communication.

The acquisition of a second language is, in the last resort, too complex and demanding a task for its fulfillment simply to be guaranteed by appropriate exertions on the part of the teacher. At the very least, however, we can sensitize students to the nature of the task in which they are engaged by reducing to a minimum the artificiality of the classroom setting and presenting them with language as it is—an interactive process—not as an abstract set of structures.

4.2. A CASE FOR GRAMMAR IN TFL (Turkish as a Foreign Language)

¹⁰ Alan Maley. (1987) "Poetry and song as Effective Language Learning Activities." in Rivers. Interactive Language Teaching. p.107.

This will make a case for the necessity of incorporating formal grammar into the teaching of Turkish as a foreign language. The first section provides a workable definition of the concept of "grammar" in language teaching. The second section takes apart the claims of the "No-grammar-in-the-classroom" position in some depth and argues that these positions do not apply to the teaching of foreign languages. The third section discusses the "Free Ride Principle" in language teaching which reduces the role of grammar significantly and demonstrates that this principle does not apply to teaching Turkish to speakers of English. The final section argues in some depth that both the claimed psycho-linguistic theory and the boasted results in teaching language without grammar is a myth that has to be exploded so that grammar may be awarded its proper place in the teaching of Turkish as a foreign language.

There are two general meanings attached to the word, "grammar": One is the definition given in grammar books (or the information contained therein) which in some levels of completeness lays out the well-formedness conditions of the sound, word and sentence structure of a language. While some such grammar books are user-friendly, most are not. What's more, in many schools, to this day, certain exercises, in the native language, like parsing sentences, etc. are still practiced in grammar classes – a practice of questionable usefulness which goes back to the Middle Ages. These are what gave the concept "grammar" its bad name over the centuries. The second meaning of the word grammar emerged with the theoretical linguistic work since the mid fifties. It refers to the mental competence of a (native) speaker that makes it possible for him/her to put a language to use. These two concepts of grammar are obviously related. Not knowing what the exact shape of the grammar in a speakers brain is, all teachers can do is to come up with grammars that purport to approximate the speakers linguistic competence. All grammars, old or new, are compiled with this goal in mind. It is, however, the case that although some seem to be on the right track there are those that are not, by producing onerous texts that defy their purpose. Finally, grammar in the traditional sense is associated with the so-called prescriptive grammar; that is, rules that underlie the written standard as opposed to the full use of the daily vernacular. Here, the word grammar refers to a set of well-formedness rules, explicitly stated, to make it possible for the foreign language learner to learn to construe well-formed constructions in the target language. For example, an explicit statement to the effect that Turkish has post-positions that follow their objects is a grammatical statement, and its use in a language teaching class involves bringing grammar into the language class.

4.2.1 The Nature of the Debate

Most theories of foreign language teaching are in favor of allowing formal grammatical generalizations in foreign language teaching; the controversy is rather centered around the role assigned to those statements. This role is usually evaluated along two parameters: central/non-central and deductive/inductive. This section discusses these points and the underlying principle that determines the various positions advocated by applied linguists. A central role is assigned to grammar in the traditional grammar-translation method. Although made a target of attack by the modern foreign language pedagogues, this approach worked wonders within its well-defined objectives of teaching reading comprehension and it is still used with remarkable levels of success in American universities for teaching reading knowledge not only in classical (Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, Classical Hebrew, etc.) but also in modern languages (French, German, Russian, etc.). In this approach, grammar is central because learning the target foreign language is based almost completely on grammar and not on usage on the part of the learner.

Opposed to this is the competence based teaching which reduces the role of grammar from important but not central to almost zero in the classroom. Those who advocate some role to be assigned to formal grammatical statements in language teaching take differing positions on the usefulness of whether or not the grammatical statements should precede or follow relevant examples. If formal grammatical statements precede the examples, this is usually referred to as the "deductive" method – a misnomer since nothing is based on any form of deduction. If the grammatical statements follow the relevant examples, the method is referred to as inductive, meaning correctly that the generalizations are inferred or induced from the examples. Applied linguistics literature reports that some research favors one while some favors the other, without systematically taking into consideration factors related to age, the specific language being taught, and time and other resources allocated to teaching.

The no-formal-grammar approach, on the other hand, is a form of the inductive method which argues that no formal grammatical statements belong in the language classroom. This approach, which falsely claims to be a natural extension of the findings of the theoretical linguistics and psycho-linguistics of the last forty years is really the inductive approach which argues, usually implicitly, that if a language learner is presented sufficient examples to infer the relevant well-formedness rules then the explicit statement of the rules, that is, the formal grammatical statements, are totally unnecessary. For this position, the ideal grammar is the unconsciously acquired set of rules from the data available to the native speaker. The arguments and the unwarranted

assumptions of this position which may be called the "natural approach" are presented below and subsequently it is illustrated that it cannot be successfully applied in the Turkish classroom. Eventually, the argument returns to the controversy between the deductive and inductive use of grammar, and defends the former over the latter in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. Toward this end, some concepts have to be initially clarified.

4.2.2. Language Acquisition, FLT and SLT

What is called language acquisition involves the learning of a language as native in a speech community. Theoretical and psycho-linguistic research indicates that a child whose biologically endowed capacity to learn language is triggered by the use of language around him or her which eventually produces a grammar in his or her brain that regulates the use of that language. Ever since this became generally accepted in the linguistic community, language pedagogy made serious attempts to redefine its goals and procedures in second and foreign language teaching. The general tendency has been to create a language teaching situation which emulates the native language acquisition environment to the extent possible.

Applied linguistics also introduced a very useful distinction between Foreign Language Teaching/Learning and Second Language Teaching/Learning, which distinction is not given due consideration in certain controversies. These two terms are quite misleading when taken literally, and only make sense in their intended definitions. First, both concepts involve the teaching/learning of a foreign language and are distinct only depending on whether or not the target language is the language of the speech community in which the teaching is taking place. For example, teaching of English as non-native in say France, Turkey, Germany, etc. is a case of foreign language teaching, while teaching of English, again as non-native, in England, USA, Australia, etc. is a case of second language teaching. This distinction is in fact of vital importance to non-native language pedagogy. Second language teaching/learning is functionally and pedagogical geared to the immediate functioning of the learner in the speech community of the language he/she is learning. What is learned in the classroom is expected to be immediately put to use outside the classroom for social survival. Conversely the education itself benefits from the speech community that surrounds the language learner. This setting is similar to the native language acquisition setting except for the fact that the language to be learned is not the first language and the student is in a different age group than a typical native language learner, the child.

The methodologies developed for second language teaching/learning are sometimes wholesale transported to the foreign language teaching/learning situation, which is drastically different. In this case the learner is not situated in a speech community that speaks the target language. The learner has no chance of putting his/her learning into immediate use except for some artificial situation created in the teaching centers. In fact everyday life requires that the learner forget about the target language and resume his/her efficiency in the native language to survive. The success rate of second language teaching/learning (that is where the student learns the language of the speech community that surrounds him/her) only partly depends on what happens in the classroom. In fact much of the success rate is associated with his compulsory linguistic interaction in the real world outside the classroom. For this reason, in second language teaching formal grammar may be assigned a minimal role, as in the case of native language acquisition, since the vital interest of the learner is to get immediate results even at the risk of imperfect learning.

We may summarize these language learning situations as follows.

- (i) Natural language acquisition.
The speech community is the only input.
- (ii) Second language teaching/learning
The classroom is critically supplemented by the speech community
- (iii) Foreign language teaching/learning
The classroom is the only input

Because of the natural learning environment provided by the speech community, second language teaching yields much better results than foreign language teaching, in which the classroom is virtually the only environment. Recently some teaching methods are being developed in the United States, which are based on the assumption –which incidentally is hardly made explicit–that in the case of foreign language teaching/learning it is possible to turn the classroom into something like a speech community and neutralize the difference between (ii) and (iii) above. This position underlies the following claim usually advocated by the proponents of this position.

(i) Given sufficient examples in the classroom the language learner can infer the general principles that regulate language use. In particular, there is no need

for, in fact it is harmful to introduce, formal grammatical statement which will negatively interfere with this simulated speech community in the classroom.

This argument rests on the assumption that the creative effect of the speech community on the language learner can be recreated fully in the classroom, a claim which involves not only linguistic, but also sociological aspects far above the level that language pedagogy can claim to handle. Some satisfactory evidence yet to be presented prove that this is in fact possible. Until such time, this language teaching theory in its most extreme form is seriously flawed. There is virtually no evidence as yet that the effect of a speech community is created in a language class, although a huge teacher training program is under way, which at least sometimes involves pathetically comical theatrics to get students to utter expressions in the classroom. This theory and its claims are hopelessly flawed in totally misrepresenting the essence of the positive developments of the linguistics science in the last forty years.

Still another factor that enters into the role of explicit grammar in language teaching involves what may be called "the Free Ride Principle," an extremely important concept usually ignored in discussions. In learning a foreign language, the learner gets a free ride to the extent that he already knows a language that significantly shares common structural properties with the target language. A native speaker of English gets a significant degree of Free Ride on grammar when learning French. So much so that in most cases—excluding peculiarities like the clitics—the learner will only need to know the meaning of lexical and grammatical words to find French sentences perfectly transparent. The degree of Free Ride available to a language learner is indirectly proportionate to the requirement of formal grammar: More free ride means less formal grammar, and conversely, less free ride requires more formal grammatical statements on the well-formedness of the target language.

If the foregoing reasoning is correct even in its general outlines, the role of formal grammar in language teaching is inversely proportionate to two factors. These are the input of the speech community and the degree of Free Ride. The more the learner is exposed to the speech community of the target language and/or the more he has Free Ride accessible to him/her, the less will be the need for formal grammar. Conversely, the less the exposure to the relevant speech community and/or less accessible Free Ride, the more the need for formal grammar.

Finally, the controversy between deductive or inductive use of grammar in teaching foreign languages needs to be discussed in relation to teaching of Turkish. Many experienced teachers of Turkish point out that this choice also depends on the

Free Ride Principle alluded earlier. Hadley (1993) reports that while some teachers claim to have gotten better results with the deductive method, others seem to favor the inductive approach. Many of the teachers teaching Turkish as a foreign language would find it hard to favor the inductive method. This is perhaps crucially related to the Free Ride Principle, and it would be worthwhile to inquire as to whether in fact the presence of a high level of Free Ride does play a role in the success reported in favor of the inductive method.

At every phase of a teaching process the series of examples presented must be sufficiently transparent in structure for the students to be able to relate to them. The inductive method assumes that a set of internally well-organized examples will be sufficiently transparent to the language learner without initially presenting the formal regularities involved in that set of examples. I tend to think that this is achieved to the extent that the structures to be taught resemble the native language of the learner. For a native speaker of English this involves same sentence types, same sub-sentential constructions like prepositional phrases, nominal, adjectival, adverbial clauses marked at the beginning with complementizers, *like, when, which, that*, etc., as well as the same types of modalities in cases like abilitatives, negatives, etc. When the set of structures introduced at some point in the teaching process is totally different in kind so as not to allow any Free Ride, the inductive method becomes extremely costly. The almost total opaqueness of the presented examples seems to destroy the motivational energy required for the learner to maintain the needed concentration to get to the end of the example set.

The position advocated here is not one that assigns a central role to grammar in the teaching of Turkish; the ultimate aim should be the attainment of full communicative competence. But given the two limiting factors, the lack of Free Ride between English and Turkish, due to the substantial structural differences between the two languages, and the limiting factor of the foreign language teaching environment for Turkish in America, systematic reliance on the deductive use of formal grammar in the classroom to attain a level of structural transparency crucial in acquiring a cognitive grammar of the target language becomes indispensable. Those who underestimate the direct role of formal grammar in teaching rely in differing degrees on the assumption that through theatrics a simulated speech community can be re-created in the classroom to allow the learner to deduce the rules of grammar directly from the exposure to such simulation. There is as yet, however, no evidence of any kind that this assumption is correct.

Finally, what makes it almost totally impossible to argue in concrete terms for or against a particular teaching method is the lack of a decently neutral method of testing and evaluation that would test the results of particular methods and ideally allow for a comparative evaluation. In the face of the lack of such an evaluation metric, false arguments, blatant fallacies may carry the day. Perhaps the most blatant of such fallacies is that since native language learning does not involve the intervention of formal grammar, it follows that foreign language teaching need not be interfered with by formal grammar either.

4.2.3. Suggestions

The common method of presenting new material in textbooks by first exposing students to a new text of either prose or dialogue is usually quite onerous. Students rush to the structural explanations in the following pages before they try to tackle the new material. The position advocated here is that at elementary level new structural properties of language should not be introduced initially in continuous text. Students need, and they demand certain level of structural transparency before they can comfortably participate in usage.

In FTL in general and in TFL in particular teachers are not constrained by immediate return. Unlike the case in second language teaching teachers do not expect the learner to rush out of the classroom to put his newly acquired language skills to use. This is targeted after at least one year of study. Considering that acquisition of structure cannot be obtained by Free Ride, the main objective of an Elementary Turkish course must be to insure that students primarily acquire a sound basic structure of Turkish phonology, morphology, and syntax.

This is by no means an argument for a return to classical grammar and translation method. Rather the chapters of the teaching texts could be based on structural themes within which usage is introduced. This method also incorporates the cyclical introduction of situational practices. For example, a situational practice of a telephone conversation or shopping etc., is brought up several times expecting the student to employ a wider variety of structures to elaborate his/her communication. In this method usage is based on structural organization rather than vice-versa.

4.3. Place And Use Of Literature in Language-Teaching Framework of Turkish

4.3.1. A General Survey of Changing Attitudes Toward Literature in Foreign Language Teaching

There has been a renewed interest in the last decade both in reading and in the teaching of literature in foreign language classes, engendered by new research findings about the way human mind acquires knowledge. The currently popular communicative approaches, with their emphasis on speaking and management of authentic situations, have tended to overlook reading as a somewhat passive activity. When these incorporated reading, they have utilized informational rather than literary pieces. This separation of language and literature studies has both robbed language teaching of an important source of materials, and has caused the diminishing of enrollments in literature programs.

By contrast, the previously dominant grammar-translation method has always used literature, but as an area of advanced study, to be approached only after enough vocabulary and grammar were accumulated. This method has also treated texts of foreign languages as if they had one to one correspondence with one's native language, as if one could understand these texts only by looking up all the unknown words. Thus, they have focused their energies on the language at the word level.

However, new research both in artificial intelligence and psychology shows that the unit of comprehension is not the word, but the paragraph.¹¹ Furthermore, reading is discovered to be not a passive activity as previously thought, but rather a parallel activity for speaking that requires the accumulation and negotiation of different cues and information leading to comprehension.¹² In other words, reading in a foreign language combines foreign language skills with reading skills.¹³ It requires the activation of local and global comprehension strategies and the use of top-bottom and bottom-top approaches.¹⁴

The most important of the new findings about reading is that the human mind makes sense of new information by connecting it to the existing mental structures of what one already knows, and understands it in terms of these. In other words, what one understands from reading a written piece is what one is equipped to understand.

¹¹ Renate A. Schulz. "From Word to Meaning: Foreign Language Reading Instruction after the Elementary Course," Modern Language Journal 67.2: 127.

¹² Janet K. Swaffar, "Reading Authentic TExts in the Classroom: A Cognitive Model," Modern Language Journal 69. 4: 360.

¹³ Schulz, 132.

¹⁴ Claire Kramersch, "Literary Texts in the Classroom: A Discourse," Modern Language Journal 69. 4: 360.

This idea is set forth by the schema theory, which describes comprehension "as the result of an interaction between the text itself and what the reader knows and expects from the text."¹⁵ Existing background knowledge that forms the basis of understanding is called schemata.

Effective readers utilize two kinds of schemata: 1) formal schemata, that is, background knowledge about the genre and organization of the text and 2) content schemata, which is knowledge about the subject that forms the content of the written piece. For the reader to effectively understand the piece, s/he has to have the appropriate schemata for both structure and content. Furthermore, the schemata of the text have to correspond to the readers' expectations of these.

What makes reading in a foreign language difficult is not only unknown words, but unknown schemata about cultural concepts and the organization of these. Research shows that each culture has its own schemata of organization. Kaplan argues that Oriental paragraphs are circular, and that English paragraphs proceed more linearly¹⁶ whereas Semitic languages use parallel structures.¹⁷ Roman Languages, on the other hand, seem to allow more for digressions and extraneous material.¹⁸ Thus, teaching reading in foreign languages involves for the teacher the activation of existing schemata as well as building of appropriate schemata so that the readers will understand and interpret the written material in the way it is intended to be understood in its original culture.

4.3.2. New Attitudes and Methods in Teaching Literature in Foreign Languages

Findings from research combined with the influence of discourse theory has brought about changes in method and attitude in the teaching of reading in foreign language classes. For example, schema theory has changed the emphases and organization of teaching. Aiming at extensive comprehension rather than intensive understanding of few sentences, which is, for example, what the grammar-translation method aims at, teachers encourage in their students the transfer of first language reading habits: skipping unknown words, trying to guess meaning from context, puzzle

¹⁵ Marva A. Barnett, "The Reading Component Articulated Across Levels," ed. Wilga Rogers, Teaching Language in College (Illinois: National Textbook Company, 1992), p.75.

¹⁶ Quoted in Barnett, p. 76.

¹⁷ Quoted in Sally A. Hague and Renee Scott "Awareness of Text Structure: Is There A Match Between Readers and Authors of Second Language Texts?" Foreign Language Annals 27.3 : 344.

¹⁸ Quoted in Hague and Scott, p. 344.

out meaning from the grammatical function of the word, guessing meaning by looking at previous and succeeding sentences.

Teaching proceeds in three stages. In the terminology suggested by Swaffar, these are:

- 1) pre-production
- 2) reproduction and
- 3) free production.

In the first stage, which is the pre-reading stage, the teacher familiarizes the students with content and form to tap on existing schemata, to set up expectations which will be either confirmed or undermined and modified by the reading process. Reading, as Schulz puts it, is a psycho-linguistic game of guessing.¹⁹ For example, the teacher might give the students a couple of minutes to read the first paragraph, and then ask the students to enumerate the words necessary for defining the context of the piece. After writing these on the board, s/he might ask them to describe the ideas, events, allusions invoked by these words, and have them guess not only what the piece will be about, but what kinds of stance and arguments will be used.

The reproduction stage involves ensuring of comprehension and building of new schemata. The teacher might use: true/ false statements, matching of quotes with characters, finishing incomplete sentences, asking direct questions, finding parallelisms or contrasts after the group identifies the idea to be pursued, writing summaries, finding examples for a general argument articulated in class.

The free production stage involves interpretation and evaluation of the piece by the students. Some of the activities of this stage are: oral or written compositions, imagining the characters of the read piece in another situation such as looking for a job or being interviewed by a reporter, envisioning other plot developments or alternate endings.

The last three suggestions emphasizing imagination utilize a technique called "fiction into fiction," which plays with the transposition of characters in different contexts. These exercises might focus on a certain theme, thus require the use of certain vocabulary or might be formatted for grammatical practice. For example, in the case of a television reporter interviewing characters about what they did the night before, past tense can be practiced. Or if the interview is about future goals, the future tense can be used. The purpose in all the examples above is to incorporate reading into a

¹⁹ Schulz, p.128.

communicative teaching framework, in which the piece read by the students provides the content of the communication exercises, both spoken and written.

This use of literature requires its desacralization. Literary pieces are no longer viewed as sacrosanct writings whose normative meanings are only available to the teacher, who has to lecture the students and impart to them relevant interpretations. Nor are these texts viewed singly as the domain of advanced studies of the language. They are introduced as they become linguistically feasible, starting from the elementary level. Furthermore, these pieces are accessed through the interpretations, reactions and associations of the students. The teacher still communicates the background historical and social information, still leads the class in ensuring comprehension, but her/his interpretation remains as one of the possible ones rather than the only and absolute interpretation.

Claire Kramersch is the most vocal and exciting articulator of this idea of a non-normative, process-based classroom in which the teacher gives up his/her authority as the dispenser of absolute truths, and acts as an initiator and activator of original and individual responses. In the December 94 issue of MLA's Profession, she shares her philosophy of fostering and encouraging multiple view points in the language classroom. She writes, "The question then became not how to avoid this conflict [of multiple interpretations] but how to use divergent responses in the classroom to reflect on the potential incommensurability of readers' positions."²⁰ She acknowledges in her classroom the validity of multiple interpretations by not asking what the author's intentions are in a given text, which implies the existence of a unique single meaning. Rather she asks "How do the words the author chose affect you, the reader? and Why do they have this effect on you and not on me?"²¹

By acknowledging the different backgrounds, ages, that is the positionality of her students and herself that explains the differences of individual reactions, Kramersch validates differing opinions. Thus, she encourages her students to make the text their own, and to discover their own voices and selves in the process of talking in a foreign language about a foreign literary piece. Hailing the language classroom "as a neglected humanistic border space between competing linguistic and cultural imaginations," Kramersch argues "within the limits of the foreign classroom genre, such is the power of language that the smallest line of poetry can potentially change one's inner timing,

²⁰ Claire Kramersch. "In Another Tongue," *Profession 94* (The Modern Language Association of America), p.13.

²¹ Kramersch, "In Another Tongue," p. 13.

cause the sightings to become singings, and reveal in those singings some unknown self waiting to be born."²²

This is a general survey of literature in teaching reading in foreign languages. One important area of research in terms of Turkish is to find out what teachers of Turkish teach in their reading classes at different levels. What are their methods, approaches and emphases in teaching reading? To what extent do teachers of Turkish follow new research and apply the findings of these to their classes?

There is anecdotal evidence that some teachers use communicative approaches, and that others prefer the grammar and translation method. Still others mix both. We need a systematic and larger sampling of materials and methods to have a clearer sense of how the teachers of Turkish are teaching reading, and what texts they are using in the process.

A survey of teachers' preparation and familiarity with research has utmost importance, for Judith Muyskens' study shows that the teacher is the most single fundamental factor both in student improvement and enjoyment in language studies.²³ Consequently, Muyskens emphasizes the importance of training of teachers in the areas of 1) goal setting; 2) presentation, discussion and testing; 3) methods of motivating students.²⁴

4.3.3. The Advantages of Using Literature

1. Using literary pieces brings a context to and unifies the concurrent thematic and structural studies of the language. As demonstrated above, the focus still remains communicative, but reading is reinforced as equally as speaking as an active skill.

2. Literature is the best source of "authentic" materials, which allow the activation and building of students' schemata. Janet Swaffar defines authentic texts are those written or composed with the primary intention to communicate. She points out edited, abridged works, dialogues or artificially constructed reading material for textbooks do not serve the same function as authentic texts. They lack "the essential features of authentic messages: repetition, redundancy, and discourse markers which confirm and elaborate on a particular authorial style or cultural pattern."²⁵

²² Kramsch "In Another Tongue," p.14.

²³ Judith A. Muyskens, "Teaching Second -Language Literatures: Past, Present and Future," Modern Language Journal. 67. 4: 421.

²⁴ Muyskens, p. 419.

²⁵ Swaffar, p.17.

3. Literature cogently conveys cultural information, which again adds to the schemata of the language learner. In order to be competent in a language, the student needs to be fluent not only in grammar and vocabulary, but in cultural literacy. S/he needs to know the important historical events, cities, monuments, celebrations, leaders, newspapers, journals, sports, symbols, etc. of the culture.

In addition to cultural literacy, study of literature is a valuable way of learning cultural awareness, which is different from the factual information connoted by cultural literacy. Cultural awareness means learning and recognizing value systems, behaviors, general attitudes of a culture.

Ömer Seyfettin's story "Gizli Mabet" illustrates the significance of cultural awareness. The hero of this story, weaned on Pierre Loti's orientalist depiction of Istanbul life, visits an old mansion in this city. He grows ecstatic about the attic, which he interprets to be a shrine for dead family ancestors with chests of their treasures and containers of holy water for their spirits. The attic, in actuality, is used as a laundry room. The chests contain old clothes, and the water in the cups around is nothing but rain collecting from a leaking roof. This story demonstrates the importance of cultural awareness in understanding meanings of another culture. In the process of doing so, it also teaches schemata about Turkish culture, about old Istanbul houses and the relationships of the people occupying it. For example, the house visited is the narrator's old wet nurse's. This requires a discussion about the custom of hiring wet nurses for babies of higher class families.

4. Study of literature has a humanistic value. Through identification with fictional characters, students get to see points of views of other cultures. This is an effective way to combat ethno-centricism. Furthermore, students acquire insights into themselves, by having to look at themselves from the outside. These insights remain with them long after the points about grammar and vocabulary are forgotten.

4.3.4. Criteria for Choosing Texts

1. The texts chosen for reading should be appropriate for the levels of students.
2. Language used should be contemporary so that it can be incorporated into conversation exercises. The issue of contemporaneity is especially significant in the case of Turkish, which replaces its old vocabulary with the new every generation.
3. Authors chosen to study should be canonical in the sense that educated members of Turkish society would know them.

4. What students may be interested in should be considered. Texts dealing with personal issues that might be relevant to them would more easily create identification.

At the workshop on Teaching Language Framework in Turkish at MESA last November, a graduate student commented that one of her classmates developed a negative attitude toward Turkey as result of constantly reading depressing stories. In a case like this, it is important to point out to the students that literature is taken seriously in Turkey, and that serious work generally means dealing with tragic and sad material. Although this is a component of Turkish culture valuable to teach, student preferences and interests should be considered in the selection of pieces. Research shows that students in the humanities prefer serious works whereas students of math and sciences like adventure stories.²⁶

Examples of Some Texts that are Used in Turkish

There are authentic materials even for most primary levels of reading in Turkish. Although Turkish is classified as one of the truly foreign languages by the State Department together with Chinese, Japanese, Arabic and Hebrew, it does not involve the learning of another script as required for the study of the other languages in the same category. Reading of short texts can be introduced in the middle or toward the end of the first semester of study. Simple children's stories such as currently popular Behiç Akyüz's stories or the books in the reading series used by first grade students, such as *Cin Ali* or *Tonton Ali* are appropriate. These use short, concrete words rather than long and abstract vocabulary. They have pictures that consolidate meaning.

These pictures are immediate source for cultural literacy and awareness. For example, the books in the readings series immediately depict classroom situations and behavior, showing the black uniforms and white collars of primary school students. The reader quickly learns what the Turkish flag looks like and who Atatürk is because these are ever-present symbols of Turkish nationalism.

Nasrettin Hoca stories, short poems, especially by Orhan Veli, mani's of Turkish folk poetry, are other popular genres to introduce in the first year. Some teachers use readers at the intermediate level. There have been three readers in Turkish: Turkish Literary Reader edited by Andreas Tietze, Contemporary Turkish Short Stories compiled by Richard L. Chambers, and Gunay Kut, and most recently A Turkish Sampler prepared by Müge Galin.

²⁶ Muyskens, p.421.

Of these, only the last one is in print. Galin's book contains a number of genres such as poems, plays and stories and novels. It has pre-reading material about the author and the period, comprehension questions and composition assignments. Galin includes pieces that are attractive to students, such as Adalet Ağaoğlu's play "Evcilik Oyunu". With its surrealistic approach, its repetitious declarative sentences, its feminist approach to love and marriage, this play piques the student's interests and personally involves them. However, most of the material, unless originally short such as poems or the story "Yüksek Ökçeler" is not "authentic" according to Swaffar's definition: they are excerpts with the rest of the text given in summary.

Newspaper, journal articles, interviews can also be integrated into the intermediate level. At higher levels, films, after intensive pre-viewing priming, have also been used successfully. It is important to compile a list of source materials for teachers to share with each other successful texts and films used in their classes. It would also be a good contribution to prepare modules of texts to be used in reading classes. A sample list of reading materials is given at the end of this report in Addendum: II.

4.3.5. Recommendations

1. Teachers should be polled about the materials and techniques they are using in the class to compile a state of the profession profile.
2. There should be workshops for teacher training that will inform and share the newest research and exciting techniques.
3. A source list of popular and successful texts and films should be prepared.
4. New material should be edited with suggestions of classroom activities and teaching techniques in the format of modules.

4.4. TURKISH CULTURE IN THE TURKISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOM: Preliminary Considerations.²⁷

²⁷ The general principles and strategies for teaching cultural understanding have been set forth effectively in Hadley (1993) *Teaching Language in Context*. (Boston: Heinle& Heinle). p. 353-411, and in *The Teaching of French*, (1989 AATF National Bulletin, V.15). The remarks here focus on the particular problems teachers of Turkish face in teaching Turkish culture, the perspectives from which they might proceed, some suggestions for questions they might address, and the types of sources they might consult in seeking answers. Specifically what aspects of Turkish culture would be taught with what particular lesson is beyond the province of these remarks and remains to be considered by the framework committee.

As part of the US effort to develop nation-wide standards in all subjects, standards are being developed for teaching the cultures associated with the less commonly taught languages. Among these cultures is that of the Turks, and much of that culture will be taught in courses on the Turkish language.

'Turkish culture' means the full range of learned information and behaviors associated with the Turks of Turkey, from procedures of everyday life [styles of communication, manners, and etiquette] all the way to what is more commonly referred to as culture, that is, the fine arts and the humanities.

A consideration of the conditions in which Turkish is taught in US universities, which are enumerated in the initial section of this report, lead us to the following conclusions in regard to teaching Turkish culture within the language learning framework for Turkish at the university level:

- There is little time to teach Turkish culture in our courses since students who simply want to meet the university language requirements and perhaps others as well may not continue their study of Turkish beyond the second year. That is why, in discussions of curricula for Turkish, the writers of this report have focused their attention on first and second year instruction. These two years, however, are crucial: if teachers can peak their interest, students may continue their studies beyond that sequence if courses are available or seek to broaden their knowledge outside of any regular educational institution, even in Turkey itself.

- Teachers will have to introduce much cultural material in the first year of Turkish, most in English, through out-of-class reading assignments and through other media. Some assignments will be directly related to the language lessons. The Defense Language Institute materials might serve as a model here, both in method and content²⁸. Each DLI language lesson has, in the accompanying workbook, a selection on culture which may cover a broad range of topics, from the everyday, to the historical and properly cultural. The lesson on telephone conversations explains the use of the telephone service. Another lesson includes notes on Mevlana. In their first year of Turkish, students would not understand explanations in Turkish on such vital matters. Aside from readings associated with a particular language lesson, other readings in English about Turkish culture but of a more general nature should also be assigned. The topics they might cover are suggested below.

²⁸Turkish Basic Course. March (1990). Validation Edition. Lessons 1-30. Monterey, CA. Defense Language Institute.

- In the second year students can read in Turkish many authentic materials dealing with culture on a higher level, especially in courses with a heavy emphasis on reading. Yet at this level too reading ability is limited and outside readings directly relevant to the class work and others of a more general nature should be assigned.

- In deciding what to teach about culture at both these levels the limited time and small number of associated cultural courses available at the university force teachers to be very selective. and to weigh carefully what to teach in class mostly in Turkish and what to assign for out-of-class work. Of the out-of-class materials they have to decide what to present in Turkish, what in English. All instructional material must be carefully prioritized. Our out-of-class materials should be so engaging that students will take the time to use them.

- The cultural materials should be selected considering our students' sophistication in their own culture, their approach to other cultures in general, and their preconceptions of Turkish culture in particular, all of which may be ascertained by means of a course entrance questionnaire. When teachers take up a certain area of Turkish experience, they should, when possible, relate it to a similar area in the student's own life.

- The cultural information teachers provide should meet student needs and desires [i.e., be learner centered], which may be ascertained with the same questionnaire suggested above.

- The cultural information should be made available at least partly through the media channels today's students prefer: Videos, CD's, laser disks, the Internet, etc. Internet communication between American and Turkish students should be encouraged.

4.4.1. Goals and Vantage Points in Teaching Turkish Culture

Before specifying further the cultural content to be taught, teachers need to reconsider their goals for teaching Turkish culture within the language learning framework. To formulate them in the most general way, they may want their students

- to be able to function effectively throughout Turkey with an awareness of regional differences, that is, to be able to communicate with a variety of Turkish speakers with the proper sensitivity,

- to understand the products of Turkish culture from Turkey and from other areas where Turks live similar to the way in which they are understood by Turks, as they are regarded from outside by non-Turks, and as contributions to the world cultural scene.

- to appreciate the situation and problems of Turks living outside Turkey, including those living in the United States.

This means teachers may provide information about Turkey and Turkish culture from at least two main vantage points:

- that of the insider, including both that of the ordinary educated Turkish citizen and that of the Turkish cultural elite[s], and
- that of the outsider to the Turkish world, for us in particular that of a US citizen.

While Turkish language courses have always had a cultural content, teachers need to reexamine that content to assess how it meets these goals and to consider what level of cultural proficiency can and should be taught in or in association with Turkish language classes. Each vantage point is taken up separately below.

4.4.2. The View from the Inside

An American student of Turkish should be aware of some part of the Turkish cultural literacy of the ordinary educated Turkish citizen, not his cultural literacy in all fields, but his literacy in Turkish culture proper. Our students need to know where our Turkish friends are coming from, to know at least some of "what every Turk knows and assumes that other Turks know, the common ground for the understanding that Turks have among themselves", the great common denominator regardless of class. [The quote, but with 'Turk' substituted for 'Russian' and added italics, is taken from Gerhart 1974²⁹].

This limited Turkish cultural literacy must include some of that basic body of facts that Turks share with one another about Turks and Turkey in various fields [geography, history, government and politics, the economy, religion, the arts: literature, music, etc.], but also a knowledge and appreciation of cultural themes, values, main concerns and interests, attitudes toward various issues, sensitivities, traditions, customs, etiquette, manners, body language, gestures, habits, and patterns in personal interactions and, of course, something of contemporary Turkish culture. It must include facts which students would probably never learn from any of the usual assigned reading and also not from contact with Turks alone unless they had lived in Turkey for a long time. It must also include those aspects of Turkish culture that students find familiar but that are in fact quite different from their own.³⁰

²⁹ Geneva Gerhart. (1974). *The Russian's World: Life and Language*. New York: Harcourt Brace Janovich.

³⁰ Alice Omaggio-Hadley. (1993). *Teaching Language in Context*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle, p. 360.

Among the study questions teachers might want their students to consider within this cultural literacy framework are the following: From the viewpoint of a Turk: What is a Turk? What does he regard as his duties and responsibilities, to himself, his family, his friends and neighbors, his co-workers in the work place, his co-religionists, the wider society, his nation? How extensive is that group which he regards as his family? What does he regard as the duties of his family, his friends and neighbors, his co-religionists, the wider society, the country toward him?

What are the characteristics of his personal relationships? What does he expect from personal relationships?: What are they for, what should they yield? What is a friend and what are his roles? How much time in a week does a Turk spend in social activities? What is the nature of these activities? What are the characteristics of communication between friends, between acquaintances? What are acceptable topics of conversation between what kind of speakers under what social circumstances? What are the relative roles of cooperation and competition between which persons or groups under what circumstances? What are his views on the roles of the sexes? What are his view of the relations between the sexes, between siblings, between the generations, between families, between classes? What is his view of human nature [Are men basically good? How far are they to be trusted? What can one expect of them]?

What is his moral orientation? What is the well lived, ideal life? What personal qualities does he most admire? What does he see as the ideal person from a moral perspective? Who are his role models? To what extent are his values related to Islam, to other standards? What does he regard as the proper role of religion in life? What does he regard as his religious duties? How does he actually practice his religion? [What part of the population does what?] How much time does he spend in this activity? How do his practices relate to his values? What is time well spent?

How does he view the main stages of life: birth, marriage, death? With what observances and ceremonies does he mark these events?

What are his views on the world of work, earning a living? What for him is the importance, value of work? What does he regard as necessary work, what as not? How does he rank different occupations in terms of status? How does he get things done within the structure of Turkish society? [What is the relative role of established institutions, personal connections, etc.?] What does he feel should be the relationship between cooperation and competition, work and leisure? What is his attitude toward authority: to those with authority over him, to those under his authority?

How does he spend his leisure time? How and where does he spend his vacations? What are his favorite forms of entertainment: his favorite sports and games?

Which arts does he prefer? What are his favorite TV and radio programs? What are his tastes in art, music, literature, film, etc.?: What styles of writing does he prefer? [Note the importance of poetry, the works most commonly referred to, recited] Who are the favorite writers [popular, high culture canons], the best loved, most popular works? What are his criteria for 'good literature'? What are the popular forms of music? [Songs everyone knows, etc.] In what contexts are works of art viewed and what are the determinants of these contexts? What does he consider funny? What are the characteristics of Turkish humor? Where are they best exemplified?

What is the nature of his culinary world? What is the composition of his main meals? What foods are regarded as properly eaten together, which not? What events call for special foods/drinks? What is the nature of these special foods/drinks? What are his favorite foods/drinks? How are they prepared? Who is associated with preparing what? What beliefs are current regarding the efficacy of various foods/drinks for different purposes?

How does he view his homeland Turkey? What is his relationship with its historical past? How does he identify himself within it, with what groups? What are his modes and styles of interaction on the political level? What are his criteria for high status within Turkish society? How does he look upon its history, social organization, present state, how it functions? What does he regard as the enduring social problems it faces? Where does he think the responsibility for them lies? What possible solutions does he see? What are Turkey's most pressing immediate concerns? How does he regard the future of his country? What minorities does he recognize and what characteristics and roles does he attribute to them?

What is his view of the world of nature and the environment? What are his views on environmental issues, the use of natural resources? Who in Turkey is at present concerned about these issues, who is not? Why?

What is his view of the world outside Turkey? How does he view Turkey in relation to the rest of the world, what does he regard as its place in world history? How does he characterize the other nations or peoples of the world, especially those with which Turkey has close ties: her European neighbors, the other Turkic peoples, her Arab neighbors, other Islamic nations, Israel, the United States? What accounts for these views? How does he think the outside world views Turkey? What are his feelings about these views? What does he regard as the influence/role of various countries within Turkey? What does he see as the role of his countrymen, both Turkish workers and intellectuals, who have left Turkey and reside abroad?

What does he regard as his place in the wider universe? What common beliefs, religious convictions, and superstitions link him to it?

These questions are intended to be preliminary, suggestive, not exhaustive. While many of them may be asked of any nationality, some are particularly relevant to Turks and Turkish culture and some promote comparison of Turkish and American cultures. It is suggested that teachers draw up such a list by brainstorming with framework committee members and colleagues, prioritize the categories and then the items within each. The purpose of this activity is not to derive a rigid stereotype but to focus on important shared features, to attempt to distinguish the typical from the atypical. One may anticipate clusters of responses reflecting various subgroups in Turkish society, a certain level of agreement on many issues, and similarities of approach and perspective even among Turks who do not agree on specifics. This is not to suggest that the answers would hold for all time: they, like all culture, will change. Teachers will focus student attention on those questions of the most enduring relevance.

Teachers should address such questions because they are constantly being asked and because many answers, correct and more frequently incorrect, are at any rate already in circulation, whether or not they chose to address them. More important, the attempt to frame such questions and the search for answers will help teachers put language teaching in a cultural context and will suggest criteria for syllabi and instructional material.

Students should have an acquaintance with the basic culture common to most classes in Turkey, but they should also have a sense of the perspective of the Turkish cultural elite or elites on their own culture and of how Turkish elite culture has developed in the modern period. Among the study questions relevant here are the following: Who are the elites? How many major elite groupings can be discerned and what are their characteristics? [What kind of families do they come from? How have they achieved their elite status? What type of education do they have? What professions do they occupy? In regard to the intellectual elites, what are their characteristics, the role expected of them, the treatment they expect?] What changes have these elites undergone and are they undergoing now? What is the relationship of the elites to each other, to the other classes, to influences from abroad? What tensions exist among different layers of Turkish society and how are they expressed? What is the relative power of the different elites? What are their goals for Turkish society and how are they attempting to achieve them? How are they represented by the political parties? What are the features of Turkish elite culture? [What features with what group?] What current issues are engaging the elite [reform, Westernization, Islamization, etc.] and

what positions are they taking toward them? What is their view of the status of the Turkish language? [Note an important question in Turkey: What is good Turkish?] What are the major publications of the elites? What trends do they reflect? Who are the major writers representative of these trends? What are the features of the language they employ?

4.4.3. Sources

To ascertain the main outlines of the cultural literacy of the general public and to get a sense of the perspective of the Turkish cultural elites on their own culture, teachers should look at Turkish sources from which they can deduce answers to such questions as well as at a still wider variety of sources that address these questions directly. Among the former are the chief means of Turkish culture transmission: specifically

- a) curricula and instructional materials used in Turkish schools and
- b) the Turkish media.

These sources are especially important in Turkey, where the state continues to play an important role as a builder of the nation and Turkish identity. [Hirsch³¹ has pointed out the importance of curricula in American culture.]

The curricula and instructional materials used in Turkish schools at all levels in the humanities, not just literature, will give teachers a feel for the education a Turkish student has received and a perspective on Turkey and the world he has been taught. [This is not meant to imply, of course, that this is the whole determiner of his outlook or belief system.] From Turkish textbooks teachers may select as reading matter for students those texts that seem particularly characteristic or revealing. Studies of or proposals for such curricula [made by Turks or non-Turks] may be also consulted. In regard specifically to literature teachers might discern the current canon, or canons.

In addition to curricula and instructional materials, teachers should consult Turkish media of all types:

1. Print media: newspapers [Note recurring topics of abiding interest], comic books [Note particularly those with Turkish subjects, including *resimli romans* issued with Turkish government support], magazines of all kinds [political, humor], journals, including the Turkish press in the US, books of all types: especially volumes devoted to

³¹ E.D. Hirsch Jr. (1987). Cultural Literacy: What Every American Needs to Know. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. p. 87.

Turkish culture issued by banks, current fiction [Note the popular canon(s)], collections of proverbs.

2. Broadcast media: Radio, Shortwave broadcasts [How is Turkey presenting itself to the world?], Television [Note especially programs devoted to historical subjects].

3. Films and Video: Feature films, documentaries. [For class use, note those available with English subtitles. Attempt to obtain scripts.].

4. Records and CD's: Songs, poetry readings, plays, etc. [For class use, note those available with Turkish texts.]

In these media teachers should look for items in the following categories:

a) descriptions of Turkish culture designed for Turks [What is available for Turks on their history similar to the PBS series on the Windsors, the American Experience, etc.?],

b) Turkish characterizations of Turks. [For example in 1989 *Hürriyet* issued a supplement entitled *Türkiye 1989: Türküm, Doğruyum, Bıyıklıyım*],

c) descriptions by Turks of their experiences abroad, in the US and elsewhere.

d) Turkish accounts concerning foreigners in Turkey.

Among sources that answer the questions more directly, one might also consult studies by social scientists on all phases of life in Turkey and opinion polls on various issues conducted among Turks by Turks and others. The polls by Turks would reveal the issues they found significant, those by foreigners would reflect their own interests and views. [Nostrand discusses the concept of 'theme' in a sociocultural system and characterizes French culture in terms of 12 themes (Hadley 1993). What studies along these lines have been done for Turkey? One such paper entitled "A Study of Turkish Values" was prepared some time ago by George Helling. What others have been done? Such themes may be used as a principal in organizing cultural information for our students.]

4.4.4. Recommendation

From the materials noted above we need an annotated bibliography of those items that best address the questions that have been formulated. The items may be classified in various ways and annotated or cross-referenced in terms of those questions. They may be assigned for student use or employed for the development of instructional material. They will cover that knowledge an American student of Turkish

may be expected to share with an educated Turk. [Americans and Turks will be working together in the selection process.]

When considering the questions raised above, teachers need to ask themselves whether similar questions, but on American culture, would be relevant if asked of American students, if not, why not, and if so how their students would respond. That is to say, teachers need to consider the similarities and differences between Turkish and American culture that have to be addressed.

4.4.5. The View from the Outside

While students of Turkish should have a feeling for the basic culture common to most classes of Turkey and a sense of the perspective of the Turkish cultural elite[s] on their own culture, they should also be aware of how Turkey, the Turks, and Turkish culture have been regarded outside Turkey. Among the study questions relevant here are the following: How has the world outside of Turkey regarded Turkey and her culture at different times in history? How does it regard it today? [Of course different areas of the world will look at Turkey differently.] What are the dominant issues that have formed public opinion toward Turkey? For our students in particular: How have Americans viewed Turkey? When, why, and how did American interest in Turkey develop? What are the main features of American-Turkish relations at present? How has the world press portrayed Turkey and Turkish culture?

Finally, from time to time, from the vantage point of both the insider and the outsider, teachers and students may want to consider some broader, more speculative questions: Of the vast potential for human expression which aspects has Turkish culture actualized, emphasized? What are the reasons for these 'choices'? How do these 'choices' compare to those of our own culture? What are the contributions of Turkish culture to world culture?

4.4.6. Sources

Standard Encyclopedia articles on Turkey and various aspects of Turkish culture. Travelers accounts from different periods, including recent ones. Newspaper and magazine articles about Turkey. Articles, particularly recent ones, on how Turkey and Turkish culture have been viewed from the outside, in the media. For accounts of experiences of Americans in Turkey: Robinson, Letters from Turkey. Other Peace Corps Materials or materials used by other groups which have sent representatives to Turkey. For a recent account of how Ottoman Literature has been viewed in the West and why, see Holbrook 1994.

4.4.7. Recommendations

The compilation of the following:

1. an annotated bibliography which might be titled: The Ottoman Empire and Turkey: the View from the Outside. It could be organized chronologically and by region of the world.
2. a bibliography of works on Turkish culture currently available.
3. a bibliography of different types of works on the culture of other peoples for use as models for those who are preparing materials on Turkish culture.

4.4.8. Accessing Materials on Turkish Culture

Basic bibliographies on certain Turkish cultural subjects might be compiled as follows: the AATT newsletter would indicate its intention to publish on a certain date a bibliography on a particular aspect of Turkish culture [e.g., films and video's on Turkish history in any language]. It would invite submissions from its readership and from the worldwide community through the Internet. To speed processing, the invitation would sharply define the limits of the project and include a brief style sheet for the submission. Submissions would be made by mail, fax, or E-mail, be classified and then published in a forthcoming AATT newsletter, which would invite its readers to send in emendations. After the newsletter had published a series of such bibliographies and the emendations had been integrated, the separate bibliographies would be published in a single sourcebook, which might be made available through the Internet. Updates to the sourcebook would be solicited at regular intervals. [For an example of an AATT bibliography on Turkish literature, see Öztopçu, 1994.]

Once the bibliographies had been compiled, how could the materials best be made available to the user? The members of the Framework committee felt that a central clearing house should be established, preferably at an American university with a solid tradition of Near Eastern Studies. The suggested AATT sourcebook might serve as a catalogue.

4.4.9. Integrating Cultural Materials into Turkish Language Courses

Once the cultural materials have been assembled, how might they be integrated into Turkish Language courses? This question cannot be answered without knowing the topics of the language lessons although this too will be determined by the cultural material to be introduced. The elementary level Turkish textbook would presumably cover all the basic situations in which the learner needs to function but in a fascinating story line that, perhaps in soap opera style, would link each lesson with the following

one, creating an atmosphere of suspense that would drive the student's interest ever forward toward the next cliff-hanger. The story might begin in Istanbul or in a village with an emotional event in the family and then move step by step to various sites of geographical and historical interest in Turkey. [See *Destinos*, the Spanish course which employs this method so effectively.³²] The earliest materials would be short dialogues, but soon short reading passages would be added. At each point the relevant cultural material would be introduced. Some of it would be in the Turkish texts, some of it in notes to the lesson, as in the case of the DLI materials noted above [Turkish Basic Course, 1990], and some of it in supplementary readings devoted to the subject of the lesson [e.g., Turkish family life] in English. The supplementary lessons might consist of English translations of short sections of memoirs [e.g., Aziz Nesin], of novels or of stories, or/and articles of a more scholarly nature. [The teaching of Turkish literature is discussed by Sibel Erol in a preceding section of this report.] The context of each item, who wrote it, when, and under what circumstances it was written, etc., must be clear. The supplementary readings should stimulate interest and provide a breadth of perspective that the Turkish language materials alone cannot provide at this early stage. Additional material, such as videos, CD's, films, etc. might also be keyed to each lesson. Because of time constraints, within the supplementary material the obligatory must be distinguished from the optional and the optional must also be prioritized.

At the intermediate level teachers could continue the method above, again emphasizing basic situations but adding longer readings on Turkish culture including more items in Turkish. On the other hand, if students are seeking mainly to rapidly achieve reading proficiency, the teacher could cut down or drop the dialogues and increase the number of readings. The readings could be organized by topics suggested by the questions above or according to some other principle but one which would still encourage consideration of the questions.

In both the elementary and intermediate courses any occasion for introducing Turkish culture should be seized, especially one easily integrated on a regular basis. While it is not the purpose of this section of this report to specify strategies, we will note the following one because it meets our criterion so well: A student begins the class by writing the day and date on the black board in Turkish. Then the teacher notes a Turkish holiday, important event in Turkish history, or significant figure associated with that date, indicating its relationship to a Turkish cultural theme. The strip < *birakanlar*, by Metin Ateş in the newspaper *Hürriyet* may serve as source for this activity.

³² Bill Van Patten et. al. (1991). *Destinos: An Introduction to Spanish*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

In this way the class will develop a basic Turkish cultural calendar the first year, and the events it covers will be reviewed the next. To relate these events to the student's own history, the teacher may also draw attention to events in American history that occurred on the same day and their relationship to themes in American culture.

Whatever organizing principle teachers chose in teaching Turkish at the university level and whatever methods they apply, the teaching of Turkish culture must play an important role, for most students studying this language are less interested in Turkish as a medium per se than in the communication it will facilitate and in the vistas on Turkish life it will open for them. It is for us teachers to help open these vistas and to assure that they be sufficiently broad.

ADDENDUM : I
STRUCTURAL CHECKLIST

At the end of the first year the student should know:

active usage	1. five cases + ile (instrumental)
active usage	2. noun constructions
active usage	3. basic 5 tenses
active usage	4. predicative, copulative sentences (nominal, non-verbal sentences)
active usage	5. plural
active usage	6. var/yok
active usage	7. auxiliary tenses (<i>hikaye, rivayet, şart</i>)
active usage	8. simple moods, optative
passive knowledge	9. extended verbal stems (causative, passive, reciprocal, reflexive)
active usage	10. abilitative, possibilitative /-(y)Abil/
active usage	11. Conjunctions, simple, discontinuous (hem hem, ne..ne, ya.. ya, ister..ister, gerek..gerek) simple (-(y)lA/, ve, fakat, ama, çünkü)
active usage	12. Adverbial constructions: /-mAdAn/, /-(y)Ip/, /-(y)ArAk/, /-(y)IncA/, /-(y)kAn/, /-(Ir,Ar)ken/
passive knowledge	13. /-dİğİndA/, /-dİktA/, /-dİğİ zaman/
active usage	14. possession construction and case (locational nouns): ön, arka, üst, alt, yan, iç, dış, yüzünden, sayesinde

active knowledge	15. Post positions with nominal complements: pps with dative: /-(y)A göre/, pps with ablative: /-dAn sonra/, pps with nominative: /olarak/, pps with nominative/genitive: /-(nIn için, Ali için, ile, gibi, tarafından.
active knowledge	16.pronouns: personal, interrogative, reflexive (kendi/m), demonstrative (bu, şu, o).
active knowledge	17. Non-specific pronouns: birisi, kimse, herkes, birşey, hepsi, bazıı, birkaçı, diğeri, başkası, pronominal /-ki/: benimki, etc.
active knowledge	18. Time(temporal) adverbials: hep, her zaman, bazen, hiç, şimdi, sonra, dün, bugün, yarın,
passive knowledge	artık
active knowledge	19. Noun clauses: infinitive: /-mAk/
peripheral knowledge	Action noun clauses: /-mA/, /-(y)Iş/, Factive noun clauses: /-dIk/, /-(y)AcAk/
active knowledge	20. clausal modification: /-dAki/ masadaki
limited usage	21. subject oriented relative clause: -(y)An/ object oriented relative clause: /-dIk/ eventive relative clause: /-mIş/
passive knowledge	22. Reason (causal) constructions: /-dİğI için, -dİğInden, -(y)AsIn diye, -dİğInA göre, -dİğI halde/
active knowledge	23. Indirect speech: whether clauses: geldi mi gelmedi mi bilmiyorum.
passive knowledge	gelip gelmediğini. indirect questions

active knowledge	24. Direct speech with diye
active knowledge	25. Compound tenses and moods: /-(y)Ivermek/
passive knowledge	/-mİş olmak, -(y)AcAk olmak, bulunmak, -(y)Ip durmak, -(y)A kalmak/
active knowledge	26. Adverbial: /-(y)A...-(y)A/
active knowledge	27. Intensive adjective: <i>masmavi, simsiyah</i>
active knowledge	28. Derivational suffixes: /-II,-sIz, -cA, CI, -IIk, -CIIIk/
passive knowledge	/-gI,-Im, -lA,-lAş-/
active knowledge	29. Comparatives
active knowledge	30. Compound verbs: /-mAk etmek, -mAk olmak/

SYNTAX:

What students has to know at the end of 1st year:

1. Copulative: Subject + adj.+noun
Ali hasta(dir), evde(dir), etc.
2. Existential sentences: Masanın üstünde kitap var/yok.
Possession: Ali Bey her komitede var/yok.
3. Complete verbal sentences.

SECOND YEAR TURKISH

The second year begins with recycling and reviewing what has been learned during the first year. Teaching in the second year emphasizes the grammatical items that was peripheral during the first year. The emphasis will be on the following grammatical constructions:

1. Causative, passive, reciprocal, and reflexive.
2. Subjunctive uses: *nereye gitsem, ne yapsam*.
3. Compound verbs with idiomatic uses: *tepesine çıkmak, ateş basmak, göz atmak, akıldan çıkmak*, etc.
4. Adverbial constructions: /dİğIndA/, /-dİktA/, /-dİğI zaman/.
5. Non-specific pronouns: *kendi, kendisi, artık*, etc.
6. Connectives, transitional expressions: *Öte yandan, bununla beraber, buna rağmen, öte yandan, bununla beraber, aslında*, etc.
7. Noun clauses: /-mA/, /-(y)Iş/, /-dİk/, /-(y)AcAk/, /-mİş/.
8. Clausal modification: Relative Clause: /-(y)An/, /-dİk/, /-(y)AcAk/.
9. Causal constructions: /-dİğI için/, -dİğIndA/, etc.
10. Indirect speech.
11. Compound tenses and moods: /-(y)A kalmak/, /-(y)A durmak/, *gitmiş oldum*, /-mAz oldu/, etc.
12. *Gidecek zannetmek, sanmak*.

SYNTAX:

1. Complex sentences,
2. Paragraph length arguments.

ADDENDUM: II

A SAMPLE READING LIST FOR THE FIRST AND SECOND YEAR CLASSES

FIRST YEAR:

1. Cin Ali, Tonton Ali Stories,
2. Nasrettin Hoca,
3. Selected simple poems form Orhan Veli,
4. Some simple poems by Semih Sergen,
5. About 2 pages from Duygu Asena's *Kadının Adı Yok*,
6. Excerpts form newspapers,
7. Aziz Nesin's *Sinekler Olmasa*,
8. Azia Nesin's *Bir Bayan Aranıyor*,
9. Animal Stories,
10. Selected simple poems by Nazım Hikmet,
11. Sports pages in newspapers,
12. Crossword puzzles prepared specifically for students.

SECOND YEAR:

1. Necati Cumalı's *Bıçak*,
2. Füzûzan's *Parasız Yatılı*,
3. Excerpts from R. N. Güntekin's *Çalığışu*,
4. Excerpts from Latife Tekin's *Berci Kristin Çöp Masalları*,
5. Selim İleri's *Gelinlik Kız*,
6. Sait Faik's *Yani Usta*,
7. Tomris Uyar's *Çiçek Dirilticiler*,
8. Orhan Kemal's *Arka Sokak*,
9. Aziz Nesin's *Şimdiki Çocuklar Harika*,
10. Ahmet Haflım's poem *Merdiven*,
11. From folk Literature : Yunus Emre, Aşık Veysel, Karacaoğlan,
12. Haldun Taner's "Made in U.S.A.," from the book *Tuş*,
13. Orhan Kemal's *İş*, from Günay Kut, Richard Chambers book,
14. Tomris Uyar's *Ölen Otelin Müşterileri*.

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