GAZİ UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAM

AN ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF METAPHORICAL

FEEDBACK ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

PHD DISSERTATION

BY

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Mustafa Serkan ÖZTÜRK'ün **"An Analysis of the Impact of Metaphorical Feedback in English Language Teaching Classroom Discourse"** başlıklı tezi .... Haziran .... tarihinde, jürimiz tarafından İngilizce Öğretmenliği Ana Bilim Dalında Doktora Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

<u>Adı Soyadı</u>   <u>İmza</u>

Üye (Başkan):Doç. Dr. Arif SARIÇOBAN ....

Üye : Yrd. Doç. Dr. Gültekin BORAN ....

Üye : Yrd. Doç. Dr. Aslı Özlem TARAKÇIOĞLU......................   ....

Üye : Yrd. Doç. Dr. Zekiye Müge TAVİL..................................   ....

Üye : (Tez Danışmanı):Yrd. Doç. Dr. Cemal ÇAKIR ....

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ÖZET

İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİNDE SINIF İÇİ SÖYLEMDE METAFOR KULLANILARAK VERİLEN DÖNÜTÜN ETKİSİNİN İNCELENMESİ

ÖZTÜRK, Mustafa Serkan

Doktora, İngilizce Öğretmenliği Anabilim Dalı

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Yabancı dil sınıflarındaki söylemin öğrenme ile ilgisi büyüktür. Sınıf içi söylemin pek çok unsurunun içinde, dönüt merkezi bir öneme sahiptir. Kalıcı öğrenmenin sağlanması, düşünme becerilerinin geliştirilmesi ve motivasyonun artırılmasında etkili dönüt kullanımının büyük rolü vardır. Bilişsel mekanizmaların en temel unsurlarından olan metaforların dönütlerdeki rolü ise araştırmaya değer bir konudur.

Bu çalışma, metafor kullanılarak verilen dönütlerin İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Programı öğretmen adaylarının tutum ve davranışlarına olan etkisini araştırmaktadır. Araştırma üç alt faktöre sahip on üç maddeden oluşan bir tutum ölçeği ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu ölçek ile öğretmen adaylarının, kalıcı öğrenme, ileri düşünme becerileri ve motivasyon seviyeleri araştırılmıştır. Öğretmen adayları İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Programında Dil Öğretim Becerileri dersi bünyesinde yedi haftalık bir uygulamaya tabi tutulmuşlardır. Bu araştırmada, hem nitel hem de nicel veri toplama teknikleri kullanılmıştır. Ön test ve son test olarak metafor kullanılarak verilen dönüt ölçeği hem kontrol hem de deney grubuna uygulanmıştır. Bu ölçeğe ek olarak, öğretmen adaylarının tutum ve davranışlarındaki muhtemel değişikliği gözlemlemek için nitel bir araç olan yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme tekniği kullanılmıştır. Nicel araştırmanın sonucunda öğretmen adaylarının kalıcı öğrenme, ileri düşünme becerileri ve motivasyon seviyelerinde deney grubunda gelişme gözlenirken kontrol grubunda bir gelişme görülmemiştir. Nitel araştırmanın da sonuçları nicel verilerle aynı doğrultuda olmuştur.

Bu araştırmada İngiliz Dili Eğitimi öğretmen adaylarının kalıcı öğrenme, ileri düşünme becerileri ve motivasyonları üzerine tutum ve davranışlarında anlamlı bir değişiklik sağladığı saptanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Sınıfiçi Söylem İncelemesi, Metafor Kullanılarak Verilen Dönüt, Kalıcı Öğrenme, İleri Düşünme Becerileri, Motivasyon

ABSTRACT

AN ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF METAPHORICAL FEEDBACK ON
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

ÖZTÜRK, M. Serkan

PhD Dissertation, English Language Teaching Program

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The relationship between classroom discourse and learning a foreign language is important. Feedback has an important role among the various components of the classroom discourse. The use of effective feedback has a crucial role in developing retention, thinking skills, and motivation. The role of metaphor, which is among the most crucial components of cognitive mechanisms, is worth investigating.

This study explores the contribution of metaphorical feedback to prospective teachers' beliefs and attitudes. A 13-item scale which includes three factors was used to collect data. Through this scale; retention, higher order thinking skills and motivation were investigated. The participants were treated for seven weeks in the course of Language Teaching Skills at English Language Teaching Program, Gazi Faculty of Education, Gazi University. In this study, both quantitative and qualitative research tools were used. Metaphorical feedback questionnaire was implemented as a pre-test and post-test. In order to observe the possible changes on students' beliefs and attitudes, a semi-structured interview was also administered as a qualitative tool. The quantitative results of the study indicate that there is a significant development in retention, higher order thinking skills and motivation of the experimental group while there is not in the control group. Also, the qualitative findings were the same as the quantitative findings.

According to the results, it can be concluded that metaphorical feedback develops students' retention, higher order thinking skills, and motivation.

Keywords: English Language Teaching, Classroom Discourse Analysis, Metaphorical Feedback, Retention, Higher Order Thinking Skills, Motivation

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

In foreign language (FL) teaching, the classroom discourse can be regarded as the richest source of learning language intricacies and of trying basic communication strategies in the FL. The quality of FL classroom discourse can also be a highly motivating factor for learners. It may encourage them to tap their capacity and resources both in and outside the classroom.

Discourse analysis studies were initiated by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), who shed light to the latter studies. Their focus was interactional patterns which occur in classes. For them, discourse analysis mainly focuses on interactional sociolinguistics, ethno-methodology, pragmatics and conversational analysis within an interdisciplinary aspect (Schiffrin, 1994). These fields have different approaches, but they meet the same ground in the principle that is a social interaction in general.

When it comes to foreign language, discourse analysis focuses on language, structure, context, and social aspects of the language. In this respect, Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985) define discourse as "larger units of language such as paragraphs, conversations, and interviews" (p. 84). Gee 1999 also defines discourse analysis as:

> I will reserve the word 'discourse' with a little "d," to mean language-in-use or stretches of language (like conversation or stories). "Big D" Discourses are always language plus "other stuff." . . . To "pull off" being an "X" doing "Y" (e.g. a Los Angeles Latino street gang member warning another gang member off his territory, or a laboratory physicist convincing colleagues that a

particular graph supports her ideas...) it is not enough to get just the words "right," though that is crucial. It is necessary, as well, to get one's body, clothes, gestures, actions, interactions, ways with things, symbols, tools, technologies (be they guns or graphs), and values, attitudes, beliefs, and emotions "right," as well, and all at the "right" places and times (pp. 7-17).

For Gee (1999), learning a foreign language is not only learning grammatical rules but also learning various discourse conventions, e.g. applying these conventions into the right place, right time, and right people. To this end, as discourse analysis uses principles and concepts of the linguistics, mere grammatical analysis will not be enough to explain the intention and the situation of the speaker. For this reason, conversational analysis which brings some of the principles from ethno-methodology should be taken into consideration. Richards, Platt and Platt (1992) assert that ethno-methodology studies the way people organize their lives and the way people interact between them. The interest in classroom discourse studies may be traced as far as back as to the 1940's and a great deal of research in many different fields of discourse has been done since 1960's. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) state that classroom language has a strict rule between student and teacher in terms of interaction. For them, the structure of the classroom discourse is composed of: (I) initiation by the teacher, (R) response by the student, and (F) feedback by the teacher. Along with the history of classroom discourse researches, several linguists have developed about twentysix systems to analyze the second language classroom interaction. Those approaches are mainly divided into two groups: system based approaches and ad hoc approaches. They will be analyzed in detail in the literature review section below.

As for metaphor, it has traditionally been construed as a linguistic phenomenon, as something produced and understood by speakers of natural language. So understood, metaphors are naturally viewed as linguistic expressions of a particular type, or as linguistic expressions used in a particular type of way. Metaphor is a trope or figure of speech, where a 'figure of speech' is a non-literal use of language. This class also includes irony, metonymy, synecdoche, hyperbole, and meiosis (Reimer and Camp, 2006). Richards (1936) states that metaphors are made up of two parts: 'tenor' and 'vehicle'. His terms corresponds to Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) 'target' and 'source', which are mostly known by the recent linguists. 'Tenor' and 'target' are objects, so their characteristics are attributed, 'vehicle' and 'source' are objects and some of their

features are borrowed to describe the target. Both concepts are used to show the differences and similarities. Hui and Umar (2011) state that metaphors help learners to develop mental images to reason abstract situations. They are described as a real world system and students use metaphors as a reference in linking existing ideas to new concepts. In our study, metaphor will be used an effective instrument to evaluate the students' performance within the classroom discourse.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

As there are many different types and uses of metaphor in language, defining and finding a common ground is hard. In this respect, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) state that due to the complex and vague structure of the metaphor, even the native speakers may not be aware of discourse. So, metaphors turn into a more sophisticated and complex phenomenon for the foreign language learners. Native speakers of the English language may overcome the difficulties owing to their especially cultural and linguistic backgrounds. However, foreign language learners of English may not have a chance to deal with such complexities, as they do not have enough input in terms of metaphorical language in their language discourses. As a result, using metaphorical expressions, especially in feedback sessions, may prove useful for foreign language learners. When the literature is reviewed, it can be observed that almost no teacher education programs use metaphors as a reflection tool. This fact makes it an essential task to investigate the effects of using metaphor as a constructive and effective instrument while giving feedback in the foreign language classroom environment. Therefore, this study will investigate the effects of metaphorical feedback on students' beliefs and attitudes in classroom environment considering both ways of the interaction between teacher and students. Realizing that feedback is an integral part of classroom discourse analysis, examination of this metaphorical feedback is crucial to improve students' higher order thinking skills, level of motivation, and retention. This study will heavily emphasize the effects of metaphorical feedback on students' attitudes and beliefs.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

In foreign language teaching, classroom discourse analysis has come into prominence in recent years. Thus, one can see a lot of researches in various disciplines in terms of classroom discourse analysis as they will be examined in detail in the literature part below. English language learners need to deal with metaphorical expressions not only in their daily conversation but also in academic courses. For this reason, the purpose of our study is to find out the possible effects of the teacher's metaphorical feedback given along with seven weeks after the students' presentations in the course of Teaching Language Skills in an ELT context at the BA level.

The research questions of this study are as follows:

1. Does the metaphorical feedback which is given to foreign language learners have an effect on the learners' beliefs and attitudes?
2. Do the learners who receive metaphorical feedback for their presentation have a better retention than the learners who receive traditional feedback?
3. Do the learners who receive metaphorical feedback for their presentation have more in higher order thinking skills than the learners who receive traditional feedback?
4. Do the learners who receive metaphorical feedback for their presentation have a better increase on the level of motivation than the learners who receive traditional feedback?

1.3. Importance of the Study

As each classroom has its own characteristics, teachers should consider and decide the type of teaching within this perspective. In this respect, teachers who are going to use metaphors in their classes need to enlighten their students about the ubiquity and significance of metaphors in their daily lives. They also need to inform them about the difference between metaphor types such as poetic metaphors, linguistical metaphors, and especially conceptual metaphors, and their functions and importance in language learning. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) also state that a great deal of language is motivated by metaphor, thus examining metaphors in terms of learner's point of view

will offer valuable insights. For this reason, teachers have to use different teaching techniques in the levels of instruction, description and reflection which are suitable for different class profiles. The importance of this study is that in order to apply these levels in the foreign language teaching classroom environment, teachers should be informed about the use of metaphorical expressions in different levels mentioned above, especially while giving feedback after students' presentations in the course of Teaching Language Skills.

1.4. Assumptions

The whole process of this study was conducted in Gazi University, Faculty of Education, English Language Teaching Program. It is the most populated program in Turkey, with about 1100 students including both day and evening classes. The first assumption of this study is that students understood the Metaphorical Feedback Scale clearly, which was developed by the researcher and the supervisor of the researcher. The second assumption of the study is that prospective teachers who participated in this research responded honestly and consistently to the scale and the other qualitative data collection procedures. The reliability values of both quantitative and qualitative instrument will be provided and explained in the methodology section.

1.5. Limitations

Stubbs (1983) states that in studying natural data, inevitable complexities may occur. Although one or more recording tool will be set up inside the classrooms, some problems could occur; for example, we cannot record the utterances told by students with a low voice, we cannot follow and transcribe whole classroom utterances. The transcript will be used to investigate what sort of teacher feedback is given and what kind of effects on students there are. Schiffrin (1994) claims that interference of a researcher's intuitions in descriptions while interpreting the conversation has not been totally avoidable. In addition to this, due to the fact that only one teacher will be recorded in this study, the question whether or not teachers' personal styles will have an impact on the varieties of classroom teaching will remain unanswered. In order to

prevent the bias, the researcher studied with two independent coders and a decoder to uncover the classification of qualitative data. This study is also limited to the third grade students who perform micro-teaching presentations in Teaching Language Skills at Gazi University.

1.6. Definitions of Some Key Concepts

Discourse Analysis: Discourse analysis (often defined as language above and beyond the sentence) is a method of analyzing language that focuses on how language is part of (and contributes to) text and context. The methods by which linguists analyze discourse stem from several different disciplines (philosophy, anthropology and sociology, as well as linguistics) and new approaches continue to be developed (Schiffrin, 1994).

Metaphor: A metaphor is a literary figure of speech that describes a subject by asserting that it is, on some point of comparison, the same as another otherwise unrelated object. Kövecses (2002) defines metaphor, or specifically "conceptual metaphor," as "understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain.

Higher Order Thinking Skills: Higher order thinking takes place at a higher level of the hierarch of cognitive process. Bloom's taxonomy is widely accepted type of hierarchical of the arrangement in education. For him, process starts with lower-level skills and then becomes more complicated in the higher levels. Bloom (1956) identified six levels of cognition: (1) Knowledge: recall or locate information, learning facts. (2) Comprehension: understanding of facts, organizing or interpreting them. (3) Application: using understanding to solve problems in new situations. (4) Analysis: recognizing patterns suggested by facts, 'take apart' information to examine different parts. (5) Synthesis: producing something new, bringing together more than one idea. (6) Evaluation: considering evidence to support conclusions, judging quality of a solution or theory.

Motivation: Motivation is thought to be responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity and how hard they are going to pursue it (Dörnyei, 2001).

Retention: Retention is the act or condition of keeping or containing something.

Feedback: Feedback is information a student receives after they have completed a piece of work and can be provided in a range of formats.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Basics of Discourse Analysis

Discourse Analysis (DA) is seen as a broad discipline which goes back to 1950s. This term was firstly used by Harris (1951), who made this study in terms of the distribution of linguistic elements in extended elements in extended texts, and of the link between the text and situation, though his paper is different from the discourse analysis we are used to nowadays. When this phenomenon is treated in detail, we encounter many different definitions and approaches to discourse and DA; that is, there is no consensus on what DA is. In order to elucidate these terms, we need to start our study by defining discourse and DA. Jorgensen and Phillips (2002) state that

> ...underlying the word 'discourse' is the general idea that language is structured according to different patterns that people's utterances follow when they take part in different domains of social life, familiar examples being 'medical discourse' and 'political discourse'. 'Discourse analysis' is the analysis of these patterns (p. 1).

Discourse and DA studies have been fed by various disciplines such as linguistics, anthropology, philosophy, cognitive psychology and psycholinguistics. Herein, Schiffrin, Tannen, and Hamilton (2003) claim that given this disciplinary diversity, in different fields, 'discourse' and 'discourse analyses' have different meanings. Moreover, especially linguists define 'discourse' as anything 'beyond the sentence'. For others, like, Fasold (1990), the study of discourse is the study of language (cited in Schiffrin, Tannen and Hamilton 2003, p.1).

Just as Stubbs (1983) sees DA as "very ambiguous", so Slembrouck (2005) points out the ambiguity of DA and provides a broader definition:

> The term discourse analysis is very ambiguous. I will use it in this book to refer mainly to the linguistic analysis of naturally occurring connected speech

or written discourse. Roughly speaking, it refers to attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause, and therefore to study larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts. It follows that discourse analysis is also concerned with language use in social contexts, and in particular with interaction or dialogue between speakers (cited in Alba-Juez 2009, p. 9).

DA does not only put emphasis on the description and analysis of spoken interaction because people use hundreds of written and printed words: newspaper articles, stories, letters, recipes, instructions, notices, billboards, and so on. These are expected to be coherent, meaningful to convey meanings in a fashion, just as we do in speech, that's why discourse analysts are as much interested in written discourse as in spoken discourse. Hereinafter, we need to compare and explain both Text Linguistics (TL) and DA. According to Crystal (2011), studying on the text became a defining feature of text-linguistics which refers to it as a branch especially in Europe. These texts are seen as language units which have a definable communicative function used by such principles: cohesion, coherence, informativeness. From this point of view, these principles are divided into such groups as text types, genres, news reports, conversations, and so on. So, as this approach mainly overlaps with the DA, linguists cannot make clear cut definitions between TL and DA.

De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) define text as a communicative event and this event needs to satisfy seven criteria as in the following: (1) *Cohesion:* conjunction, ellipsis, anaphora, cataphora or recurrenceare used to make connections between text and syntax. (2) *Coherence:* the meaning of the text. Instead of linguistic realization of the information, it influences the reception of the message by interlocutors. (3) *Intentionality:* a relation between attitude and purpose of the sender. (4) *Acceptability:* receivers are prepared to assess the relevance or usefulness of a given text. (5) *Informativity:* related to the quantity or quality of the expected information. (6) *Situationality:* situation is the main focus in producing or receiving the message. (7) *Intertextuality:* a text is always related to the former or ongoing discourse. In addition to this, texts are divided into genre groups such as narrative, and descriptive. The criteria above may help us make a distinction between TL and DA. Ticher et al (2000) divide seven standards into two groups: *text-internal* which covers cohesion and coherence, the rest is called *text-external* (cited in Alba-Juez, 2009, p.7). *Text-internal* means linguistic features of a text, but *text-external* plays a subordinate role. According to them, TL

intensively studies text as *text-internal,* while DA *external factors.* From those perspectives, analyzing discourse is divided into two main groups: formalists or structuralists and functionalists.

2.1.1. Approaches to Discourse Analysis

Formal and functional approaches to DA do not exclude each other; however, they use different criteria and methods to analyze. Formal or structural approaches have a tendency to put more emphasis on the linguistic code and on the relationship between the constituents and structures; on the other hand, functionalists refer to social, cultural or communicative contexts (Gonzalez, 2004). In other words, in formalist approach, discourse is a unit of language beyond the sentence, and discourse is defined as language use in functional approach. Harris (1951) is the first linguist who used the term of discourse analysis and he is a formalist. To him, discourse is a structural unit which can be studied by analogy with the sentence. Also, he views discourse as the next level in a hierarchy of morphemes, clauses and sentences. It is a formal method procedurally analyzed and derived from structural linguistic analysis.

Dijk (1985) also describes discourse as a formalist as something "...at several levels or dimensions of analysis and in terms of many different units, categories, schematic patterns or relations" (p. 4). He also states that structural discourse analysis deals with the functions of different units in relation to each other; however, it ignores the functional relationship with the context of which discourse is a part. Formalist or structural approach puts language units in a hierarchy; therefore, "one can describe language in a unitary way that continues unimpeded from morpheme to clause to sentence to discourse. But this way of analysis does not pay attention to the purpose and functions for which so called units are designed to serve human affairs" (Sharma and Sharma, 2010).

When it comes to functionalist approach, Brown and Yule (1983) state "... the analysis of discourse is necessarily, the analysis of language in use" (p. 1). Gee (1999) also defines DA as " a reciprocal and cyclical process in which we shuttle back and forth between the structure (form, design) of a piece of language and the situated

meanings it is attempting to build about the world, identities, and relationships" (p. 99). According to this view, DA cannot only be limited to the description of linguistic forms by itself. They should be related to the purposes and functions which these forms perform. Furthermore, all uses of language are embodied in DA as they focus on the way in which people use language to achieve certain communicative goals (Alba-Juez, 2009).

Discourse embraces both propositional content and cultural, social and contextual contents as it does not only follow hierarchical levels of language. For Fairclough (1989), there is reciprocality between language and society. "Language is a part of society; linguistic phenomena are social phenomena of a special sort, and social phenomena are linguistic phenomena" (p. 23). Schiffrin (1994) summarises views on functional and formal approaches to DA as:

> A definition of discourse as language use is consistent with functionalism in general: discourse is viewed as a system (a socially and culturally organised way of speaking) through which particular functions are realised. Although formal regularities may very well be examined, a functionalist definition of discourse leads analyst away from the structural basis of such regularities to focus, instead, on the way patterns of talk are put to use for certain purposes in particular contexts and/or how they result from the application of communicative strategies. Functionally based approaches tend to draw upon a variety of methods of analysis, often including not just quantitative methods drawn from social scientific approaches, but also more humanistically based interpretive efforts to replicate actors' own purposes or goals. Not surprisingly, they rely less upon the strictly grammatical characteristics of utterances as sentences, than upon the way utterances are situated in context. (p. 32)

Although there are lots of categorizations, it could be said that different approaches to discourse devoted to the field propose various forms of analysis or new concepts somehow transforms or broadens the previous applications of analysis. But it would be true to say that more or less all types of analysis are related to each other and it would not be true to make clear-cut definitions.

2.1.2. Discourse in Language Teaching

Language is not only the focus of education, as it is in the case of teaching English to other students from different nationalities, but also it means schooling by the

use of mother tongue. In the target language, limited ability of second language classroom cannot develop learners' communicative competence, although there are communicative approaches. This is because of the limited time, minimal opportunities for interacting with native speakers, limited exposure to the variety of functions and discourse types that occur outside the classroom. In order to find out both quality and quantity of students' output, teachers can use discourse analytical methods.

Coulthard (1977) presented an integrative description of DA in terms of language learning and teaching. To him, the major aim of DA is to determine the rules which help produce coherent discourses. Furthermore, DA should aim at examining the nature of the units whose structure and occurrence are described by sequencing rules. Basic premise of his view is that the unit of analysis is not grammatical clause or sentence, although the unit could consist of a clause or a sentence. Demo (2001) proposes a four part process of Record-View-Transcribe-Analyze. Second language teachers can investigate the interaction patterns in their classrooms. By means of this, they see these patterns promote or hinder opportunities for learners. In addition to this, this process allows language teachers to modify their own teaching behaviour, specifically, the frequency, distribution, and types of questions they use and their effect on students' responses.

Olshtain and Celce Murcia (2003) support the view above in their study that "it would be ill-advised to teach language via the communicative approach without relying heavily on discourse analysis" (p. 707). They also mean that DA should create decision-making mechanisms in language teaching and learning. Creating necessary contexts for interaction, showing speaker/hearer and reader/writer exchanges in different situations, and providing suitable opportunities to use language would be very useful for developing learning environments within a communicative perspective.

Finally, DA should provide basic needs of language teaching and learning. Moreover, creating necessary contexts for interaction, showing speaker/hearer and reader/writer exchanges in different situations, and providing suitable opportunities to use language would be very useful for developing learning environments within a communicative perspective.

2.2. Classroom Discourse Analysis in EFL and ESL Settings

In the middle of the 1970s, language teaching research became as a discipline. It was occupied with interaction in foreign language teaching as an object of research and the analysis of classroom discourse was the focus of attention as pioneered by Sinclair and Coulthards' Discourse Analysis Model (1975), which defines the structure of the patterns of language in Classroom Discourse. For them, the most commonly observed classroom discourse pattern is composed of a teacher asking a question or giving a direction to elicit an answer from one or more students, and the teacher giving some kind of information. They claimed that there were certain moves in conversation and named these moves which were combining and forming cycles such as soliciting moves, responding moves, structuring moves and reacting moves (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). Then, they expressed the structure of exchanges in the Classroom Discourse in terms of moves; namely, an Initiation (I) by the teacher, followed by a Response (R) from the pupil, followed by Feedback (F) from the teacher to the pupils' response.

In this respect, nearly half of the interactions in both first language and second language discourse in classrooms are initially started and compromised by teachers (Chaudron, 1988, Hatch and Long, 1980). This study indicates that teacher dominates the interaction in class. Likewise, Stubbs (1983) claims that there is an unequal power relation between participants inside the class. As the teacher has the power to select the content and type of the activity, the teacher determines who will speak to whom and when. However, this rule is different outside the classroom in terms of turn taking. According to Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1974), one person speaks at a time in many cultures. In general, the current speaker can choose the next speaker by calling his name. If the current speaker selects the next one, he generally also chooses the type of next utterance by producing the first part of an adjacency pair. If the last one does not select the next speaker, anyone may take the floor.

When it comes to classroom discourse, the teacher decides the next speaker; however, students have a rare chance of selecting the next speaker. In other words, the teacher controls the flor, the students will have access to the response move within the context of I-R-F. Hatch and Long (1980) state that teachers and students have to follow "fairly rigid structures", teachers asks for a response eliciting appropriate answer and

students provide those responses. This kind of implementation may help students respond appropriately in the class, but not for outside conversation.

McDonough and Shaw (1993), and McCarthy and Carter (1994) rely on Sinclair and Coulthard's model and they state that a traditional classroom is a place where teachers ask questions that they know the answers, where students have a limited time to use their oral abilities, and where the teacher examines students' answers and all these mechanisms are important for classroom discourse.

According to Cazden (1988), in classrooms, the communication is interindividual; however, the goal of education is intraindividual change and student learning. Teachers need to know how the words spoken in classrooms affect the outcomes of education: "how observable classroom discourse affects unobservable thought processes of each of the participants, and thereby the nature of what all students learn" (p. 99). Chaudron (1988) claims that DA has contributed to the awareness raising of the internal structure and functional purpose of the verbal classroom interaction.

Along with the history of Classroom Discourse researches, several linguists developed about 26 systems to analyze second language classroom interaction. Those approaches are mainly divided into two groups: System based approaches and ad hoc approaches, which will be given in the next sub-sections.

2.2.1. System-based Approaches

Today Bellack et al (1966)'s three part exchange is mostly known as Initiation, Response, and Feedback (I, R, F) by most practitioners. Some of the researchers criticised the I-R-F as it is so teacher-centred, but Kasper (2001) countered those critics as: if teachers offer more participation rights in the conversation, students can be more actively involved in teacher-fronted classroom interaction. It can be juxtaposed to some of other approaches as: Flanders (1970): Interaction Analysis Categories; Moskowitz (1971): Foreign Language Interaction; and Allen, Fröchlich, and Spada (1984): Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (cited in Walsch, 2006).

2.2.2. Ad hoc Approaches

These approaches provide a flexible instrument which may be based on a specific classroom problem or interest. In the word of Wallace (1991), 'guided discovery', ad hoc involves designing a specific instrument in relation to a particular context. Participants' ownership of the research design, process and greater insights into the issues under investigation is given by ad hoc approaches to classroom observation (cited in Walsh, 2006, p.40-45).

In the second language classrooms, student's ability to ask functional questions is an indispensible aspect of classroom interaction. Long and Sato (1983) claim that rare language functions and topics happen in class and interactions are often controlled by the teacher. In their study, 51% of questions asked by teachers were display and only 14% of the questions were referential. However, in natural conversation, 76% of the questions were referential and there were no display questions in their study. Likewise, Brock (1986) indicated that when second language teachers realized the value of referential questions and decreased the display questions, students can produce more syntactically complex answers. As a result, modifications on teachers' questioning lead positive progress in students' interaction.

In order to reflect the developments in classroom discourse, various interactional analysis systems have been used. Majority of these systems are pedagogy-oriented, describing teachers' classroom management procedures rather than teachers' interaction with students. So, such a type of analysis is not appropriate for language classes. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) came out against this fashion by developing an analysis system which focuses on linguistic instead of pedagogical structures of classroom discourse.

As there are various classroom discourse analysis systems above, we have not reviewed them here in detail since our study is specifically designed for metaphor in classroom discourse.

2.3. Critical Discourse Analysis

In general, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) examines the relations between discourse, social and cultural developments in different social domains. Further, it is not a single method which incorporates different perspectives and methods so as to study the relationship between the use of language and social context. As CDA is a rapidly growing area of language study, many theorists developed their own terms and explanations on CDA, but three main figures Fairclough, Wodak and Van Dijk have a pioneering role in CDA.

a) Fairclough's Approach to CDA

In his three dimensional model for CDA, he starts with textual analysis and adds more complex discursive and social practices. Every instance of language use is a communicative event consisting of three dimensions. In his view, the analysis of a communicative event includes:

- text: the linguistic features of the text (speech, writing, visual image or a combination of these)
- discursive practice: processes relating to the production and consumption of the text (analysis of the discourses and genres which are articulated in the production and the consumption of the text)
- social practice: the wider social practice to which the communicative event belongs (considerations about whether the discursive practice reproduces or, instead restructures the existing order of discourse and about what consequences this has for the broader social practice) (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002, p. 68-69)

The text is referred to as "the written or spoken language produced in a discursive event", which is crucial to understand CDA (Fairclough, 1993, p. 138). He thinks that text analysis focuses on the formal features (vocabulary, grammar, syntax and sentence, coherence) from which discourses and genres are realized linguistically.

The key term is genre, which, for Fairclough, is "the use of language associated with a particular social activity" (Fairclough, 1993, p. 138). On the one hand, genre refers to textual structuring, and a set of relatively stable conventions which are creative and conservative. On the other hand, "analysis of discursive practice focuses on how

authors of texts draw on already existing discourses and genres to create a text, and on how receivers of texts also apply available discourses and genres in the consumption and interpretation of the texts" (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002, p. 68).

A discursive event is an "instance of language use, analysed as text, discursive practice, and social practice" (Fairclough, 1993, p.138). Jorgensen and Phillips (2002) state that discursive practices have a role in connecting text to social practices. Thus, social practices shape the texts through discursive practices as people use language to produce and consume texts.

To sum up, Fairclough (1993) divides his analysis into three; first, he describes the linguistic properties of text (text analysis); second, he interprets the relationship between productive and interpretative processes of discursive practice; and third explains the relationship between discursive practice and social practice.

b) *van Dijk's Approach to CDA*

van Dijk (2003, p. 352) starts his work as:

> Critical Discourse Analysis is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. With such dissident research, critical discourse analysts take explicit position, and thus want to understand, expose and ultimately resist social inequality.

He claims that in discourse studies, CDA is not a specific flow of thought; it "offers a different 'mode' or 'perspective' of theorizing, analysis and application throughout the whole field" (p. 352). CDA addresses many diverse areas such as pragmatics, conversation analysis, narrative analysis, rhetoric etc. within critical perspective, so CDA bears an interdisciplinary characteristic. The role of the critical discourse analysts in society is very important in terms of explicit awareness. Scholarly discourse is part of social structure and they are all influenced and produced in social interaction. Disciplines mentioned above build connections between scholarship and society following their own principles in doing CDA instead of ignoring the relationships between them (pp. 352-353). For van Dijk, to understand the aims of CDA, it should satisfy some requirements as in the following:

- As is often the case for more marginal research traditions, CDA research has to be 'better' than other research in order to be accepted.

- It focuses primarily on *social problems* and political issues, rather than on current paradigms and fashions.

- Empirically adequate critical analysis of social problems is usually *multidisciplinary*.

- Rather than merely *describe* discourse structures, it tries to *explain* them in terms of properties of social interaction and especially social structure.

- More specifically, CDA focuses on the ways discourse structures enact, confirm, legitimate, reproduce, or challenge relations of *power* and *dominance* in society (p. 353).

Since CDA has no specific direction, there is no strict and unitary theory. Also, as there are quite different types of CDA, in the light of the principles above, they may be theoretically and analytically diverse. For instance, critically analyzing a conversation is quite different from analysis news reports in press, as van Dijk illustrates.

2.4. Linguistic Variation

One can find few studies on linguistic variation, especially in university classroom discourse. Among these studies, the relationship between linguistic variation in classroom discourse and situational characteristics of university settings has been studied in terms of course level and academic disciplines. Biber (1988) studied patterns of cross-register or intra-register variation. These studies also focussed on the reciprocal influence on linguistic variation and level of student participation in the classroom interactivity. Few studies took account of the relationship between linguistic variation, role of the participants, and social factors such as gender and age (Barbieri, 2008). The following sections are going to give these relations in detail.

2.4.1. Factors Affecting Linguistic Variation

In literature, linguists examined the factors which affects linguistic variation under the three main categories as in the following, namely; situational factors, level of student participation, and social factors.

2.4.1.1. Situational Factors

Biber (2006) investigated six academic disciplines (Education, Business, Humanities, Social Sciences, Engineering, and Natural Sciences) and made a comparison between classroom discourse and academic textbooks in terms of word use (word types) and variation use of tense and voice. Barbieri (2008) found little disciplinary variation in word use and tense and voice in classroom discourse concept. She also indicates that

> taken together, findings from prior corpus-based research on the linguistic characteristics of classroom discourse in different disciplinary domains suggest that if disciplinary-based linguistic variation is to be found, it is likely to be found in the use linguistic features associated with the expression of personal, subjective meanings (p.31).

In the light of these studies, she emphasized that, especially in spoken classroom discourse, students use personalized frames such as speaker stance (e.g., mental verbs, discourse markers *I mean, you know*).

2.4.1.2. Level of Student Participation

Csomay (2002) in Barbieri (2008) indicates that although relationship between use of particular episodes type and level of instruction is not easily interpretable, since it is not linear, episodes characterized by a narrative orientation and episodes characterized by procedural orientation are commonly used in graduate courses. In other words, the use of procedural episodes with the level of instruction, content-focussed episodes are most common in upper-division courses, followed by lower-division courses; narrative episodes are most common in graduate courses followed by lower-division courses (p. 32). As a result, content focussed episodes are suitable for upper-division courses and narrative episodes are suitable for graduate courses.

2.4.1.3. Social Factors

Drescher (2005) investigated the relationship between speaker role, gender within the university spoken registers such as office hours, service encounters and labs. According to this study, the findings do not show concrete results on the relationship between speaker gender and the use of gender-linked features in classroom teaching because this study because the aim of the study is not to find out the language use of particular speakers (female instructor, male instructor) in relation to particular registers. In another study, Poos and Simpson (2002) analysed the use of the hedges *kind of/sort of* in relation to academic discipline and speaker gender. The analysis of the use of *kind of/sort of* in relation to the speakers' gender was actually limited mostly to monologic lectures so as to allow easy identification of who is using the target features. They could not find any correlation between gender and frequency of hedging in academic speech (cited in Barbieri, 2008, p. 34).

To sum up, as the studies above are based on small datasets and as they only search the relation between gender and linguistic variation in classroom discourse, further research can be on other social characteristics of participants such as academic rank, age, and economic situation.

2.5. Historical Overwiew of Metaphor Theories

There are various approaches and theories in literature on metaphors. In this part, the development of the metaphor theories in the history will be examined in detail in the following sections.

2.5.1. Aristotelian Theory of Metaphor

In the history of rhetoric, Aristotle is accepted as one of the main figures of the metaphor world. Ortony (1979) points out that a serious study on metaphors needs to bear in mind Aristotle's views. Aristotle's view on metaphor depends upon clarity, pleasantness, and unfamiliarity; Aristotle also emphasizes, with an appropriate use, the cognitive function of metaphors in addition to the rhetoric function (Cameron, 2003).

According to some linguists, like Black (199), and Gibbs (1994), Aristotle's view mainly depends on the substitution of a term into another. He divides metaphors into three main categories. First two of his classification point out today's synecdoche. The last one can be considered as metonymy (Sasaki, 2010). To her, synecdoche is a type of figure of speech and can be defined as a) using a part to describe a whole; people use a part of a body 'white hair' for older people, b) using the whole to describe a part; "the police came too late" refers to 'the police officer on duty at that time', and c) an object or a person stands for another thing; when a worker asks a customer whether she or he wants their groceries in a "paper or plastic" instead of saying "paper or plastic bags". Metonymy is accepted as lexical substitution (Littlemore and Low, 2006). For example, "My mother tongue is Turkish" is a metonymic expression and 'tongue' substitutes for 'language'. For Kittay (1987), metaphor is a kind of understanding similarities within differences. To do this, both sides need to develop shared cultural understanding. For this, metaphor is a matter of both semantics and pragmatics, not just one. Both discourse context and knowledge of discourse participants need to complete each party in order to understand the meaning of a metaphor (Cameron, 2003). Although Aristotle's view was accepted as the first steps of the metaphor, he opened broad and different pathways, for future researches.

2.5.2. Substitution Theory of Metaphor

The roots of this theory go back to Aristotle. Klingbeil (1999) defines that substitution theory is based on a metaphor which has a cognitive meaning and can be re-expressed in literal speech. In other words, in this theory metaphor has a character renaming a topic by the vehicle. Cameron (2003) gives an example in order to clarify how the substitution works: '*the atmosphere is a blanket of gases*' is a renaming or substitution of '*atmosphere*' with the term '*blanket*'. She also states that

> the principle that a literal equivalent of a metaphor can be found and will work as a paraphrase of it, also entails that metaphor is decorative and can be dispensed with, without any loss of meaning. For those who see metaphor as creative and essentially irreducible, this principle and its entailments lie at the heart of the weakness of the Substitution theory (p.16).

Substitution theory has some shortcomings; because of this, he revised and modified his ST (Black, 1993).

2.5.3. Comparison Theory

Black (1993) states that metaphor is used as a special way of substitution when we are comparing and stating similarities. Cameron (2003) reports that "in this view, metaphor is seen as a reduced simile. So a metaphor such as Shakespeare's *Juliet is the sun* can be expanded into *Juliet is like the sun*, and the finding of similarities between Juliet and the sun will lead to the meaning of the metaphor" (p. 16). Similarly, Furmuzachi (2001) states that metaphor does not differ very much from a simile. The main distinguishing factor between metaphor and simile is using "as" or "like" within metaphors. Namely, we can say that we find some clues about the comparison of both elements in terms of what they are. The metaphor "love is a red rose" could be rewritten: "love is like a red rose", so we can compare two things through metaphor.

In comparison theory, each metaphor should have literal equivalent as the elements of metaphoric sentence are to be compared. This theory mainly focuses on the comparison of objects and word meanings. Thus, one who tries to compare two elements within a sentence should bear in mind that many words have different connotations, so one needs to have particular world knowledge in order to understand these words and connotations. Although comparison theory is seen inadequate, the metaphors used within this theory are the most obvious ones (Cameron, 2003).

2.5.4. Interaction Theory

The interaction view of metaphor suggests that metaphor is more than a similarity which could be expressed by literal language (Richards, 1936; Black, 1993). Richards (1936) also sees metaphor as a process of imagination and these could ignite images into a new whole. Like Richards, Black (1993) thinks that interaction view claims that metaphor actually creates a similarity that did not previously exist. He brings a new perspective in terms of cognitive function of metaphor instead of reducing metaphors to mere linguistic decoration. Kintsch also claims that:

> What strong metaphors seem to have in common is that the predicate is a concrete term, rich in imagery and potential associations, and that the argument and predicate are relatively unrelated. The richness of the predicate allows the argument to resonate with several different features at the same time, resulting in a complex, if fuzzy, interpretation. The unrelatedness between the argument and predicate has surprise value. A strong the metaphor is something unusual, a pleasant surprise (p. 16).

Interaction Theory was changed and developed in time by many theorists. Cameron (2003) points out these developments of interaction theory as follows: "The key development offered by the Interaction theory was the notion that *topic* and *vehicle* are systems of ideas, knowledge and beliefs that interact rather than just names or features of concepts that are simply transferred" (p. 18). Bartrum (2008) suggests that Plautus' metaphoric expression "man is a wolf to man" can easily be converted into simile as "man is like a wolf to man". However, this kind of metaphor is turned into an uninteresting form as it is reducible to literal assertions and converted into uncomplicated referents and meanings. Richards' (1936) approach to Interaction theory is that a metaphor is a consequence of the interaction between two separate contexts, which Black would label a given metaphor as frame and focus. In his view, frame is the main idea or context that a metaphor hopes to irradiate, while focus is the secondary idea or context that interacts with the principal to create the metaphor. "man's relation to man" is the frame, while "wolf" is the focus. Later, Bartrum (2008) claims that

> Black recognizes that any given reader will bring her own set of "associated commonplaces" with her to the metaphor. We may all associate different things with the word "wolf," and thus there is the potential for metaphors to have entirely indeterminate meanings. But Black suggests that the successful metaphor-reader does not look strictly to her own associations, but rather to the associations that are "the common possession of the speech community (p. 8).

Lately, Forceville (1996) supports Interaction Theory as it has connotations and other cultural beliefs to be mapped across domains together with more concrete properties. For him, a domain connected to a lexical item needs to be seen as containing all that might be activated by an individual participating in discourse, including images, knowledge, beliefs, connotations, feelings and memories of previous experience (Cameron, 2003). Waggoner (1990) made a detailed description of Interaction Theory

and divided into groups to understand the constitution of this theory. He analyzes metaphor under six characteristics: Metaphors

1. make new meaning and similarity,

2. are not the same as simile or analogy,

3. cannot be paraphrased without loss of meaning, content, or significance,

4. have a reciprocal effect and change meaning and significance of both components,

5. have both similarities and differences among the components,

6. include tension.

Black (1993), Richards (1936), and Johnson (1980) have similar claims on Waggoner's statements in terms of classification and creativity of metaphors. According to Black (1993), there is a need to make a distinction between metaphor and simile, and analogy. Although metaphors may mediate similes or analogies, they are not equal to similes or analogies in terms of different grammatical forms. Both Hausman (1989) and Johnson (1980) agree that metaphor and simile are not equivalent because when a metaphor is paraphrased, it could lose meaning and significance.

2.5.5. Cognitive Theory of Metaphor

2.5.5.1. Terms of the Cognitive Metaphor Theory

First of all, in order to understand how metaphor works, we need to examine its constitutive parts. The main subject of a metaphor is generally referred as *topic* (Target Domain) and to which is being compared is *vehicle* (Source Domain). As vehicle words refer to concrete objects that are well known in culture, they are effective in communication. From this point of view, a good metaphor needs to make a connection between topic and vehicle to produce a resulting new meaning. In the expression 'Mark is a goat', the topic is 'Mark' and the vehicle is 'goat'. We can see that the topic is what the metaphor is about and the vehicle is an expression used to say something about the topic.

2.5.5.2. Conceptual Metaphor Theory

Lakoff and Johnson changed the direction of metaphor studies with their work "Metaphors We Live By", published in 1980. Cognitive Theory of Metaphor, which some researchers call Conceptual Metaphor Theory, was developed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980), Lakoff (1987), Lakoff and Turner (1989) and their followers but not exactly the same way as Steen (1994), Kövecses (2002) and Gibbs (1990) did. According to CMT, we understand abstract concepts in terms of more concrete concepts. As Rohrer (2007) puts it, metaphors are a matter of cognition and conceptual structure rather than a matter of mere language. Lakoff and Turner (1989) also claim that metaphor can be essential and pervasive in language and thought; in other words, it is not only a "matter of words", but also "a matter of thought". In order to understand the principles of CMT, we need to have a close look at both theory and applications. The main tenet of CMT is that metaphors operate at the level of thinking. In this respect, Lakoff (1992) briefly explains how conceptual metaphors function in peoples' mind:

> The language is secondary. The mapping is primary, in that it sanctions the use of source domain language and inference patterns for target domain concepts. The mapping is conventional, that is, it is a fixed part of our conceptual system, one of our conventional ways of conceptualizing love relationships. This view of metaphor is thoroughly at odds with the view that metaphors are just linguistic expressions. If metaphors were merely linguistic expressions, we would expect different linguistic expressions to be different metaphors. Thus, "We've hit a dead-end street" would constitute one metaphor. "We can't turn back now" would constitute another, entirely different metaphor. "Their marriage is on the rocks" would involve still a different metaphor.

Likewise, Cameron (2003) states that conceptual metaphor is a type of mapping of domains, - (topic and vehicle) - (Target domain is Source domain) as in "Love is a Journey". For this example, in language one can produce a range of metaphorical expressions as a result of mental linkages, e.g. "We have hit a dead-end street". "We can't turn back now". "Their marriage is on the rocks". Lakoff (1992) describes his ontological mapping on LOVE IS A JOURNEY

-The lovers correspond to travelers.
-The love relationship corresponds to the vehicle.

-The lovers' common goals correspond to their common destinations on the journey.

-Difficulties in the relationship correspond to impediments to travel.

In fact, Love is a Journey is not the mapping itself. The mapping is the set of correspondences. The capitalized expressions represent entities in the ontology of travel, that is, in the source domain of the LOVE IS A JOURNEY mapping given above. Two TRAVELLERS are in a VEHICLE, TRAVELING WITH COMMON DESTINATIONS. The VEHICLE encounters some IMPEDIMENT and gets stuck, that is, makes it nonfunctional. If they do nothing, they will not REACH THEIR DESTINATIONS. There are a limited number of alternatives for action:

· They can try to get it moving again, either by fixing it or getting it past the IMPEDIMENT that stopped it.

· They can remain in the nonfunctional VEHICLE and give up on REACHING THEIR DESTINATIONS.

· They can abandon the VEHICLE.

· The alternative of remaining in the nonfunctional VEHICLE takes the least effort, but does not satisfy the desire to REACH THEIR DESTINATIONS.

The ontological correspondences that constitute the LOVE IS A JOURNEY metaphor map the ontology of travel onto the ontology of love. In doing so, they map this scenario about travel onto a corresponding love scenario in which the corresponding alternatives for action are seen. Here is the corresponding love scenario that results from applying the correspondences to this knowledge structure. The target domain entities that are mapped by the correspondences are capitalized:

Two LOVERS are in a LOVE RELATIONSHIP, PURSUING COMMON LIFE GOALS. The RELATIONSHIP encounters some DIFFICULTY, which makes it nonfunctional. If they do nothing, they will not be able to ACHIEVE THEIR LIFE GOALS. There are a limited number of alternatives for action:

· They can try to get it moving again, either by fixing it or getting it past the DIFFICULTY.

· They can remain in the nonfunctional RELATIONSHIP, and give up on ACHIEVING THEIR LIFE GOALS.

· They can abandon the RELATIONSHIP.

The alternative of remaining in the nonfunctional RELATIONSHIP takes the least effort, but does not satisfy the desire to ACHIEVE LIFE

GOALS. This is an example of an inference pattern that is mapped from one domain to another. It is via such mappings that Lakoff apply knowledge about travel to love relationships (Lakoff, 1992, pp. 205-207).

Looking at Lakoff's explanations above, we can say that there is a source and a target domain. The source domain includes a set of literal entities, processes and relationships which are semantically stored in human mind. These can be expressed in language thanks to the use of related words and expressions. As the target domain has a predisposition towards abstractness, its structure stems from the source domain via the metaphorical link or conceptual metaphor. Thus, target domains are believed to have a relationship between entities, and processes which mirror those found in the source domain.

As a result, according to the CMT, metaphor plays a major role in people's everyday language use and thinking. Lakoff and many scholars divide conceptual metaphors into different types. In the next subsection, linguistic metaphor, conduit metaphor, conceptual metaphor, structural metaphor, orientational metaphor, and ontological metaphor will be defined and exemplified.

2.6. Basics of Metaphor Analysis

2.6.1. Definitions of Metaphor

Studies on metaphor go back to the time of ancient Greece. The word "metaphor" originates from the Greek language and it means "transfer" (*meta* means *trans*, or across; *phor* means *fer*, or *ferry*) (Fenwick, 2000). Hawkes (1972) states that metaphor means "a particular set of linguistic processes whereby aspects of one object are 'carried over' or transferred to another object, so that the second object is spoken of as if it were the first" (p. 1). Although there is no implication of language decoration in the meaning of metaphor with regard to Hawkes (1972), Aristotale pointed out the decorative and ornamental function of the metaphors. According to the traditional point of view, metaphor is a figure of speech, which is used for a special way of language use. This type of metaphor studies concentrated on a rhetorical and figurative use of the language. In the last century, many researchers analyzed and defined metaphor in many

different aspects and they created their own approaches to the concept of metaphor (Richards, 1936; Black, 1993; Lakoff and Johnson, 1980).

Thus, finding a consensus on definition of metaphor is hard and equivocal. As Orthony, Reynolds and Arter (1978) state, "metaphor may be easy to recognize, but they are difficult to define" (p. 920). Richards (1936) describes metaphor as something that has two parts: *tenor* and *vehicle*. The first is the subject to which attributes are ascribed and the second is the object whose attributes are borrowed. Gardner (1982) defines metaphor as the capacity to perceive a resemblance between elements from two separate domains or areas of experience and to link them together in a linguistic form.

2.7. Types of Metaphors

One can find several types of metaphors in literature. We will examine the linguistic metaphors, conduit metaphors, and conceptual metaphors in the following sections.

2.7.1. Linguistic Metaphors

Researchers analyzed language and concepts separately in terms of metaphor in conventional approaches. Recent studies indicated that this approach to metaphor has changed as they consider psychology and language processing (Cameron, 1999). Cognitive psychological aspects of metaphor accelerate the studies on metaphor and metaphorical studies become more complicated. In order to make a distinction, Deignan et al (1997) state that conceptual metaphors exist at a deeper level connecting two unrelated semantic fields; however, the metaphors evident in lexical selections are the conceptual metaphor's linguistic, or surface realization. Littlemore and Low (2006) also state that "linguistic metaphors are words or expressions that are uttered or written" (p. 36) without considering the relationship between *Topic* and *Vehicle*. Kövecses (2010) uses a different terminology when he tries to show the difference between conceptual metaphors and linguistic metaphors ('metaphorical linguistic expressions'). According to him, linguistic metaphors

are words or other linguistic expressions that come from the language or terminology of the more concrete conceptual domain… Thus, all the preceding expressions that have to do with life and that come from the domain of journey are linguistic metaphorical expressions, whereas the corresponding conceptual metaphor that they make manifest is life is a journey (p. 4).

Littlemore and Low (2006) claim that identifying the *vehicle* is a key point in order to identify the linguistic metaphor. Their example 'level-playing field' has a *vehicle,* but it has no *topic.* In order to understand the expression, one should know possible alternatives about *topic.* For instance, for business same percentage of tax each company, for education scholarships for low-income students, for sports equal terms could be the *topic*.

2.7.2. Conduit Metaphors

In Reddy's (1993) account, language is a container (sentences, words) which is full of meanings and through conduit metaphor these meanings delivered to receivers who understand the intended meaning. Reddy uses conduit metaphor not only in scientific communication studies but also in everyday life (e.g "You still haven't given me any idea of what you mean", "The sentence was filled with emotion"). According to him, ideas of the human can be transferred from one person to another. While doing this, language is accepted as a vehicle that carries human thoughts and feelings and language functions as a conduit. He analyzes metaphors under four categories:

(a) *Communication is sending ideas from one person to another.*

He claims that language has a channel function in order to transfer repertoire of people's mind from one person to another. According to Reddy, language is conceptualized as conduit, so successful communicators can convey their thoughts and emotions through conduit metaphors. *You know very well that I gave you that idea, Your real feelings are finally getting through to me* (p. 189).

(b) *Ideas are objects.*

Reddy claims that native speakers of English language have a tendency seeing words as an object. They see language as a container and they can put their thoughts and emotions into these containers. In other words, people can place their emotions and thoughts into words such as *Harry always fills his paragraphs with meaning*, *Never load a sentence with more thought than it can carry* (p. 190).

(c) *Persons/Minds are containers.*

Conduit metaphor reflects that "signals convey or contain the repertoire members, or else fail to do this in unsuccessful communication" (p. 190). If words can move inside an outside from a container, then people's thoughts and emotions can be carried from one space to another. *His words carry little in the way of recognizable meaning.*

(d) *Linguistic expressions are containers.*

Conduit metaphors point out that "in listening or reading, humans find repertoire members within the signals and take them into their heads, or else fail to do so in unsuccessful communication" (p. 192). *Can you really extract coherent thoughts from that incredible prose?*

According to the conduit metaphor, "THE MIND IS A CONTAINER, IDEAS ARE ENTITIES, and communication involves taking ideas out of the mind, putting them into words, and sending them to other people" (Lakoff 1987, p. 450). Las Palmas (2004) also states that communication is understood as a transfer of ideas which are placed in containers for the purpose of words. In other words, Las Palmas claims that "the sender must use the proper signs to convey the contents that he wants to communicate while the recipient's task is to extract those contents from their containers" (p. 81). According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), conduit metaphor is a kind of conceptual metaphor. It is embedded inside the everyday language and provides a systematic organization for commonsense thinking about communication.

2.7.3. Conceptual Metaphors

In cognitive linguistics, metaphor is defined as an understanding of one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain contrary to linguistic metaphors they do not refer to words or expressions. For Lakoff and Johnson (1980), there are two types of domains as the *source domain:* the conceptual domain from which we draw metaphorical expressions, and the *target domain:* the conceptual domain that we try to understand. There are systemic correspondences, which exist between source and target domains. Knowing a conceptual metaphor is to know the set of mappings which applies to a given source-target pairing. In order to understand the process, let's have a look at classical examples of Lakoff and Johnson:

> AN ARGUMENT IS WAR
> Your claims are *indefensible*.
> He *attacked every weak point* in my argument.
> His criticisms were *right on target*.
> I *demolished* his argument.
> I have never *won* an argument with him.
> He *shot down* all my arguments.
> LOVE IS A JOURNEY
> Look *how far* we've come.
> We are *at a crossroads*.
> We'll just have to go *our separate ways*.
> We can't *turn back* now.
> We are *stuck*.
> The relationship is a *dead-end street*.
> THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS
> We need *to construct a strong* argument for that.
> The theory needs more *support.*
> The theory will *stand or fall* on the *strength* of that argument.
> Is that the *foundation* for theory?
> IDEAS ARE FOODS
> All this paper has in it are *raw facts, half-baked* ideas, and *warmed-over* theories.
> There are too many facts here me to *digest* them all.
> I just can't *swallow* that claim.
> That's *food* for thought.

In this respect, Kövescs (2010) summarizes the process of conceptual metaphors on target domains that linguistic expressions (ways of talking) make explicit or are manifestations of the conceptual metaphors (ways of thinking). In other words, linguistic expressions reveal the existence of the conceptual metaphors.

2.7.3.1. Structural Metaphor

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) define structural metaphors that "cases where one concept is metaphorically structured in terms of another" (p. 14). In other words, according to structural metaphor, complex and abstract concepts are conceptualized with the help of simple but known experiences e.g. *Discussion is war.* Via this example one can explain abstract concept *discussion* with the help of concrete concept *war.* Kövecses (2010) reports that "the source domain provides a relatively rich knowledge structure for the target concept. In other words, the cognitive function of these metaphors is to enable speakers to understand target (A) by means of the structure of source (B)" (p. 37). For him, in the example, TIME IS A RIVER, we can understand TIME in terms of some basic elements: physical objects, their locations and their motion.

2.7.3.2. Orientational Metaphor

Orientational metaphors occur in our language which is based on experiences of people's spatial orientation. In other words, an orientational metaphor uses spatial terms to relate to a concept or feeling, as it comes from the nature of the human body and the way the body operates in our physical environment. Some of the sample orientation of these metaphors can be: in-out, up-down, deep-shallow etc. "We are physical beings, bounded and set off from the rest of the world by the surface of our skins, and we experience the rest of the world as outside us (Lakoff and Johnson 1980, p. 29). They analyze orientational metaphors into two categories of physical and social.

Physical:
Conscious is up/unconscious is down
Get up
Wake up
I'm up already
He fell asleep
Social:
Good is up/Bad is down
Things are looking up
We hit a peak last year, but it is been downhill ever since
He does high quality work

Although many cultures share similar conceptual mappings, different cultures may have different priorities on values. While in one culture *up* is better, in another culture the same concept may have a reverse association.

2.7.3.3. Ontological Metaphor

Ontological metaphors are based on the experience with physical objects. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) claim that "each of us is a container, with a bounding surface and an in-out orientation. We project our own in-out orientation onto other physical objects that are bounded by surfaces" (p. 29). Ontological metaphors are used to serve human purposes such as: *referring, quantifying, identifying aspects, identifying causes, setting goals and motivating actions.*

> *Referring*
> My *fear of insects* is driving my wife crazy. We are working toward *peace*.
> *Quantifying*
> I will take *a lot of patience* to finish this book. There is so *much hatred* in the world.
> *Identifying aspects*
> The *ugly side of this personality* comes out under pressure. The *brutality of war* dehumanizes us all.
> *Identifying causes*
> The *pressure of his responsibilities* caused his breakdown. He did it out of *anger*.
> *Setting goals and motivating actions*
> He went to New York to *seek fame and fortune*. I'm changing my way of life so that I can *find true happiness* (Lakoff andJohnson, 1980, p. 27).

Kövecses (2010) approaches ontological metaphors from another aspect that "If we conceptualize the mind as an object, we can easily provide more structure for it by means of the "machine" metaphor for the mind (as in: "My mind is rusty this morning"). We can conceive of personification as a form of ontological metaphor. In personification, human qualities are given to nonhuman entities" (p. 39). Kövecses gives examples of his ontological metaphors as:

> His theory *explained* to me the behavior of chickens raised in factories.
> Life has *cheated* me.
> Inflation is *eating up* our profits.
> Cancer finally *caught up* with him.
> The computer *went dead* on me.

Theory, life, inflation, cancer, and computer are not humans, but they are given qualities of human beings, such as explaining, cheating, eating, catching up, and dying (p. 39).

2.8. Metaphorical Competence in EFL Settings

Metaphorical competence is an ability to perceive and create metaphorical relationships between different concepts (Littlemore, 2008). In other words, "metaphoric competence can be promoted by focusing on associative fluency, analogical reasoning and image formation skills. However, it seems that metaphoric extension strategies are not equally effective for all learners, and for all vocabulary items" (p. 215). When it comes to discourse, Danesi (1993) states that

> the programming of discourse in metaphorical ways is a basic feature of
> native-speaker competence. It underlies what I have designated conceptual
> fluency. As a "competence," it can be thought about pedagogically in ways
> that are parallel to the other competencies that SLT has traditionally focused
> on (grammatical and communicative) (cited in Kövecses, 2010, p. 238).

Similar to Danesi, Low (1988) studied metaphorical competence in terms of discourse. His main focus was pointing out the presence and effects of conventional metaphors and "discoursal and pragmatic aspects of metaphor rather than literary use" within English Language Teaching contexts. For him, through the complex structure of conceptual metaphor one can at least partially comprehend how things in life are related in systemic ways (cited in Bailey, 2003, pp. 64-65). Kövecses (2010) also claims that in the study of metaphor, "cognitive view indicated that significant results which are the most important of which is the realization that language, culture, body, mind, and brain all come together and play an equally crucial role in our metaphorical competence" (p. 321).

There are lots of different factors affecting metaphorical competence. In this respect, Azuma (2004) subsumes these factors under four main categories: (a) Vocabulary knowledge (breadth and depth) is a key factor both metaphorical competence and other all aspects of competence performed by foreign language learners. As the size or breadth of the learners' vocabulary has an important factor in

their linguistic competence, so breadth and depth expand networks from word to word. (b) Semantic elements (associations with words), semantic fields create networks between words and ideas. (c) Cognitive elements (schemas and image schemas), the image schemas organize the processes or structures of expressions. (d) Cultural aspects. All elements mentioned above may lead to better understanding and use of metaphorical expressions (p. 54).

2.8.1. Metaphor in ELT

In linguistics, there has been ever increasing focus on metaphor after the study named "Metaphors We Live By" (Lakoff and Johnson 1980). They asserted that metaphors are basic language elements forming thought and language. Therefore, cognitive linguistics accepts metaphors as a natural process of language. Metaphors are used in forming words, semantic changing and collocation of the words and also in learning cultures. In English language teaching and learning, researchers make use of these features of language (Sun, 2010).

Initially, teachers who are going to use metaphors in their class need to enlighten their students about the ubiquity and significance of metaphors in their daily lives. They also need to inform them about the difference between metaphor types such as poetic metaphors, linguistic metaphors, and especially conceptual metaphors, and their functions and importance in language learning. Lakoff (1987) also states that conceptual metaphors connect two different semantic areas at the level of thought as in the connection between 'anger' and 'fire' for many different language speakers. In writing, as conceptual metaphors are referred, in general, they are represented as in the example in uppercase: ANGER IS HEAT. Deignan, Gabry, and Solska (1997) state that "linguistic metaphors are the spoken or written realizations of conceptual metaphor. In the case of ANGER IS HEAT, examples of linguistic metaphors include *I grew hot under the collar,* and *She has got a fiery temper*" (p. 352). So there is a different perception between linguistic and conceptual metaphors.

Secondly, in order to show the existence of word formation, English language teachers can use metaphorical theories. Cognitive metaphor theories are based on experientialism and it helps characterizing the meaning in terms of embodiment. "There

is no concept which is objectively reflected on people's mind and all concepts are structured on the basis of one experience" (Sun, 2010, p. 177). People generally make connections between their feelings, experience and body parts using bodily metaphors. For this reason, there are numerous metaphors including body parts; for instance, "face to face meeting", "the mouth of a river (a pocket, a bottle, a tunnel)", "the teeth of a saw (a comb)", etc. In order to analyze the connection between word forms and meanings, English language teachers can use cognitive metaphor theories so that students have a general idea behind the word formation. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) indicate that lexical phenomena such as collocations and fixed expressions have great importance. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) also state that a great deal of language is motivated by metaphor, thus examining metaphors in terms of learner's point of view will offer valuable insights especially when teaching vocabulary.

Next, in collocation of the words, metaphors can be an effective tool in terms of explaining their suitability. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) profess that metaphors assist in understanding and comparing one concept to another. Likewise, Cross, Ambrose and Cross (2007) state that metaphors allow us to think of one thing in terms of another. For this reason, various aspects of a word can be used to talk about another concept. For instance, "Time flows", "currents of history" both come from the same conceptual metaphor "TIME IS RIVER". Many words can be used together with river and time. In this manner, metaphors can provide meaningful connections why flow and time could be collocated. Another example on collocation is TIME IS MONEY, which collocates the words *save*, *give*, s*pend*, and *cost* with money in terms of metaphor. "This tool will save your hours", "How do you spend your time?", "That work cost me an hour", etc.

Finally, Sun (2010) states that in understanding different languages and cultures, metaphors provide new and different horizons to students. Deignan et al (1997) argue that

> while metaphor is almost certainly a feature of all natural languages, and some conceptual metaphors are common across several cultures and languages, not all linguistic or conceptual metaphors will be shared by any two languages (p.353).

Also, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) claim that "conceptual metaphors can be universal or culture specific". As a common language phenomenon, metaphors indicate

that different cultural models are used in different languages, and they vary from culture to culture. Turkish and English share the same conceptual domain in the metaphor:

SADNESS IS DOWN.

English	Turkish
He is feeling down.	Suratın düşmüş.
She is in a dark mood today.	Bugün karamsar.

To sum up, realizing main tenets of metaphors may help students create new combination and collocation of words, understanding and raising awareness of other cultures and other languages to build a common ground.

2.9. Types of Feedback

The definition of feedback is "information about reactions to a product, a person's performance of a task, etc. which is used as a basis for improvement" (Oxford Dictionary). From this point of view, as feedback contributes to a persons' self development, it is an essential part of education and it increases one's awareness on his/her performances. Feedback can be received both in formal (between teacher and student, peer and peer orally), and informal situations (written text as an assessment tool). One can find various types of feedback in literature such as oral, written, descriptive, evaluative, and strategic, explicit, implicit, and corrective, teacher-to-student, and peer-to-peer feedback. In the following section, we will focus on descriptive feedback, evaluative feedback, explicit and implicit feedback, and metaphorical feedback.

2.9.1. Descriptive Feedback

Tunstall and Gipps (1996) divide feedback into two main kinds: descriptive and evaluative. There are rewards, general praise, and like in the positive evaluation feedback. In negative evaluative feedback, on the other hand, there are punishments, general criticisms, and so on. For the descriptive feedback, positive feedback is the main focus of descriptive one and it has a positive intention. In addition to this, it has a

constructive side, if it is not judgmental. They also talk about descriptive feedback "as being composed of "achievement feedback" and "improvement feedback." Achievement feedback describes or affirms for a student what was done well and why. Improvement feedback describes for a student what more might be done and what strategies might lead to improvement of the work" (p. 389-390).

Similar to the Tunstall and Gipps (1996), Brookhart (2008) states that if the descriptive feedback includes judgments such as grade or evaluation comment, students approach this kind of feedback negatively. According to her

> some students will even hear "judgment" when you intended description. Some unsuccessful learners have been so frustrated by their school experiences that they might see even an attempt to help them as just another declaration that they are "stupid." For these learners, it helps to point out improvements over their own last performance, even if those improvements don't amount to success on the assignment. Then select one or two small, doable next steps for the student; after the next round of work, give feedback on the success with those steps, and so on.

So, in descriptive feedback, the teacher tells the students what steps to take in order to improve their learning process and directly tells what they need to do for their achievement by guiding them.

2.9.2. Evaluative Feedback

The aim of evaluative feedback is to measure student achievement with a score or grade and the teacher intends to summarize the students' achievement. It does not have a role giving guidance on how to improve the students' development. Harmer (2001) divides feedback into three categories of corrective, evaluative, and strategic. Similarly, Cameron (2003) has the same division of feedback.

Evaluative feedback aims to provide a judgement on the learners' performance. Gattullo (2000) suggests that evaluative feedback is dominant in second and foreign language classrooms. In giving evaluative feedback, teachers use words or phrases to indicate the extent to which learners' performance is good or not (e.g. 'very good').

2.9.3. Explicit and Implicit Feedback

Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) define the explicit and implicit knowledge in language learning. For them,

> implicit refers to knowledge that learners are only intuitively aware of and that is easily accessible through automatic processing, whereas explicit knowledge consists of knowledge that learners are consciously aware of and that is typically only available through controlled processing (p. 342).

Lyster and Ranta (1997) in Fawbush (2010) indicate the six ways of implicit and explicit corrective feedback as follows:

> 1. *Explicit correction* refers to the explicit condition of the correct form. As the teacher provides the correct form, he or she clearly indicates that what the student said was incorrect.
> 2. *Recasts* involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student utterance, minus the error.
> 3. *Clarification requests* inform students that either the teacher has misunderstood their utterance or that the utterance is ill formed in some way and so a reformulation is necessary.
> 4. *Metalinguistic Feedback* contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form.
> 5. *Elicitation* has three different techniques
>> a. Elicit completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to "fill in the blank as it were.
>> b. Use questions to elicit the forms
>> c. Teachers occasionally ask students to reformulate their utterance
> 6. *Repetition* refers to the teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the student's erroneous utterance. In most cases, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error (p. 19).

2.9.4. Metaphorical Feedback

Our study aims at bringing the principles of feedback types listed above to the application process in ELT. So our main focus is going to be metaphor use in feedback sessions. In this respect, Cameron (2003) denotes two types of feedback in terms of metaphorical discourse; evaluative and strategic. For her, to improve a performance, strategic feedback utilizes advice.

In this type of feedback, metaphor often encodes the content of strategy, not just at a general level but also at a more specific level of lexis. In extract 6.6 (dancing practice), the teacher introduces the strategic sequence with the general and abstract metaphor Vehicle, *secret* and then goes on to explain more specifically what the *secret* is using the verb metaphor *pulled up*

Extract 6.6 Metaphor in Strategic Feedback: the secret of skipping
now (.) the <u>secret</u> (.) <u>the secret to</u> this skipping thing (.)
even if you're not terribly good at skipping (2.0)
<u>the secret of</u> this skipping (.) is to (.) is to try and keep your (.)
keep yourselves sort of (.) tall (.) and <u>pulled up a bit</u> in your middles (2.0)
(p. 134)

Secondly, metaphors occur more frequently in evaluative feedback and vehicle has a function by lowering the effects of threats to face. In extract 6.8 (dancing practice), teacher corrects the students feet. Here, instead of giving direct feedback, teacher intentionally suggests an alternative.

Extract 6.8 Metaphor in Evaluative Feedback: like Charlie Chaplin
1   T: boys (.)can you try and have your feet in what's called (.) first position (.)
where your heels are just touching (1.0)
and your knees are straight (3.0)
and your toes are <u>a little bit out</u> (.) but not that much (2.0)
5   about <u>at five to one</u> (.)
Not like this (.) it looks funny (.) <u>like Charlie Chaplin</u>
Ps: laugh   (p. 135)

For Cameron (2003), direct negative feedback often leads de-motivation of students, but metaphorical feedback prevents this negative effect of the sequences above.

2.10. Retention

Oxford dictionary defines retention as the continued possession, use, or control of something. Pearson, Raphael, Tepaske, and Hyser (1981) claim that literal paraphrases worse than metaphor as they elicit greater comprehension and they are also more vivid, they can be memorable. In other words, Pearson et al (1981) state that "metaphors may elicit better recall of surrounding propositions than their literal paraphrases when they appear as 'main ideas' but only equal recall when they appear

'details'" (p. 260). Boer's (2000) claims that if language teachers lead their students to be sensitive on conceptual metaphors, students tend to be better at understanding and retaining them.

2.11. Higher Order Thinking Skills

Higher order thinking takes place higher level of the hierarch of cognitive process. Bloom's taxonomy is widely accepted type of hierarchical of the arrangement in education. For him, process starts with lower-level skills and then become more complicated in the higher levels. Bloom (1956) identified six levels of cognition

Figure 1. Six levels of cognition

1. Knowledge (recall or locate information, learning facts)
2. Comprehension (understanding of facts, organizing or interpreting them)
3. Application (using understanding to solve problems in new situations)
4. Analysis (recognizing patterns suggested by facts, 'take apart' information to examine different parts)
5. Synthesis (producing something new, bringing together more than one idea)
6. Evaluation (considering evidence to support conclusions, judging quality of a solution or theory)

Thomas, Thorne, and Small (2000) define higher order thinking as "thinking on a higher level than memorizing facts or telling something back to someone exactly the

way the it was told to you. When a person memorizes and gives back the information without having to think about it, we call it rote memory" (p. 3). Based on Bloom's (1956) taxonomy, memorization and recall of information are classified as lower order thinking whereas analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating are classified as higher order. Lower order skills are the simplest thinking which is consisted of learning facts or recall while higher skills include judgmental skills such as critical thinking, analysis and problem solving. According to Vatthauer and Haenke (2006), the use of metaphors encourages higher level of thinking as metaphors push students beyond the basic concepts. They suggest that while teaching, teachers can use metaphors to help explain the concepts and empower the students' engagement in critical thinking. For them, metaphors have a role in connecting the new concepts to the known and creating mental imagery.

Also, they propose that teachers can use "a series of metaphors to synthesize information or create a new meaning or structure from various bits of information. A four corner theme graphic organizer is ideal for taking four related concepts, identifying the literal and metaphoric meaning of those concepts, and then synthesizing them into a united theme".

As a result, higher order thinking skills are the complex type of human thinking which needs deeper understanding and using such type of skills. Students' abilities on the notions of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation can be developed through the use of metaphorical thinking.

2.12. Motivation

Oxford dictionary defines motivation as a reason or reasons for acting or behaving in a particular way or a set of facts and arguments used in support of a proposal. Scarcella and Oxford (1992) state that "motivation is important to language learning because it helps to determine the extent of involvement in learning. High motivation spurs learners to interact with native speakers of target language, which in turn increases the amount of input that learners receive" (cited in Oxford 1996, p. 106). Motivation helps students maintain their language ability after students leave the class. Also, Oxford (1996) asserts that teacher should behave more tolerantly to increase the

expectancy of success, not to destroy the possibility of reward. The activities in classroom should be relevant and interesting. If they are uninteresting, the level of interest and engagement will drop. According to Brophy (1998), motivation in the classroom is an important factor in second language learning. It can be divided into four main groups as in the following figure:

Theories	Views of the Human Condition	Implications for Motivating Students to Learn
Behavior Reinforcement	Reactive to external reinforcement and associated situational cues	Cue and reinforce desired learning behavior (attention to lessons, careful work on assignments, etc.)
Needs	Reactive to felt pressures from internal needs	Make sure that competing needs are satisfied or at least muted so that students can focus on mastery-and achievement- related needs, design curriculum and instruction to help them meet the latter needs without undue difficulties
Goals	Both reactive and proactive in formulating and coordinating goals so as to satisfy needs and desires	Coordinate classroom climate, curriculum, instruction and assessment practices so as to encourage students to adopt learning goals rather than performance goals or work-avoidant goals
Intrinsic Motivation	Autonomously determining goals and regulating actions to pursue interests, gain satisfactions	Emphasize curriculum content and learning activities that connect with students' interests; provide opportunities for them to make choices in deciding what to do and to exercise autonomy in doing it

Figure 2. Views of the Human Condition and Implications for Motivating Students in Four Types of Motivational Theories Brophy (1998, p. 10)

When it comes to the function of the metaphors as a motivational instrument, Boers (2003) claims that conceptual metaphors offer motivation and coherence to whole clusters of figurative expressions that may appear to be arbitrary and unrelated at first sight. Moreover, conceptual metaphors carry an explanatory power "(e.g., motivating segments of natural language that used to be viewed as purely arbitrary), that it has sometimes tempted (applied) linguists to relegate any attested figurative expressions to underlying conceptual metaphors almost in an ad hoc fashion" (p. 232).

As a result, similar to Vatthauer and Haenke (2006), and Boers' (2003) claims, it can be said that improving motivation and learning can be accomplished through

building new connections between the concepts. The more connections and options increase, the more higher order thinking skills can be used. So, this may increase student motivation as they can aware of why and what they are learning, and how they can use.

2.13. Previous Studies on Metaphor and Feedback

As the main concern of this study is analyzing metaphorical feedback in EFL classroom discourse, we will enumerate the previous studies on feedback and metaphor. Panova and Lyster (2002) examined the range and types of feedback used by the teacher and their relationship to learner uptake and immediate repair of error. In their study, they followed an observational method in order to find out the range and types of feedback. At the end of their study, they found that there is a clear preference for implicit types of reformulative feedback, namely, nearly half of the feedback types include recasts and one fourth for translation, leaving little opportunity for other feedback types (nearly one fourth) that encourage learner-generated repair.

Lyster and Saito (2010) investigated the effects of oral corrective feedback in foreign language development in classroom discourse. For them, oral corrective feedback has a significant role in improving students' foreign language development. In contrast to the study of Panova and Lyster (2002), Lyster and Saito (2010) indicated that effects of recast are lower than prompts which are given in the instruction period.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) investigated the effects of corrective feedback in terms of analytic teaching strategy. They conducted the study on types of feedback and distribution of corrective feedback moves. At the end of the study, they found that teachers use seven different feedback types, namely explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, meta-linguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition, and multiple feedbacks. The great emphasis was on recasts in contrast to Lyster and Saito (2010).

Similarly, Lightbown and Spada (1990) investigated the possible effects of instruction and corrective feedback in second language contexts. Their aim was examining the relationships between instruction, interaction and acquisition. The findings on 100 French students indicated that students' overall language skills are

developed by means of the use of meaning-based instruction providing corrective feedback.

Hyland and Hyland (2006) had a literature review research on feedback to second language students' writing. They focused on the role of feedback in writing instruction, teacher written and oral feedback, peer and computer-mediated feedback. For them, teachers need to help their students to develop them into independent writers who are able to criticize and improve their own writing. Also, they "… believe that research into peer feedback and self-evaluation is likely to yield useful results in how response might lead to greater independence, while further work is also needed into what aspects students can revise without help from their teachers" (p. 96). The other aspect of their study on computer-mediated feedback suggests that it should have a potential of essay evaluation and improving students' independent writing skills. There is a need for further studies which is examining student percepts and use of electronic feedback systems to understand the effects of computer mediated-feedback systems (Hyland and Hyland, 2006).

As for metaphor studies, Martinez, Sauleda, and Huber (2001) conducted a research on the metaphorical conceptions of learning based on the reflections of 50 experienced teachers in an evening course on instructional psychology. The metaphors of this study were achieved by collaboration in small groups. "'Coreflection' of group members was well suited to promote metaphorical reconstructions of teachers' tacit theories about learning" (p. 965). Majority of the teachers share traditional metaphors, as they thought that teaching and learning is a kind of knowledge transmission. However, a small group created constructivist metaphors and this small group thinks that learning and teaching is a social process.

Zapata and Lacorte (2007) conducted a study to investigate the philosophical perspective of the 64 foreign language pre- and in-service teachers' which bases on experience, academic and cultural background. Their study indicated that although the participants have different experience, cultural and academic backgrounds, the conduit metaphor was the mostly used metaphor type.

Guerrero and Villamil (2000) conducted a study on ESL teachers in order to identify the ESL teachers' metaphors to characterize the roles of them and to describe

the teachers' beliefs on learning and teaching. They were asked to fill the sentence "An ESL teacher is like…." and 22 participants produced 28 different metaphors which can be categorized under the nine general categories in terms of role such as cooperative leader (guides and directs students), provider of knowledge (is the source of language), challenger/agent of change (serves as a transformative agent in the students' learning process by creating challenge, bringing about change), nurturer (facilitates growth and development, fosters capabilities of students), innovator (keeps new methods and developments and tries to implement them in the classroom), provider of tools ("makes language available to students as a tool to construct meaning and participates in the language learning process as co-constructor of language"), artist ('approaches teaching as an aesthetic experience requiring a high degree of skill and creativity'), repairer ('corrects students' language, strategies, and attitudes'), and gym instructor ('treats the learners' minds as muscles that need to be trained and exercised to develop') (p. 344). In this study, metaphors suggest personal preferences, attitudes, and problems among teachers and indicate the effects of personal routes in teaching.

Saban, Kocbeker, and Saban (2006) conduct a very similar study to the Villamil and Guerreros'. Prospective teachers were asked to complete the prompt "A teacher is like…because…" to investigate the concept of a teacher among prospective teachers. They identified 10 categories which are based on the participants' metaphorical images. So, they conclude that metaphor is a powerful research tool in gaining insight into prospective teachers' professional thinking about teaching and learning.

Although there are various studies on metaphors in language teaching environments, the studies which investigate the beliefs of students and teachers on teaching and learning keep a considerable ground. Some of them are as follows: as metaphors are an important part of teachers' knowledge and their knowledge shapes their understanding on the role of teachers (Clandinin, 1986; Block, 1992; Oxford, et al., 1998), discussed teachers' beliefs concerning language teaching textbooks as reflected in their use of metaphors and similes 'the role of textbooks' (McGrath, 2002, McGrath, 2006), learners' different perceptions, which was effected by the metaphors, about language teaching (Salomone, 1998).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

This chapter gives information about the materials and procedures of the study. Section 3.1 explains the research design of the present study. The universe and sampling are provided in Section 3.2, which also reports how they were selected. Section 3.3 describes the data collection tools and presents the procedures followed in the applications of the instruments. Section 3.4 explains the procedure and treatment. The Data Analysis is the final section, 3.5, which explains how the calculations and data analyses were made.

3.1. Research Design

The present study was conducted using both quantitative and qualitative research methodology. In other words, the mixed method was used to gather data for this research. Creswell and Clark (2007) claim that instead of using one of the quantitative or qualitative methods, using both in the same time provides more comprehensive evidence for studying a research problem. In this type of methodology, the researcher can use all of the data instead of using restricted types of data. Similarly, Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007) describe that "… a broad interpretation and use of the word methods (in mixed methods) allows inclusion of issues and strategies surrounding methods of data collection (e.g., questionnaires, interviews, observations), methods of research (e.g., experiments, ethnography), and related philosophical issues (e.g., ontology, epistemology, axiology)" (p. 118).

Among these methods, firstly a scale was used as a data collection tool to find out any possible changes of prospective teachers' beliefs. This scale was developed by the researcher and his supervisor. Five likert type scale having 13 items includes 3 sub-factors; namely, retention, higher order thinking skills, and motivation. In this respect, a pre- and post-test was applied using the scale in order to find out the changes in this

study. As Creswell and Clark (2007) state, quantitative data include close-ended information (attitude, behavior), close-ended checklists, by which the researcher checks the attitude and behavior seen.

In this respect, the feedback sessions were recorded via camcorder after prospective teachers' presentations at the end of each presentation and semi-structured interview was used in a focus group environment at the end of the data collection process. For this reason, this study was designed to investigate the impact of metaphorical feedback in ELT classroom discourse. It was conducted in the ELT Department, Gazi Faculty of Education, Gazi University, during the spring term of 2010-2011 academic year. The researcher did not participate in the metaphorical feedback sessions. An independent researcher implemented the procedures. Both groups were in third grade day classes. The experimental design is represented in Table????

Table 1. Research Design

Group	Class Assignment	n	Pre-test ENG	Treatment	Post-test ENG
Class 1	R	20	MEF		MEF
Class 2	R	24	MEF	X	MEF

R: Random assignment   n: Number of the participants   MEF: Metaphorical Feedback Questionnaire Class 1 made up the control group and Class 2 made up experimental group.

3.2. Universe and Sampling

This research was conducted in ELT Department, Gazi Faculty of Education, Gazi University. Since the ELT Department of the Gazi University is most populated one in Turkey, it was intentionally selected as the universe of sampling for this study. The sample of the study consisted of 20 students for control group and 24 students for the experimental group, making in total 44 prospective teachers. All the participants attended the course of Teaching Language Skills, which was given in the third year, during the spring semester of 2010-2011 academic year. 44 prospective teachers participated in this study. Of them, 1 was male and 43 were female students and they are approximately between 19-21 years old.

In the control group, there were 20 prospective teachers and the whole class was female. There were 24 prospective teachers in experimental group: 1 male and 23 female.

3.3. Instruments

Both quantitative and qualitative research tools were used in this study. Metaphorical Feedback Scale (MEF) was used as a pre- and post-test measurement tool to investigate the effects of metaphorical feedback on students' beliefs. Observations through video recording, weekly metaphorical feedbacks, and interviews were used as qualitative tool for this study.

3.3.1. MEF Scale

MEF Scale was used as a quantitative data collection tool for the pre- and post-test in order to find out the possible changes of prospective teachers' beliefs about the metaphorical feedback. MEF Scale was developed by the researcher and his supervisor. After an extensive research and reading the related literature on metaphor and feedback, 35 items (Turkish versions in order to prevent the language barrier) were prepared for the intended MEF scale. 2 (master) both have PhD degree in ELT, both teaching in ELT department at Gazi University, examined 35 items and 14 of these items removed from firstly prepared version. 21 items were found appropriate for this research with a five-likert type (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, No idea, Agree, Strongly Agree) questionnaire to identify the beliefs of prospective teachers. In the second step of the development of this scale, the questionnaire was piloted on 190 prospective teachers in the same grade level excluding the control and experimental groups. After the statistical analysis of the piloted study, under the supervision of a statistics expert, eight of these items were found inappropriate for the present research, so they were removed. The final version of the scale consisted of 13 items, which has three sub-factors; namely, retention, higher order thinking skills (HOTS), and motivation.

Table 2. Distribution of items in terms of sub-factors

Factors	Number of Items
Retention:	3, 4, 8, 10, 12
HOTS :	1, 7, 9, 11, 13
Motivation:	2, 5, 6

As the reliability of the questionnaire was found as .891 Cronbach Alpha, in the light of this appropriate value, questionnaire were applied to both control and experimental group.

3.3.2. Interview with Prospective Teachers

In the experimental group, an interview was conducted at the end of experiment process. There were 24 prospective teachers in class and they were divided into three groups for the interview session. Since at the beginning and at the end of this study, MEF scale was piloted, the interview was structured on this scale. That is, MEF five-likert type questionnaire has 13 items which are about retention, motivation, and higher order thinking skills. Prospective teachers were asked about what option they selected and why they selected that option in their post-test. They were given an answer sheet in order to write in their own words explaining the reasons of the option which they selected. In this semi-structured interview just two questions were asked: (1) What option did you select in your post questionnaire for each item? (2) Why did you select this option? They were asked to explain the reasons in their own words. Each interview approximately took 35 minutes.

3.3.3. Video Recording and Weekly Reflections

Metaphors which were used in the class while giving feedback after the prospective teachers' presentation were prepared by the researcher and an independent researcher who has 12 years of experience in teaching with an ongoing PhD degree. Many of the metaphors which were used in this study were modified versions of Lakoff and Johnson's (1980). Two or three metaphors were used for each prospective teacher

after his/her presentation. For 24 prospective teachers in total, approximately 72 metaphorical expressions were used for their reflection. While giving feedback, a digital camera was used for recording. These reflections were given to prospective teachers in both oral and written format. Feedback session for each prospective teacher took nearly 5 minutes. Please see Appendix (V) for the transcriptions of these feedback documents.

3.4. Procedure and Treatment

The aim of this study is to find out (a) whether the metaphorical feedback which is given in a language teaching classroom environment has an effect on change in students' beliefs, and (b) if the traditional feedback use is more appropriate than metaphorical one.

This research was completed in 9 weeks, three class hours per week. 9-week process of this study included the administration of both pre-test and post-test. The instructor of the experimental group was trained about the procedure and content necessary for the implementation of this study. Also, prospective teachers in both the control group and the experimental group were given detailed information about what the metaphor is, and what the functions, and benefits of metaphors in classroom environment are.

After the approval of the proposal of the research by the advisory committee, two things were designed: the questionnaire and the activities which were going to be held in the process of classroom environment depending on the reviewed literature. Then, the researcher and the instructor met and she was informed about the purpose of the study. Both the researcher and the instructor decided to meet each week twice, to decide after the lesson which metaphorical expressions were going to be used while giving reflections at the end of the presentations of prospective teachers.

Firstly, the Turkish version of Metaphorical Feedback (MEF) scale, intended to lower the language barrier, as a pre-test was applied to both the control and the experimental groups so as to find out the beliefs of prospective teachers on metaphorical feedback. The metaphorical feedback was given after one week for each prospective teacher presentation in the experimental group; however the control group was just

informed about the metaphors before the application of MEF scale as a pre-test in the study. The students were informed about metaphors describing what metaphor is, its functions and they were given some samples of metaphors used in classrooms. Although they finished the course of Literature and Language Teaching I, which includes metaphors in its curriculum in the first term of 2010-2011, prospective teachers were informed about the metaphors mentioned above.

The metaphorical feedback process took place in many phases. In the first week, 4 of the prospective teachers presented their studies in the course of Teaching Language Skills. The instructor of the lesson provided the details of the prospective teachers' performance and noted the whole process as a feedback. After the 3-hour session, the researcher and the instructor met to decide the type of the metaphor and where to put the metaphor within the feedback paper which was given by the instructor during the presentation session. After the decision making process, the appropriate metaphors for each prospective teacher performance were determined and placed into the suitable points. So, there was no feedback given to the prospective teachers in first week.

In the second week, before the presentations, the researcher made the necessary arrangements for the video recording and after this; the instructor gave her feedback including metaphorical expressions in oral and written format to the 4 prospective teachers. After each presentation, the researcher and the instructor met to decide the metaphors and types suitable for the prospective teachers' performances. This process continued in the same way in the subsequent six weeks.

At the end of the presentations and metaphorical feedback process, the post-test was administered to both the experimental and the control group. The data were analyzed by using SPSS 15.0 software program and were put into statistical tables.

3.5. Data Analysis

Quantitative data were analyzed by using SPSS 15.0 statistical software program. The differences between control and experimental groups were calculated by ANCOVA (Analysis of Covariance). Büyüköztürk (2011) states that ANCOVA is generally used when there is an inequality between groups. Also, ANCOVA can be

used for homogenous groups. This type of analysis provides statistically control of a variable which has a relation to a dependent variable. ANCOVA has two advantages: (a) it provides a strong statistical power as it decreased the error variance, (b) it reduces the partiality in which there are differences between groups (p. 111).

ANCOVA removes the outer factors which cannot be controlled with the research design by using a linear regression method and provides determining the real effect of the application (Büyüköztürk, 2011, p. 111). ANCOVA produces corrected values depending on covariate for each observation on dependent variable. It analyzes whether there is a significant difference between the average corrected scores of the groups. If the results are $p<0.05$, the difference between both groups is considered to be statistically significant.

After the implementation of MEF scale, prospective teachers were asked which option they selected for each item in the scale and they were asked the reasons of their selection into three different interview session. To analyze the qualitative data, a coder was selected for the categorization of the interview process. She was trained about the process of coding. Both the coder and the researcher studied separately during the categorization process. At the end of the qualitative research process, categories of the coder and the researcher overlapped in total.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0. Introduction

Analyses and findings with regard to the impact of metaphorical feedback in language teaching are presented in this chapter. ANCOVA was used to analyze the collected data. The following sections contain the analyses of the pre/post-test results aiming at answering the research questions.

4.1. Piloting the Metaphorical Feedback Scale (MEF)

In order to find out the validity and reliability of the metaphorical feedback scale, a pilot study, which is used as a qualitative data collection tool, was conducted before the actual research. The piloting was implemented in 2010-2011 academic year, in order to determine whether the MEF scale is appropriate for the actual study. Firstly, to understand this issue, the MEF scale was administered in 190 prospective teachers who were randomly selected from the universe of this study. The reliability of the MEF scale was found .891 Alpha. Secondly, MEF scale was constructed and administered in the native language of the participants of this study in order to prevent the language barrier (see Appendix II). The MEF scale was used to find out the possible changes on prospective teachers' beliefs. The MEF scale consisted of three sub-factors as in the following:

Table 3. Items of the MEF Scale *Retention* Sub-factor

3.	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, **I would better remember what I have learned in the course.**	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
4.	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, **I would not forget what I have learned in the course.**	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
8.	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, **what I have learned would be more permanent.**	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
10.	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, **the theoretical topics would retain longer in my mind.**	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
12.	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, **the course content would be more long lasting in my mind.**	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

(1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree (3) No Idea (4)Agree) (5) Strongly Agree

Five items above aim at measuring the changes of prospective teachers' beliefs on retention sub-factor of the metaphorical feedback which was given after their class presentations.

Table 4. Items of the MEF Scale *Higher Order Thinking Skills* Sub-factor

1.	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, **I can more effectively analyze the information related to the main language skills such as listening, reading, speaking and writing.**	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
7.	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, **I can synthesize the units of the course.**	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
9.	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, **I can more effectively analyze the information related to the three language sub-skills such as grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary.**	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
11.	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, **I can relate the new things I have learned to the previous things I learned.**	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
13.	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, **I can relate the present course to other courses.**	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

(1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree (3) No Idea (4)Agree) (5) Strongly Agree

Five items above aim at measuring the changes of prospective teachers' beliefs on higher order thinking skills sub-factor of the metaphorical feedback which was given after their class presentations.

Table 5. Items of the MEF Scale *Motivation* Sub-factor

2.	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, **I would have a stronger desire for learning.**	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
5.	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, **I would feel more comfortable.**	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
6.	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, **I would like to learn more.**	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

(1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree (3) No Idea (4)Agree) (5) Strongly Agree

Three items above aim at measuring the changes of prospective teachers' beliefs on motivation sub-factor of the metaphorical feedback which was given after their class

presentations. The implementation of the pilot study of the MEF scale, which has a .891 Alpha, indicates that this scale can be used for the actual study.

4.2. Quantitative Research Findings

44 prospective teachers participated in this study, 24 were in experimental group and 20 were control group. They were enrolled in Teaching Language Skills course during the spring semester of 2011 academic year. All of them were third grade prospective teachers, 1 being female and the others male.

Table 1 illustrates the pre-test and post-test score results of the metaphorical feedback scale obtained from the experimental group and the control group. Differences were found between the pre-and post tests of both the experimental and the control group. The ANCOVA was used to find out the changes because, as Büyüköztürk (2011) states, ANCOVA removes the outer factors which cannot be controlled with the research design by using a linear regression method and provides determining the real effect of the application. ANCOVA produces corrected values depending on covariate for each observation on dependent variable. It analyzes whether there is a significant difference between the average corrected scores of the groups. If the results are $p < 0.05$, difference between both groups is considered to be statistically significant. For this reason, the ANCOVA was used for the analysis of the quantitative data.

Table 6. Comparison of the pre-test and post-test score results of the metaphorical feedback scale obtained from the experimental group and the control group. (ANCOVA)

	Pre-test			**Post-test**		
	n	**Score (x)**	**Sd**	**n**	**Score (x)**	**Sd**
Experimental Group	24	44.46	6.890	24	51.92	6.788
Control Group	20	50.80	4.905	20	47.95	4.872

As Table 6 indicates, the post-test score of the metaphorical feedback scale from the experimental group (x=51.92) is higher than the pre-test score (x=47.95) in the control group. The difference between the pre-test score (x=44.46) and post-test score (x=51.92) of the experimental group is significantly large. We should also note that the pre-test score (x=50.80) from the control group decreases compared to the post-test

score (x=47.95). After the treatment of the experimental group, it was seen that metaphors have a positive effect on students' beliefs and attitudes. In other words, metaphorical feedback contributed students learning in terms of retention, HOTS, and motivation.

Table 7. Comparison of the original and corrected scores of both experimental and control group of the post-test (ANCOVA)

Groups	n	x	Corrected x
Experimental Group	24	51.92	48.18
Control Group	20	47.95	49.37

Table 7 shows the post-test scores corrected by the pre-test scores. The corrected scores are calculated as the average of the post-test and the pretest scores. As Table 7 shows, the post-test score of the experimental group (x=51.92) is higher than the score of the control group (x=47.95). However, the corrected scores show that the corrected score of the experimental group is 48.18 whereas the corrected score of the control group is 49.37. The new corrected scores are close to each other. Therefore, we do an ANCOVA analysis to test whether the corrected scores of the two groups are statistically different from each other. The results from the analysis are illustrated in Table 8.

Table 8. ANCOVA results of the sums of the post-test points corrected in comparison with pre-test points

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom (df)	Mean Squares	F	P
Pre-test	115.837	1	115.837	3.180	.078
Experimental Group x Control Group	579.609	1	579.609	15.911	.000
Error	3059.942	84	36.428		
Total	212782.000	88			

In Table 8, F statistics (F(1-85) =15.911. p < .05) indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the corrected score of the control group and the corrected score of the experimental group. In other words, when we look at the post-test scores, we can say that the score of the experimental group is higher than the score

of the control group. Therefore, it can be said that the difference between control and experimental group stems from the metaphorical feedback treatment in the experimental group.

Analysis of Metaphorical Feedback Scale Retention (R) Factor

Table 9 illustrates the sum of the pre-test and post-tests and standard deviation results of the control group and experimental group from the metaphorical feedback scale, retention sub-factor.

Table 9. Standard deviations and sums of the pre-test and post-test points of the experimental and obtained from the MEF scale retention sub-factor (ANCOVA)

	Pre-test			Post-test		
	n	x	Sd	n	x	Sd
Experimental	24	18.08	3.078	24	21.79	2.637
Control	20	19.95	1.877	20	19.50	1.821

As illustrated in Table 9, the post-test R factor score of the experimental group (x=21.79) is higher than the R factor score (x=19.50) from the control group. In the experimental group, the difference between the pre-test R factor score (x=18.08) and post-test R factor score (x=21.79) is noticeable. In contrast, in the control group, the difference between the pre-test R factor score (x=19.95) and the post-test R factor score (x=19.50) interestingly decreases. After the treatment of the experimental group, it was seen that metaphors have a positive effect in icreasing students' retention level. Sum of the post test scores are corrected according to the pre-test scores of the both control and experimental group that is illustrated in Table 10 after the treatment which belongs to MEF scale retention sub-factor.

Table 10. Students' corrected sums of post-test points obtained from MEF scale retention sub-factor

Groups	n	x	x(Corrected)
Experimental	24	21.79	19.93
Control	20	19.50	19.72

As the Table 10 shows, the sum of the post-test R factor score of the experimental group (x=21.79) is higher than the R factor score of the control group (x=19.50). However, the corrected scores show that the sum of the corrected post-test R factor score of the experimental group is 19.93 whereas the sum of the corrected post-test R factor score of the control group is 19.72. Consequently, an ANCOVA analysis is used to test whether the sum of the corrected R sub-factor scores of the two groups are statistically different from each other. The results of the analysis are illustrated in Table 11.

Table 11. ANCOVA results of the sums of the retention sub-factor post-test points corrected in comparison with pre-test points

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom (df)	Mean Squares	F	P
Pre-test	57.909	1	57.909	9.580	.003
Experimental Group x Control Group	94.319	1	94.319	15.604	.000
Error	507.742	84	6.045		
Total	35318.000	88			

In Table 11, F statistics ($F_{(1-85)}$ =15.604. $p < .05$) indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the sum of the corrected R factor scores of the control group and the sum of the corrected R factor scores of the experimental group. In other words, after the treatment of both groups, there is a meaningful difference between the total scores of the items constituting the retention sub-factor and this difference is in favor of the experimental group. In other words, as it was the case with the scores throughout the metaphorical feedback scale, the difference in the R factor scores from the experimental group is likely to result from the positive impact of using metaphors in learning.

Analysis of Metaphorical Feedback Scale Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS) Factor

Table 12. Standard deviations and sums of the pre-test and post-test points of the experimental and obtained from the MEF scale HOTS sub-factor (ANCOVA)

	Pre-test			Post-test		
	n	**x**	**Sd**	**n**	**x**	**Sd**
Experimental	24	16.38	2.667	24	18.25	3.096
Control	20	19.30	2.342	20	17.35	2.434

As illustrated in Table 12, the post-test HOTS factor score of the experimental group (x=18.25) is higher than the HOTS factor score (x=17.35) of the control group. In the experimental group, the pre-test H factor score (x=16.38) is lower than post-test H factor score (x=18.25). In contrast, in the control group, the pre-test H factor score (x=19.30) is higher than the post-test H factor score (x=17.35). After the treatment of the experimental group, it was seen that metaphors have a positive effect in increasing students' higher order thinking skills level. Sum of the post test scores are corrected according to the pre-test scores of the both the control and the experimental group that is illustrated in Table 13 after the treatment which belongs to MEF scale *HOTS* sub-factor.

Table 13. Students' corrected sums of post-test points obtained from MEF scale HOTS sub-factor

Groups	n	x	x(Corrected)
Experimental	24	18.25	17.31
Control	20	17.35	18.32

As Table 13 shows, the sum of the post-test HOTS factor score of the experimental group (x=18.25) is higher than the HOTS factor score of the control group (x=17.35). However, the corrected scores show that the sum of the corrected HOTS factor post-test score of the experimental group is 17.31 whereas the sum of the corrected HOTS factor post-test score of the control group is 18.32. As a result, an ANCOVA analysis is used to test whether sum of the corrected HOTS sub-factor scores from the two groups are statistically different from each other. The results from the analysis are illustrated in Table 14.

Table 14. ANCOVA results of the sums of the HOTS sub-factor post-test points corrected in comparison with pre-test points

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom (df)	Mean Squares	F	P
Pre-test	.031	1	.031	.004	.948
Experimental Group x Control Group	79.803	1	79.803	11.156	.001
Error	600.875	84	7.153		
Total	28500.000	88			

In Table 14, F statistics (F(1-85) =11.156. p < .05) indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the sum of the corrected HOTS factor scores of the control group and the sum of the corrected HOTS factor scores of the experimental group. In other words, after the treatment of both groups, there is a meaningful difference between the total scores of the items constituting the HOTS sub-factor and this difference is in favor of the experimental group. In other words, as it was the case with the scores throughout the metaphorical feedback scale, the difference in the HOTS factor scores of the experimental group is likely to result from the positive impact of using metaphors in learning.

Analysis of Metaphorical Feedback Scale Motivation (M) Factor

Table 15. Standard deviations and sums of the pre-test and post-test points of the experimental and obtained from the MEF scale motivation sub-factor (ANCOVA)

	Pre-test			Post-test		
	n	x	Sd	n	x	Sd
Experimental	24	10.00	1.588	24	11.88	2.092
Control	20	11.55	1.504	20	11.10	1.410

As illustrated in Table 15, the post-test motivation factor score of the experimental group (x=11.88) is higher than the motivation factor score (x=11.10) from the control group. In the experimental group, the pre-test motivation factor score (x=10.00) is lower than the post-test motivation factor score (x=11.00). In contrast, in the control group, the pre-test motivation factor score (x=11.55) is higher than the post-test motivation factor score (x=11.10). After the treatment of the experimental group, it was seen that metaphors have a positive effect in increasing students' motivation level.

The sum of the post test score is corrected according to the pre-test scores of the both control and experimental group that is illustrated in Table 16 after the treatment which belongs to MEF scale motivation sub-factor.

Table 16. Students' corrected sums of post-test points obtained from MEF scale motivation sub-factor

Groups	n	x	x(Corrected)
Experimental	24	11.88	10.93
Control	20	11.10	11.32

As Table 16 shows, the sum of the post-test motivation factor score of the experimental group (x=11.88) is higher than the motivation factor score of the control group (x=11.10). However, the corrected scores show that the sum of the corrected motivation factor post-test score of the experimental group is 10.93 whereas the sum of the corrected motivation factor post-test score of the control group is 11.32. As a result, an ANCOVA analysis is used to test whether the sum of the corrected motivation sub-factor scores from the two groups is statistically different from each other. The results from the analysis are illustrated in Table 17.

Table 17. ANCOVA results of the sums of the motivation sub-factor post-test points corrected in comparison with pre-test points

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom (df)	Mean Squares	F	P
Pre-test	11.076	1	11.076	3.887	.052
Experimental Group x Control Group	29.485	1	29.485	10.347	.002
Error	239.375	84	2.850		
Total	11156.000	88			

In Table 17, F statistics (F(1-85) =10.347. p < .05) indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the sum of the corrected *motivation* factor scores from the control group and the sum of the corrected *motivation* factor scores from the experimental group. In other words, after the treatment of both groups, there is a meaningful difference between the total scores of the items constituting the *motivation*

sub-factor and this difference is in favor of the experimental group. In other words, as it was the case with the scores throughout the metaphorical feedback scale, the difference in the *motivation* factor scores from the experimental group is likely to result from the positive impact of using metaphors in learning.

4.3. Qualitative Research Findings

Weekly reflections, interview, and video recording of the prospective teachers' presentations in the class were used to obtain the necessary data for the study. The coding was performed with an independent researcher. Both the researcher and the independent researcher carried out the coding and categorization of the data separate. At the end of these processes, it was found that the coding and the categorization of both researchers overlapped in total. MEF scale was designed for a quantitative data collection tool in order to find out the possible changes of students' beliefs on metaphorical reflections. Firstly, the quantitative results of the MEF scale will be given, secondly, the interview results will be given together with the quantitative results. The results of prospective teachers' answers coding and categorization are illustrated in the following.

Figure 3. The frequency of the 24 prospective teacher answers for each item in the MEF scale of the experimental group.

Items of the scale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Agree	18	17	24	22	15	19	16	23	13	22	19	22	7
No idea	3	3	0	2	9	5	5	1	7	1	4	1	13
Disagree	3	4	0	0	0	0	3	0	4	1	1	1	4

Item 1: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I can more effectively analyze the information related to the main language skills such as listening, reading, speaking, and writing.

More than two-thirds of the prospective teachers in the experimental group agree to the first Item. Three prospective teachers state that metaphorical feedback helps their learning instead of just memorizing the needed vocabulary. Eight prospective teachers think that MEF has a bridge role between these four skills, two prospective teachers think that MEF makes complicated things simple. In addition to this, five prospective teachers claim that through metaphors, they can easily analyze the four skills as the instructor of the course used metaphorical feedback for each skill.

However, nearly one out of ten prospective teachers disagreed to this question. They think metaphorical feedback is useful for speaking and listening not for reading and writing. One of them states that metaphorical feedback does not connect four skills. The other one out of ten stated that they have no idea on this question.

Item 2: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I would have a stronger desire for learning.

More than two-thirds of the prospective teachers agree to the second Item. Three prospective teachers think that MEF converts abstract things to concrete ones, so through this kind of feedback, teaching would be more constructive. Ten prospective teachers claim that as the metaphorical feedback (MEF) is very effective, it increases their willingness to participate in the lesson. Four prospective teachers state that MEF is very interesting and enjoyable, so it will increase the effect of feedback. Conversely, almost one-sixth of the prospective teachers disagree, and state that metaphors are not the stimuli just help understanding what the metaphor is.

Item 3: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I would better remember what I have learned in the course.

All of the prospective teachers in the experimental group agree to Item 3. Four prospective teachers state that as the metaphors are authentic, they are easy to remember

and three prospective teachers also claim that metaphorical feedback draws attention and visualizes the situation, thus helping remember the given feedback. Two prospective teachers state that different way of sayings helps their learning. Fifteen prospective teachers state that metaphorical feedbacks are enjoyable, and interesting and they help students to remember the topics in the course.

Item 4: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I would not forget what I have learned in the course.

Almost nine out of ten of the prospective teachers in the experimental group agree to Item 5. Three prospective teachers state that metaphorical feedback provides permanent learning. One prospective teacher states that they can stimulate the situation in their mind, so they can easily remember the learnt topics. Six prospective teachers think that prospective teachers state that metaphors help remember things as the metaphors are interesting and enjoyable, Ten prospective teachers state that through metaphors we can remember easily, and two prospective teachers stated that metaphors make ideas concrete enough to be remembered.

Item 5: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I would feel more comfortable.

A bit less than two-thirds of the students agree to Item 5. Ten prospective teachers state that metaphors create a warm classroom atmosphere, so they feel better. Five prospective teachers claim that metaphors convert feedback into a soft mood. In this way, they feel safe as their mistakes are reflected indirectly. On the one hand, students feel relaxed and metaphors make topics clear, on the other hand, as the metaphors are interesting and funny, they feel comfortable when metaphorical feedback is given. One out of three of the prospective teachers have no idea about this item.

Item 6: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I would like to learn more.

Almost four-fifths of the prospective teachers agree to Item 6. Nine prospective teachers say that they learn more if they have a funny classroom environment. Two

prospective teachers claim that metaphors can be used as a tool to make the lesson interesting. Eight prospective teachers find metaphors attractive and metaphors provide an encouraging environment for them.

Item 7: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I can synthesize the units of the course.

Exactly two-thirds of the prospective teachers agree to Item 7. Ten prospective teachers state that with the metaphorical feedback they can synthesize the different topics of the course because metaphors help them to remember the previous subjects. Parallel to the view above, five prospective teachers report that they can make connections among the other aspects of the course. One prospective teacher also remarks that units can be meaningful by means of metaphorical feedback in the classroom. In contrast to the majority above, two of them could not find any connection between metaphor and synthesis. One also thinks that using metaphors only may not be enough for synthesizing.

Item 8: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, what I have learned would be more permanent.

Nearly all of the prospective teachers agree to Item 8. Some of them state that metaphorical feedback makes them understand and remember. Since seventeen prospective teachers find metaphorical feedback enjoyable and interesting, they view metaphors as a useful tool for long term memory. Three prospective teachers think that meaningful information is likely to be remembered as a result of MEF. Three prospective teachers claim that metaphors create a picture of the situation in their mind, and visualize the abstract concepts; as a result, they can easily remember the content of the course.

Item 9: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I can more effectively analyze the information related to the three language sub-skill such as grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary.

Slightly more than half of the participants agree to Item 9. Four prospective teachers state that using suitable metaphors for each sub-skill contributes to participants' remembering, as metaphors help convert abstract subjects into concrete ones. Nine prospective teachers claim that metaphors have a role in creating the links between skills, so they can understand and analyze the transitions among these skills. Conversely, almost one-sixth of the prospective teachers included in the experimental group point out that metaphorical feedback which is given in class does not affect these skills.

Item 10: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, the theoretical topics would retain longer in my mind.

Nine out of ten prospective teachers agree to Item 10. Sixteen prospective teachers think that theoretical topics get embodied through metaphorical feedback. Four of them state that the topics are meaningful when metaphors are used to explain them. One prospective teacher indicates that metaphors have a function in incorporating theory and practice of the course. One prospective teacher states that metaphorical feedback is more practical than traditional ones.

Item 11: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I can relate the new things I have learned to the previous things I learned.

Slightly more than three-fourths of the participants agree to Item 11. Fourteen prospective teachers state that metaphors have a positive contribution in making connections between the previous and newly learnt topics. One prospective teacher asserts that they can imagine the situation through metaphors and attach them to their past experiences. One prospective teacher asserts that they can learn better via metaphors, so they can easily make connections between skills. Three prospective teachers claim that metaphors activate their schemata, enabling them to attach previous and post experience in their education.

Item 12: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, the course content would be more long lasting in my mind.

Slightly more than ninety percent of the prospective teachers agree Item 12. Six prospective teachers in the experimental group state that as metaphors are very interesting, they make trainees learn permanently as they can easily remember the course content. Three prospective teachers indicate that metaphors help participants to produce new pictures in their minds, so they can remember more information by the help of metaphorical feedback. Four prospective teachers state that as metaphorical feedback is interesting and enjoyable, this type of feedback help them learn more productively and creatively. Nine prospective teachers think that interesting and appropriate metaphors for the classroom activities will affect the lesson flow positively.

Item 13: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I can relate the present course to the other courses.

Nearly one-third of teachers in the experimental group agree to Item 13. Six prospective teachers of this group claim that they can easily transfer the knowledge to other courses, as long as they can understand the metaphors which are used in feedbacks given in the class. One prospective teacher states that they can only make connections between methodology courses.

On the contrary to the opinions above, almost one-sixth of the participants disagree to Item 13. According to this group, metaphors are useful just for the lesson itself, not for the connection to other lessons.

4.4. Qualitative Research Findings of Sub-factors

As the metaphorical feedback scale was designed to measure the three sub-factors of the prospective teachers' beliefs, analysis and interpretation of the qualitative data were collected under the three categories. The analyses of retention, higher order thinking skills, and motivation sub-factors will be provided in the following sections.

Figure 4. The qualitative analysis of retention (R) factor including student answers to interview

Items of Retention	3	4	8	10	12
Agree	24	22	23	22	22
No idea	0	2	1	1	1
Disagree	0	0	0	1	1

Item 3: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I would better remember what I have learned in the course.

All of the prospective teachers in the experimental group agree to Item 3. Four prospective teachers state that as the metaphors are authentic, they are easy to remember and three prospective teachers also claim that metaphorical feedback draws attention and visualizes the situation, thus helping remember the given feedback. Two prospective teachers state that different way of sayings helps their learning. Fifteen prospective teachers state that metaphorical feedbacks are enjoyable and interesting and they help students to remember the topics in the course.

Item 4: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I would not forget what I have learned in the course.

Almost nine out of ten of the prospective teachers in the experimental group agree to Item 5. Three prospective teachers state that metaphorical feedback provides permanent learning. One prospective teacher states that they can stimulate the situation in their mind, so they can easily remember the learnt topics. Six prospective teachers think that prospective teachers state that metaphors help remember things as the

metaphors are interesting and enjoyable, Ten prospective teachers state that through metaphors we can remember easily, and two prospective teachers stated that metaphors make ideas concrete enough to be remembered.

Item 8: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, what I have learned would be more permanent.

Nearly all of the prospective teachers agree to Item 8. Some of them state that metaphorical feedback makes them understand and remember. Since seventeen prospective teachers find metaphorical feedback enjoyable and interesting, they view metaphors as a useful tool for long term memory. Three prospective teachers think that meaningful information is likely to be remembered as a result of MEF. Three prospective teachers claim that metaphors create a picture of the situation in their mind, and visualize the abstract concepts; as a result, they can easily remember the content of the course.

Item 10: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, the theoretical topics would retain longer in my mind.

Nine out of ten prospective teachers agree to Item 10. Sixteen prospective teachers think that theoretical topics get embodied through metaphorical feedback. Four of them state that the topics are meaningful when metaphors are used to explain them. One prospective teacher indicates that metaphors have a function in incorporating theory and practice of the course. One prospective teacher states that metaphorical feedback is more practical than traditional ones.

Item 12: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, the course content would be more long lasting in my mind.

Slightly more than ninety percent of the prospective teachers agree Item 12. Six prospective teachers in the experimental group state that as metaphors are very interesting, they make trainees learn permanently as they can easily remember the course content. Three prospective teachers indicate that metaphors help participants to produce new pictures in their minds, so they can remember more information by the help of metaphorical feedback. Four prospective teachers state that as metaphorical

feedback is interesting and enjoyable, this type of feedback help them learn more productively and creatively. Nine prospective teachers think that interesting and appropriate metaphors for the classroom activities will affect the lesson flow positively

Figure 5. The qualitative analysis of higher order thinking skills (HOTS) factor including student answers to interview

Items of HOTS	1	7	9	11	13
Agree	18	16	13	19	7
No idea	3	5	7	4	13
Disagree	3	3	4	1	4

Item 1: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I can more effectively analyze the information related to the main language skills such as listening, reading, speaking, and writing.

More than two-thirds of the prospective teachers in the experimental group agree to the first Item. Three prospective teachers state that metaphorical feedback helps their learning instead of just memorizing the needed vocabulary. Eight prospective teachers think that MEF has a bridge role between these four skills, two prospective teachers think that MEF makes complicated things simple. In addition to this, five prospective teachers claim that through metaphors, they can easily analyze the four skills as the instructor of the course used metaphorical feedback for each skill.

However, nearly one out of ten prospective teachers disagreed to this question. They think metaphorical feedback is useful for speaking and listening not for reading

and writing. One of them states that metaphorical feedback does not connect four skills. The other one out of ten stated that they have no idea on this question.

Item 7: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I can synthesize the units of the course.

Exactly two-thirds of the prospective teachers agree to Item 7. Ten prospective teachers state that with the metaphorical feedback they can synthesize the different topics of the course because metaphors help them to remember the previous subjects. Parallel to the view above, five prospective teachers report that they can make connections among the other aspects of the course. One prospective teacher also remarks that units can be meaningful by means of metaphorical feedback in the classroom. In contrast to the majority above, two of them could not find any connection between metaphor and synthesis. One also thinks that using metaphors only may not be enough for synthesizing.

Item 9: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I can more effectively analyze the information related to the three language sub-skill such as grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary.

Slightly more than half of the participants agree to Item 9. Four prospective teachers state that using suitable metaphors for each sub-skill contributes to participants' remembering, as metaphors help convert abstract subjects into concrete ones. Nine prospective teachers claim that metaphors have a role in creating the links between skills, so they can understand and analyze the transitions among these skills. Conversely, almost one-sixth of the prospective teachers included in the experimental group point out that metaphorical feedback which is given in class does not affect these skills.

Item 11: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I can relate the new things I have learned to the previous things I learned.

Slightly more than three-fourths of the participants agree to Item 11. Fourteen prospective teachers state that metaphors have a positive contribution in making connections between the previous and newly learnt topics. One prospective teacher

asserts that they can imagine the situation through metaphors and attach them to their past experiences. One prospective teacher asserts that they can learn better via metaphors, so they can easily make connections between skills. Three prospective teachers claim that metaphors activate their schemata, enabling them to attach previous and post experience in their education.

Item 13: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I can relate the present course to the other courses.

Nearly one-third of teachers in the experimental group agree to Item 13. Six prospective teachers of this group claim that they can easily transfer the knowledge to other courses, as long as they can understand the metaphors which are used in feedbacks given in the class. One prospective teacher states that they can only make connections between methodology courses.

On the contrary to the opinions above, almost one-sixth of the participants disagree to Item 13. According to this group, metaphors are useful just for the lesson itself, not for the connection to other lessons.
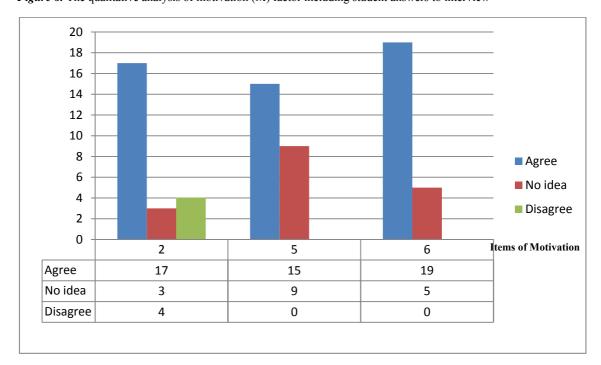
Figure 6. The qualitative analysis of motivation (M) factor including student answers to interview

	2	5	6
Agree	17	15	19
No idea	3	9	5
Disagree	4	0	0

Item 2: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I would have a stronger desire for learning.

More than two-thirds of the prospective teachers agree to the second Item. Three prospective teachers think that MEF converts abstract things to concrete ones, so through this kind of feedback, teaching would be more constructive. Ten prospective teachers claim that as the metaphorical feedback (MEF) is very effective, it increases their willingness to participate in the lesson. Four prospective teachers state that MEF is very interesting and enjoyable, so it will increase the effect of feedback. Conversely, almost one-sixth of the prospective teachers disagree, and state that metaphors are not the stimuli just help understanding what the metaphor is.

Item 5: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I would feel more comfortable.

A bit less than two-thirds of the students agree to Item 5. Ten prospective teachers state that metaphors create a warm classroom atmosphere, so they feel better. Five prospective teachers claim that metaphors convert feedback into a soft mood. In this way, they feel safe as their mistakes are reflected indirectly. On the one hand, students feel relaxed and metaphors make topics clear, on the other hand, as the metaphors are interesting and funny, they feel comfortable when metaphorical feedback is given. One out of three of the prospective teachers have no idea about this item.

Item 6: If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his /her feedbacks, I would like to learn more.

Almost four-fifths of the prospective teachers agree to Item 6. Nine prospective teachers say that they learn more if they have a funny classroom environment. Two prospective teachers claim that metaphors can be used as a tool to make the lesson interesting. Eight prospective teachers find metaphors attractive and metaphors provide an encouraging environment for them.

4.5. Further Discussion on Findings

In this part, the results and contribution of mef on students' motivation, the results and contribution of mef on students' higher order thinking skills (hots), the results and contribution of mef on students' retention will be discussed in the following sections.

4.5.1. The Results and Contribution of MEF on Students' Retention

Quantitative analyses indicate that there is a positive change in favor of the experimental group. The post-test retention (R) factor score of the experimental group (x=21.79) is higher than the R factor score (x=19.50) of the control group. Within the experimental group, the difference between the pre-test R factor score (x=18.08) and post-test R factor score (x=21.79) is noticeable. Also, F statistics (F(1-85) =15.604. p < .05) show that there is a statistically significant difference between the sum of the corrected R factor scores of the control group and the sum of the corrected R factor scores of the experimental group. This indicates that after the treatment of both groups, there is a meaningful difference between the total scores of the items constituting the retention sub-factor and this difference is in favor of the experimental group. In other words, as it was the case with the scores throughout the metaphorical feedback scale, the difference in the R factor scores from the experimental group is likely to result from the positive impact of using metaphors in learning.

When it comes to qualitative analysis of experimental group, the analysis of the interview indicates that there are some significant key points in students' answers to the semi-structured interview. These key points have a role to show how the metaphorical feedback functions and affects student perceptions in the classroom environment. Some key points indicated by the learners as follows:

Metaphorical feedback makes situation authentic.

The examination of the interviews indicates that authenticity has an important role in students' retention because metaphors provide an authentic context to prospective teachers as the metaphorical feedback was given as if it is a normal procedure of a

reflection. Deignan (2005) claims that the ubiquity of metaphor in language and thought is needed to be analyzed within the authentic discourse contexts instead of invented examples.

Metaphorical feedback is interesting and enjoyable.

For prospective teachers, metaphors provide learners with an interesting and enjoyable feedback in the classroom environment; this type of feedback enables students to retrieve the information or knowledge that they learn better.

Metaphorical feedback changes abstract topics into concrete.

Metaphorical feedback draws prospective teachers' attention better in comparison to the traditional one, so for students to remember the topics and reflections through metaphorical expression would be helpful for them. Metaphors convert the abstract concepts into more concrete and also metaphors provide a chance for the learners to simulate the situation in their mind; as a result, prospective teachers put the topics in the class to their long-term memory.

Metaphorical feedback simulates situation.

Metaphors help to create a mental linkage between the students' background knowledge and the course, students can simulate the situation in their mind in this way the permanence of feedback and knowledge would be long lasting.

Metaphorical feedback creates a picture in students' minds, helps visualizing.

Metaphorical feedback helps visualize the situation in students' minds, by this means, they can connect the situation and the real life better, and this situation leads to prospective teachers' remembering more. Similarly, Riejos (2004) states that metaphors have twofold function "On the one hand, they appear to be linked to background and specialized group knowledge; on the other, they serve to reinforce the visual content of the examples, giving a holistic and integrated dimension to the message" (p. 36).

Metaphorical feedback is practical.

The appropriate metaphors for a specific situation in a class will be very practical in keeping this situation in students' minds to recall later.

Metaphorical feedback provides connections between theory and practice.

Some of the answers to the second interview question indicate that metaphors are useful tools for the long term memory as they connect the theoretical knowledge with the practical one. By this means, metaphors have a function in incorporating theory and practice of the course

To sum up, analyses of both quantitative and qualitative data indicate that there is a significant change in the experimental groups' beliefs and attitudes towards the metaphorical feedback, which was given by the teacher after the students presentations in the course of Teaching Language Skills. To this end, Pearson et al (1981) state that "metaphors may elicit better recall of surrounding propositions than their literal paraphrases when they appear as 'main ideas' but only equal recall when they appear 'details'" (p. 260). Also, Boers (2000) supports that if language teachers lead their students to be sensitive on conceptual metaphors; students tend to be better at understanding and retaining them. Finally, in the light of the previous studies, we can say that the analyses of both qualitative and quantitative data indicate that prospective teachers' retention level increase after the treatment of the experimental group.

4.5.2. The Results and Contribution of MEF on Students' Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS)

The quantitative analysis indicates that there is a positive change in favor of the experimental group. Firstly, the post-test HOTS factor score of the experimental group (x=18.25) is higher than the HOTS factor score (x=17.35) of the control group. Within the experimental group, the pre-test H factor score (x=16.38) is lower than post-test H factor score (x=18.25). F statistics ($F_{(1-85)}$ =11.156. $p < .05$) indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the sum of the corrected HOTS factor scores of the control group and the sum of the corrected HOTS factor scores of the

experimental group. In other words, after the treatment of both groups, there is a meaningful difference between the total scores of the items constituting the HOTS sub-factor and this difference is in favor of the experimental group. In other words, as it was the case with the scores throughout the metaphorical feedback scale, the difference in the HOTS factor scores of the experimental group is likely to result from the positive impact of using metaphors in learning.

When the answers of the learners, given to the interview questions, are analyzed, it can be observed that metaphorical feedback has positive effects on higher order thinking skills of learners.

The learners think that metaphorical feedback functions as a bridge.

The qualitative analyses of the interview indicate that students in the experimental group can make connections between the four main language skills instead of just memorizing the necessary information. To this end, Thomas, Thorne and Small (2000) state that when a person just memorizes without thinking on the topic, they call it rote memory. Higher order thinking skills are high level of thinking instead of just restating the facts. One should first understand the facts, next connect them to each other, categorize and manipulate them in order to find new solutions to new problems.

The learners think that metaphorical feedback makes transition.

Metaphors have a role in creating the links between skills, so prospective teachers can understand and analyze the transitions among these skills.

The learners think that metaphorical feedback is meaningful.

As there are various units and topics in a course, synthesizing becomes an important thinking skill. By this means, students can form their knowledge by combining different topics and units of the course, as metaphors help students to remember the previous topics. When the instructor uses appropriate metaphors for each skill, prospective teachers can understand the connection between skills, after understanding the connection, they can apply higher order skills such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation by the help of metaphors used in the class. Also, they can easily transfer the knowledge

to other courses, as long as they can understand the metaphors which are used in feedbacks given in the class.

The learners think that metaphorical feedback provokes students' schemata.

On the one hand, prospective teachers assert that they can imagine the situation through metaphors and attach them to their past experiences. On the other, prospective teachers claim that metaphors activate their schemata, enabling them to attach previous and post experience in their education.

The learners think that metaphorical feedback converts abstract things into concrete.

In contrast to the positive comments on the effects of metaphors on students' higher order thinking levels, a group of students state that just using metaphors in reflection is not enough to synthesize the different units of a course. Proponents of this view also reflect that metaphors are appropriate for the actual course, but do not have a role in building connections between the other courses.

Even though there are prospective teachers who think metaphors are not effective in improving students' higher order thinking skills, both qualitative and quantitative analyses of the data indicate that there is a significant change on the experimental group's beliefs and attitudes towards the metaphorical feedback. Classification of higher order thinking skills heavily depends on Blooms (1956) taxonomy which consists of

Knowledge: recalling or locating information, learning facts
Comprehension: understanding of facts, organizing or interpreting them
Application: using understanding to solve problems in new situations
Analysis: recognizing patterns suggested by facts, 'take apart' information to examine different parts
Synthesis: producing something new, bringing together more than one idea
Evaluation: considering evidence to support conclusions, judging quality of a solution or theory

The last three; analysis, synthesis, and evaluation, are accepted as higher order thinking skills. In this respect, Vatthauer and Haenke (2006) argue that the use of metaphors encourages higher level of thinking as metaphors push students beyond the

basic concepts. They suggest that while teaching, teachers can use metaphors to help explain the concepts and empower the students' engagement in critical thinking. For them, metaphors have a role in connecting the new concepts to the known and creating mental imagery.

As a result, higher order thinking skills are the complex type of human thinking which needs deeper understanding and using such type of skills. The development of the prospective teachers' abilities on the notions of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation are indicated through the use of metaphorical thinking at the end of current study. Finally, it was found that the higher order thinking skills of the prospective teachers in the experimental group improved after the seven week treatment.

4.5.3. The Results and Contribution of MEF on Students' Motivation

The quantitative analysis shows that there is a positive change in favor of the experimental group. Firstly, the post-test motivation factor score of the experimental group (x=11.88) is higher than the motivation factor score (x=11.10) from the control group. In the experimental group, the pre-test motivation factor score (x=10.00) is lower than post-test motivation factor score (x=11.00). Secondly, the sum of the post-test motivation factor score of the experimental group (x=11.88) is higher than the motivation factor score of the control group (x=11.10). Finally, F statistics (F(1-85) =10.347. p < .05) indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the sum of the corrected motivation factor scores from the control group and the sum of the corrected motivation factor scores from the experimental group. It can be said that, after the treatment of both groups, there is a meaningful difference between the total scores of the items constituting the motivation sub-factor and this difference is in favor of the experimental group. In other words, as it was the case with the scores throughout the metaphorical feedback scale, the difference in the motivation factor scores from the experimental group is likely to result from the positive impact of using metaphors in learning.

For the motivation factor, the analyses of the interview indicate that there are some significant key points in students' answers.

The students think that metaphors increase students' willingness to learn.

The analyses of the interview indicate that metaphorical feedback provides a suitable environment for students to increase their willingness to participate in their course.

The students think that metaphors are enjoyable and interesting.

As the metaphorical feedbacks given in the class were very interesting and enjoyable, students attraction was taken by this way, so their participation in the courses increased. In respect to metaphor and motivation, Boers (2003) claims that conceptual metaphors offer motivation and coherence to whole clusters of figurative expressions that may appear to be arbitrary and unrelated at first sight. Moreover, conceptual metaphors carry an explanatory power "(e.g., motivating segments of natural language that used to be viewed as purely arbitrary), that it has sometimes tempted (applied) linguists to relegate any attested figurative expressions to underlying conceptual metaphors almost in an ad hoc fashion" (p. 232).

The students think that metaphors create a warm classroom atmosphere.

Scarcella and Oxford (1992) state that "motivation is important to language learning because it helps to determine the extent of involvement in learning. High motivation spurs learners to interact with native speakers of target language, which in turn increases the amount of input that learners receive" (cited in Oxford 1996, p. 106). They also feel comfortable, as a result of this emotional effect, they are open to the new coming topics. Also, metaphors create a warm classroom environment; thus, they feel better and their motivation for learning increases. Finally, as metaphors convert feedback into a soft and indirect mood, they are not afraid of receiving feedback as metaphors provide an indirect type of feedback.

The students think that metaphors make them relaxed.

Anderson (2009) states that metaphors attract students' interest, and lower their anxiety level. Similarly, our study indicates that students feel relaxed when the feedback is given together with a metaphorical expression. Our findings are parallel to Andersons' (2009) study, in which he states that "the metaphor may improve the student's

confidence in his or her ability to accomplish the task, increase motivation to keep at the task, and encourage the use of more effective learning strategies" (p. 9).

As a result, like previous studies, the present study indicates that there is a significant change in the experimental group's attitudes and beliefs towards the metaphorical feedback which is given by the teacher after the students' presentations in the course of Teaching Language Skills. In other words, it is found that prospective teachers' motivation increases after the treatment of the experimental group.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.0. Introduction

This chapter summarizes this study, discusses implications for EFL classes, and makes suggestions for further studies.

5.1. Summary of the Study

This study investigates the effects of metaphorical feedback on prospective ELT teachers' beliefs and attitudes. Quantitative and qualitative research methods were used to collect data. For the quantitative analysis, metaphorical feedback (MEF) scale was developed to gather data. For the qualitative one, two data collection tools were used; namely, recording metaphorical reflections in the class, and semi-structured interview. MEF scale was piloted before the actual research and some revisions were performed for the suitability of the scale for this study. After these procedures, MEF scale was applied to 44 prospective teachers; 24 for experimental group and 20 for control group as a pre-and post-test. Metaphorical feedback was given after the students' presentations in Teaching Language Skills course to see if metaphorical feedback helps improve their beliefs and attitudes.

Metaphorical feedback has a role in improving prospective teachers' level of retention, higher order thinking skills, and motivation. For this reason, data were collected from both the experimental and the control group in a pre- and post-test design. The scores of the pre- and post-tests were analyzed to see the differences between the experimental and the control group.

The first research question for the current study investigated whether or not the beliefs and attitudes of the third grade prospective teachers towards the metaphorical feedback in the ELT Program changed through the implementation of metaphorical reflection. Our first sub-question was "Does the metaphorical feedback which is given

to foreign language learners have an effect on students' beliefs and attitudes?" To measure this, a pre- and post-test were applied to both the experimental and the control group. The results revealed that the difference between the pre-test score (x=44.46) and post-test score (x=51.92) of the experimental group is significantly large. In order to make it clear, an ANCOVA analysis was applied and the F statistics (F(1-85) =15.911. p < .05) indicated that there is a statistically significant difference between the corrected score of the control group and the corrected score of the experimental group. In other words, when we look at the post-test scores, we can say that the score of the experimental group is higher than the score of the control group. Therefore, it can be said that the difference between the control and the experimental group may stem from the metaphorical feedback treatment in the experimental group. Similarly, qualitative results supported the quantitative findings.

For the second research question, "Do the learners who receive metaphorical feedback for their presentation have a better retention than the learners who receive traditional feedback?" the effects of metaphorical feedback on students' retention was investigated. The results of the pre-test and the control test indicated that the post-test retention (R) factor score of the experimental group (x=21.79) is higher than the R factor score (x=19.50). Also, F statistics (F(1-85) =15.604. p < .05) show that there is a statistically significant difference between the sum of the corrected R factor scores of the control group and the sum of the corrected R factor scores of the experimental group. After the treatment, students' retention in experimental group improved. Besides the quantitative results, the semi-structured interview revealed that students benefited from metaphorical feedback to increase their retention.

For the third research question, "Do the learners who receive metaphorical feedback for their presentation have more in higher order thinking skills than the learners who receive traditional feedback?" the effects of metaphorical feedback were investigated. The findings of the pre-test and the post-test revealed that the post-test HOTS factor score of the experimental group (x=18.25) is higher than the HOTS factor score (x=17.35) of the control group. In addition, F statistics (F(1-85) =11.156. p < .05) indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the sum of the corrected HOTS factor scores of the control group and the sum of the corrected HOTS

factor scores of the experimental group. It was found that prospective teachers' higher order thinking skills improved after the seven week treatment.

For the last research question, "Do the learners who receive metaphorical feedback for their presentation have a better increase on the level of motivation than the learners who receive traditional feedback?" the effects of metaphorical feedback on students' motivation were investigated. The post-test motivation factor score of the experimental group (x=11.88) is higher than the motivation factor score (x=11.10) from the control group. Finally, F statistics (F(1-85) =10.347. p < .05) indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the sum of the corrected motivation factor scores from the control group and the sum of the corrected motivation factor scores from the experimental group.

Our research design revealed that metaphorical feedback provided a highly significant contribution to prospective teachers' beliefs and attitudes, increasing their retention, higher order thinking skills, and motivation. Therefore, firstly, the use of metaphors in language teaching classes while giving feedback has an improvement on their retention. Metaphorical feedback may help prospective teachers to make situation authentic, to simulate the situation, and to create a picture in students' minds. Secondly, the use of metaphors in language teaching classes while giving feedback increased students' higher order thinking skills. Students think that metaphors function as bridges, make transitions, are meaningful, improve students' schemata, and help convert abstract things into concrete. Finally, the use of metaphorical feedback improves students' motivation. For students, metaphorical feedback is very useful for them, as metaphors increase their willingness to learn new things, create a warm classroom atmosphere, and make them feel safe.

5.2. Pedagogical Implications

Feedback has an important role among the various components of the classroom discourse. The use of metaphors while giving feedback has a crucial role in developing retention, thinking skills, and motivation, as the use of metaphors in classes provokes students' cognitive skills. Therefore, any language teaching program should include

some training to use metaphorical feedback in the classroom discourse. When students internalize the benefits of the metaphors, they can be more aware of their learning.

As mentioned earlier in the literature review, metaphors are heavily culture-bound figurative expressions, so the teachers should consider this issue not to cause a misunderstanding when they use metaphors in their classes. Thus, teachers need to use metaphors in reasonable amount and in situations wherever necessary. Otherwise the inappropriate use of metaphors may cause misunderstanding and demotivation of the students.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

One can find various studies on feedback and metaphors for foreign language learning. In these studies, different types and aspects of both feedback and metaphor have been investigated. However, no studies were found related to metaphorical feedback in English language teaching classes. For this reason, besides foreign language teaching, other disciplines may use metaphors in the feedback sessions.

Our study was limited to twenty-four third grade level students enrolled in English Language Teaching Program at Gazi University. The present study was carried out in Teaching Language Skills course. Further studies may be carried out in different courses of language teaching programs, or different disciplines including more participants. A large survey across different universities can be carried out in order to determine the contributions of metaphorical feedback.

Similar research can be done with different age groups to find out the effects of metaphorical feedbacks in improving students cognitive skills. Finally, in this study, we developed a metaphorical feedback scale to measure the possible changes in students' belief and attitudes. In addition, we prepared metaphorical feedback for pre-service teachers. However, more studies should be carried out to find the effects of metaphorical feedback not just for language teaching but for other disciplines.

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PPENDICES

Appendix I. Metaphorical Feedback Scale: English Version

The scale is about the effects of feedback on students' beliefs and attitudes. Put (X) under the appropriate option that represents your opinion. The options are **Strongly Disagree, Disagree, No Idea, Agree, Strongly Agree**.

Thank you for your participation.

Research Assistant M. Serkan ÖZTÜRK

METAPHORICAL FEEDBACK SCALE

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	No Idea	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his/her feedbacks, **I can more effectively analyze the information related to the main language skills such as listening, reading, speaking and writing.**					
2	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his/her feedbacks, **I would have a stronger desire for learning.**					
3	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his/her feedbacks, **I would better remember what I have learned in the course.**					
4	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his/her feedbacks, **I would not forget what I have learned in the course.**					
5	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his/her feedbacks, **I would feel more comfortable.**					
6	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his/her feedbacks, **I would like to learn more.**					
7	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his/her feedbacks, **I can synthesize the units of the course.**					
8	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his/her feedbacks, **what I have learned would be more permanent.**					
9	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his/her feedbacks, **I can more effectively analyze the information related to the three language sub-skills such as grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary.**					
10	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his/her feedbacks, **the theoretical topics would retain longer in my mind.**					
11	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his/her feedbacks, **I can relate the new things I have learned to the previous things I learned.**					
12	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his/her feedbacks, **the course content would be more long lasting in my mind.**					
13	If the instructor of our course uses metaphors in his/her feedbacks, **I can relate the present course to the other courses.**					

Appendix II. Metaphorical Feedback Scale: Turkish Version

Bu ölçek metaforun öğrencilerin inançları ve tutumları üzerindeki etkileri hakkındadır. Fikrinizi yansıtan en uygun seçeneğin altına (X) işaretini koyunuz. Seçenekler şunlardır: **Hiç Katılmıyorum, Katılmıyorum, Fikrim Yok, Katılıyorum, Tamamen Katılıyorum.**
Katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

Arş. Gör. M. Serkan ÖZTÜRK

METAFOR KULLANILARAK VERİLEN DÖNÜT ÖLÇEĞİ

		Hiç Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Fikrim Yok	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1	Dersin öğretim elemanı dönütlerinde metafor kullanırsa, **dilin dört becerisi dinleme, okuma, konuşma ve yazma hakkındaki bilgileri daha etkili bir şekilde analiz edebilirim.**					
2	Dersin öğretim elemanı dönütlerinde metafor kullanırsa**, öğrenmek için daha kuvvetli bir istek duyarım.**					
3	Dersin öğretim elemanı dönütlerinde metafor kullanırsa, **derste öğrendiklerimi daha iyi hatırlayabilirim.**					
4	Dersin öğretim elemanı dönütlerinde metafor kullanırsa, **derste öğrendiklerimi unutmam.**					
5	Dersin öğretim elemanı dönütlerinde metafor kullanırsa, **kendimi rahat hissederim.**					
6	Dersin öğretim elemanı dönütlerinde metafor kullanırsa, **daha fazla şey öğrenmek isterim.**					
7	Dersin öğretim elemanı dönütlerinde metafor kullanırsa, **dersin ünitelerini sentezleyebilirim.**					
8	Dersin öğretim elemanı dönütlerinde metafor kullanırsa, **öğrendiklerim daha kalıcı olur.**					
9	Dersin öğretim elemanı dönütlerinde metafor kullanırsa, **dilin üç alt becerisi gramer, telaffuz ve kelime bilgisi hakkındaki bilgileri daha etkili bir şekilde analiz edebilirim.**					
10	Dersin öğretim elemanı dönütlerinde metafor kullanırsa**, teorik konular daha kalıcı olur.**					
11	Dersin öğretim elemanı dönütlerinde metafor kullanırsa, **öğrendiğim yeni şeyleri daha önceden öğrendiklerimle ilişkilendirebilirim.**					
12	Dersin öğretim elemanı dönütlerinde metafor kullanırsa, **dersler benim için daha akılda kalıcı olur.**					
13	Dersin öğretim elemanı dönütlerinde metafor kullanırsa, **ders ile diğer alan dersleri arasında bağlantı kurabilirim.**					

Appendix III. Informed Consent Form

Title: An Analysis of the Impact of Metaphorical Feedback in English Language Teaching Classroom Discourse

Principal Investigator: M. Serkan ÖZTÜRK

Dissertation Director: Dr. Cemal ÇAKIR
Gazi University, English Language Teaching Department

Overview: You are invited to participate in this research study, which I am conducting to fulfill the doctoral degree requirements at Gazi University in Turkey. The purpose of this form is to give you a written description of the research study so you may decide whether to participate or not. You are eligible to participate because you are taking the Teaching Language Skills course. However, I am providing the explanations below so that your participation in this study may be informed and voluntary. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me.

Risks and benefits: The study does not include any known risks to the participants. The study primarily aims at increasing the students' awareness towards the metaphors. It also brings the students' attention to the importance of metaphorical feedback in language teaching classes.

Confidentiality: The names and samples of the subjects will remain of high priority to the researcher. The names will never be disclosed for any reasons. Both video recordings and audio taped data will be used for only this Phd research and future academic research.

Dissertation Supervisor	**Researcher**
Dr. Cemal ÇAKIR	M.Serkan ÖZTÜRK
Assistant Prof. Dr.	Research Assistant
Gazi University English Language	Gazi University English Language
Teaching Program	Teaching Program
e-mail: ccakir@gazi.edu.tr	e-mail: mserkanozturk@gmail.com

Appendix IV. Voluntary Consent Form

VOLUNTARY CONSENT FORM

I have fully read and understand the information presented in the form and that I agree to participate voluntarily in the study. I realize that my participation as a respondent in the study is confidential and that I can withdraw my intention at any given time at my behest. I have received an unsigned copy of this Informed Consent Form for my personal safekeeping.

Name : _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

E-mail

_____

Appendix V. Transcription Samples of Metaphorical Feedback

In the following, adjacency pairs of student-instructor dialogs in which teachers give feedback to students are provided. The feedbacks given below are from different phases of the lesson. Metaphors are shown in bold.

Student 1

Instructor: -repeating answers aloud is ok

-well done you never forgot instruction check

-walking among students is ok

-good take control, do not hesitate to use your voice.

-you were a good maestro, conducting the class really well.

-your classroom management was fine

Student 2

Instructor: -when you are dealing with the concept questions, do not forget to refer to the example sentence.

-you could have included these negative structures in the reading text (seldom, never etc.)

-do not forget to praise students!

-show them your sunny side to motivate them

-paraphrase, show, or explain what students will do

- there are different routes to one destination, use varied instruction check techniques

-repeat answers out loud

Student 3

Instructor: -the slides are fast, it's difficult to follow all of them, but they are nice

-you are not a rat running away from a cat

-give info on face reading

-an interesting start mixing class

-take control, quite down students

-you need to be the conductor of this orchestra

-pay attention to grammar

-when asking concept questions refer specifically to the example

sentences (first part, second part)

Student 4

Instructor: -this is not for the main idea

-this is not the right key for the door

-this is for specific information

-vocabulary extra options were given

-you look much better than your previous presentations

-remember that anxiety is like a storm if you cannot control it, you

lose yourself when teaching

Student 5

Instructor: -giving instructions first before they read the text is ok

-why don't you help students correct her mistake

-you are not a blanket, you cannot cover mistakes, you have to manage them

-against all odds, you are doing fine, just be patient

-your temper is a storm, if you cannot control it

-for example: you can say what do we emphasize?, what is emphasized here?

Student 6

Instructor: -you were supposed to be learner partners to show, organize knowledge

-"does the picture have any sense to you!!?

-the teacher is model for students, watch out your grammar

-a nice introduction to the subject

-be careful about the grammar mistakes!

-remember, **grammar is the locomotive of teaching** you need to improve yourself

-the example sentences should be taken from the reading text

-you need to organize and use appropriate tools to do your job

Student 7

Instructor: -no elicitation but just giving the rule!

-this is, what happens when you despise or mock students

-you'll get counter attack. Don't lose your temper!

-your temper boiled over and it had a domino effect on students

-first activity- mechanical- fine

-you should have worked together

-so that **you can digest all information** you need and come with something successful

-you were in the right track but lost in the end

Student 8

Instructor: -second reading is very interesting, thank you for preparing something different, challenging

-you played your game with different cards

-checking what students are doing is ok

-keep in mind! repeating instructions in same words may not help students understanding

-there are different routes to one destination, if one doesn't work use another

- vocabulary interesting, words are suitable for context

-good intervention, gorilla thumps for sleeping students

-you hit the nail right on its head

Student 9

Instructor: -choosing different students is ok

-elicitation questions are nice

-good clarification for "S" (student name)

-mechanical activity is ok

-communicative activity is ok

-you had a map in your head and you followed your route well

-walking among students is ok

-checking what students are doing is ok

-you were a good maestro, handling students well

-dealing with groups one by one is ok

Student 10

Instructor: -elicitation questions fine

-you need **to clear the way** to students, **you need to be a light house**

-refer to the example sentence in concept questions

-choosing sleeping students you were a good conductor for classroom management

-second activity mechanical, first activity meaningful

-if **you are the tailor**, you need to do things in the right order

-instruction check is ok

-I am not sure about how communicative this activity

-will they be in a conversation

-**the picture and the frame did not fit**, it looks like a communicative activity but it is not.

Student 11

Instructor: -vocabulary, nice, multiple choice

     -all the activities in reading were something different. Thanks

     -"T" (student name), sleeping beauty good

     -classroom management is nice

     -**you were a good performer**, even though you were ill.

     -the activities that you prepared for the reading text were nice

     -**you added different flavors into the meal**

Student 12

Instructor: -you don't need to ask the second question again

     -**don't get stuck** to the written format, take initiative

     -elicitation questions are nice

     -mechanical activity is ok

     -**you need to be a guide**, leading the student discover the rule, **let them be the explorer**

     -for communicative activity- maybe you could have given them role cards about the bad experiences

     -they might need more guidance

     -for students **this is like going on a journey without a map**

     -be careful in error correction

     -**the teacher is the aspirin**, if you don't correct mistakes, you'll had a headache later on

Student 13

Instructor: -classroom management is good

-good choosing silent students, **you behaved like a director**

-error correction, directing students to the answer

-vocab- one suggestion! Be careful about the definitions of words

- don't write dictionary definitions, simplify them

-**we need to clear the way** of students for better understanding, not **blocking their understanding**

Student 14

Instructor: -**your face was dark** at the beginning but **you find your track**

-the elicitation questions are fine

-pay attention! Try to refer to example sentences in your concept questions

-**you are leaving the students in the dark**

-pronunciation correction is ok

-error correction, self correction is good

-you behaved **as a good guide** when correcting students mistake

-it is not very communicative

-everything went smoothly in grammar presentation, but **you spoilt the meal**

Student 15

Instructor: -**you were a good conductor**, using your voice effectively

-first and second reading to the point, serving the right aim

-don't forget to do instruction checks

-**you warmed up the students** with an enjoyable text

Student 16

Instructor: -the correct pronunciation (urgent priorities)

-connection of the pronunciation **mistake was smooth, soft repeating** after students

-try to refer to example sentence when you prepare your concept questions

-having… also serves as the first of two events (when used without before, since etc.)

-your explanation needs **to be more transparent**

-don't forget to note down errors

-are students really using present participle?

-you were on the right track from beginning till end except for error correction

-**remember that as a cook you need to add all the ingredients of the recipe, error correction is an important spice of the meal that gives the flavor**

Student 17

Instructor: -good to ask for reason

-in general your classroom management was nice

-you are smiling, active

-walking among students is fine

-time management was nice

-**you've really wrestled well** with the students,

-you handled them very well

-your decision **were right on the spot,** quick

-you didn't **get stuck with the problems**

Student 18

Instructor: -mechanical, meaningful activities are ok

-it is a little late for form elicitation but better late than never, but form elicitation is nice

-**you are the tailor, so be careful when you are sewing your dress**

-do not give role cards until you give the instructions

-why were you nervous in this activity while giving instructions?

-**you were on the right track, don't let your anxiety blow off your control**

-you hesitate a lot while speaking

-don't wait too long for decision making

Student 19

Instructor: -well done giving "N" (student name) the papers to handout, she is very kinesthetic

-you are on the right track in classroom management from beginning till end

-first reading for the main idea is ok

-matching paragraphs with titles is ok

-correcting pronunciation of students by repeating is fine

-choosing different students is ok

-but don't forget about shy students

-walking among students is nice

-I really liked the way to deal with students

-you definitely were an excellent conductor who deals with students very well

Student 20

Instructor: -talking about cookies, interesting facts about cookies

-as a teachers you **have to use what you've got in your pockets**

-a short video about interesting facts

-visuals are lovely

-well done "Z" (student name), writing on the board

-then why don't you write answers on the board?

-you had all the necessary ingredients, but you didn't use all of them some flavors went missing

-other than that you are in good control

Student 21

Instructor: -concept questions are fine

-form elicitation is fine

-you don't necessarily include subordinate clause in form elicitation

-you shouldn't assume that students are containers full of grammatical jargon

-one suggestion-if there are too many photocopies to give students, give them as a whole

-you were **wrestling with papers**.

-interesting, but there is no info gap here, students see what is written

- you were on the right track, but lost in the end.

-quite down students

Student 22

Instructor: -elicitation questions are fine

-concept questions are really good as well

- if students are fabrics and you are the tailor, you were able to produce a fashionable cloth

-form elicitation well done

-communicative activity is fine

-you had a sunny face, motivating students

-students description of half pictures and combining is a good idea

-dealing with each group one by one was good

-good way to choose the group, drawing numbers

-if we think this class is a theater and we are the actors, you were an excellent director.

Student 23

Instructor: -the class was sleeping

-vocabulary was fine

-self-correction was fine

-you were a good sculptor, you started with the raw material and shape it into a form that's pleasing to the eye

-the questionnaire was very interesting, enjoyable

-reflecting answers on the board was fine

-repeating answers out loud is ok

-choosing different students

-we can say that the activities were the ingredients of a meal. You were a good cook, you come up with a delicious meal

Student 24

Instructor: -concept questions are a little interesting

-elicitation questions are fine

-concept questions may be the last two could have been combined

-concept checking questions are the key to unlock the meaning of grammar structure

-communicative activity is ok

-I don't know how much it would provide the practice for students

-you need to help students to digest the structure through communicate activity

-you have to remind your students that they should use the target structure

-take the initiative, the class is sleeping

-remember students are play dough, you need to shape them