

**GAZI UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
THE DEPARTMENT OF
TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

**ANALYSIS OF ANKARA POLICE HIGH SCHOOL 9TH GRADE
STUDENTS' ENGLISH SPEAKING LEVELS ACCORDING TO
SPEAKING CRITERIA OF THE COMMON EUROPEAN LANGUAGE
FRAMEWORK OF REFERENCE FOR LANGUAGES**

M. A. THESIS

**By
Baykal Tıraş**

**Supervisor
Assist. Prof. Dr. Cemal Çakır**

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Adı Soyadı

İmza

Başkan: Doç. Dr. Arif SARIÇOBAN

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

Üye: Yard. Doç. Dr. Gültekin BORAN

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And as for my mother. Whenever she saw me studying, she always kept encouraging me with a smiling face. I hope that in my life I shall always have such a smiling face.

ÖZET

AVRUPA DİLLER İÇİN ORTAK BAŞVURU ÇERÇEVESİ KONUŞMA KRİTERLERİNE GÖRE ANKARA POLİS KOLEJİ 9. SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN İNGİLİZCE KONUŞMA BECERİLERİNİN ANALİZİ

TIRAŞ, Baykal

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

Tez Danışmanı: Yard. Doç. Dr. Cemal Çakır

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Teknoloji, diplomasi, ekonomi, toplum, kültür v.b. alanlardaki hızlı değişim, etkileşim ve küreselleşme yabancı dil öğrenimi ihtiyacını arttırmıştır. İnsanların taleplerine göre dilin nasıl öğretilmesi gerektiği konusu dil uzmanlarını dilin nasıl daha etkili bir şekilde öğretilbileceği konusunda düşünmeye sevk etmiştir. Dil öğrenenlerin konuşma, okuma, dinleme ve yazma gibi dört yeteneği öğrenmeleri amaçlanır. Bu amaçla, dil öğretim uzmanları yabancı dil öğretiminde en iyi yolları bulmaya çalışırlar. Konuşma becerisi ikinci ya da yabancı dil öğretimi boyunca en çok önem verilen unsurlardan birisi olmasına karşın, bazı teknik, metodolojik, idari v.b. problemlerden dolayı en az değerlendirmeye tabi tutulan unsur olagelmıştır.

Herhangi bir öğrenimin veya dil öğretiminin başarılı olabilmesi için, öğrenenler en iyi şekilde motive edilmelidirler. Öğrencilerin motivasyonunu sağlamadaki en iyi yollardan birisi onların dil öğrenim aşamasında karşılaşılabilecekleri muhtemel problemleri tespit etmektir. Başka deyişle, problemlerin teşhisi ve bu problemlerle başa çıkabilme dil öğretiminde ya da herhangi bir dil becerisinde öğrencilerin motivasyonunu arttıracaktır.

Bu çalışmanın amacı Avrupa Diller İçin Ortak Başvuru Çerçevesi (Common European Framework of Reference for Language-CEFR) kriterlerine göre Ankara

Polis Koleji 2009-2010 eğitim-öğretim yılı 9. sınıf öğrencilerinin konuşma becerilerinin analizidir. CEFR tüm Avrupa’da en etkili ve en çok kabul edilen dil değerlendirme sistemi olarak kabul edildiği için, CEFR bu çalışmada değerlendirme kriteri olarak seçilmiştir.

Konuşma analizi için, Ankara Polis Koleji’nde 2009-2010 öğretim yılında dokuzuncu sınıfta okuyan 225 öğrenci ile söz konusu okulda aynı yılda İngilizce derslerine giren 12 İngilizce öğretmenine iki anket uygulanmıştır. Bu anketlere ilaveten 60 öğrenciden oluşan bir test grubuna konuşma testi uygulanmıştır. Uygulamadan elde edilen sonuçlar istatistiklerle değerlendirilmiştir. Araştırmada, Ankara Polis Koleji 9. sınıf öğrencilerinin İngilizce konuşma becerilerinin Avrupa Diller İçin Ortak Başvuru Çerçevesi konuşma kriterlerine göre değerlendirilmesinde öğrenci ve öğretmenlerin görüşlerinin aşağıdaki gibi olduğu saptanmıştır:

- A1 Karşılıklı Konuşma : Öğrenciler: $\bar{X}=4,27$; Öğretmenler: $\bar{X}=4,50$
- A1 Sözlü Anlatım : Öğrenciler: $\bar{X}=3,99$; Öğretmenler: $\bar{X}=4,75$
- A2 Karşılıklı Konuşma : Öğrenciler: $\bar{X}=3,58$; Öğretmenler: $\bar{X}=3,98$
- A2 Sözlü Anlatım : Öğrenciler: $\bar{X}=3,85$; Öğretmenler: $\bar{X}=4,18$
- B1 Karşılıklı Konuşma : Öğrenciler: $\bar{X}=3,31$; Öğretmenler: $\bar{X}=3,69$
- B1 Sözlü Anlatım : Öğrenciler: $\bar{X}=3,16$; Öğretmenler: $\bar{X}=3,24$

Anahtar Sözcükler:

Avrupa Diller İçin Ortak Başvuru Çerçevesi, Avrupa Dil Portfolyosu, konuşma, konuşmanın değerlendirilmesi, dereceli puanlama anahtarı, dil öğretimi, sözlü iletişim becerisi.

ABSTRACT

ANALYSIS OF ANKARA POLICE HIGH SCHOOL 9TH GRADE STUDENTS' ENGLISH SPEAKING LEVELS ACCORDING TO SPEAKING CRITERIA OF THE COMMON EUROPEAN LANGUAGE FRAMEWORK OF REFERENCE FOR LANGUAGES

TIRAŞ, Baykal

M. A., Department of Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Cemal Çakır

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Development, interaction and globalization in the technological, diplomatic, economic, social, cultural etc. areas have increased the need to learn foreign languages. The question of how languages should be taught according to needs of the people has made the language experts think about how the foreign language can be taught more effectively. The language learners are required to acquire four skills, namely, speaking, reading, listening and writing. For this purpose, language teaching experts try to find the best ways to teach foreign languages. Although speaking has always had the greatest importance attached during the teaching of English as a second or foreign language, assessment has been minimal because of some kinds of technical, methodological and administrative problems.

If a language teaching is to succeed, the learners should be well motivated. One of the best ways of motivating the learners is in diagnosing the problems that they encounter during the learning process. In other words, diagnosing the problems and coping with these problems will increase the motivation of the students in learning the language and other language skills.

The purpose of this study is to analyse the speaking level of Ankara Police High School 9th grade students' in the academic year 2009-2010 according to speaking criteria of the Common European Language Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The reason for choosing CEFR for evaluation criteria is that CEFR is considered to be the most effective and the most accepted language assessment system in the whole of Europe.

For the speaking analysis, two questionnaires were administered to 225 9th grade students and to 12 ELT teachers who taught English in the academic year 2009-2010 in the 9th grades at Ankara Police High School. Besides these questionnaires, a discourse completion test was administered to a sample group of 60 students. The results obtained after the implementation have been assessed statistically. The findings in the research indicate that the opinions of the students and of the teachers in assessing Ankara Police High School 9th grade students' speaking levels according to Common European Language Framework of Reference For Languages speaking criteria is as follows:

- A1 Spoken Interaction: Students: $\bar{X}=4,27$; Teachers: $\bar{X}=4,50$
- A1 Spoken Production: Students: $\bar{X}=3,99$; Teachers: $\bar{X}=4,75$
- A2 Spoken Interaction: Students: $\bar{X}=3,58$; Teachers: $\bar{X}=3,98$
- A2 Spoken Production: Students: $\bar{X}=3,85$; Teachers: $\bar{X}=4,18$
- B1 Spoken Interaction: Students: $\bar{X}=3,31$; Teachers: $\bar{X}=3,69$
- B1 Spoken Production: Students: $\bar{X}=3,16$; Teachers: $\bar{X}=3,24$

Key words:

Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, European Language Portfolio, speaking, assessment of speaking, rubric, language teaching, oral communication skills.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A1: ‘Breakthrough’ level of Common European Language Framework of Reference for Languages

A2: ‘Waystage’ level of Common European Language Framework of Reference for Languages

ACTFL: American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language

ALM: Audiolingual Method

ALTE: Association of Language Testers in Europe

ANOVA: Analysis of Variance

B1: ‘Threshold’ level of Common European Language Framework of Reference for Languages

CAF: Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency

CEFR : Common European Language Framework of Reference for Languages

CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning

CoE: Council of Europe

DCT: Discourse Completion Test

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELP: European Language Portfolio

ELT: English Language Teaching

EQF: European Qualifications Framework

ESL: English as a Second Language

EU: European Union

FL: Foreign Language

FSI: Foreign Service Institute

GTM: Grammar-Translation Method

ILR: Interagency Language Roundtable

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

IELTS: International English Language Testing System

IPA: International Phonetic Alphabet

N: Number

NLP: Neuro Language Programming

M: Mean

SBS: Seviye Belirleme Sınavı (Exam of Level Determination)

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SLT: Situational Language Teaching

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

Std. D.: Standard Deviation

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language

TPR: Total Physical Response

DCT: Discourse Completion Test

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Presentation

Language is the most important tool for communication between people. As a means of communication tool, language holds a vital importance in humans' lives and it enables people to understand the world. People generally transfer their experiences and develop them by means of language. Concurrently, language is a tool that develops creativity and aesthetics. It is an important factor which enables people to be effective in individual, communal and vocational areas.

Besides the mother tongue, a foreign language has recently come an obligation. In our rapidly globalizing world, learning a foreign language has gained, undoubtedly, great importance. Therefore, foreign languages have started to be taught at very early ages. In this globalizing world of our age, learning a foreign language has become very important especially within Europe. Inter-cultural communication is only possible by learning languages different from one's own native tongue. For this reason, the Council of Europe (CoE) attaches importance to the concept of pluralism which is based on the Common European Language Framework of Reference (CEFR).

English, which is accepted as a Lingua-franca, is being taught as a second or a foreign language in many countries. Understanding the difference between a

second and a foreign language is important in the usage of teaching methods-techniques, how language should be perceived and how language should be taught in this direction. That is to say, the needs and aims of learning a foreign language might be very broad, but it might also be very limited. For example, one person might learn a foreign language only for reading magazines and the books published in his/her field.

The question of how language should be taught according to the needs of the people have forced the language experts think about how a foreign language can be taught most effectively. Therefore, the language learners are expected to acquire the four skills, namely, listening, reading, speaking and writing.

However, the research by Payam (2004) shows that more than 90% percent of the students and of the graduates of Ankara Police High School state that they are learning English to communicate with those who cannot speak Turkish. So, English is being learnt firstly for communicative purposes. Language is for communication and students will use the language mostly for communicative purposes. Therefore, English speaking skills should have greater importance attached. It does not mean that other skills should be ignored.

For any learning or a language teaching to succeed, the learners should be well motivated. One of the best ways of motivating the learners must be to diagnose the problems that they encounter during their learning process. In other words, diagnosing the problems and coping with these problems will increase the motivation of the students in learning the language or in other language skills. The purpose of this study is the analysis of English speaking levels and suggesting solutions for the possible problems.

In this part of the study; the problem, the aims, the significance, the methodology, the assumptions, limitations and abbreviations used in the research will be discussed.

1.1 Problem

Speaking has a major role in daily life and it is a significant tool used for communication among most people. One of the most important factors of language teaching is in promoting speaking skills. “Speaking is the way which a person tells his/her feelings and thoughts to another person or to a community” (Yörük, 1990: 1). In another definition, “speaking is the work of transferring our experiences, feelings and thoughts to other people” (Özdemir, 1992: 11). As can be clearly seen, the common property of the definitions is that speaking is used as a communication tool.

Speaking which is used as a communication medium is important in every field of life. Yaman (2001) lists the importance of speaking in human life as follows: 1. Speaking is the nature of being a human being. 2. Speaking is a biological need of humans. 3. Speaking is needed for learning. 4. Speaking is needed to teach, too. 5. We need speaking in order to be able to live in society. 6. Speaking is the shortest way of interacting with the people around us, strengthening the ties or sometimes ending them. 7. Humans tell their feelings and thoughts by speaking since they are the entities who think.

Being able to speak another language correctly and fluently is very important in many ways. By means of this, we have no difficulty while interacting with the people. Correct and fluent speaking in a foreign language is not easily acquired. On some occasions, some problems might occur in using the language and

speaking. An insufficiency of the English vocabulary, errors in utterances, knowledge and interest limited in the English language, not using those elements which make speaking easier, the lack of self-trust, thinking for oneself is not enough, indifference, not knowing how to speak within a plan, not knowing how to listen etc. can be given to exemplify the factors which impede or improve speaking. One of the reasons these problems might occur are the many types of speaking and the student may not have adequate information about varying modes. In order to be able to be a good speaker in speaking correctly and fluently, it is a must to learn the basic rules and principles of speaking and these rules and principles have to be applied in every environment.

Police High School has the same curriculum with Science and Anatolian High Schools in Turkey. In all the Anatolian High Schools, the Ministry of National Education, the preparation year of English was cancelled and English lessons have been taught along with the other lessons. Subsequently, the lesson hours of English have been changed as well. According to the curriculum of 2009-2010 academic year, 9th grades had 10 class hours of English, while the 10th-11th-12th grades had 4 class hours of English. In a few private schools and military high schools, there are still English preparatory classes. Police High School adjusted its English class hours totally differently compared with any other high school in Turkey. In the Police High School, there are 18 hours in 9th grades, 8 hours in 10th grades, 6 hours in 11th-12th grades.

Considering the importance of speaking in language education and communication, the analysis of the level of 9th grade students at Ankara Police High School according to CEFR criteria has been carried out to understand what the speaking levels of these students are. Taking into consideration the unique character of Ankara Police High School in terms of English class hours, it is hoped that the adjustment of English class hours in all high schools in Turkey will be re-considered as a result of this study.

The research problems of this study are as follows:

1. What are the speaking levels of Ankara Police High School 9th grade students according to CEFR speaking criteria?
2. What are the possible speaking problems and what are the solutions and the suggestions to solve them?

1.2. Aim of the Study

With this study, it is aimed to determine possible problems by analysing the speaking skills of Ankara Police High School students according to CEFR criteria for the purpose of having a comprehensive teaching of language. What the issues in English speaking are and what suggestions can be offered are focused so that possible problems would not recur. Also literature review is made related to speaking, language, general speaking methods and techniques in different approaches, complexity, accuracy, and fluency in second language acquisition, assessment of speaking and the issues in CEFR in order to have a much better understanding of speaking so that ELT teachers would understand to eliminate the possible problems during teaching speaking in a foreign teaching context.

1.3. Significance of the Study

The significance of the study stems from the fact that the analysis of the possible problems is an obligation when learning or teaching a foreign language.

Determining these possible problems will help the learners and teachers to be more aware in language learning or teaching period. If the learners and teachers do not know what the issues in English speaking are, they will most probably not be able to attempt to find the solutions. Therefore, this research has a major importance to determine the speaking problems and for the solutions for these problems.

1.4. Methodology

In order to carry out this research, two questionnaires were prepared to test the speaking levels of 9th grade students of Ankara Police High School according to CEFR speaking criteria. These questionnaires were administered to all of the 225 students studying in 9th grade and all of 12 ELT teachers teaching in the 9th level in 2009-2010. While the questionnaires administered to the students was held in Turkish and English for a better comprehension, the one administered to the teachers was in English. The statements of the questionnaires are the same to compare and contrast the opinions of the students and of the teachers. After the administration of the questionnaires, a discourse completion test aimed to test CEFR-B1 speaking level of the students was given to a group of 60 students out of 225. 60 students were chosen randomly among the different 10 classes of Ankara Police High School. The acquired data were evaluated and the results were computed and interpreted descriptively.

1.5. Assumptions

The study assumes the following points:

1. The data collection devices are able to elicit the genuine thoughts and opinions of the students and of the teachers.

2. The teachers who participate in the questionnaire give correct, objective, unbiased answers and all their answers are based on their observations.

1.6. Limitations

This research is limited to 2009-2010 academic year, 9th grade students of Ankara Police High School, with A1 (Breakthrough), A2 (Waystage), B1 (Threshold) speaking criteria of CEFR. Also, it is limited to the content of the questionnaires and of the discourse completion test and holistic scorings of some of the “can do” statements.

1.7. Definition of Terms

Assessment: A detailed process of planning, collecting, analyzing and using the gathered information on students over time. Assessments can include tests, projects, anecdotal information and perhaps the self-reflection of the students.

‘Can-do’ statements: A set of performance-related scales describing what learners can actually do in the foreign language depending on their proficiency level.

Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR): A descriptive and comprehensive framework for looking at language learning, teaching and assessment possibilities. The aim of CEFR is to provide a tool for developing language teaching in Europe by promoting reflection and discussion and a way of

describing diversity as a means to facilitate mobility in Europe and encouraging linguistic tolerance and respect.

Common Reference Levels: The CEFR divides learner language levels into six. These levels are called Basic User (A1 Breakthrough, A2 Waystage), Independent User (B1 Threshold, B2 Vantage) and Proficient User (C1 Effective Operational Proficiency, C2 Mastery). These levels can be used for all languages. These common standards are intended to help the providers of courses and examinations relate their products to a common reference system.

Council of Europe: An intergovernmental organization with its permanent headquarters in Strasbourg, France. Its primary goal is to promote the unity of the continent and guarantee the dignity of the citizens of Europe by ensuring respect for democracy, human rights and the rule of law.

The European Language Portfolio: A language teaching and learning project results from the work of the Council of Europe and the CEFR. It is a document to facilitate language learning. It comprises a Biography, a Dossier and a Passport.

Rubrics: Scoring guides or documentation forms with specified criteria used to interpret student work.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0. Presentation

Speaking is defined as a method or a verbal means of communicating or conveying meaning (Owens, 1988: 3). However, it is one of the most complex fields in teaching languages on the grounds that “it overlaps with a considerable number of other areas and activities” (R. Hughes, 2002: 6). Harris (1969) states that “speaking is a complex skill requiring the simultaneous use of a number of different abilities which often develop at different rates” (p. 81). To put in other words, “it is a complex process because learning to speak a language involves developing a number of complex skills and different types of knowledge about how and when to communicate” (Burns and Joyce, 1999: 2). It is also possible to say that “speaking involves understanding the psycholinguistic and interpersonal factors of speech production, the forms, meanings, and the process involved, and how these can be developed” (Kaplan, 2002: 27).

Being a very complex issue, the assessment of speaking has also been a controversial and a indistinct problem throughout foreign language history. Therefore, we will try to describe what speaking is, what the issues about it are and finally we will discuss the related subjects about the assessment of speaking in this chapter. For this purpose, first, we will touch upon what language is. Then, we will take a look at historical background of teaching speaking in English as a foreign language in different foreign language approaches and methods. Following this, theories about speech production in the first and second languages and complexity- accuracy-fluency

in second language acquisition issues will be handled in detail. Then, we will start to discuss the assessment of speaking and finally we will give a detailed information about one of the most effective assessment system of speaking which is known as the Common European Language Framework of Reference for Languages.

In order to understand the nature of speaking, it is essential to have a comprehensive view of what language is.

2.1. Language

Ergin describes language as “a vehicle to communicate among people; an entity which lives and develops in its own laws; a social institution which unites, protects the nation and it is the common property of that nation; a massive structure constituted by sounds; a system of treaties and agreements whose foundation was laid in unknown times” (1995:7). Language may refer either to the specifically human capacity for acquiring and using complex systems of communication, or to a specific instance of such a system of complex communication.

Language has, at various times, been regarded as a system of logic which can be explained in terms of mathematical principles; as a set of chemical elements which combine with each other in systematic ways; as an organism like a plant or animal which has evolved in a particular habitat and which demonstrates relationships with other species; as a mechanical system with structural properties; or as a computer program which requires certain kinds of input and which, after due processing, yields output (Graddol and et al, 2005: 4).

In the broadest sense, a language is a set of well-formed formulas, a set of permissible combinations of items from some vocabulary, generated by a grammar. In a

narrower sense, a language is a set of semantically interpreted well-formed formulas. A formula is semantically interpreted by being put into systematic correspondence with other objects: for example, with the formulas of another language, with states of the user of the language, or with possible states of the world. A language in this narrower sense is a grammar-governed representational system. It would be possible to define a language even more restrictively: as a set of semantically interpreted well-formed formulas for communication (Sperber and Wilson, 1986: 173-174).

The word 'language' is used to signify many aspects of human and animal communication (the "language of bees"; "body language", and so on). One of the distinctive features of linguistics is its focus on verbal communication. It traditionally conceptualizes language as a mechanism for conveying meaning which operates independently of other means of human communication (such as gesture), and which is distinctively different from animal communication. One problem with an exclusive focus on verbal communication arises from the way words are usually only one part of the complex activity in which humans exchange and understand meanings. Should linguistics take account of non-verbal phenomena, such as body movement and facial expression, when providing accounts of how spoken language works? Would a failure to examine such non-verbal systems of communication lead to an inadequate account of how verbal language itself works? Or would merely represent a sensible focusing of research effort? In recent years, there has been a trend among many scholars working in applied fields to take a broader view of how language works, one which draws on descriptions of the wider context in which utterances and texts are produced and understood. Some scholars take a yet wider view of what is to be included in language description. Semiotic theory treats a very wide variety of cultural and social behaviour (such as choice of clothes, or architectural design) as signifying practices. Within semiotics, such modes of communication are analysed in similar ways to verbal language, and not a distinct boundary between verbal and non-verbal phenomena is recognized (Graddol and et al, 2005: 3).

Communication is a process involving two information-processing devices. One device modifies the physical environment of the other. As a result, the second device constructs representations similar to representations already stored in the first device. Meanings, information, propositions, thoughts, ideas, beliefs, attitudes and emotions are communicated. From Aristotle through to modern semiotics, all theories of communication were based on a single model which is called the code model. According to the code model, communication is achieved by encoding and decoding messages. Recently some philosophers have proposed a different model which is called inferential model. According to the inferential model, communication is achieved by producing and interpreting evidence. Verbal communication involves both coding and inferential processes and mechanisms (Sperber and Wilson, 1986: 1-3).

When verbal communication is mentioned, the first thing which comes to mind is obviously speaking. In the next section, we will focus on how speaking was regarded in English as a second language (ESL) and/or English as a foreign language (EFL) field in its historical background to present.

2.2. Historical Background of Teaching Speaking in English as a Foreign Language

Language teaching started to be considered as a profession in the twentieth century. Language teaching in the twentieth century was characterized by changes and innovations and by the development of sometimes competing language teaching ideologies. Much of the impetus for change in approaches to language teaching came about from changes in teaching methods. There have been many language methods and approaches in teaching English and the answer of why there have been so many methods seems to stem from the belief that each teaching practice provides a more effective and theoretically sound basis for teaching than the methods that preceded it (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 1).

Throughout English teaching history, there have been two main features in teaching, namely, approaches and methods. The first feature is called ‘approaches’. An approach is a set of beliefs and principles that can be used as the basis for teaching a language. Approaches do not lead to a specific set of prescriptions and techniques to be used in teaching a language. They are characterized by a variety of interpretations about how the principles can be applied. Some of the important approaches up until now can be stated as follows:

- Communicative Language Teaching
- Competency-Based Language Teaching
- Content-Based Instruction
- Cooperative Learning
- Lexical Approaches
- Multiple Intelligences
- The Natural Approach
- Neurolinguistic Programming
- Task-Based Language Teaching
- Whole Language

The second feature is called ‘methods’. A method refers to “a specific instructional design or system based on a particular theory of language and of language learning” (Richards, Rodgers, 2001: 244). It contains detailed specifications of content, roles of teachers and learners, and teaching procedures and techniques. In a method, there is little scope for teachers. The teacher’s role is to follow the method and apply it precisely according to the rules. Compared to approaches, methods tend to have a relatively short shelf life. Because they are often linked to very specific claims and to prescribed practices, they tend to fall out of favour as these practices become unfashionable or discredited. The heyday of methods can be considered to have lasted up until the late 1980s (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 244-245). Some of the important methods can be stated as follows:

- Grammar-Translation Method (GTM)

- Direct Method
- Audiolingualism
- Counseling-Learning
- Situational Language Teaching (SLT)
- The Silent Way
- Suggestopedia
- Total Physical Response (TPR)

Both approaches and methods presented different techniques in teaching the pillars of foreign language teaching, namely, listening, reading, speaking and writing. In this research only the speaking aspect of the some of the methods and of the approaches will be touched upon. The differences between approaches and methods will not be dealt with.

GTM dominated European and foreign language teaching from the 1840s to the 1940s, and in modified form it continues to be widely used in some of the parts of the world today. The structured-based grammar translation method relied heavily on teaching grammar and practising translation as its main teaching and learning activities. The major focus of this method tended to be on reading and writing, with relatively little attention paid to speaking and listening. Vocabulary was typically taught in lists, and a high priority given to accuracy, and the ability to construct correct sentences (Griffiths and Parr, 2001: 247).

GTM dominated the field for a long time. Later, alternative ways in language teaching started to appear. One of the first steps was the establishment of Phonetics-the scientific analysis and description of the sound systems of languages. The use of phonetics gave new insights into speech processes. Linguists emphasized that speech, rather than the written word, was the primary form of language. The International Phonetic Association was founded in 1886, and International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was designed to enable the sounds of any language to be accurately transcribed. There

were slight revisions and expansions in the phonetic alphabet in 1900,1932,1989,1995 and finally in 2005. The main aims of this phonetic alphabet in terms of speaking were to advocate the study of the spoken language, phonetic training in order to establish good pronunciation habit and finally the use of the conversation texts and dialogues to introduce conversational phrases and idioms (<http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/>).

The needs in language teaching have always been the most determining factor. Language teaching reformers at the end of the nineteenth century and beginning of the twentieth century argued for a natural approach to the teaching process according to these needs. Speaking started to have more importance and the reformers placed the spoken form at the front of their pedagogy, generally insisting on mono-lingual speech-based interactions between student and teacher and focusing on matters arising from prompts in the learning context. At the most extreme, the Natural or Direct methods led to TPR approaches. In this, the student responds through action to instructions given by the teacher in the target language. Fundamental to all the approaches is the primacy of speech, together with a move away from isolated sentences towards meaningful whole texts or interactions (R. Hughes, 2002: 22-23).

SLT goes back to 1920s and 1930s. It was widely accepted until 1960s and it has been a long lasting approach and it has shaped the design of many EFL/ESL textbooks like Streamline English. Speech was regarded as the basis of language, and structure was viewed as being at the heart of speaking ability. The main characteristics of the approach can be stated as follows:

- Language teaching begins with the spoken language. Material is taught orally before it is presented in written form.
- New language points are introduced and practiced situationally.
- Vocabulary selection procedures are followed to ensure that an essential general service vocabulary is covered (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 39).

Speaking gained relatively high importance until 1939, but with the advent of World War II, it became more important after this period. The need for interpreters in the war started a new project called the Army Method in the United States.

The Army Method attracted the attention of the linguists in 1950s, it became known as a new method called The Audiolingual Method (ALM). This method depended heavily on drills, repetition, and substitution exercises. Griffiths and Parr (2001) state that “these were justified according to behaviourist theories whereby language was seen as a system of habits which can be taught and learnt on a stimulus/response/reinforcement basis. Audiolingualism tended to view the learner as a passive entity waiting to be programmed” (p.248). “Its basic distinction from the traditional approaches is that language is to be taught as speech rather than as writing and grammar, as living communication of vehicle rather than as a fossilized set of printed rules and paradigms” (Woodsworth, 1967: iii).

In the 1960s, a new theory called American Linguistic Theory by Noam Chomsky attacked the audolingualism. Chomsky rejected the structuralist approach to language description as well as the behaviourist theory of language learning. “Language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behaviour characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy” (Chomsky, 1966: 153). According to Chomsky, sentences are not learned by imitation and repetition but generated from the learner’s underlying competence. The later developments in language teaching were affected by Chomsky’s views.

TPR suggests that as the child grows older, parents are said to tolerate fewer mistakes in speech. Similarly, teacher should refrain from too much correction in the early stages and should not interrupt to correct errors because this will inhibit learners. Listening should be accompanied by physical movement. Speech and other productive skills should come later (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 74-76). Similarly Silent Way

suggests a similar opinion. According to Silent Way, successful learning involves commitment of the self to language acquisition through the use of silent awareness and the active trial. He introduces a new term called 'inner criteria' which allows learners to monitor and self-correct their own production (Richards and Rodgers, 2001:83). Suggestopedia developed in the 1970s, attaches importance to language exposure. This is done by playing background music during a class, particularly Baroque music, and a relaxed state of mind is created in the students leading to the ability to absorb large quantities of information (Norland and Said, 2006:15). Besides exposure to the language, being emotionally comfortable makes the learning easier. To illustrate this, Suggestopedia suggests imaginative names and identities. Community Language Learning suggests that teachers should be viewed more as counsellors and are expected to facilitate language learning as opposed to teaching it. It is assumed that creating a humanistic learning community would lower students' defences and encourage open communication, thus allowing students to comprehend and absorb language more efficiently. (Norland and Said, 2006: 12). Neuro Language Programming (NLP) in the mid 1970s suggests that communication between the people happens nonverbal as well as verbal. It is also possible to say that communication is nonconscious as well as conscious. The nonconscious communication is presented in one of the four main pillars of NLP. This is called 'rapport' which is essential for effective communication by maximizing similarities and minimizing differences between people at a nonconscious level. The term rapport can be considered as a new concept in teaching speaking because up until NLP, students (who learn) and teachers (who teach or facilitate learning) were regarded as different entities, but the term rapport shows how the interaction can be improved between the learners and teachers.

Almost all the methods and approaches regarded the students as a whole group of people who have similar learning capabilities. This thought has changed with the advent of Multiple Intelligence Theory. According to Multiple Intelligence Theory, all the students have different capabilities and abilities in learning and in speaking in particular. There are 8 different intelligence types and these different types should be attached in teaching. For example, students might have interpersonal or intrapersonal

characters which definitely affect their speaking abilities and second language acquisition as well.

The term Whole Language was created in the 1980s by a group of U.S. educators. According to Whole Language, there is a heavy emphasis on authenticity. In the whole language, to have better communication, one needs to deal with real documents and real people (Richardson, Rodgers, 2001: 109).

In 1993, a new approach called Lexical Approach appeared. It emphasizes that primary focus should be on lexicon (vocabulary) of the language as opposed to using the more traditional grammatical or structural approach. The main thesis is that vocabulary should be taught in chunks instead of individual words. These chunks are referred to as collocations (Norland and Said, 2006: 55). Zimmerman (1997: 17) cited in Moudraia (2001: 2) suggests that the work of Sinclair, Nattinger, DeCarrico, and Lewis represents a significant theoretical and pedagogical shift from the past. First, their claims have revived an interest in a central role for accurate language description. Second, they challenge a traditional view of word boundaries, emphasizing the language learner's needs to perceive and use patterns of lexis and collocation. Most significant is the underlying claim that language production is not a syntactic rule-governed process but is instead the retrieval of larger phrasal units from memory.

Communicative approaches have had wide and deep influence in the field of language teaching. However, it might be useful to think of a variety of approaches which have changed since the late 1970s. Communicative approaches have been strongly associated with the work of Stephen Krashen and the others. Richards and Rodgers (2001:151) state that The Natural Approach, Cooperative Language Learning, Content Based Teaching and Task Based Teaching have been affected by Communicative Language Teaching and they all have been moulded into quite diverse teaching practices, although all would claim to embody basic principles of Communicative Language Teaching. In particular communicative approaches:

- place high value on language in use (as opposed to abstract, isolated examples);
- assert that effective language acquisition (often opposed to language learning) only takes place through language use;
- aim to foster and develop the learner's communicative competence (as opposed to the more abstract concept of linguistic competence);
- regard errors as a natural part of the progression towards a greater understanding of the target language;
- link teaching methodologies to appropriate communicative tasks (rather than seeing classroom tasks as a means of practising a particular grammatical feature);
- tend to favour inductive, student-centered routes to understanding (rather than explicit, teacher-led explanations);
- place the learner at the centre of the learning process and assess progress in relation to factors affecting the individual (for example, levels of motivation) (R. Hughes, 2002: 24).

Content-based, Task-Based and Participatory Approaches are three approaches which make communication central. They do not deal with functions, or indeed, any other functions. Instead of this, they give priority to process over predetermined linguistic content. In these approaches, rather than 'learning to use English', students 'use English to learn it'. While the three approaches may seem different at first glance, "they have in common teaching through communication rather than for it" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 137).

To conclude, it is possible to say that all of these various methods and approaches have, in different degrees, had some influence on contemporary language teaching and learning. In recent years the field has tended to move away from dogmatic positions of 'right' or 'wrong', 'better' or 'worse', becoming much more eclectic in its attitudes, and more willing to recognize the potential merits of a wide variety of possible methods and approaches (Griffiths and Parr, 2001: 249).

Now, we shall discuss how speech is produced in the first and second/foreign languages.

2.3. Speech Production

In this section, general theories and/or approaches will be stated about first language (L1) and second language (L2) speech productions. Considering that L1 has many effects on L2, we will start with the general approaches in L1.

2.3.1 First Language (L1) Speech Production

Interest in the psycholinguistic processes involved in producing in L1 speech dates back to the beginning of 20th century. However, the first comprehensive theories of L1 production were not constructed until the 1970s. Since then, the research into oral L1 production has grown into an autonomous discipline within the field of cognitive psychology.

Speech production researchers agree that language production has four important components:

- a) Conceptualization: planning what one wants to say
- b) Formulation: includes the grammatical, lexical, and phonological encoding of the message
- c) Articulation: production of speech sounds

- d) Self-monitoring: involves checking the correctness and appropriateness of the produced output

There is also agreement on the questions that conceptualization, formulation, and articulation follow each other in this order, and that in L1 production the message requires attention, whereas formulation and articulation are automatic, and therefore processing mechanisms can work in parallel, which makes L1 speech generally smooth and fast (Kormos, 2006: xviii-xix).

Although many questions regarding how we produce language have remained unanswered, with the help of modern methods of experimental psychology and the recently available neuro-imaging techniques, we can have a better understanding of a number of speech processes.

Most theories of monolingual and bilingual speech production follow two main trends: *the spreading activation theory* and *the modular theory* of speech processing. Researchers working in the spreading activation paradigm assume that speech processing is executed in an interactive network of units and rules, in which decisions are made on the basis of the activation levels of the so-called 'nodes' that represent these units and rules. Traditional modular theories, however, postulate that the speech-encoding system consists of separate modules, in which only one way connections between levels are allowed (Kormos: 2006: 3).

2.3.1.1. Spreading Activation Theory

Dell devised the first comprehensive model of interactive activation spreading in speech production. Like in modular models of speech production, in Dell's spreading activation theory it is also assumed that there are four levels of knowledge involved in

producing L1 speech: *semantic* (i.e., word meaning), *syntactic* (e.g., phrase building and word order rules), *morphological* (e.g., the morphological make up of words and rules of affixation), and *phonological* levels (e.g., phonemes and phonological rules). Adopting the tenets of generative grammar (Chomsky, 1965), Dell postulated that the generative rules on a given level build a frame with slots to be filled in by insertion rules. For example, on the syntactic level the rules in English create a position for the subject of the sentence, another one for the verb phrase. As a next step, words or phrases to fill in these slots are selected. At the morphological level there are slots for stems and affixes, and at the phonological level slots are assumed to exist for onsets and rimes as well as for phonemes.

In Dell's model, the lexicon is regarded as a network of interconnected items and contains nodes for linguistic units such as concepts, words, morphemes, phonemes, and phonemic features, such as syllables and syllabic constituents. In the lexicon, conceptual nodes are assumed to be connected to word nodes that define words, and word nodes are conjoined with morpheme nodes, which again represent specific morphemes. Next, there is a connection between morpheme and phoneme nodes specifying phonemes, and finally phoneme nodes are linked to phonological feature nodes such as labial, nasal, voiced, etc. In order for the words to be able to be selected for specific slots in the sentence, each word is labelled for the syntactic category it belongs to. Similarly, morphemes and phonemes are also marked for the class they are the members of. Dell also assumed that activation can spread bi-directionally, that is, top-down and bottom up. In the case of sentence production, activation spreads downward from words to morphemes, from morphemes to syllable. On the contrary, speech perception is seen as the backward spreading of activation: when one perceives a sound, it sends activation to the syllable nodes, syllable nodes activate morphemes, and so on (Kormos, 2006:4-6).

2.3.1.2 Levelt's Modular Model of Speech Production

Levelt argued that speech production is modular; that is, it can be described through the functioning of a number of processing components that are relatively autonomous in the system. Two principal components are distinguished: the rhetorical/semantic/syntactic system and the phonological/phonetic system. The model supposes the existence of three knowledge stores: the mental lexicon, the syllabary (containing gestural scores, i.e., chunks of automatized movements used to produce the syllables of a given language), and the store containing the speaker's knowledge of the external and internal world. This last store comprises the discourse model which is a speaker's record of what he believes to be shared knowledge about the content of the discourse as it evolved, the model of the addressee (the present context of interaction and the ongoing discourse), and encyclopaedic knowledge (information about the world) (Levelt, 1989:114). According to Levelt, people produce speech first by conceptualizing the message, then by formulating its language representation (i.e., encoding it), and finally by articulating it. With regard to speech perception, speech is first perceived by an acoustic-phonetic processor then undergoes linguistic decoding in the speech comprehension system and is finally interpreted by a conceptualizing module (Kormos, 2006:7).

As stated above, one of Levelt's (1989) major points was to consider the difference between 'lexical encoding', the retrieval (and creation if necessary) of words to express ideas, and 'syntactic encoding', the retrieval and sequencing of words to express ideas

Languages differ enormously in the degree to which they exploit [lexical encoding]. While a Turkish speaker's grammatical encoding consists for the most part of such lexical encoding, an English speaker is extremely 'conservative' in the sense that he normally uses words he has heard often in the past. For the English speaker, lexical encoding plays a minor role in grammatical encoding; the action is in syntactic encoding. A theory of the speaker should, of course, encompass both kinds of grammatical encoding. As a matter of fact, however, almost nothing is known about the psychology of lexical encoding (Levelt, 1989:186).

In an attempt to cast some light on the processes of lexical encoding, Levelt did much to popularise the use of the term 'lemma'. Thus

... from the point of view of language production a lexical entry can be split up into two parts: its lemma and its form information. This theoretical distinction can be extended to the mental lexicon as a whole. Lemmas can be said to be 'in the lemma lexicon', and morpho-phonological forms to be 'in the form lexicon'. Each lemma 'points' to its corresponding form ...The *semantic* information in a lemma specifies what conceptual conditions have to be fulfilled in the message for the lemma to be activated; it is the lemma's *meaning*. These conditions can be stated in the same propositional format as messages... A lemma's *syntactic* information specifies the item's syntactic category, its assignment of grammatical functions, and a set of diacritic feature variables or parameters (Levelt, 1989: 187-190).

Further down the system, Levelt sees the process of phonological encoding as working this way.

Phonological encoding is a process by which the phonological specifications of lexical items are retrieved and mapped onto a fluently pronounceable string of syllables. Unpacking a word's phonological specifications and using them to retrieve the appropriate syllable programs involves various levels of processing. Studies of the tip-of-the-tongue phenomenon in which this process of phonological unpacking is blocked or slowed, support this view (Levelt, 1989: 361-362).

2.3.1.3 The Differences between These Two Major L1 Speaking Theories

There are two major differences between these theories. The first main difference is whether they allow for feedback between the various levels of encoding. Spreading activation models allow for the backward flow of activation from a subordinate level to the superordinate level, whereas in modular theories activation can

only spread forward. This means that in spreading activation theory, if an error occurs in one specific process, a warning signal is immediately issued, and activation flows upward to the superordinate level. Processing starts again from this superordinate level. In modular models, the error is not noticed at the level it is made, but only once the erroneous fragment of speech has been phonologically encoded or later when it is articulated. Therefore, in this view, bits of message that contain an error need to be encoded again from the level of conceptualization. The second major difference concerns syntactic and phonological encoding. In spreading theories, it is assumed that speakers first construct frames for sentences and for phonetic representations and then select the appropriate words or phonetic features for the slots in the frame. Modular models are lexically driven, which means that words activate syntactic building procedures, and they postulate that lexical encoding precedes syntactic encoding and that phonological encoding can start only when lexico-syntactic processes are ready (Kormos, 2006: xix-xx).

2.3.2 Second Language (L2) Speech Production

It is a well-known fact that many people never acquire a second language to a high level of proficiency. This has had two interrelated consequences on second-language acquisition. First, it has led to the assumption that acquiring a second language is in some sense different from acquiring a first language, and second, it has led to the institutionalisation of second language learning to a much greater extent than with first language. Clearly, there are two ways in which the acquisition of a second language must differ from that of a first language. First-language acquisition is in some sense the simultaneous development of language as well as the structure of a particular language, and it is obviously a natural and automatic product of the process of socialisation with adult human beings. It is also true that initial language learning is the simultaneous development of language and of particular language(s), but where children are brought up in bilingual or multilingual environments they will grow up bi- or multi-lingual as long as several languages are functionally necessary to them (Brumfit, 1984: 33-34).

The term bilingualism will be used in the present research to cover instances of multilingualism as well as strict bilingualism. Bilinguals acquire their languages for different purposes, in different domains of life, with different people. It is precisely because the needs and usage of the language are generally different that bilinguals rarely develop equal fluency in their languages. The level of fluency attained in a language will depend on the need for that language.

Therefore, L1 language production theories discussed in the previous part are utmost important to have a better understanding of the L2 language production. Besides these two theories and their possible effects on L2 production, there are some other important theories in L2 speech production. Some of these models and/or theories will be given in the following sections.

2.3.2.1. Green's Inhibitory Control Model

Based on reports of brain-damaged polyglot speakers, Green concludes that, in the human brain, "the subsystems mediating the comprehension and production of language are separable and that different functional systems underlie different languages" (Green, 2000 as cited in Fernandes and Brito, 2007: 201). This means that, when brain damage occurs, parts of the speech system can be destroyed or isolated; this would explain why brain-damaged polyglot speakers show the ability of communicating normally in some languages, but seem to have lost the capacity of speaking in others. He presents a model (called inhibitory control model) for a bilingual speaker, which is restricted to the comprehension and production of words. Referring to other researchers' work, which makes clear that the languages one individual speaks cannot be 'deactivated'. Instead, he proposes that there are different levels of activation, a language system being selected (the one which is controlling speech output), active (being conferred some kind of role during the process), or dormant (exerting no effects

in the speaking process, but still residing in long-term memory). This categorization implies that more than one language can be active at the same time, although just one will be selected for speaking, and this control will depend on the speaker's regulation of the process. Green suggests that the model he outlined can be generalized to account for language control in trilingual or polyglot speakers, as well, and invites for further testing of the model by applying it to these groups of speakers, who, he predicts, should show more problems of control due to more languages involved (Fernandes and Brito, 2007: 201-202).

2.3.2.2. De Bot's Global Model of Bilingual Language Production

De Bot was the first to postulate a bilingual language production model based on Levelt's (1989) model for monolinguals. Poulishse & Bongaerts (1994 as cited in Fernandes and Brito, 2007: 201) later proposed their Spreading Activation Model, which was based on De Bot's suggestion. The adaptation De Bot makes of Levelt's model is concerned with the whole speaker, and anything that influences his speech; he thus bears in mind the linguistic, psycholinguistic, and sociolinguistic factors to which the speaker is exposed. He follows Green in the assumption that the languages a bilingual speaks can be activated to varying degrees, being either selected, active, or dormant.

After introducing and exemplifying Levelt's model, De Bot proposes that a part of the conceptualiser, the formulator and the lexicon are differentiated for the speaker's various languages. Because of individual competence factors, another language that is accessible to him may be activated simultaneously to the selected language, the one the speaker has chosen to speak in. This means that the choice of lemmas, the production of surface structures, and the forming of phonetic plans may happen in parallel in the

active language as well as in the selected language, but these planned utterances will not be passed on to the articulator.

De Bot & Schreuder (1993 as cited in Peters, 2010: 21) point out that there is a lack of experimental research addressing how bilinguals deal with the different lexicalization patterns for each language (i.e., the Chunking Problem extended beyond a single language). Both De Bot & Schreuder (1993) and Green (2000 as cited in Peters, 2010: 21) suggest that experimental research and modelling implications are lacking regarding how bilinguals deal with the different lexicalization patterns for each language. Although this study does not address exactly how bilinguals resolve cross-linguistic variable lexicalizations, it does suggest that an interaction between languages does occur at this conceptual-to-lexical level of representation.

2.3.2.3. Grosjean's Bilingual Language Modes

Grosjean (1998) cited in Peters (2010) views the level of activation of the bilingual's languages in terms of a continuum that is divided into different language modes. He explains that

a mode is a state of activation of the bilingual's languages and language-processing mechanisms... [which] is controlled by such variables as who the bilingual is speaking or listening to, the situation, the topic, the purpose of the interaction, and so on. At the bilingual end of the mode continuum, both of the bilingual's languages are selected and being used (e.g., most commonly realized in situations of code-switching). At the monolingual end, the bilingual only has one language activated because the communicative context only requires/allows for that one language (e.g., in conversation with a monolingual). Mode refers to the external linguistic context as it influences the degree of activation of the bilingual's two languages. Mode can be described along a continuum of contexts. At the monolingual end of the continuum, the bilingual is interacting with speakers who only know one of the bilingual's languages. At the bilingual end of the continuum, the bilingual is interacting with other bilinguals who share the same languages and they are using both languages in that situation (p. 41-42).

Grosjean proposes an alternative solution about how bilingual speakers position themselves along a continuum ranging from complete monolingualism to complete bilingualism, according to their interlocutors, and the situation they speak in.

2.3.2.4. Fernandes-Boechat's Multilingual Role Model

The model describes the role that the preceding foreign language occupies in the activation process of the target language. Each new foreign language learning experience is linked, involuntarily or unconsciously, by the learner to one's preceding foreign language learning experience in a chain-like domino effect fashion and as multilingual learners advance from intermediate to higher levels of proficiency in their target language studies, the less they will involuntarily refer back to their preceding foreign language (Fernandes and Brito, 2007: 203).

2.3.2.5. Creative Construction Model

According to this model, a learner 'constructs' a series of internal representations of the second language system. This occurs as a result of natural processing strategies and exposure to the second language in communication situations. If the right kind of exposure takes place, the learner's internal representations develop gradually, in predictable stages, in the direction of the native speaker's competence. An important feature of the creative construction model is that the internal processing mechanisms operate on the input from the language environment and are not directly dependent on the learners' attempts to produce the language themselves. The learners' own utterances are a natural outcome of the system that they have internalised, rather

than a factor contributing to the process of internalisation. An evidence of this is that reference is made especially to the 'silent period' which occurs in the early stages of first language learning and natural second language learning, and which has also been successfully introduced into second language teaching programmes (Littlewood, 1987: 69-70).

People learn a second language for functional and/or social needs. They cannot be separated because they overlap considerably. Learners differ in the degree to which they aim for integration with the other community forms, and this forms the basis of the 'acculturation' hypothesis for second language learning. This should not be seen as an alternative to the creative construction model, but as complementary to it. It focuses not so much on the actual processing of the second language as on the social and psychological conditions under which this processing is most likely to take place successfully. It states simply that the more a person aspires to be integrated with the other community, the further he will progress along the developmental continuum programmes (Littlewood, 1987: 71).

In creative construction model 'input from exposure', 'internal processing', 'system constructed by learners' follow each other and as a result 'spontaneous utterances' take place. Shortly speaking, the creative construction model emphasises the cognitive processing strategies that the learners bring to the task, in order to develop internal representations of the second language. It aims above all to explain how learners acquire an underlying knowledge of the language which is independent of actual performance skills (Littlewood, 1987: 73).

2.3.3 General Issues in Speech Production

There are three major differences between L1 and L2 speech production. The first important difference seems to be that L2 learners' knowledge of the target language

is rarely complete, because most of the time, they lack the language competence necessary to express their intended message in the form originally planned. Because of this, L2 speakers mostly have to make conscious efforts to overcome problems in communication, which efforts have traditionally been called communication strategies. Another significant source of difference between monolingual and bilingual speech processing is that in bilingual speech production the effect of the other language, which is usually the influence of L1 on the L2, cannot be eliminated. The findings of L2 speech production research suggest that knowledge stores such as conceptual memory, the lexicon, the syllabary, and the store of phonemes are shared in L1 and L2, and therefore L1 and L2 items compete for selection. The L1 can also have other types of influence on L2 production, which most frequently manifests itself in the conscious and unconscious transfer of L1 production procedures. Conscious transfer is a subtype of communication strategies that is applied to compensate for lack of knowledge in the L2, whereas unconscious transfer is the effect of L1 and L2 of which the speaker is not, or only partially aware. Besides the incomplete knowledge of the target language and the effect of L1 on L2, the third major difference between L1 and L2 production is the speed with which L2 speakers talk. Namely, lexical, syntactic, morphological, and phonological encoding is generally automatic in L1 production, these mechanisms are only partially automatic even in case of advanced L2 learners (Kormos, 2006: xxiv-xxvi).

Now we will discuss the notions which are widely discussed in second language acquisition (SLA), namely, complexity, accuracy and fluency.

2.4. Complexity, Accuracy, and Fluency in Second Language Acquisition

Language practitioners believe that the constructs of L2 performance and L2 proficiency are multi-componential in nature, and their principal dimensions can be

adequately, and comprehensively, captured by the notions of complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF). CAF have figured as major research variables in applied linguistic research. “CAF have been used both as performance descriptors for the oral and written assessment of language learners as well as indicators of learners’ proficiency underlying their performance; they have also been used for measuring progress in language learning” (Housen and Kuiken, 2009: 1).

In L2 pedagogy in 1980s, there was a distinction between fluent versus accurate L2 usage to search the development of oral L2 proficiency in classroom contexts. This distinction was mainly offered by Brumfit. The third one, complexity, was added in 1990s by Skehan. In order to understand the nature of speaking, it is very important to understand what CAF means. Therefore, we will give a detailed analysis of these terms.

2.4.1. Fluency

Fluency can be described simply as the ease and the speed of the flow of the speech. Leeson (1975) defines fluency as “the ability of the speaker to produce indefinitely many sentences conforming to the phonological, syntactical and semantic exigencies of a given natural language on the basis of finite exposure to a finite corpus of that language” (p. 136). Another definition for fluency is that “it is a rapid, smooth, accurate, lucid, and efficient translation of thought or communicative intention into language under the temporal constraints of on-line processing” (Lennon, 2000: 26 as cited in Kormos, 2006: 156). Lennon (1990) distinguished between a ‘broad’ sense and a ‘narrow’ sense of fluency. According to the broad sense, he noted that fluency serves as a cover term for oral proficiency, representing “the highest point on a scale that measures spoken command of a foreign language” (p. 389). On the other hand, Lennon observed that, in its narrow sense, fluency in EFL pertains to one, isolatable component of oral proficiency describing learners who are fluent but grammatically inaccurate or

fluent but [lack] a wide and varied vocabulary. Furthermore, Lennon (1990) mentioned that the overall emphasis on fluency in the narrow sense seems to be on native-like rapidity (cited in Wolf: 282-283).

Kellem (2009) states seven principles to consider when designing and doing fluency building activities:

- Incorporate repetition
- Increase speaking time
- Prepare before speaking
- Use familiar and motivating topics
- Ensure appropriate level
- Impose time limits
- Teach formulaic sequences (p. 9).

McCarthy (2009:3) states that there is no consensus over the definition of what spoken fluency is; he mentions what the linguists talk about it, however. He makes four categories about these discussions. These are:

- *Speed of delivery*, including number of words per speech unit or per minute, location, distribution and length of pauses, etc.
- *Automaticity*: the ability to retrieve units of speech (routinised and prefabricated words, phrases, whole clauses) quickly and automatically.
- Perceptions and assessments of fluency and their implications by professional practitioners such as teachers and examiners.
- Perceptions of fluency and their implications by non-professionals, for example, the public at large, employers, social persons.

What typically (but not exclusively) unites the first two preoccupations is a conception of fluency as a monologic achievement, often judged under experimental or

quasi-experimental conditions: the speaker either performs fluently or does not, and is more or less, fluent. The second two preoccupations bring in many more social concerns, especially the fourth, and fluency is more typically sited and judged in performance with others (other language learners, interlocutors in social settings, etc.) (McCarthy, 2009:3-4).

Fillmore discusses fluency with exclusive reference to production, distinguishing four different kinds. The first is “ability to fill time with talk”, to talk without significant pauses for an extended period. For this ability to develop, monitoring must be unconscious or automatic, and the quality of the talk is less important than the quantity. The second kind is “the ability to talk in coherent, reasoned and semantically dense sentences”, expressing a mastery of the semantic and syntactic resources of the language. The third one is “the ability to have appropriate things to say in a wide range of contexts”, by means of this, a person does not become tongue-tied with strangers or lost for words when unexpected situation takes place. The last kind is “the ability to be creative and imaginative in language use” including punning, joking, varying styles, creating metaphors, etc. The maximally gifted speaker of a language is somebody who has all of these abilities (Fillmore, 1979: 93 as cited in Brumfit 1984: 53-54). These characteristics relate respectively to speed and continuity, coherence, context-sensitivity, and creativity. The basic sets of abilities required will be, respectively, psycho-motor, cognitive, affective, and aesthetic. Fluency cannot be promoted by language activities independent of other kinds of educational activities independent of other kinds of educational activities. It should be noted that all these types of fluency can be treated receptively as well as productively. However, to recognise appropriacy we shall have to read or interpret the complex interplay of a range of signalling systems, which will not be solely linguistic (Brumfit, 1984: 53-54).

Assessing fluency has long preoccupied language practitioners and many language-proficiency measures and scales of achievement explicitly acknowledge fluency as a component of proficiency measures. CEFR (it will be given in detail in next sections) refers to fluency as a descriptive element at the higher levels. In the description of the

B2 level, for example, the successful B2 language learner should be able to “interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party” (Council of Europe, 2001: 24). Not only does this description link fluency with spontaneity, echoing the importance of quick and automatic production, the implications for interaction with another speaker are at least acknowledged, even if only vaguely stated. The more specific description of spoken language in the CEFR describes the C2 user as being able to speak “so smoothly that the interlocutor is hardly aware of it”, highlighting the importance of smooth performance and, once again, acknowledging the interactive dimension of fluency. Even at a lower level of achievement (B2), the speaker should be able to produce language “with a fairly even tempo” and “few noticeably long pauses”. Tempo and pausing, as we have argued, may not be adequately assessed without the presence of an interlocutor and without taking into account a variety of contextual features (McCarthy, 2009: 19-20).

2.4.2. Accuracy

Unlike the matter of fluency, accuracy is not a generally problematic issue. When we mention the term accuracy, we talk about a clear, articulately, grammatically and phonologically correct language. Bryne (1988) describes accuracy as the use of correct forms where utterances do not contain errors affecting the phonological, syntactic, semantic or discourse features of a language (Bryne, 1988 as cited in Lan, 1994: 3).

In the 1970s and 1980s the foreign language methods suggested that instead of teaching grammar, pupils should have been educated in a natural way, namely authentic usage of the language. However, there was an important problem with this view. Even if the students who had this kind of education might be fluent but they were not comprehensible. Therefore, it has been understood that accuracy and fluency are both

important in foreign language teaching. Brumfit was the first person to make a distinction between accuracy and fluency.

The distinction between accuracy and fluency is essentially a methodological distinction, rather than one in psychology or linguistics. That is to say, it is a distinction which may have value to teachers in decision making about the content of lessons and the distribution of time between various types of activity. Another distinction is not between what good and bad language teaching is; that is, there is a definite role for accuracy work in language teaching, but that its function is quite different from that of fluency work, and its over-use will impede successful language development (Brumfit, 1984: 52-53).

2.4.3. Complexity

Complexity is commonly characterized as “the extent to which the language produced in performing a task is elaborate and varied” (Ellis 2003:340 as cited in Housen and Kuiken: 2009). The term complexity is the most ambiguous and the most complex one of CAF triad. Housen and Kuiken (2009) state that it is used to refer both to properties of language task (task complexity) and also to properties of L2 performance and proficiency (L2 complexity). They divide L2 complexity into two categories ‘*cognitive complexity*’ and ‘*lexical complexity*’, both of which in essence refer to properties of language features (items, patterns, structures, rules) or (sub)systems (phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical). Cognitive complexity (or difficulty) refers to the relative difficulty with which language features are processed in L2 performance and acquisition. The cognitive complexity of an L2 feature is a variable property which is determined both by subjective, learner-dependent factors (e.g. aptitude, memory span, motivation, L1 background). Linguistic complexity is a dynamic property of the learner’s inter-language system and it is a more stable property

of the individual linguistic elements that make up the inter-language system. According to this, considering at the level of the learner's inter-language system, linguistic complexity has been commonly interpreted as the size, elaborateness, richness, and diversity of the learner's linguistic L2 system (p. 3-4).

Wolfe-Quintero (1998:4 as cited in Housen and Kuiken: 2009) states that:

CAF emerge as principal epiphenomena of the psycholinguistic mechanisms and processes underlying the acquisition, representation and processing of L2 knowledge. There is some evidence to suggest that complexity and accuracy are primarily linked to the current state of the learner's (partly declarative, explicit and partly procedural, implicit) inter-language knowledge (L2 rules and lexico-formulaic knowledge) whereby complexity is viewed as the scope of expanding or restructured second language knowledge and accuracy as the conformity of second language knowledge to target language norms. Thus, complexity and accuracy are seen as relating primarily to L2 knowledge representation and to the level of analysis of internalized linguistic information. In contrast, fluency is primarily related to learners' control over their linguistic L2 knowledge, as reflected in the speed and ease with which they access relevant L2 information to communicate meanings in real time, with control improving as the learner automatizes the process of gaining access.

Besides validity discussion about CAF, there are problems about their operationalization, namely, how CAF can be validly, reliably, and efficiently measured. Now we will discuss the problem of assessing, particularly, assessing speaking.

2.5. Assessing Speaking

It is necessary to describe the meanings of what testing, assessment and evaluation are. Testing is a systematic procedure of collecting a sample of student behaviour at one point in time. Assessment is a much more comprehensive term. It is a detailed process of planning, collecting, analyzing and using the gathered information on students over time. Assessments can include tests, projects, anecdotal information and perhaps the self-reflection of the students. The third term, namely, evaluation is

broadest in scope involving a methodical process whereby assessment information on students or programs is used to make evidence-based decisions from informed judgment (Gottlieb, 2006: 85-86). Soles says that

assessment implies a measurement of children's educational attainment, whereas evaluation is concerned not only with attainment but also with many less definable but equally important factors such as children's attitudes to learning and the impact of the new curriculum. Assessment is concerned with how well the child has done, but evaluation with whether it was worth doing in the first place (1983: 190).

“Assessment implies relying on multiple measures or data sources, gathering information at multiple data points (a span of time); involving multiple stakeholders, perhaps for a variety of purposes; and using the accumulated information to improve student learning and teaching” (Gottlieb, 2006: 86). The accurate and relevant information gathered by means of assessment is used for decision making which is one of the most important challenges in language teaching, especially in speaking in this context. Soles states that there are not sharp distinctions between these three terms and there is a considerable overlap between each other (Soles, 1983: 178). Therefore, in this study, we will not make a distinction between these terms and we will take them as one term. First of all, in order to have a full grasp of evaluation, we will talk about the different language test categories. Specific and a detailed speaking test techniques, methods and categories will be beyond this study.

2.5.1 Types of Test and Testing

We use tests to obtain information. The information that we hope to have might vary from one situation to another. It is possible, nevertheless, to categorize tests for a particular purpose. These tests can be categorized as follows:

2.5.1.1 Placement Tests

Placement tests are carried out to provide information which will help to place students at the stage of the teaching programme most appropriate to their abilities. They are most useful to assign students to classes at different level (A. Hughes, 1990: 14). The information being sought in these tests is an accurate placement. There is no good or bad score, only a recommendation for the most convenient class.

2.5.1.2. Proficiency Tests

Proficiency tests determine the present level of language skill or the learner's general level of language ability. Proficiency tests are designed to measure people's ability in the target language regardless of any kinds of education that they have previously had in that language. This type of test is not usually related to any particular course because it is concerned with the students' current standing about their future needs.

2.5.1.3. Achievement Tests

“Achievement tests measure a student's control of language and are used to assess what has been learned in relation to what is supposed to have been learned” (Sole, 1983: 189). The result is normally shown in terms of an overall score, though there is also a diagnostic element; the course teacher will want to know which of the course contents were successfully learnt and which weren't. This knowledge will help her/him with future course planning (Underhill, 1992: 13).

2.5.1.4. Diagnostic Tests

Diagnostic tests are used for the purpose of discovering a learner's specific strengths or weaknesses. The results may be used in making decisions on future training, learning or teaching (Alderson, 2005: 4). Diagnostic tests are used for placement purposes and thus appear to be identical to placement tests. Bachman (cited in Alderson, 2005: 7) offers the following thoughts on what is usually considered to be suitable content for diagnostic tests:

When we speak of a diagnostic test... we are generally referring to a test that has been designed and developed specifically to provide detailed information about the specific content domains that are covered in a given program or that are part of a general theory of language proficiency. Thus, diagnostic tests may be either theory or syllabus-based.

Table 1 indicates how useful each type of test is likely to be for different purposes.

Table 1

Test Type	Placement	Diagnostic	Achievement	Proficiency
Scripted speech+true/false items	1	3	3	3
Narrative text+true/false items	1	3	3	3
Structured writing	1	2	2	2
Cloze	1	X	2	2
Dictation	1	2	2	2
Conversation	1	X	2	2
Scripted speech + multiple-choice pictures	X	1	3	X
Scripted speech + completion items	X	1	3	X
Completion + write	X	1	2	X
Completion + multiple- choice fillers	X	1	3	X
Transposition	X	1	2	X
Unscripted speech + multiple-choice items	2	3	1	2

Unscripted speech + visuals	2	3	1	1
Text and argument +multiple-choice items	2	3	1	2
Letter	2	3	1	2
Reorientation	X	2	1	X
Speak to pictures	2	2	1	3
Talk on topic	2	X	1	1
Transfer	3	3	2	1
Follow instructions	2	2	2	1
Give advice	X	2	3	1
Appropriate response	X	3	2	1
Sequence	X	3	3	1
Role play	X	2	2	1
Problem solving	X	X	2	1

Note: The numbers indicate how useful each type of test is likely to be for the four purposes, placement, diagnostic, achievement and proficiency, ranging from 1 (most useful) to 3 (useful only in some circumstances); X not suitable for this purpose (Harrison, 1986: V).

Apart from different types of tests stated above, it is possible to make some more categorizations in different types of testing. These categorizations can be stated as follows: direct versus indirect testing, norm-referenced versus criterion-referenced testing, discrete point versus integrative testing, objective testing versus subjective testing and etc.

2.5.1.5. Direct versus Indirect Testing

Testing is called direct when it requires the candidate to perform precisely the skill which is meant to measure. Direct testing is easier to apply when it is intended to

measure the productive skills of speaking and writing. Direct testing has some advantages. First of them is if we are clear about just what abilities we want to assess, it is relatively straight-forward to create the conditions which will elicit the behaviour on which to base our judgements. Secondly, at least in the case of the productive skills, the assessment and interpretation of students' performance is also quite straightforward. Indirect testing attempts to measure the abilities that underlie the skills in which we want to measure. The main problem with indirect tests is that the relationship between performance on them and performance of the skills which we are usually more interested in tends to be quite weak in strength and uncertain in nature. As far as proficiency and final tests are concerned, it is preferable to concentrate on direct testing. Many testers are reluctant to commit themselves entirely to direct testing and will always include an direct part in their tests (A. Hughes, 1990: 14-16).

2.5.1.6. Norm-Referenced versus Criterion-Referenced Testing

Norm-referenced tests compare an examinee's performance to that of other examinees. The goal is to rank the set of examinees so that decisions about their opportunity for success can be made. Criterion-referenced tests differ in that each examinee's performance is compared to a pre-defined set of criteria or a standard. The goal with these tests is to determine whether or not the candidate has the demonstrated mastery of a certain skill or set of skills. These results are usually pass or fail and are used in making decisions about job entry, certification and etc. Louma (2004: 81-82) states that in practice, especially in school-based tests, criterion-referenced and norm-referenced tests form a continuum. Many speaking scores are criterion-referenced or at least close to the criterion-referenced end of the continuum. Many grading systems at schools, however, are close to the norm-referenced end of the continuum on the grounds that the assessments are made against the expected performance of learners at a particular grade. Assessment on speaking tests is often criterion-referenced.

2.5.1.7. Discrete Point versus Integrative Testing

The basic tenet of the discrete-point approach involved each point of language (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, or other linguistic properties) being tested separately. Integrative tests in contrast to discrete-point tests are intended to evaluate the total communicative abilities of second language learners. Oller (cited in Farhady, 1979: 348) has noted that integrative tests assess the skills which are involved in normal communication. He also claims that the two types of tests, though theoretically different, could be placed along a continuum ranging from highly integrative at the one end to highly discrete-point at the other. Some well known integrative tests are the cloze test, dictation, listening and reading comprehension, and oral interviews. Examples of discrete-point tests are: grammar, vocabulary, and auditory discrimination tasks (Farhady, 1979: 348-349).

2.5.1.8. Objective Testing versus Subjective Testing

The distinction between objective and subjective testing is in methods of scoring. If no judgement is required on the part of the scorer, then the scoring is said to be objective testing. A multiple choice test can be given as one example to this. If judgement is called for, the scoring is said to be subjective. There might be different degrees of subjectivity in testing (A. Hughes, 1990: 19).

Having discussed different types of language testing, we will focus on qualities of a good speaking test which are essential for objectivity of any speaking test.

2.5.2. Qualities of a Good Speaking Test

Testing speaking skills is an extremely difficult challenge. Perhaps because of this difficulty, most of the teachers do not even try to test the speaking levels of their students even if oral components have a significant weight in the curriculums. There are some reasons for this. Firstly, the time spent for oral tests seems to be the most challenging one because testing oral skills for even one student takes relatively too much time. Secondly, there are not enough and appropriate materials and equipments to test speaking competence of the students. Physical inappropriateness of the test places is also a very important reason. There is also a historical problem in EFL teaching. That is, there have not been developed testing models in speaking in the EFL methods and approaches since the beginning of EFL field. More reasons can be given but we will only mention three features of a good speaking test in detail. It is possible to state that three most important characteristics of a good speaking test are reliability, validity and practicality.

2.5.2.1. Reliability

American Psychological Association (as cited in Bachman, 1991: 24) defines reliability as “a quality of test scores, and a perfectly reliable score, or measure, would be one which is free from errors of measurement”. The concept of reliability is defined as “the consistency of measurement” (Bachman and Palmer, 1996: 19). Gotlieb (2006: 188) defines reliability as “the internal cohesiveness of a measure, the uniformity of interpretation from rater to rater, or the consistency of the results”. That is to say, whatever a test (a speaking test in this context) measures, it must measure it consistently. That is, the score of a student must be more or less the same, if s/he takes the same exam twice. The possible reasons of subjective inconsistencies seem to be the challenges of reliability. The inconsistencies might stem from the examiners’

psychological situation or mood at a given time, their attitudes towards different students, scoring the same test differently at different times etc. Lynch (2003: 61) says that “if the assessment is holistic, different raters may use different criteria to arrive at their judgements, or may interpret analytic criteria in different ways. Rater who come from a second language teaching background may use very different criteria (or interpret existing criteria differently) from those from another professional background”. Here we have the problem of intra- rater reliability or objectivity. Intra-rater reliability is that would an examinee’s or examinees’ grade (written or oral) be the same if the test was taken at a different time/date with the same assessor. Another problem is called inter-rater reliability. The principle underlying the notion of inter-rater reliability is that it should not matter to the test taker which rater they have in a test; test-takers should be able to get the same score irrespective of who is rating their performance (Fulcher, 2003: 139). A third type of reliability which is also important for speaking tests is called parallel form reliability. This is relevant if there are more than one test forms that are meant to be interchangeable. The test-takers are asked to take two or more of the different forms, and their scores are then analysed for consistency. If the scores are not consistent, the forms cannot be said to be parallel. Some of the tasks within the forms then need to be revised (Luoma: 2004: 180).

Ur (as cited in Sak, 2008: 31) states that such problems as those resulting from inconsistencies between raters, scores, different implementations of the same test and limited guidelines or criteria need to be carefully considered by applying special procedures like evaluating rater reliability, designing effective rating scales and training raters in order to standardize the procedures applied during assessment. However, studies of rater training (Weigle, 1994: as cited in Fulcher, 2003: 142) have indicated that training reduces random error in rating, but that it is not possible to remove completely the differences in severity between raters.

2.5.2.2. Validity

“If a test measures what it is intended to measure, then it is a valid test” (Soles, 1983: 191). Validity is “the extent to which the inferences or decisions we make on the basis of test scores are meaningful, appropriate, and useful” (American Psychological Association, as cited in Bachman, 1991: 25). Messick (1989, as cited in Fulcher, 2003: 116) defines validity as “an integrated evaluative judgment of the degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical rationales support the adequacy and appropriateness of inferences and actions based on test scores or other modes of assessment. This comprehensive view of validity integrates considerations of content, criteria and consequences into a comprehensive framework for empirically testing rational hypotheses about score meaning and utility”. If the test scores are strongly affected by errors of measurement, they will not be meaningful, and cannot, provide the basis for a valid interpretation or use. If test scores are affected by abilities other than the one we want to measure, they will not be meaningful indicators of that particular ability. (Bachman, 1991: 25). That is to say, if we ask students to listen to a listening passage and then ask them to talk about that listening passage, ratings of them might not be valid measures of their speaking ability.

There are many types of validity. Face validity is concerned with what teachers and students think of the test. Does it appear to them a reasonable way of assessing the students, or does it seem trivial, or too difficult, or perhaps unrealistic? (Harrison, 1986: 11). The second type is content validity. “Is it relevant? Do the items or tasks in the test match the test as a whole is supposed to assess?” (Underhill, 1992: 106). Namely, the question is whether the test produces a good sample of the contents of the syllabus. If the test matches the theory behind it then it is called construct validity. ‘How do learners’ scores on the test compare with their scores on other language tests?’ explains concurrent validity. One would logically expect two different oral test scores more highly than one oral test score with multiple-choice grammar test score. Finally, if a test

can predict how successful the learners will be at using the language in the future, then it is called predictive validity (Underhill, 1992: 106-108).

Validity issues should be considered at the very beginning of the test development process. This is because language testers now regard providing empirical evidence and theoretical rationales as an argument. “The argument encompasses all kinds of evidence that has an influence on our understanding of what the score might mean. This evidence includes the documentation of how a test is developed, the decisions made during the design process, and the reasons for those decisions, no matter how unimportant they appear at the time” (Fulcher, 2003: 117).

In addition to these, one point should be clarified. A test cannot be valid unless it is reliable. If a test does not measure something consistently, it cannot always be measuring precisely. Yet, it is also possible for a test to be reliable but not valid. For example, a test can give the same results all the time even though it is not measuring what it is claimed to. Hence, even though reliability is a must for validity, it alone is not adequate (Alderson, et al, 1995; as cited in Sak, 2008: 21).

2.5.2.3. Practicality

The main questions of practicality are administrative. A speaking test must be well organised in advance. “How long will it take? What special arrangements have to be made (for example what happens to the rest of the class while individual speaking tests take place)? Is any equipment needed? How long will it take to get the marking done, and how many people will be involved? What arrangements can be made for efficient filing of test materials? and so on” (Harrison, 1986: 12). Shortly, speaking tests should be as economical as possible in time and in cost, otherwise, it is possible to lose

sight of overall efficiency in the detailed work required to prepare appropriate and useful speaking tests.

2.5.3. Scoring Speaking

The most widely accepted method in scoring speaking in EFL field is the usage of rubrics which are scoring guides or documentation forms with specified criteria used to interpret student work. One of these rubrics in testing speaking is called checklists. Checklists (Gottlieb, 2006) “are dichotomous scales (having two options) in which identified skills, competences, strategies, or language functions are marked as either present or absent” (p. 117). These are detailed lists of features that can be used to describe successful performances on a speaking task. Louma (2004) says that “when raters are provided with a list of speaking features, they can see in a performance they are observing and which are noticeably missing” (p.78). Rating checklists are essentially diagnostic and descriptive. The developers can choose to use checklists with either task-specific or holistic scales, depending on the purpose of their test (Louma, 2004: 79).

Second and more widely used rubric type is called rating scales. A rating scale can be defined as:

A scale for the description of language proficiency consisting of a series of constructed levels against which a language learner's performance is judged. Like a test, a proficiency (rating) scale provides an operational definition of a linguistic construct such as proficiency. Typically such scales range from zero mastery through to an end-point representing the well-educated native speaker. The levels or bands are commonly characterised in terms of what subjects can do with the language (tasks and functions which can be performed) and their mastery of linguistic features (such as vocabulary, syntax, fluency and cohesion) ... Scales are descriptors of groups of typically occurring behaviours; they are not in themselves test instruments and need to be used in conjunction with tests

appropriate to the population and test purpose. Raters or judges are normally trained in the use of proficiency scales so as to ensure the measure's reliability (Davies et al, 1999; as cited in Fulcher, 2003: 88-89).

2.5.3.1. Types of Rating Scales

There are some types of rating scales. One of the distinctions is between analytic assessment versus holistic assessment scales.

2.5.3.1.1. Analytic versus Holistic Rating Scales

Analytic scales are “a type of rubric that delineates specific dimension or trait of the construct being measured” (Gottlieb, 2006: 118). The criteria or descriptors are generally presented in a series of four to six performance levels. It is the most diagnostic in nature because it provides information regarding what students can do along each dimension and language proficiency or performance level which yields a student profile (Gottlieb, 2006: 119). There are some advantages of an analytical scale. First, analytical scales, criteria or descriptors match specified dimensions or components. Second, differential growth patterns emerge according to dimensions. Third, a student profile informs instruction, Fourth, diagnostic information becomes available from the multiple dimensions of the scale. That is, it can help provide a profile of a candidate's weaknesses and strengths which may be helpful diagnostically. It also makes a formative contribution in course design. The disadvantages can be stated as follows. First, decisions regarding which dimensions to measure are challenging. Second, they are rather time-consuming to score. Third, reaching consensus on scoring is difficult. Fourth, it is assumed that each dimension of the rubric is of equal weight.

Fifth, the more descriptors a rating scale has, the easier for the raters to match the subjects with these described levels. However, it can be equally difficult for the raters to assess the subjects while they are fully involved in these detailed categories (Gotlieb, 2006: 119; Underhill, 1987: 98; Weir, 2005: 193).

Holistic scales, on the other hand, express an overall impression of a test-taker's ability in one score. When holistic scales are used as rating scales, the raters may be asked to note different features in the performance or pay attention to overall impression only. Holistic scales are practical for decision-making since they only give one score. They are also flexible in that they allow many different combinations of strengths and weaknesses within a level. However, they are not practical for diagnosing strengths and weaknesses in individual learners' performances (Louma, 2004: 62). In other words, it does not take into account the constructs which make up speaking, but just speaking. A single score may not do justice to the complexity of speaking (Fulcher, 2003: 90).

2.5.3.1.2. Additive versus Subtractive Scales

Underhill (1987) mentions two more scorings: Additive and subtractive scoring scales. In additive scale, the raters prepare a list of features for the speaking test. The test-takers start with zero and gets credits by producing necessary features correctly. Subtractive scale is used to mark a test-taker's speaking ability in which the rater subtracts one mark from a total for each mistake until zero. It is a very effective system to detect the errors, but maybe because of this reason, it has also a negative property since it concentrates on the errors rather than the accomplishment of the test-takers (p. 101-103).

2.5.3.2. Examples of Rating Scales

The initial impetus for creating speaking tests was military need at first. Foreign Service Institute (FSI) rating scale was designed in order to teach foreign languages which would be needed in overseas posts. In 1958, the FSI testing unit further developed by adding a checklist of five factors for raters, each measured on the six-point scale. These five factors were accent, comprehension, fluency, grammar and vocabulary. The components were used as a check on a single holistic score. Though the rating procedure was a highly accurate predictor, the limitation of the system was also acknowledged to be that it did not measure effective communication. Therefore, from the very earliest days, the roles of linguistic competence and communicative ability were issues of which the testers were aware in development of modern rating scales for speaking tests (Fulcher, 2003: 9).

There are many rating scales used in the world. Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR)-the parent of most of the speaking proficiency scales today (Louma, 2003: 62), The National Certificate Scale (a holistic scale with six levels) American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) (a holistic scale with ten levels), The Test of Spoken English (TSE) scale (a combination of holistic and analytical rating scales), Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE) Framework and many other rating scales associated with commercial tests such as Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), International English Language Testing System(IELTS) and so on.

However, after its publication in 2001, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment (CEFR) developed by the Council of Europe (CoE) rapidly became the most effective scale as the standard reference document for teaching and testing languages in Europe Union. Since the CEFR intends to provide a whole set of reference tools that should be selectively

employed according to the context, there are a number of categories relevant to oral assessment, such as turn-taking strategies, co-operating strategies, asking for clarification, fluency, flexibility, sociolinguistic competence, general range, vocabulary range, grammatical accuracy, vocabulary control, phonological control and so on (Nakatsuhara, 2007: 86). CEFR will be mentioned in detail in the next chapter.

2.6. The Common European Language Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)

CEFR is intended to provide “a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks etc. across Europe” (COE, 2001: 1). It aims to describe “in a comprehensive way that language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively (COE, 2001: 1). CEFR also tries to define “levels of proficiency which allow learners’ progress to be measured at each stage of learning and on a long life basis” (COE, 2001: 1). Therefore, it is possible to state that the aim of CEFR is to provide a tool for developing language teaching in Europe by promoting reflection and discussion and a way of describing diversity as a means to facilitate mobility in Europe and encouraging linguistic tolerance and respect.

2.6.1. Historical Background of the CEFR

With its 47 members now, CoE was established for the purpose of defending human rights, parliamentary democracy, and rule of law in 1949. One of its main purposes is to increase an awareness of a European identity based on shared values

across different cultures in Europe. Demirel (2004: 17) states that by this way, learning many languages is expected to increase the tolerance among those who have different languages and cultural backgrounds and to provide a much better mutual understanding. Five years after its foundation, European Cultural Convention was signed in Paris on 19 December 1954.

The programs initiated in the area of modern languages are coordinated by two units of CoE. One is 'The Language Policy Division' in Strasbourg, France, which focuses on instruments and initiatives for the development and analysis of language education policies for the member states. The other is 'The European Centre for Modern Languages' in Graz, Austria, which was established in 1995 and deals with the implementation of language policies and the promotion of innovative approaches. Its strategic objectives include the practice of modern language learning and teaching.

Since the early 1970s, work of CoE in language education has, accordingly, shown a steady commitment to the learning of languages for purposes of communication and exchange. This commitment, in turn, has generated two fundamental concerns: to analyze learners' communicative needs and to describe the communicative repertoires corresponding to their needs (Little, 2007: 646). The intensive studies took place especially in the beginning of 1990s. The symposium held in Ruschlikon near Zurich in 1991 was particularly important. The name of this symposium was 'Transparency and Coherence in Language Learning in Europe: Objectives, Evaluation, Certification'. The main aim of the symposium was to investigate the feasibility of relating languages, courses and assessments in Europe to each other through some kind of common framework. Furthermore, it was concluded that it is significant to develop common reference framework for language learning for the purpose of cooperation in learning/teaching languages among different countries and for functioning as a common means to coordinate the studies as well as to compare between different systems of qualifications more easily. In order to achieve this purpose, different scales and levels of language proficiency were designed and the aims,

objectives and functions of the proposed common framework were studied thoroughly with the cooperation of various linguists and governmental agencies.

This result led to a framework called CEFR Learning, Teaching and Assessment. After piloting two internal editions following this symposium in 1996 and 1998, the latest version of the framework was released in 2001. It was translated into 22 languages including Turkish.

The Lisbon European Council meeting of March 2000 set the strategic goal for Europe to become, by 2010, “the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion” (CoE, 2000: 2). In the context of this so-called Lisbon Strategy, a work program for education (Education and Training 2010) includes specific actions, in particular a communication on plurilingualism (December, 2005) and an action plan of the European Commission for linguistic diversity for 2004-2006, both inspired by work previously conducted by the CoE. It is also worth pointing out that it was made official EU policy over a decade ago that the education systems of the member states should teach two FLs to all pupils up to the end of compulsory education (Bonnet, 2007: 671)

In July 2001, the Barcelona Conference of the ALTE was held. Conference listed the dangers of rash and unreliable claims of linkage of examination levels to the CEFR levels. In response to these demands, a meeting was held in Helsinki in July 2002, hosted by the Finnish Ministry of Education, to discuss the issues involved. The CoE subsequently set up a working group whose findings were presented in the 2003 publication of a preliminary manual for relating examinations to the CEFR. The Intergovernmental Forum on the CEFR and the Development of Language Policies: Challenges and Responsibilities held in Strasbourg on February 5-8, 2007, provided a good overview of the current state of implementation of the CEFR in the member states, and pointed to outstanding needs to be met if the document is to become a tool for

European transnational development of education policies. Debates during the forum pointed out the difficulties in changing education cultures in Europe and emphasized the need to think long term when discussing the implementation of integrated language policy (Figueras, 2007: 673).

The final Declaration of the 22nd session of the Standing Conference of the European Ministers of Education (Istanbul, 2007) entitled ‘Building a more humane and inclusive Europe: role of education policies’ and the previous meetings took into account the added value of the CEFR and of other related instruments elaborated by the CoE for the development and implementation of language education policies in member states; the increasing significance of the CEFR as a European standard of reference for language education; the growing value of the CEFR as a reference instrument for the initiatives undertaken by the European Commission, such as the European Qualifications Framework (EQF), Europass and the European Indicator of Language Competence; and the needs expressed by the member states in a recent survey on the use of the CEFR conducted by the Language Policy Division of the CoE (CoE, 2008: 2).

2.6.2. What is the CEFR?

The results and the recommendations of the conference held in Strasbourg in 1997 led to Recommendation No.R (98)6 of the Committee of Ministers Concerning Modern Languages. It emphasised intercultural communication and plurilingualism as key policy goals and set out concrete measures for each educational sector in Europe. Two instruments were developed as an outcome of the project. One is the CEFR which introduced a new Descriptive Scheme for language education and a system of Common Reference Levels. This language scale can be used to compare language skills and certificates. The second is a European Language Portfolio (ELP) which is a comprehensive document that not only covers formal certificates but can also document

other language experiences, such as growing up in a multilingual home situation. ELP will be discussed more in the next sections.

CoE aims to achieve a more comprehensive unity among the members by adopting common action in cultural and educational areas. CEFR is aimed to adopt three basic principles:

- Europe has a rich diversity of cultures and languages, and this should not be a barrier to communication among these cultures and languages, on the contrary, it should be a source for mutual enrichment.
- If Europeans have a better knowledge of other languages, it will become possible to improve communication and interaction among different languages. In this way, mutual understanding, cooperation and European mobility can be achieved and prejudices and discrimination can be avoided.
- When the member states adopt this framework, a greater convergence at the European level may be achieved (CoE, 2001).

Heyworth (2006) states that CEFR attempts to bring together, under a single umbrella, a comprehensive tool for enabling syllabus designers, materials writers, examination bodies, teachers, learners, and others to locate their various types of involvement in modern language teaching in relation to an overall, unified, descriptive frame of reference. It consists of two closely-linked aspects, the ‘Common Reference Levels’ on the one hand, and a detailed description of an action-oriented view of language learning and teaching on the other.

The CEFR is a detailed document and in order to provide the objectives stated above, it is divided into categories. After the studies which lasted for more than four decades, the Language Policy Division of the Council prepared this document. It consists of nine sections, and the contents of these chapters are summarized below:

- Chapter 1. Definition of aims, objectives and functions
- Chapter 2. Explanation of the approach; an action-oriented approach
- Chapter 3. Introduction of the Common Reference Levels
- Chapter 4. The categories necessary for the description of language use, and language user
- Chapter 5. Information about general and communicative competence
- Chapter 6. Information about such issues as language pedagogy, acquisition and learning, plurilingual competence and methodological choices
- Chapter 7. Language learning and teaching tasks
- Chapter 8. Linguistic diversification and its effect on curriculum design; lifelong learning and partial competences
- Chapter 9. Issues about evaluation (Moreno, 2003)

Four basic features of language teaching and learning emphasised in the CEFR can be summarised as follows:

- *Learner-centeredness*: students must be in the focus of language education according to their needs and motivations.
- *Action-basedness*: linguistic competence, as implied by the term ‘action-based’, is one of many competences like pragmatic, socio-linguistic, intercultural, and strategic and the like. The CEFR basically depends on functional and notional approach, which requires not only theoretical knowledge but also actions.
- *Value-drivenness*: all language teaching contexts include the values of the teachers in regard to cultural aspects. For this, independent thinking, judgment and action, and social skills are among the areas the CEFR supports.
- *Reflectiveness*: the CEFR allows the teachers to comment on and re-think their teaching practices (Heyworth, 2005).

Since the foundation of CoE and the existence of European Union as well, the most significant objective of foreign language teaching has been developing a greater interest, mutual understanding and hospitality towards other languages and cultures, therefore developing tolerance and respect for differences. For this purpose, plurilingualism should be an indispensable part of formal and informal education. Furthermore, it is an obligation for an ordinary European citizen to learn more than one foreign language, whether it is commonly used language or it is being spoken by relatively less people.

2.6.2.1 Plurilingualism

For international and supranational communication, there are in principle two different models: the lingua franca/dominant language model, according to which a lingua franca (e.g., English, French) serves as a means of communication between different language communities, and a model of linguistic pluralism, or linguistic diversification, according to which as many different languages as possible are used as means of communication. In Europe, a pluralistic model of communication is pursued, at least among theoreticians, and European multilingualism is accepted as an important element in the European identity (De Cilliear and Busch, 2006).

Plurilingualism is different from multilingualism. The latter aims at encouraging more than one language. Each of these languages is considered in isolation. Plurilingualism, on the other hand, focuses the fact that the language experience of the individual person in its cultural context is enlarged from his/her native language to that of society at large and to the other people's languages.

The CoE's language education policy currently centers on the concept of the plurilingualism of the individual, which the CEFR defines as:

the ability to use languages for the purposes of communication and to take part in intercultural interaction, where a person, viewed as a social agent has proficiency, of varying degrees, in several languages and experience of several cultures. This is not seen as the superposition or juxtaposition of distinct competences, but rather as the existence of a complex or even composite competence on which the user may draw (CoE, 2001: 168).

CoE states (2003: 9) states that:

Plurilingualism provides the necessary conditions for mobility within Europe for leisure and work purposes, but is above all crucial for social and political inclusion of all Europeans whatever their linguistic competencies, and for the creation of a sense of European identity. Language education policies in Europe should therefore enable individuals to be plurilingual either by maintaining and developing their existing plurilingualism or by helping them to develop from quasi monolingualism (or bilingualism) into plurilingualism.

The ultimate aim is to develop interculturality. The diversity and richness of one language are modified and enriched by another and they contribute to intercultural awareness, skills and mutual understanding of another.

Language teaching is no longer seen as simply to achieve ‘mastery’ of one or two, or even three languages, each taken in isolation, with the ‘ideal native speaker’ as the ultimate model. Instead, the aim is to develop a linguistic repertory, in which all linguistic abilities have a place. This implies, of course, that the languages offered in educational institutions should be diversified and students given the opportunity to develop a plurilingual competence. It should also be kept in mind that this is a life-long process.

Being the most influential document of the last decades in the field of language learning, teaching and assessment, the aim of the construction of the CEFR was to promote transparency and coherence in these three domains in a comprehensive way. There are two main parts in the CEFR:

- *The Descriptive Scheme* is a tool for reflecting on what is involved not only in language use, but also in language learning and teaching. Parameters in the Descriptive scheme include: skills, competences, strategies, activities, domains and conditions and constraints that determine language use.
- *The Common Reference Level* system consists of scales of illustrative descriptors that provide global and detailed specifications of language proficiency levels for the parameters of the Descriptive Scheme.

2.6.2.2 The Descriptive Scheme of the CEFR

Descriptive Scheme is summarized as follows:

Language use, embracing language learning, comprises the actions performed by persons who as individuals and social agents develop a range of competences, both general and in particular communicative language competences. They draw on the competences at their disposal in various contexts under various conditions and under various constraints to engage in language activities involving language processes to produce and/or receive texts in relation to themes in specific domains, activating those strategies which seem most appropriate for carrying out the tasks to be accomplished. The monitoring of these actions by the participants leads to the reinforcement or modification of their competences (COE, 2003:14).

The CEFR adopts an action-oriented approach towards language use, embracing language learning (CoE, 2001: 9). This action-oriented approach does not only focus on communicative activities. Little (2007) states that:

There are also scales for planning, compensating, and monitoring or repair; for the receptive strategies of identifying cues and inferring; for the interaction strategies of turn-taking, cooperating, and asking for clarification; and for 13 dimensions of communicative language competence: general linguistic range, vocabulary range, vocabulary control, grammatical accuracy, phonological

control, orthographic control, sociolinguistic appropriateness, flexibility, turn-taking, thematic development, coherence and cohesion, spoken fluency, and propositional precision. The scales are not hierarchically. Users must determine which scales are relevant to their purposes and bring them into interaction with one another as seems appropriate (p. 646).

The Descriptive Scheme focuses on the actions performed by persons who, as individuals and as social agents, develop a range of general and communicative language competences.

2.6.2.2.1 General Competences

General competences of a language user/learner comprise four sub-categories:

- Declarative knowledge resulting from experience (i.e. empirical knowledge) or formal learning (i.e. academic knowledge);
- Skills and know-how, implying the ability to carry out tasks and apply procedures;
- Existential competence comprising individual characteristics, personality traits and attitudes towards oneself and others engaged in social interaction;
- Ability to learn is the ability to engage in new experiences and to integrate new knowledge into existing knowledge. (Van Deusen-Scholl & Hornberger, 2008: 212)

2.6.2.2.2 Communicative Language Competences

The CEFR describes three types of communicative competences (COE, 2001). These can be stated as linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences. They involve knowledge, skills and know-how for each of them.

Linguistic competences are lexical, phonological, syntactical knowledge and morphology. It deals with how learners organize cognitively, how they store it, and how they make access to this knowledge. Sociolinguistic competence is concerned with socio-cultural relationships and communications between different parts of the community. Pragmatic competence is about how language functions and what kinds of discourse are used in different social situations.

2.6.2.2.3 Language Activities and Domains

The language learner applies skills and strategies which are convenient for carrying out tasks in different oral and written activities through general and communicative competences.

- Reception (i.e. silent reading, following media and internet, consulting text books and documents, etc.)
- Production (i.e. oral presentations, written studies, reports, etc.)
- Interaction (i.e. production and reception between at least two people, how language is used in interaction and communication.)
- Mediation (i.e. recording, summarizing, translating, interpreting, paraphrasing, etc.)

The contextualization of these language activities in specific domains implies activating language processes of producing and receiving spoken and written discourse. These are the public domain, personal domain, educational domain and occupational domain. The public domain covers anything which is about ordinary social interaction including business and administrative bodies, public services, culture and free time activities of a public nature etc. Personal domain includes family relations and individual social practices, however. The occupational domain involves a person's activities and relations in his/her professional job experience. The purpose of educational domain is to acquire specific knowledge or skills. By performing language activities, the language learner needs to activate strategies that seem most appropriate for carrying out the tasks to be accomplished in the pertinent domain. Ultimately the (self-) monitoring of the process of language use and language learning results in the reinforcement or modification of competences (CoE, 2001).

2.6.3 The Common Reference Levels of Proficiency

The Common Reference Levels were decided in terms of 'can-do' statements which resulted from a project of the Swiss National Science Research Council which took place between 1993 and 1996. The CEFR is intended to help learners, teachers, assessment experts, syllabus and curriculum development, foreign and second language book preparation by describing the levels of proficiency in each of four skills, namely, listening, speaking, writing and reading. By means of the CEFR, it is to compare and adapt different systems in language teaching, learning and assessment.

2.6.3.1 Methods for Descriptors for Common Reference Levels

The starting point of the project was a detailed analysis of 41 scales of language proficiency from the internationally available sources. Those ‘can-do’ descriptors were selected which would fit into the different parameters of the Descriptive Scheme. They were then scaled through a combination of *intuitive, qualitative and quantitative methods* (COE, 2007: 5).

In the intuitive phase, this material was edited, new descriptors were formulated, and the set was discussed by experts. Next, a variety of qualitative methods were used to check that teachers could relate to the descriptive categories selected, and that descriptors actually described the categories they were intended to describe. Finally, the best descriptors were scaled using quantitative methods (Rasch model) (Van Deusen-Scholl and Hornberger, 2008: 213).

2.6.3.2 Criteria for Descriptors for Common Reference Levels

In order to achieve a standard comparison between different systems of qualification, the CEFR has a number of scales describing a series of levels of proficiency. As stated in the CEFR, a scale of reference should meet four criteria. Two of these criteria are included in description issues and the other two are included in measurement issues (CEO, 2001: 21).

2.6.3.2.1 Description and Measurement Issues

A common framework scale should be context-free in order to accommodate generalisable results from various contexts. Namely, a common scale should not be prepared just for a certain age group nor a specific professional group. Just the opposite, the level descriptors should be relevant and transferable for each and every content. That is to say, they should be context relevant. The descriptors should also be user friendly. That is, they should be based on language competence theories in order to have a sound basis. They should encourage practitioners to think comprehensively regarding what competence means in their context.

The descriptors should be objectively determined so that particular activities and competences can be objectively chosen based on a theory of measurement. Secondly, the framework scales should contain adequate number of levels to show progress in different sectors provided that they should include enough consistent and clear distinctions (North, 2007: 656-658).

2.6.3.3 The Content of Common Reference Levels

With a view to enhancing the usability of the CEFR a simple and global distinction is made into three main user levels and two sub-levels for each of these three levels. These levels are called Basic User (A1 Breakthrough, A2 Waystage), Independent User (B1 Threshold, B2 Vantage) and Proficient User (C1 Effective Operational Proficiency, C2 Mastery).

In principle, all communicative curricula can be restated in terms of the CoE's common reference levels. Because they imply learning activities, the common reference levels support teaching as well as goal-setting and assessment; and they help learners as well as teachers to develop a more communicative orientation in their language learning/teaching. In addition, they can be used to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the textbook and other learning materials in relation to the communicative demands of the curricula (Little, 2001: 14).

The Descriptive Scheme might be enriched with two illustrative Reference Scales with ascending/descending degrees of specificity. Both of these scales provide a common standard in the field of language teaching. This common standard is best described by these three Reference Scales. These are:

- a. The global scale (CEFR: Appendix 4)
- b. The self-assessment grid (CEFR: Appendix 5)
- c. The qualitative aspects of spoken language use (CEFR: Appendix 6)

The common reference points are presented in different ways for different purposes. The global scale (Appendix 4) summarises the set of proposed Common Reference Levels in single holistic paragraphs. This global representation is expected to make it easier to communicate the system to non-specialist users and it will provide foreign language teachers and curriculum planners with orientation points. (COE, 2001:24) The Common Reference Levels were elaborated further through 'can-do' descriptors for understanding, speaking and writing, namely, for each of the six language activities in the Descriptive Scheme: Listening, Reading, Spoken Interaction, Written Interaction, Spoken Interaction and Written Production.

Appendix 5 is a more detailed overview which can be presented in the form of a grid showing major categories of language use at each of the six levels. It is intended to help learners to profile their main language skills, and decide at which level they might

look at a checklist of more detailed descriptors in order to self-assess their level of proficiency. With the aid of general descriptors everybody including the teacher, the curriculum developer, the employer, the personal officer, or the policy maker can easily attain information on an individual's language proficiency, the assessment of which may have significant importance in terms of European and international affairs.

Appendix 6 is used to assess a performance on the basis of the aspects of communicative language competence and was designed to assess spoken performances. It focuses on different qualitative aspects of language use.

Taking as a reference the tables above, it is possible to have a more detailed description of levels.

2.6.3.3.1 Basic User

The basic user has the ability for elementary expressions, however in communication, interlocutors assistance is necessary. This is the basic level of all the groups. It has two subcategories A1 and A2.

A1 is the lowest level in which the learners have only a very limited language use capacity. This level is called 'Breakthrough'. In this level, descriptors represent real life tasks such as interacting by asking and answering easy questions about themselves, about their neighbours, friends, school and etc. At breakthrough level, learners can:

interact in a simple way, ask and answer simple questions about themselves, where they live, people they know, and things they have, initiate and respond to simple statements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics, rather

than relying purely on a very finite rehearsed, lexically organised repertoire of situation-specific phrases (COE, 2001: 33).

A2 is referred to as 'Waystage'. Most of the descriptors in this level are related to social functions. Language learners of this level are expected to use simple everyday polite forms of greeting and address; have short social conversations; make comments about their leisure and professional lives; make and reply to invitations; make plans and arrangements; make and accept offers. (COE, 2001: 33) Transactional specifications are focussed in this level. Language learners can "make simple transactions in shops, post offices or banks; get simple information about travel; use public transport: buses, trains, and taxis, ask for basic information, ask and give directions, and buy tickets; ask for and provide everyday goods and service" (COE, 2001: 34).

There is another subcategory at this level which called Strong Threshold or A2+. At this level, learners show a more active participation in conversations provided that they get some assistance. Learners at this level can:

initiate, maintain and close simple, restricted face-to-face conversation; understand enough to manage simple, routine exchanges without undue effort; make him/herself understood and exchange ideas and information on familiar topics in predictable everyday situations, provided the other person helps if necessary; communicate successfully on basic themes if he/she can ask for help to express what he wants to; deal with everyday situations with predictable content, though he/she will generally have to compromise the message and search for words; interact with reasonable ease in structured situations, given some help, but participation in open discussion is fairly restricted; plus significantly more ability to sustain monologues, for example: express how he/she feels in simple terms; give an extended description of everyday aspects of his/her environment e.g. people, places, a job or study experience; describe past activities and personal experiences; describe habits and routines; describe plans and arrangements; explain what he/she likes or dislikes about something; give short, basic descriptions of events and activities; describe pets and possessions; use simple descriptive language to make brief statements about and compare objects and possessions (COE, 2001: 34).

2.6.3.3.2 Independent User

The independent user can handle the daily language practice, is mostly able to interact without too much effort, and generally is able to follow a normal speech tempo considering that it is not his/her native tongue. It has two main levels, B1 and B2, which can be divided into more subcategories. B1 is labelled as 'Threshold' and has two main characteristics. They can maintain interaction and they can communicate successfully and flexibly in different contexts. To exemplify the first feature of this level, learners at this level can:

generally follow the main points of extended discussion around him/her, provided speech is clearly articulated in standard dialect; give or seek personal views and opinions in an informal discussion with friends; express the main point he/she wants to make comprehensibly; exploit a wide range of simple language flexibly to express much of what he or she wants to; maintain a conversation or discussion but may sometimes be difficult to follow when trying to say exactly what he/she would like to; keep going comprehensibly, even though pausing for grammatical and lexical planning and repair is very evident, especially in longer stretches of free production (COE, 2001: 34).

The second feature is mostly about coping with everyday problems. The learner at this level also can:

cope with less routine situations on public transport; deal with most situations likely to arise when making travel arrangements through an agent or when actually travelling; enter unprepared into conversations on familiar topics; make a complaint; take some initiatives in an interview/consultation (e.g. to bring up a new subject) but is very dependent on interviewer in the interaction; ask someone to clarify or elaborate what they have just said (COE, 2001: 34).

The next band is 'Strong Threshold' or B1+. In addition to two features of B1, the exchange of quantities of information is significant at this strong threshold level. Learners at this level can:

take messages communicating enquiries, explaining problems; provide concrete information required in an interview/ consultation (e.g. describe symptoms to a doctor) but does so with limited precision; explain why something is a problem; summarise and give his or her opinion about a short story, article, talk, discussion, interview, or documentary and answer further questions of detail; carry out a prepared interview, checking and confirming information, though he/she may occasionally have to ask for repetition if the other person's response is rapid or extended; describe how to do something, giving detailed instructions; exchange accumulated factual information on familiar routine and non-routine matters within his/her field with some confidence (COE, 2001: 34-35).

B2 is called 'Vantage' level. At this level, learners progress slowly, but after a certain amount of time, they understand that they have arrived a certain level and they acquire a different perspective. As a result, they maintain the conversations more effectively. Learners at this level can:

account for and sustain his opinions in discussion by providing relevant explanations, arguments and comments; explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options; construct a chain of reasoned argument; develop an argument giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view; explain a problem and make it clear that his/her counterpart in a negotiation must make a concession; speculate about causes, consequences, hypothetical situations; take an active part in informal discussion in familiar contexts, commenting, putting point of view clearly, evaluating alternative proposals and making and responding to hypotheses (COE, 2001: 35).

When learners are at this level, they are expected to interact more naturally, effectively and fluently. Therefore they are expected to:

converse naturally, fluently and effectively; understand in detail what is said to him/her in the standard spoken language even in a noisy environment; initiate discourse, take his/her turn when appropriate and end conversation when he/she needs to, though he/she may not always do this elegantly; use stock phrases (e.g. 'That's a difficult question to answer') to gain time and keep the turn whilst formulating what to say; interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without imposing strain on either party; adjust to the changes of direction, style and emphasis normally found in conversation; sustain relationships with native speakers without unintentionally amusing or irritating them or requiring them to behave other than they would with a native speaker, correct mistakes if they have led to misunderstandings; make a note of 'favourite mistakes' and consciously monitor

speech for it/them; generally correct slips and errors if he/she becomes conscious of them; plan what is to be said and the means to say it, considering the effect on the recipient/s (COE, 2001: 35).

‘Strong Vantage’ or B2+ necessitates the abilities of B2, but also a new degree of discourse competence or co-operating strategies. Coherence/cohesion and concentration on items on negotiating is important (COE, 2001: 35).

2.6.3.3 Proficient User

The proficient user has hardly any or no strains in the use of the target language and no consideration needs to be taken into account that it is not his/her mother tongue. There are two main categories at this level. These are called C1 and C2. C1 is called ‘Effective Operational Proficiency’. The main characteristics of this level are that learners are capable of fluent and spontaneous communication in the target language. A learner at this level:

can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Has a good command of a broad lexical repertoire allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions. There is little obvious searching for expressions or avoidance strategies; only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language. select a suitable phrase from a fluent repertoire of discourse functions to preface his remarks in order to get the floor, or to gain time and keep it whilst thinking; produce clear, smoothly flowing, well-structured speech, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices(COE, 2001: 36).

The second level in the proficient user is C2, which is also termed ‘Mastery’. C2 is not intended to imply native speaker or near native speaker competence. While learners at this level have precision in interaction, appropriate use of language in different situations and contexts, they do not encounter difficulties in using the

language. A learner at this level can “convey finer shades of meaning precisely by using, with reasonable accuracy, a wide range of modification devices; has a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms with awareness of connotative level of meaning; backtrack and restructure around a difficulty so smoothly the interlocutor is hardly aware of it” (COE, 2001: 36).

Though clearly stated, there are some complaints about the CEFR descriptors. One of them is the absence of descriptors for socio-cultural aspects and reading literature. Another problem is that the descriptors are written in a complicated language and are aimed at learners aged 16 years or over. In the following section, difficulties, challenges, problems and criticisms with CEFR will be dealt with.

2.6.4 Difficulties, Challenges, Problems and Criticisms with CEFR

CoE has always been in favour of pluralism, and plurilingualism is one of the main fundamental bases of CEFR. Teaching two foreign languages in relatively less populated countries in Europe became EU policy in the 1990s. One factor influencing this policy has been the fear that English might be a threat to the languages and cultures of European states. It is therefore important to develop competence and familiarity with two foreign languages and their cultures. Learning only one lingua franca like English is not enough because it might have unforeseen consequences on the vitality of the national language(s).

One of the negative effects of English can be seen in higher education. With the Bologna process, which entails forming a uniform undergraduate and graduate structure, there appears to conflate internationalisation and ‘English-medium higher education’, and does not refer to multilingualism or language policy (CEFR), although the initial

Bologna text stressed university autonomy, and respect for the languages and cultures of Europe. Another problem is that at the policy-making supranational level of EU institutions such as the European Parliament, Commission and Council, there is not enough support for cultural concerns. To illustrate this, the total proportion of the European budget represents only 1% of national budgets. Especially in the management of the internal affairs of EU institutions, though there is equality between all the EU languages in some respects but in practice French and particularly English have a dominating factor. The language services are subject to internal reviews of quality and efficiency, but there has never been a profound survey of how equality between speakers of different languages might be ensured in a variety of types of communication (May, 2008: 259-263).

The CEFR presents three main challenges in the future. The first one stems from plurilingualism again. In other words, the common reference levels define L2 proficiency, whereas CoE language education policy is increasingly focused on plurilingualism, which is rooted in the individual's mother tongue. For the majority of the students, language of education is synonymous with mother language; the projects aiming to develop CEFR will also seek to address the needs of migrant and minority pupils for whom the language of education is an L2. Therefore, it is possible that many of the 'can do' descriptors developed to define L2 proficiency will be applied to L1 proficiency in the long run.

The second challenge is with regard to the CEFR's proficiency levels if they can be adapted to the needs of younger language learners. The CEFR is coherent enough but the question stems from how far it can accommodate two of the most important growth-points in school-based language learning across Europe: early-start and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) programs. Is the CEFR age-appropriate and domain-specific? It is possible that the development of a Common European Framework of Reference for Languages of School Education will help to resolve this problem which arises from misunderstanding and misapplication of the CEFR. The third challenge has to do with carrying out the CEFR in a way that it has important and

permanent impact on language learning outcomes, that is to say, using its curricula, pedagogy, and assessment into a much better interaction (Little, 2007:651-652).

One problem with CEFR is quantitative and qualitative aspects of language. Proficiency descriptors show element of quantity. In here the important factor is what the learner is able to do in certain circumstances. At the same time, they show quality, in other words, how well the learner is able to perform. These two factors are interwoven in the CEFR (Hulstijn, 2007: 663-666). One person can fulfil functions at a certain level of the CEFR, but it is possible for a learner to have different quantity and/or quality levels in the target language at the same time. However, the CEFR does not differentiate between these differences clearly.

2.6.5 European Language Portfolio (ELP)

The European Language Portfolio is a practical concrete outcome of the CEFR. It has connections with CEFR through the reference levels and it is possible to state that ELP is the realization of the principles of the CEFR. ELP aims to make the language learning process more transparent to learners, develop their learning capabilities for reflection and self-assessment, and enable them gradually to take more and more responsibility for their own learning, and make them more autonomous. Little makes the connection between CEFR and ELP in that “the relation between the CEFR and the ELP resides in the fact that self-assessment is carried out using the CEFR scales” (Little, 2007: 649).

The ELP basically consists of three parts: the Language Passport, the Language Biography, and the Dossier. The Language Passport part provides an overview of the student’s proficiency in one or more than one language. The Language Biography

involves the learner in planning, reflecting upon, and assessing their learning process and progress through self-assessment and self-awareness. The Dossier offers the learner the opportunity to select materials to document and show their achievements in a foreign language learning experience.

The ELP has two main functions. These are the reporting and pedagogical functions. Little (2006) states that the ELP is designed to support four of the Council of Europe's key political aims: the preservation of linguistic and cultural diversity, the promotion of linguistic and cultural tolerance, the promotion of plurilingualism, and education for democratic citizenship (p. 184).

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Model

This research is a descriptive study that tries to determine the speaking levels of Ankara Police High School 9th level students in the academic year 2009-2010 according to CEFR speaking criteria. For this purpose, survey model was conducted and to triangulate the opinions of the teachers and of the students in this survey, a test was administered in this study.

Survey models are the approaches that aim to describe a previous or a current situation as it is at the moment. General survey models are used to come to a general conclusion about a universe which consists of many elements, therefore, it is possible to state that these models are survey arrangements where the whole universe, or a group, examples or samples taken from this universe are used for this purpose (Karasar, 2006: 79). Therefore, survey model was used as the most significant part of this research.

SPSS 18 program was used for the evaluation of the questionnaires and of the test scores.

3.2. Universe and Sampling

There are two informant groups involved in this study, namely, 9th level Ankara Police High School students and the teachers who taught English as a foreign language in 9th level in 2009-2010 academic year.

The universe of the students is 225. On the other hand, the universe of the teachers is 12. All of the related students and the teachers (with no exception) involved in this study. In order to triangulate the results, a speaking test was conducted for 60 students. These students were selected randomly among these 225 students and they were tested in their spoken production and spoken interaction of CEFR-B1 level.

The students in the questionnaires are all 15-year-old male students. They come from different parts of Turkey and they are more or less from socio-economically similar families, namely, middle or lower class families. They also have a similar educational background and their scores to enter the Ankara Police High School in the national exam (called SBS) organized by the Ministry of National Education range between 460-500/500. In 2009-2010 academic year, 176000 students applied to study in this school but only 225 were selected with high level of physical and health tests besides the SBS exam and a special test organized by Police High School administration. Therefore, it can easily be said that they are a homogenous group and they are among the top students of Turkey. Although they have different language backgrounds, they are all considered to be elementary students in English at the beginning of the year at Ankara Police High School and they are taught accordingly throughout the academic year. They are educated in the classes of 22-23 by ELT teachers. The structures of the classrooms are ‘U’ type and many technological tools such as a smart board, a sound system and internet are used in the classrooms. Also, the software of the lesson books are used so that their learning is enhanced by means of audio and visual mechanisms. There are 18 hours of English per week. 10 hours of these

class hours are maincourse, which aims to develop the general language skills of the students, 4 hours of 18 are reading and writing lesson, which aims to develop the reading and writing skills of the students specifically, and 4 hours of 18 hours are listening and speaking lesson, which aims to develop the listening and speaking skills of the students specifically.

The ELT teachers are non-native teachers (Turkish) whose teaching experiences range from 8 to 25 years. Three of the twelve teachers are female teachers while the nine of the rest are male teachers.

The speaking test was administered to the students who were selected out of these 225 students. Six students were chosen among ten different classes randomly, and there were sixty students in total in the test group. This selection was done randomly. It is supposed that this sampling group of 60 students represents the whole students.

3.3. Data Collection Instruments and Procedures

The first stage of the preparation of the questionnaire was studying the syllabus of English lessons taught in 9th level at Ankara Police High School. After a careful search of the units and the aims of each unit in all the English lessons, we tried to have a grasp of the English level of the students. Being an EFL teacher in this school, the researcher had a very good opportunity to have a better understanding of the situation of the students. At the same time, being personnel of Ankara Police High School, the researcher had an advantage on the grounds that there is a tough formal procedure to administer any kinds of educational interviews, surveys, researches etc. since there are high level security measures.

After reviewing the aims of the syllabus at Ankara Police High School, CEFR speaking criteria related to speaking were compared with the syllabus of the school in order to have a general opinion on which level the students are according to CEFR speaking levels, namely, A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 and C2. After this, the durations of the class hours equal to each CEFR level were selected. Official website of British Council how many hours equal to each level as follows:

- A1 is approximately 90-100 hours
- A2 is approximately 180-200 hours
- B1 is approximately 350-400 hours
- B2 is approximately 500-600 hours
- C1 is approximately 700-800 hours
- C2 is approximately 1000-1200 hours ([www. britishcouncil.org](http://www.britishcouncil.org)).

At Ankara Police High School one class hour is 40 minutes. The class hours according to different grades are as follows:

- 9th grades: 558 class hours
- 10th grades: 248 class hours
- 11th grades: 186 class hours
- 4th grades: 186 class hours

The class hours are stated above, but there were many holidays such as Kurban Festival (1 week), the holiday for prevention of ‘A flu’ endemic (1 week), Police Week celebration practices (30 class hours), 19th May Youth & Sports Festival celebration practices (20 days plus 2 day official holiday), Republic Festival (1 day), New Year (1 day), 23 April National Sovereignty & Children Festival (1 day) etc. in 2009-2010 academic year. Therefore, English lessons were not held for about 114 class hours, so by subtracting the holidays (558-114), it is possible to conclude that 444 class hours were held in the academic year 2009-2010at Ankara Police High School.

The next step was pre-interviewing the 9th level ELT teachers. They were asked if they had any information about CEFR. All the teachers had information about CEFR criteria but only two of them had detailed information about CEFR criteria. Considering all these three steps, it was decided that Police High School students were at A2 level and partly at B1 level.

The third stage was deciding on the method to follow in order to figure out the level of the students. A questionnaire was prepared and received expert opinion. The statements of the questionnaire were taken from the ‘can-do’ statements of CEFR speaking criteria directly. These statements consisted of A1, A2 and B1 speaking levels of CEFR. These three levels also consisted of two different sub-levels, namely, spoken interaction and spoken production. As a result, a questionnaire consisting of 41 questions with 6 sub-levels was created. The same questionnaire was prepared for the teachers and for the students. While the questionnaire for the teachers was prepared in English, the one for the students was prepared in English and in Turkish on the grounds that it was essential for the students to comprehend the sentences fully.

3.3.1. Student Questionnaire

These questionnaires were administered in the last week of 2009-2010 academic year. First, the students were administered the questionnaires. Before the questionnaire, the students were asked if they knew anything about CEFR, ELP etc. None of the students had any previous opinions about CEFR or ELP. All the questionnaires were handed out by the researcher himself to relax and assure the students and they were given enough time to answer all the questions objectively. In the questionnaire, the students were not asked anything private or peculiar as to their names, student numbers, classes etc. so that they have not been irritated or worried to make comments about their real situations and to be objective as much as possible. The students were

told that these remarks will no way affect their grades. They were only told that this is a research to see what the English level of 9th class students are. They were also told that their answers would be treated confidentially and for the purposes of this research only. Therefore, they were advised to be objective, evaluate the questions with utmost importance and not to leave any question empty on the grounds that any false or missing part would affect the research badly. They were also free to ask any questions that seemed unclear for them in order to answer correctly.

For the best comprehension of the questions, all the sentences were written in English and in Turkish. Although there were 6 different sub-levels, they were not clarified in the questionnaire; instead the students had one section consisting of 41 different questions. The students were asked to rate on a scale of one to five with 'Strongly Disagree(1)', 'Disagree(2)', 'Neutral(3)', 'Agree(4)', 'Strongly Agree(5)' on the basis of how closely they believed the characteristic applied to them.

Statements 1-11 in the questionnaire aim to analyse 'A1 Spoken Interaction' level, statements 12-14 aim to analyse 'A1 Spoken Production' level, statements 15-23 aim to analyse 'A2 Spoken Interaction' level, statements '24-28' aim to analyse 'A2 Spoken Production' level, statements 29-35 aim to analyse 'B1 Spoken Interaction' level, and finally statements 36-41 aim to analyse 'B1 Spoken Production' level.

Because all the questions in the questionnaire were with rating scales and there were Turkish and English forms, they were relatively easy to answer and timing was not a problem for the students. The questionnaire was totally clear and the students did not face any kinds of problems in general.

3.3.2. Teacher Questionnaire

The most important part of this study was the opinions of the students. However, the professional considerations of their teachers, who taught them English from elementary level to their present (at the time of the questionnaire) level, had vital importance for this research in order to compare and contrast the opinions of the students. Therefore, we could have more objective and reliable results. For this reason, the teachers were also administered the same questionnaire and they were asked to rate each statement for their 9th grades students in general. There was no difference between the teachers whether they taught ‘maincourse’, ‘reading & writing’ or ‘listening & speaking’ lessons providing that they taught English to 9th grade students in the 2009-2010 academic year.

The total number of these teachers was 12. With all the teachers (with no exception), a face-to-face interview was made and the aim of the research was explained one by one in order to show them the importance of their answers.

The structure of the questionnaire was almost the same as the one for the students, with only slight differences. The language of the statements was only English and the explanations on the front page were different. Final difference was that while the statements in the student questionnaire started with “ I can ...”, the statements in the teacher questionnaire started with “My students in general can ...”. To illustrate this, we will give one example. In the student questionnaire, for one ‘can-do’ statement, the sentence was stated as follows:

Statement 1:

*“Tanışma, selamlaşma ve vedalaşmaya ilişkin kalıp ifadeleri kullanabilirim.
I can introduce somebody and use basic greetings and leave taking expressions.”*

On the other hand, the same statement was presented in the teacher questionnaire as follows:

Statement 1:

“My students in general can introduce somebody and use basic greetings and leave taking expression.”

The administration of the questionnaire was completed with no problem at all.

3.3.3. Test Scores

In order to justify the opinions of the students and of the teachers, a test was decided to be given as triangulation. “Triangulation allows researchers to assess the sufficiency of the data” (Wiersma, 1986 as cited in Nurani, 2009: 674). Before deciding on applying a test, the exam and the quiz papers which were applied in the academic year 2009-2010 were checked, but they did not appear to reflect the speaking levels of the students for some reasons:

- Almost all the quizzes were optional
- The exams mostly tested the reading, grammar, vocabulary and the listening skills of the students.

Although there were some situational questions testing the speaking abilities in the exams, they were not sufficient enough to reflect the general speaking levels of the students for two reasons: First, the rate of speaking questions were not enough and secondly, they did not depict the final situation of the students since the exams had already been given before the end of the academic year.

As a result, the idea of creating a Discourse Completion Test (DCT) and applying this test to the students emerged as a solution to test the speaking levels of the students. “DCT is a technique used to elicit data in sociolinguistic research, and effects of systematic modification to its situational prompt on subject response. The DCT is a questionnaire containing situations, briefly described, designed to elicit a particular speech act. Subjects read each situation and respond in writing to a prompt” (Varghese and Billmyer, 1996: 39). There seem to be several disadvantages and advantages of DCT. Nurani states the disadvantages and advantages of DCT as follows:

Firstly, the authenticity of the situations is limited. Then, the hypothetical nature of the situations in DCT simplifies the complexity of interactions in real conversation. Moreover, what people claim they would say in the hypothetical situation is not necessarily what they actually say in real situations. In addition, DCT is not able to bring out the extended negotiation which commonly occurs in authentic discourse due to the absence of interactions between interlocutors. Despite its disadvantages, DCT allows researchers to collect a large amount of data in a relatively short time. Furthermore, DCT creates model responses which are likely to occur in spontaneous speech. DCT also provides stereotypical responses for a socially appropriate response. DCT is also an appropriate instrument for inter-language pragmatic research because it can be applied directly to participants coming from different cultural backgrounds (2009: 667).

Despite its some disadvantages, “up to now, there are no other data collection instruments that have as many administrative advantages as DCT so that research in pragmatic testing and teaching will still rely on it” (Nurani, 2009: 676). Therefore, we decided to apply a DCT test.

It was not possible to test all the statements of A1, A2, B1 levels. Therefore, there were two options to follow. We were to decide either to choose some statements of different levels or to choose all the statements of B1 level. We decided the latter since we thought that if the highest level of these three levels, namely B1, is tested, it can be used as a reference for A1 and A2 levels as well. The number of students had to be limited as well since it would be extremely difficult to evaluate the papers of 225

students by different experts. The number of the students was limited to 60 by choosing six students from ten classes randomly.

The test consisted of two parts. Three statements were tested orally and the others were tested in written form (DCT). Including the researcher, there were two other ELT teachers, who did not teach in 9th grades, in the oral test. Before the oral test, the students were told about the reason of these tests and they were told that their performance would, no way, affect their averages. All the explanations were made in English. The teachers scored the results holistically. In other words, they were asked to give one point for three different statements according to general speaking competences such as fluency, accuracy, pronunciation, vocabulary and so on. Ten different groups of six students were created and they were tested for 29th, 34th and 35th statements. The possible questions to be asked were prepared by five different ELT teachers. After a warm-up conversation, the students were tested for 29th, 34th, and 35th statements first. 29th statement says “*can start, maintain and end a conversation about topics that are familiar of personal interest*”, 34th one states “*can give or ask for personal views in an informal discussion with friends*” and 35th one states “*can agree and disagree politely*”. As the common point of these statements, the subject ‘football’ was chosen and the students made conversations about the football teams and their performances. The main role of the evaluators was to start the conversation among the students. When necessary, the evaluators intervened and changed the follow of the conversations. They also addressed some questions to the students who preferred to keep silent. Some of the start-up questions were as follows:

- Turkcell Super League was so exciting this year, right? Which team(s) do you support?
- Bursaspor became the champion this year. It is great, right?
- It was a disappointment for Fenerbahçe this year. Do you agree?
- 4 important football teams, namely, Fenerbahçe, Galatasaray, Beşiktaş and Trabzonspor scored badly this year. Is that so?
- What do you think the possible performances of the teams in the next football season in European Cups?
- Would you want Turkey to be in this world cup final?

- Which team will you support in the World Football Tournament and why? and etc.

The means of the points of each ELT teachers for each statement were separately evaluated and the results were transferred into SPSS program.

The second and the most important part of the test was applied in the written form. For each B1 statement one or more than one question and/or situation were created. The language of the test was chosen as Turkish because we wanted full comprehension of the students and we also aimed not to give any language and/or linguistic cues to the students by writing in English. The test can be seen in Appendix 3. To have validity in the exam, the test was checked by 5 different ELT teachers and necessary arrangements were made according to suggestions of these teachers. Then, the test was checked, changed and re-designed by the advisor of this thesis, and finally it was given in its latest form.

We aimed to test the B1 statements with the following questions in the DCT that was applied to the students:

B1 Statement	Test Question
<p>Statement 30: I can maintain a conversation or discussion but may sometimes be difficult to follow when trying to say exactly what he would like</p>	<p>You participate a youth program sponsored by EU in England. Some people from different countries attend the meeting and you are discussing the education problems of the youth. You cannot fully follow what is being mentioned but you join the discussion and share your opinions about how education in your country is.</p>

<p>Statement 31: I can deal with most situations likely to arise when making travel arrangements through an agent or when actually travelling.</p>	<p>In a Europe tour, you would like to go to Paris from Amsterdam with a friend of yours. You go to the ticket-sale office and to have information about travel details such as train hours, ticket prices, discounts (for example, student, young, weekend etc.) and the duration of the travel, you ask these questions. Question 1: Ask about the train hours. Question 2: Ask about the duration of the journey. Question 3: Ask about the ticket prices. Question 4: Ask about the discounts, if any.</p>
<p>Statement 32: I can ask for and follow detailed directions.</p>	<p>You arrived in Paris. Firstly, you want to see Eiffel Tower, but you do not know how to go there. A) Ask a person how you can go to Eiffel Tower from the train station. You got an answer like this. B) Translate the answer into English: (Translation)“Hmm, you can go to Eiffel Tower by metro. From here, take Paris Metro directly. The name of the nearest train station to Eiffel Tower is called Champ de Mars. When you get off the train, you will see Eiffel Tower after you walk 50 metres”.</p>
<p>Statement 33: I can express and respond to feelings such as surprise, happiness, sadness, interest and indifference.</p>	<p>What would you say for the situations below. A) Your parents come to visit you in your boarding school suddenly. Express your surprise and happiness to them. B) But your mother tells you that one of your close relatives has had a traffic accident. Express your sadness and say something that shows you are interested in the details of the</p>

	incident.
Statement 36: I can give detailed accounts of experiences by describing feelings and reactions.	Talk about an experience that you cannot forget by telling your feelings and thoughts at that moment.
Statements 37-38: I can describe dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can explain and give reasons for his plans, intentions and actions.	What is your biggest aim/dream in your future life? Explain this aim/dream of yours with its reasons.
Statement 39: I can relate the plot of a book or film and describe his reactions.	Give brief information about a film that you have recently watched and tell your personal opinions about this film.
Statements 40-41: I can narrate a story. I can paraphrase short written passages orally in a simple way, using the wording and structure of the original text.	Talk about a funny-anecdote that you know.

TABLE 2: B1 'can-do' statements and the questions to test these statements in DCT.

Before the test papers were handed out, the students were once again assured that their performance would not affect their grades in any way. The reason of the test was explained and their questions (if any) were answered. After the students were relaxed, the test started. The duration of the test was 45 minutes.

The test papers were numbered from 1 to 60 and photocopied four times. They were delivered to one ELT teacher (the researcher), to one non-native ELT teacher, one native ELT teacher and one ELT department instructor at Gazi Univesity. The mean of

each evaluators' points for each statement was transferred into SPSS program for analysing the results.

The researcher participated in both the oral and the DCT but the other evaluators in the oral and the DCT were different evaluators.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION OF THE RESULTS

The aim of this study is to determine how effective the 9th level students of Ankara Police High School are in their speaking abilities according to CEFR speaking criteria. This chapter presents the results of the questionnaires both for 9th level students and ELT teachers who taught English to the 9th class students in the the academic year 2009-2010at Ankara Police High School. The questionnaires were handed out to 225 out of 225 students and to 12 out of 12 ELT teachers who taught English in this year. Also, a test group was formed by randomly choosing 60 students out of 225. By means of test group, we aimed to see how objective and reliable both opinions of the teachers and of the students are. This test group was tested for their B1 level.

The data was transformed into statistical results by means of SPSS 18. In the analysis findings, significance levels were described with ‘p’ and if the $p < 0.05$, it was accepted as there is a difference, and if it is $p > 0.05$, it was accepted as there is no difference.

Before the data of the research were analysed, whether the measures indicate normal distribution or not was evaluated by Kolmogorov Smirnov test and its results are shown in Table 3. The data in Table 3 was obtained according to the results of the questionnaires that were applied to the students and to the teachers.

According to the results, It was noticed that the measures of A2-Spoken Interaction and B1-Spoken Production show a normal distribution ($P>0.05$). Therefore, parametric tests (t test for independent samples and analysis of variance (ANOVA)) were used to compare the variations which show normal distribution. Non-parametric analysis, however, were used for the variations which do not indicate a normal distribution ($p<0.05$). Mann Whitney U test and Kruskal Walls test were used in comparing the measures which do not show a normal distribution.

Table 3: Kolmogorov Smirnov Test Results

		A1-Spoken Interaction	A1-Spoken Production	A2-Spoken Interaction	A2-Spoken Production	B1-Spoken Interaction	B1-Spoken Production
Normal Parameters	Mean	4,286	4,030	3,600	3,862	3,402	3,201
	Std. Deviation	0,565	0,767	0,672	0,689	0,675	0,796
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	0,120	0,282	0,081	0,126	0,088	0,064
	Positive	0,103	0,245	0,037	0,054	0,063	0,054
	Negative	-0,120	-0,282	-0,081	-0,126	-0,088	-0,064
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1,847	4,343	1,249	1,945	1,518	1,105
P		0,002*	0,000*	0,088	0,001*	0,020*	0,174

* $p<0.05$

Do the speaking skills of Ankara Police High School 9th Level students in accordance with CEFR criteria differentiate according to the considerations of the students and of the ELT teachers of this school?

According to considerations of the students and of the teachers, t test for the independent samples was used in comparison of the measurements of A2- Spoken Interaction and B1-Spoken Production on the grounds that these measurements show a

normal distribution. For the other measurements, however, Mann Whitney U test results were analysed and the results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Mann Whitney U Test Results

		N	Mean	Standard. Deviation	Mann Whitney U / t value	p
A1-Spoken Interaction	STUDENT	225	4,27	0,58	U= 1.098,500	0,276
	TEACHER	12	4,50	0,18		
A1-Spoken Production	STUDENT	225	3,99	0,76	U= 595,500	0,000*
	TEACHER	12	4,75	0,45		
A2-Spoken Interaction	STUDENT	225	3,58	0,68	t = -2,032	0,043*
	TEACHER	12	3,98	0,40		
A2-Spoken Production	STUDENT	225	3,85	0,70	U= 975,500	0,104
	TEACHER	12	4,18	0,40		
B1-Spoken Interaction	STUDENT	225	3,31	0,73	U = 940,000	0,076
	TEACHER	12	3,69	0,50		
B1-Spoken Production	STUDENT	225	3,16	0,84	t= -0,326	0,744
	TEACHER	12	3,24	0,41		

*p<0.05

We will evaluate the results according to A1-Spoken Interaction, A1-Spoken Production, A2-Spoken Interaction, A2-Spoken Production, B1-Spoken Interaction and B1-Spoken Production separately by using the data given in Table 4. In each category, more specific results for each statement will be given and these findings will be discussed.

4.1. Analysis of “A1-Spoken Interaction”

It is observed that the teachers ($\bar{X}=4.50$) have more positive opinions than the students ($\bar{X}=4.27$) related to ‘A1-Spoken Interaction’. However, there is not a statistically significance between the opinions of the teachers and of the students regarding ‘A1- Spoken Interaction’ ($p>0.05$). The ‘p’ number for this part has a high value ($p=0,276$). The students and the teachers have similar opinions. The standard deviation is the lowest in the opinions of the teachers (0,18) among all the other categories including the students and the teachers (Table 4).

Table 5: The distribution of the opinions of the students and the teachers related to CEFR “A1- Spoken Interaction”

A1- Spoken Interaction		STUDENT				TEACHER			
		N	%	Mean	Standard Deviation	n	%	Mean	Standard Deviation
S1: I can introduce somebody and use basic greetings and leave taking expressions.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	1	0%	4,47	0,73	0	0%	4,75	0,45
	DISAGREE	2	1%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	19	8%			0	0%		
	AGREE	72	32%			3	25%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	131	58%			9	75%		
S2: I can ask and answer simple questions, initiate and respond to simple statements on very familiar and everyday topics.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	1	0%	4,25	0,78	0	0%	4,56	0,67
	DISAGREE	3	1%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	31	14%			1	8%		
	AGREE	93	41%			3	25%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	97	43%			8	67%		

S3: I can make myself understood in a simple way but I am dependent on my partner being prepared to repeat more slowly and rephrase what I say and to help me to say what I want.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	0	0%	4,21	0,80	0	0%	3,91	0,51
	DISAGREE	5	2%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	39	17%			2	17%		
	AGREE	86	38%			9	75%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	95	42%			1	8%		
S4: I can make simple purchases where pointing or other gestures can support what I say.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	1%	4,03	0,88	0	0%	4,08	0,51
	DISAGREE	9	4%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	44	20%			1	8%		
	AGREE	95	42%			9	75%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	75	33%			2	17%		
S5: I can handle numbers, quantities, costs and times.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	1%	4,08	0,86	0	0%	4,33	0,49
	DISAGREE	6	3%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	44	20%			0	0%		
	AGREE	92	41%			8	67%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	81	36%			4	33%		
S6: I can ask people for things and give people things.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	0	0%	4,33	0,76	0	0%	4,50	0,67
	DISAGREE	5	2%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	25	11%			1	8%		
	AGREE	86	38%			4	33%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	109	48%			7	58%		
S7: I can ask people questions about where they live, people they know, things they have, etc. and answer such	STRONGLY DISAGREE	0	0%	4,16	0,85	0	0%	4,50	0,52
	DISAGREE	8	4%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	41	18%			0	0%		
	AGREE	82	36%			6	50%		

questions addressed to me provided they are articulated slowly and clearly.	STRONGLY AGREE	94	42%			6	50%		
S8: I can use time expressions such as "next week", "last Friday", "in November", and "at three o'clock."	STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	1%	4,48	0,76	0	0%	4,67	0,49
	DISAGREE	3	1%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	16	7%			0	0%		
	AGREE	69	31%			4	33%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	135	60%			8	67%		
S9: I can have simple conversations such as greeting.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	1	0%	4,38	0,76	0	0%	4,91	0,29
	DISAGREE	4	2%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	20	9%			0	0%		
	AGREE	83	37%			1	8%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	117	52%			11	92%		
S10: I can make and accept apologies.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	1	0%	4,26	0,85	0	0%	4,33	0,49
	DISAGREE	7	3%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	33	15%			0	0%		
	AGREE	75	33%			8	67%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	109	48%			4	33%		
S11: I can say what I like and dislike.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	1%	4,37	0,80	0	0%	4,91	0,29
	DISAGREE	3	1%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	25	11%			0	0%		
	AGREE	75	33%			1	8%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	120	53%			11	92%		

To evaluate the findings according to A1- Spoken Interaction level, the highest mean among the students is 'Statement 1' (4,47), although it has the highest standard

deviation (0,73). The lowest mean among the students is 'S4' (4,03), namely "I can make simple purchases where pointing or other gestures can support what I say". The second lowest mean with the highest standard deviation at the same time is in 'Statement 5' (0,86), namely 'I can ask people for things and give people things'. Considering the findings with 'Statement 4' and 'Statement 5', we can conclude that the students do not feel well enough to do a real transaction in a foreign environment.

According to the opinions of the teachers, there are two different statements which have the highest mean with the lowest standard deviation value, namely, 'Statement 9' and 'Statement 11' have the same mean and standard deviation values. 'Statement 9' says: "I can have simple conversations such as greetings" and 'Statement 11' says: "I can say that what I like and dislike". Because they both have the lowest standard deviation value, it is possible to say that the teachers mostly agree on these situations (1 teacher-agree, 11 teachers- strongly agree). The lowest mean among the opinions of the teacher is in 'Statement 3' (3,92), that is "I can make myself understood in a simple way but I am dependent on my partner being prepared to repeat more slowly and rephrase what I say and to help me to say what I want". The teachers mostly differ in 'Statement 2', that is "I can ask and answer simple questions, initiate and respond to simple statements on very familiar and everyday topics", since the standard deviation value is the highest in this statement (0,67; 1 teacher neutral-3 teachers agree-8 teachers strongly agree).

In this category, the teachers have more positive opinions comparing to the opinions of the students. In each statement, the teachers think more positively, except 'Statement 3'. Only in this statement, the students have more positive opinions comparing to those of the teachers. While the mean for students is 4,20, the mean for teachers is 3,92. The closest opinion between the students and the teachers is in 'Statement 4'; 4,03 and 4,08 respectively. The biggest difference between the opinions of the students and the teachers is in 'Statement 11'; 4,37 and 4,92 respectively.

4.2. Analysis of “A1-Spoken Production”

It is regarded that the teachers ($\bar{X}=4.75$) have more positive opinions than the students ($\bar{X}=3.99$) related to ‘A1-Spoken Production’. There is a statistically significant difference between the opinions of the teachers and of the students about ‘A1- Spoken Production’ ($p<0.05$). The students and the teachers do not have similar opinions related to ‘A1-Spoken Production’; they have different opinions. Actually the difference between the means of the students and of the teachers has the highest value among all the other categories. At the same time, the lowest significance level between the teachers and the students is again in this category, which is almost ‘0’. At the same time it is observed that the mean among the teachers has the highest value among all the categories, namely 4.75 (Table 4).

Table 6: The Distribution of the Opinions of the Students and the Teachers Related to CEFR “A1- Spoken Production”

A1- Spoken Production		STUDENT				TEACHER			
		N	%	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	%	Mean	Standard Deviation
S12: I can give personal information such as address, telephone number, nationality, age, family and hobbies.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	1%	3,95	0,95	0	0%	4,83	0,39
	DISAGREE	16	7%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	47	21%			0	0%		
	AGREE	87	39%			2	17%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	73	32%			10	83%		

S13: I can describe where I live and my neighborhood.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	0	0%	4,00	0,80	0	0%	4,33	0,78
	DISAGREE	11	5%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	38	17%			2	17%		
	AGREE	116	52%			4	33%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	60	27%			6	50%		
S14: I can tell my daily routines with a very basic language.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	1%	4,04	0,90	0	0%	4,75	0,45
	DISAGREE	7	3%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	51	23%			0	0%		
	AGREE	84	37%			3	25%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	81	36%			9	75%		

The means of the students are very close to each other; ‘Statement 12’-3,95, ‘Statement 13’-4, and ‘Statement 14’-4,04. However, the opinions of the students for ‘Statement 12’ (I can give personal information such as address, telephone number, nationality, age, family and hobbies) differs the most since the standard deviation value for this statement is 0,95. The lowest standard value among the students in this category is in ‘Statement 13’, that is “I can describe where I live and my neighbourhood”. The standard value for this statement is 0,80.

The means of the opinions of the teachers for the statements are as follows: ‘Statement 12’-4,83, ‘Statement 13’-4,33, and ‘Statement 14’-4,75. The biggest difference in the means between the students and the teachers among all the other statements is in ‘Statement 12’.

4.3. Analysis of A2- Spoken Interaction

It is observed that the teachers ($\bar{X}=3.98$) have more positive opinions than the students ($\bar{X}=3.58$) related to ‘A2-Spoken Interaction’. There is a statistically significant difference between the opinions of the teachers and of the students regarding ‘A2-Spoken Interaction’ ($p<0.05$). The students and the teachers do not have similar opinions related to ‘A2-Spoken Interaction’; they have different opinions. However, it should be noticed that ‘p’ value for this category (0,43) has a very close statistically significant level which is $p=0,05$ (Table 4).

Table 7: The Distribution of the Opinions of the Students and the Teachers Related to CEFR “A2- Spoken Interaction”

A2: Spoken Interaction		STUDENT				TEACHER			
		N	%	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	%	Mean	Standard Deviation
S15: I can make simple transactions in post offices, shops or banks.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	9	4%	3,18	0,92	0	0%	3,67	0,98
	DISAGREE	38	17%			1	8%		
	NEUTRAL	95	42%			5	42%		
	AGREE	70	31%			3	25%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	13	6%			3	25%		
S16: I can use public transport: buses, trains and taxies, ask for basic information and buy tickets.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	4	2%	3,53	0,91	0	0%	4,08	0,79
	DISAGREE	25	11%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	70	31%			3	25%		
	AGREE	99	44%			5	42%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	27	12%			4	33%		
S17: I can get information about the travel that I will do.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	1%	3,47	0,88	0	0%	3,67	0,49
	DISAGREE	29	13%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	78	35%			4	33%		

	AGREE	93	41%			8	67%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	23	10%			0	0%		
S18: I can order something to eat and drink.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	1%	3,95	0,86	0	0%	4,25	0,62
	DISAGREE	12	5%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	40	18%			1	8%		
	AGREE	112	50%			7	58%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	59	26%			4	33%		
S19: I can make simple purchases by stating what I want and asking the price.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	1	0%	4,00	0,89	0	0%	4,50	0,52
	DISAGREE	13	6%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	45	20%			0	0%		
	AGREE	91	40%			6	50%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	75	33%			6	50%		
S20: I can ask for and give directions by referring to a map or plan.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	7	3%	3,39	0,96	0	0%	4,00	0,63
	DISAGREE	33	15%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	73	32%			2	17%		
	AGREE	90	40%			8	67%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	22	10%			2	17%		
S21: I can make and respond to invitations.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	6	3%	3,48	0,94	0	0%	4,08	0,79
	DISAGREE	26	12%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	74	33%			3	25%		
	AGREE	92	41%			5	42%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	27	12%			4	33%		
S22: I can discuss with other people what to do, where to go and make arrangements to meet.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	1%	3,44	0,88	0	0%	3,41	0,51
	DISAGREE	30	13%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	84	37%			7	58%		
	AGREE	85	38%			5	42%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	24	11%			0	0%		

S23: I can ask people questions about what they do at work and in free time and answer such questions addressed to me.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	3	1%	3,77	0,94	0	0%	4,17	0,83
	DISAGREE	19	8%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	55	24%			3	25%		
	AGREE	97	43%			4	33%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	51	23%			5	42%		

The means in the student questionnaire in this category range from 4,00 (Statement 19) to 3,18 (Statement 15). The lowest standard deviation is in ‘Statement 18’ which is 0,86 and the highest standard deviation in this category is in ‘Statement 21’ which is 0,94.

The means in the teacher statements in this category range from 4,50 (Statement 19) to 3,42 (Statement 22). The standard deviations also range in a wide area from 0,98 (Statement 15) to 0,49 (Statement 17).

The closest mean between the opinions of the students and the teacher is in ‘Statement 22’. Therefore, the students and the teachers think about “I can discuss with other people what to do, where to go and make arrangement to meet” with almost the same means, namely, 3,44 and 3,41 respectively.

4.4. Analysis of A2-Spoken Production

It is regarded that the teachers ($\bar{X}=4.18$) have more positive opinions than the students ($\bar{X}=3.85$) related to “A2-Spoken Production”. However, there is not a

statistically significant difference between the opinions of the teachers and of the students about ‘A2- Spoken Production’ ($p>0.05$). The students and the teachers have similar opinions (Table 4).

While the means of the students in this category range from 4,08 (Statement 24) to 3,44 (Statement 25), the standard deviations range from 0,92 (Statement 25) to 0,84 (Statement 27).

The lowest mean of the teachers in this category is 3,75 in ‘Statement 25’ and the lowest standard deviation is 0,49 in ‘Statement 28’. On the other hand, the highest mean is 4,50 in ‘Statement 27’. Statements 24 and 26 share the same highest standard deviation value with 0,67.

Table 8: The Distribution of the Opinions of the Students and the Teachers Related To CEFR “A2- Spoken Production”

A2: Spoken Production		STUDENT				TEACHER			
		n	%	Mean	Standard Deviation	n	%	Mean	Standard Deviation
S24: I can talk about myself and my family and describe them.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	1%	4,08	0,88	0	0%	4,41	0,67
	DISAGREE	9	4%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	39	17%			1	8%		
	AGREE	94	42%			5	42%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	81	36%			6	50%		
S25: I can give basic descriptions of events.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	4	2%	3,44	0,92	0	0%	3,75	0,62
	DISAGREE	28	12%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	85	38%			4	33%		
	AGREE	80	36%			7	58%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	28	12%			1	8%		

S26: I can describe my educational background, my present or most recent job.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	1%	3,68	0,88	0	0%	3,91	0,67
	DISAGREE	17	8%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	72	32%			3	25%		
	AGREE	94	42%			7	58%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	40	18%			2	17%		
S27: I can describe my hobbies and interests in a simple way.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	1	0%	4,05	0,84	0	0%	4,50	0,52
	DISAGREE	8	4%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	42	19%			0	0%		
	AGREE	100	44%			6	50%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	74	33%			6	50%		
S28: I can describe past activities such as last week or my last holiday.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	1	0%	3,96	0,85	0	0%	4,33	0,49
	DISAGREE	10	4%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	50	22%			0	0%		
	AGREE	99	44%			8	67%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	65	29%			4	33%		

4.5. Analysis of B1-Spoken Interaction

It is regarded that the teachers ($\bar{X}=3.69$) have more positive opinions than the students ($\bar{X}=3.31$) related to 'B1-Spoken Interaction'. However, there is not a statistically significant difference between the opinions of the teachers and of the students regarding 'B1- Spoken Interaction' ($p>0.05$). The students and the teachers have similar opinions (Table 4).

In this section, we will add the results of DCT for triangulation of the findings. However, the significance levels of the students, teachers and the test group will be discussed in detail in section 4.7.

Table 9: The Distribution of the Opinions of the Students-the Teachers-the Test Group Related to CEFR “B1- Spoken Interaction”

B1: Spoken Interaction		STUDENT				TEACHER				KONTROL			
		N	%	M	Std. D.	N	%	M	Std. D.	N	%	M	Std. D.
S29: I can start, maintain and end a conversation about topics that are familiar of personal interest.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	1%	3,32	0,89	0	0%	3,75	0,45	0	0%	3,73	0,67
	DISAGREE	37	16%			0	0%			2	3%		
	NEUTRAL	95	42%			3	25%			17	28%		
	AGREE	70	31%			9	75%			36	60%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	21	9%			0	0%			5	8%		
S30: I can maintain a conversation or discussion but may sometimes be difficult to follow when trying to say exactly what I would like.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	13	6%	3,13	0,99	0	0%	3,67	0,49	1	2%	3,07	0,72
	DISAGREE	40	18%			0	0%			6	10%		
	NEUTRAL	95	42%			4	33%			27	45%		
	AGREE	59	26%			8	67%			23	38%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	18	8%			0	0%			3	5%		
S31: I can deal with most situations likely to arise when making travel arrangements through an agent or when actually travelling.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	11	5%	3,16	0,89	0	0%	3,42	0,79	1	2%	3,43	0,78
	DISAGREE	33	15%			1	8%			3	5%		
	NEUTRAL	97	43%			6	50%			24	40%		
	AGREE	77	34%			4	33%			26	43%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	7	3%			1	8%			6	10%		
S32: I can ask for and follow detailed directions.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	18	8%	2,78	0,95	0	0%	3,67	0,89	0	0%	4,28	0,59
	DISAGREE	70	31%			1	8%			0	0%		

	NEUTRAL	89	40%			4	33%			6	10%		
	AGREE	40	18%			5	42%			26	43%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	8	4%			2	17%			28	47%		
S33: I can express and respond to feelings such as surprise, happiness, sadness, interest and indifference.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	4	2%	3,62	0,90	0	0%	3,83	0,72	0	0%	3,83	0,64
	DISAGREE	19	8%			0	0%			0	0%		
	NEUTRAL	69	31%			4	33%			16	27%		
	AGREE	10 0	44%			6	50%			33	55%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	33	15%			2	17%			11	18%		
S34: I can give or ask for personal views in an informal discussion with friends.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	6	3%	3,45	0,97	0	0%	3,75	0,62	0	0%	3,67	0,75
	DISAGREE	30	13%			0	0%			3	5%		
	NEUTRAL	75	33%			4	33%			21	35%		
	AGREE	85	38%			7	58%			29	48%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	29	13%			1	8%			7	12%		
S35: I can agree and disagree politely.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	3	1%	3,73	0,98	0	0%	3,75	0,87	0	0%	3,79	0,69
	DISAGREE	24	11%			1	8%			3	5%		
	NEUTRAL	56	25%			3	25%			13	22%		
	AGREE	90	40%			6	50%			38	63%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	52	23%			2	17%			6	10%		

Among 41 statements, ‘Statement 32’ seems to have the lowest mean. Therefore, the students mostly feel that they are not good enough in asking for and follow detailed directions as ‘Statement 32’ states. The teachers for this statement think more positively with a mean of 3,67. However, the test group indicates a much higher mean. According to the test group, there is a much higher mean (4,28). This mean is also the highest point in the test group.

The lowest mean in the student questionnaire for this category is 3,72 in ‘Statement 35’, while the one for the teachers is 3,83 in ‘Statement 33’. Statements 34

and 35 have the same highest mean which is 3,75. On the other hand, the lowest mean in the test group is in 'Statement 30' (3,08). According to test group, therefore, the students have problems with "I can maintain a conversation or discussion but may sometimes be difficult to follow when trying to say exactly what I would like" as 'Statement 30' says.

Unlike the difference in the mean of 'Statement 32', we notice similarities among the means of the students, the teachers and the test group. First, the mean in the 'Statement 29' of the teacher is 3,75 and the one for this statement in the test group is 3,73. Just like this, the mean of the 'Statement 34' in the teachers' opinions is 3,75 and the one in the test group is 3,67. Similar to teacher opinions and test group, there are similarities between the students' opinions and the test group like in 'Statement 30'. In this statement, while the mean for the students is 3,13, the one in the test group is 3,08. In 'Statement 35', we see a similarity in the means of the three groups. For this statement, the mean for the students is 3,73, the one for the teachers is 3,75, and the one in the test group is 3,78.

4.6. Analysis of B1-Spoken Production

It is regarded that the teachers ($\bar{X}=3.24$) have more positive opinions than the students ($\bar{X}=3.16$) related to 'B1-Spoken Production'. However, there is not a statistically significant difference between the opinions of the teachers and of the students about 'B1- Spoken Production' ($p>0.05$). The students and the teachers have similar opinions. Actually the 'p' level (0,74) for this category has the highest value among other category. (Table 4).

Table 10: The Distribution of the Opinions of the Students-the Teachers-the Test Group Related to CEFR “B1- Spoken Production”

B1: Spoken Production		STUDENT				TEACHER				KONTROL			
		N	%	M	Std. D.	N	%	M	Std. D.	N	%	M	Std. D.
S36: I can give detailed accounts of experiences by describing feelings and reactions.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	16	7%	2,99	1,01	1	8%	3,33	1,07	0	0%	3,48	0,78
	DISAGREE	55	24%			1	8%			3	5%		
	NEUTRAL	81	36%			4	33%			19	32%		
	AGREE	61	27%			5	42%			30	50%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	12	5%			1	8%			8	13%		
S37: I can describe dreams, hopes and ambitions.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	10	4%	3,31	0,99	0	0%	3,17	0,58	0	0%	3,84	0,79
	DISAGREE	34	15%			1	8%			1	2%		
	NEUTRAL	79	35%			8	67%			17	28%		
	AGREE	81	36%			3	25%			20	33%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	21	9%			0	0%			22	37%		
S38: I can explain and give reasons for my plans, intentions and actions.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	12	5%	3,13	1,02	0	0%	3,58	0,67	0	0%	3,81	0,79
	DISAGREE	49	22%			0	0%			1	2%		
	NEUTRAL	79	35%			6	50%			17	28%		
	AGREE	66	29%			5	42%			21	35%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	19	8%			1	8%			21	35%		
S39: I can relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	11	5%	3,32	1,02	0	0%	2,83	0,38	0	0%	3,21	0,86
	DISAGREE	37	16%			2	17%			9	15%		
	NEUTRAL	69	31%			10	83%			24	40%		
	AGREE	85	38%			0	0%			20	33%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	23	10%			0	0%			7	12%		

S40: I can paraphrase short written passages orally in a simple way, using the wording and structure of the original text.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	9	4%	3,22	0,99	0	0%	3,08	0,67	2	3%	2,91	0,95
	DISAGREE	43	19%			2	17%			12	20%		
	NEUTRAL	82	36%			7	58%			26	43%		
	AGREE	71	32%			3	25%			13	22%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	20	9%			0	0%			7	12%		
S41: I can narrate a story.	STRONGLY DISAGREE	25	11%	2,96	1,12	0	0%	3,42	0,79	2	3%	2,92	0,95
	DISAGREE	53	24%			1	8%			12	20%		
	NEUTRAL	70	31%			6	50%			26	43%		
	AGREE	60	27%			4	33%			13	22%		
	STRONGLY AGREE	17	8%			1	8%			7	12%		

In this category, the means of the students range from 3,32 (Statement 39) to 2,96 (Statement 41) which is also the lowest mean among 41 statements. We see a very high standard deviation in this category ranging from 0,99 (Statement 37) to 1,12 (Statement 41) which is also the highest standard deviation of all.

The means of the teachers range from 3,42 (Statement 41) to 2,83 (Statement 39). ‘Statement 39’ (“I can relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions”) has the lowest teacher mean of all. Also ‘Statement 36’ (“I can give detailed accounts of experiences by describing feelings and reactions”) has the highest standard deviation value of all among the teachers. The lowest standard deviation of all the statements is also in this category, namely, in the ‘Statement 40’ and ‘Statement 41’ in both of which the mean is 2,92.

The highest mean in the test group for this category is in ‘Statement 37’. Therefore, we can say that the students can describe dreams, hopes and ambitions with a mean of 3,84 according to test results. The lowest means (2,92) in the results are both in the ‘Statement 40’ and ‘Statement 41’.

The most similar means in the students and the one in the test result are in ‘Statement 41’. ‘I can narrate a story’ statement has a 2,96 mean in the students’ and a mean of 2,92 in the test group.

4.7. Analysis of Triangulation of Student-Teacher-Test Groups

Besides the opinions of the teachers and of the students, a test group (60/225) was created and they were tested about their speaking levels according to CEFR “B1-Spoken Interaction and B1-Spoken Production” in order to understand whether there is a meaningful level of significance among these groups, namely, teachers and students.

According to these three groups, there is a significant difference related to B1-Spoken Interaction ($p < 0.05$). This difference seems to be only between the students and the test group on the grounds that teachers and the test group have exactly the same mean value (3,69). However, a significant differentiation was not observed among the evaluations about B1-Spoken Production extracted from these three different groups. While a discordance in ‘B1-Spoken Interaction’ is observed among the groups, it is possible to state that there is a concordance in ‘B1-Spoken Production’ among these three groups. In ‘B1-Spoken Production’ the means of the students, the teachers and control groups have a very similar mean; 3,16, 3,24 and 3,36 respectively.

The results are shown in Table 11 as follows:

Table 11: Significance Difference Between Students, Teachers and Test Groups

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Kruskall Walls Test / ANOVA test	p	Significant Difference
B1-Spoken Interaction	STUDENT	225	3,31	0,73	KW= 17,117	0,000*	*Student questionnaires and Test group
	TEACHER	12	3,69	0,50			
	TEST	60	3,69	0,33			
B1-Spoken Production	STUDENT	225	3,16	0,84	F=1,629	0,198	None
	TEACHER	12	3,24	0,41			
	TEST	60	3,36	0,66			

*p<0.05

Besides two sub-categories, namely, 'B1 Spoken Interaction' and 'B1 Spoken Production', the relationship between these three groups has also been questioned in order to justify the relationship of these groups in B1 as a roof category.

Table 12: The Significance of B1 Level between Students, Teachers and Test Groups

	STUDENT AND TEACHER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mann Whitney U	P
B1	STUDENT	225	3,26	0,80	1.119,000	0,281
	TEACHER	12	3,50	0,52		
B1	STUDENT	225	3,26	0,80	5.461,000	0,013*
	TEST	60	3,53	0,54		
B1	TEST	60	3,53	0,54	351,000	0,876
	TEACHER	12	3,50	0,52		

*p<0.05

It is observed that the teachers ($\bar{X}=3.50$) have more positive opinions than the students ($\bar{X}=3.26$) related to “B1”. However, there is not a statistically significant difference between the opinions of the teachers and of the students about ‘B1’ ($p>0.05$). The students and the teachers have similar opinions.

It is regarded that the test group students ($\bar{X}=3.53$) have more positive opinions than the students ($\bar{X}=3.26$) related to ‘B1’. It was observed that there is a statistically significance difference between the opinions of the test group and of the students about ‘B1’ ($p<0.05$). The test group and the students have different opinions.

It is evaluated that the test group ($\bar{X}=3.53$) have more positive opinions than the teachers ($\bar{X}=3.50$) related to ‘B1’. However, statistically, there is not a meaningful difference between the opinions of the test group and of the teachers about ‘B1’ ($p>0.05$). The test group and the teachers have similar opinions. Having a relatively very high ‘p’ value of 0,876 between the teachers and the test group, it would not be wrong to claim that the opinions of the teachers do not contradict with the findings in the test group at all. That is to say, evaluations of the teachers are more objective assuming that DCT test is reliable.

4.8. Conclusion

As a result, the 9th grade students at Ankara Police High School in the academic year 2009-2010 range their speaking performances from $\bar{X}=3,16$ (B1-Spoken Production) to $\bar{X}=42,7$ (A1-Spoken Interaction) according to criteria of CEFR. According to the assessment of the ELT teachers who taught English in 9th year in this academic year, it is clear that they range the speaking performances of their students from $\bar{X}=3,24$ (B1- Spoken Production) to $\bar{X}=4,75$ (A1-Spoken Interaction).

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

5.0. Introduction

In this part, a summary of the whole study will be presented: A summary of the literature reviewed and also of the descriptive research. Moreover, the results will be discussed in the light of pedagogical implications and recommendations for further researches will be made.

5.1 Overview and Assessment of the Study

This study aims to be a comprehensive analysis of the speaking levels of the Ankara Police High School 9th grade students in the academic year 2009-2010 according to Common European Language Framework of Reference for Languages speaking criteria. So as to determine what the final positions of the related students, a detailed study was carried out following a review of the related literature. Then, the findings were evaluated in detail.

Speaking, particularly, the assessment of speaking has always been one of the most difficult issues in the EFL/ESL field. First of all, it is important to understand the nature of speaking. GTM dominated European and foreign language teaching from the 1840s to the 1940s. The structured-based grammar translation method relied heavily on teaching grammar and practising translation as a main teaching and a learning activity. The understanding of giving a high priority to accuracy within this method has promoted the priority of communication to meet the worlds needs. Since then we have witnessed many other methods/approaches and it would not be wrong to claim that in recent years the field has tended to move away from dogmatic positions of 'right' or 'wrong', 'better' or 'worse', becoming much more eclectic in its attitudes, and more willing to recognize the potential merits of a wide variety of possible approaches and methods (Griffiths and Parr, 2001: 249). Without understanding how speech is produced, it is impossible to grasp the nature of speaking.

In the first phase of teaching speaking, accuracy was considered to be the prime important component of speaking. However, this view has changed by adding two other equally important terms, namely 'fluency' and 'complexity'. Today, language practitioners believe that the constructs of L2 performance and L2 proficiency are multi-componential in nature, and their principal dimensions can be adequately, and comprehensively, captured by the notions of complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF).

These features of a good speaking test are the notions of 'reliability', 'validity' and 'practicality'. CEFR is one of the most respected assessment systems not just in Europe but also in the whole world today. CEFR aims to describe "in a comprehensive way that language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively (COE, 2001: 1). CEFR also tries to define "levels of proficiency which allow learners' progress to be measured at each stage of learning and on a long life basis" (COE, 2001: 1). In this study, speaking competence of the students was assessed according to these levels of proficiency which are designed as 'can-do' statements.

While the universe of the students is 225, the universe of the teachers is 12. All of the related students and the teachers involved in this study without exception. In order to triangulate the results, a discourse completion test and an oral test were conducted among 60 students. These students were selected randomly from among these 225 students and they were tested for their spoken production and spoken interaction of CEFR-B1 level. While three of B1 statements (29th, 34th and 35th) were tested orally within groups of six students, DCT was applied for the remaining B1 statements. By means of test group, we aimed to see how objective and reliable both opinions of the teachers and of the students are.

The type of the questionnaires applied in this survey is descriptive. The questionnaires as well as the DCT and the oral test which were applied for triangulation can be said to be diagnostic, direct and criterion-referenced test. Firstly, a direct test is called direct when it requires the candidate to perform precisely the skill which is meant to measure. Direct testing is easier to apply when it is intended to measure the productive skills of speaking and writing. Secondly, each examinee's performance is compared to a pre-defined set of criteria or a standard in criterion-referenced tests. The goal with these tests is to determine whether or not the candidate has demonstrated the mastery of a certain skill or set of skills. Thirdly, diagnostic tests are used for the purpose of discovering a learner's specific strengths or weaknesses. The results may be used in making decisions on future training, learning or teaching (Alderson, 2005: 4).

The data gathered in these questionnaires and DCT were computed and evaluated by means of SPSS 18 software.

The result of the questionnaires according to 237 persons (225 students + 12 teachers) show that, as can be expected, as long as the level of competence increases (A1, A2 and B1), the means of the proficiency level of the applicants show a decreasing trend. To put it in other words, applicants think that the proficiency levels of the

students according to six sub-categories of CEFR differs (from 1(Strongly Disagree) to 5(Strongly Agree)) as follows:

- A1 Spoken Interaction: $\bar{X}=4,286$
- A1 Spoken Production: $\bar{X}=4,030$
- A2 Spoken Interaction: $\bar{X}=3,600$
- A2 Spoken Production: $\bar{X}=3,862$
- B1 Spoken Interaction: $\bar{X}=3,402$
- B1 Spoken Production: $\bar{X}=3,201$

As can be seen above, spoken interaction mean of A1 and B1 is higher than spoken production mean. However, spoken production in A2 is higher than spoken production in A2.

When the data of the students and of the teachers are evaluated differently, the results are as follows:

- A1 Spoken Interaction: Students: $\bar{X}=4,27$; Teachers: $\bar{X}=4,50$
- A1 Spoken Production: Students: $\bar{X}=3,99$; Teachers: $\bar{X}=4,75$
- A2 Spoken Interaction: Students: $\bar{X}=3,58$; Teachers: $\bar{X}=3,98$
- A2 Spoken Production: Students: $\bar{X}=3,85$; Teachers: $\bar{X}=4,18$
- B1 Spoken Interaction: Students: $\bar{X}=3,31$; Teachers: $\bar{X}=3,69$
- B1 Spoken Production: Students: $\bar{X}=3,16$; Teachers: $\bar{X}=3,24$

As can be seen above, the 9th grade students at Ankara Police High School in the academic year 2009-2010 range their speaking performances from $\bar{X}=3,16$ (B1-Spoken Production) to $\bar{X}=4,27$ (A1-Spoken Interaction) according to criteria of CEFR. According to the assessment of the ELT teachers who taught English in the 9th year in this academic year, it is clear that they range the speaking performances of their

students from $\bar{X}=3,24$ (B1- Spoken Production) to $\bar{X}=4,75$ (A1-Spoken Interaction). It is also possible to state that the ELT teachers have positive opinions in each category comparing to those of the students. Also it is observed that there is not a statistically significant difference between the opinions of the teachers and those of the students in A1-Spoken Interaction, A2- Spoken Production, B1-Spoken Interaction and B1- Spoken Production. The students and the teachers have similar opinions. On the other hand, there is a statistically significant difference between the opinions of the teachers and of the students in A1-Spoken Production, A2- Spoken Interaction. Namely, they have different opinions.

The findings for B1-Spoken Interaction show that there is a significant difference between the student questionnaires and the test group, whereas there is not a significant difference between the teacher questionnaires and the test group. In other words, the teachers and the test group have similar opinions but the students and the test group have different opinions for B1-Spoken Interaction. On the other hand, there is not a significant difference between the opinions of the students, teachers and the test group for B1- Spoken Production. That means they all have similar opinions for the B1-Spoken Production.

The significance level of B1 as a whole between the students, the teachers and the test group indicates that there is not a statistically significant difference between the students & the teachers and test group & teachers. It means they have similar opinions for B1 level. On the other hand, there is a statistically significant difference between the students and the test group. That is to say, they have different opinions for B1 level.

To summarize, it is possible to say that 9th grade students of Ankara Police High School in the academic year 2009-2010 have a relatively high level of competence in speaking according to CEFR speaking criteria ranging from $\bar{X}=3,16$ to $\bar{X}=4,27$ according to students and from $\bar{X}=3,24$ to $\bar{X}=4,75$ according to teachers.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations for Further Researches

There are 18 class hours of English lessons at Ankara Police High School. The course book (New Interchange Series) can be described as a communicative one and there is 10-class-hour 'Maincourse' course which aims mainly to support the communicative skills as well. There is also a 'Speaking and Listening' course of 4 class hours which mainly aim to support listening and speaking skills. In this lesson, the supplementary materials of Interchange Series are followed. Therefore, it can be claimed that there is a high emphasis on speaking, and thus, there is a relatively high level of speaking proficiency at the school as the results of the study show. The study also indicates that there are not striking problems among the students in speaking competence (with the exception of the issues of testing speaking which will be discussed later in this section). However, this level can be improved by taking some measures.

Self-awareness of the students seems to be the most vital element in improving speaking levels. The students should be fully aware of their strengths and weaknesses at the beginning, during their learning processes and at the end of the learning period. Therefore, it would be useful to set out the aims and to document these aims at the commencement of the academic semester/year. By means of setting out the aims beforehand, the students can be expected to adopt these aims. Automatically, their interests, motivation and involvements will improve by observing themselves throughout this learning process. One of the best ways to meet this aim is certainly to use ELP in foreign language learning. By using ELP, the students will be familiar with the aims; they will adhere to these aims and improve as a result.

As stated earlier, ELP goes parallel with the principles of CEFR. All the 'can-do' statements not only in speaking but also in other skills are clearly presented. Thus, it is possible for a student to take the overall picture of his language proficiency

throughout the learning process. Using ELP has many other advantages. One of these is the importance of feedback. It should be kept in mind that feedback given or received from other factors is an undeniable component of real life communication. Therefore, it is highly significant to integrate feedback processes in speaking instruction. By means of ELP, teachers can offer feedback to their students and (maybe more importantly) it enables students to receive and give feedback from and to their fellow students. Thus, it is recommended that teachers provide their students with the opportunity to give feedback to their peers and receive feedback from them, which it is hoped will supply the ninth grade students with improving and differing perspectives with the assistance of peer-to-peer collaboration.

The application of ELP will make it necessary to re-design the syllabus. Firstly, communicative strategies suggested by CEFR should be interspersed in the new syllabus. While preparing the syllabus, content, the order of the subjects and the convenience of the level should be re-considered and they should be made attractive, meaningful and up-to-date. Direct involvement of the students in the preparation phase is also vital. The teachers should share the responsibility of the instructional design with the students. The students cannot be expected to prepare everything but their thought, opinions, needs, expectations, and experiences should be regarded so that learning phase will, undoubtedly, be facilitated. If the content is selected in parallel to real life and in parallel to their future professional life, it can be expected that the students will put extra effort to carry out the aims even away from the classroom environment. For this purpose, a questionnaire (a revised and developed version of Eroglu's(2006) study) was administered to the 9th grade students in 2010-2011. The result of the questionnaire was presented in Appendix 7.

One vital factor that should be taken into consideration is that the teachers should be trained with regard of how to teach and present speaking skills, how to encourage their students to speak and practice and how to monitor and guide them with the future syllabus.

The only serious problem which was observed during the study at Ankara Police High School is that speaking is not tested, although there is a separate ‘listening and speaking’ course. If the exams of ‘listening and speaking’ lesson and also of ‘maincourse’ course are observed, it can be clearly seen that speaking is not tested in these exams. Although there are some situational questions (which form only a limited percentage of the total exams), the exams consist of mainly reading, listening, writing, grammar and vocabulary. ‘What is taught should be tested’ is an undeniably vital principle but because of some kinds of technical, administrative, time etc. problems the teachers tend not to test speaking in the exams. Instead, some of the teachers (not all) tend to evaluate the performances in the class environment. For this reason, after the components of the syllabus are available, it is time to develop speaking tests in line with the course syllabus. The tasks, topics or activities should not be above students’ abilities, competence and level (Hughes, 1990: 106). The content of the oral tests should cover the points that are in the syllabus of the course (p. 105). Effective rubrics should be developed in line with CEFR speaking criteria in the speaking exams. One final important factor is that the tests should encourage students to practice their speaking performances and feedback at the end of the lessons, thus, this should be given to the students.

Recommendations for further studies can be stated as follows:

- When this study was implemented, the students were not aware of CEFR or ELP. Another study can be fulfilled at this age level with the same circumstances after the use of ELP. By means of this, relationship between the use of ELP and the results following could be re-searched. Considering that this study was only carried out in terms of speaking, it is possible to carry out other researches in assessing other skills.
- Taking into consideration that this study was result-oriented, other studies could be carried out in a process-oriented manner. That is to say, in this study, the final speaking situation of the students was evaluated. Another study which takes into consideration of the students’ performances at regular intervals might lead to a better understanding of the development of the students at different times. That is supposed to

be a more effective way to enable us see how each task, activity, exercise etc. yield to the development of each specific speaking proficiency. In this kind of research, other types of assessment techniques could be used instead of questionnaires and DCT.

- This study was carried out at a state-boarding school where 18 class hours of English are held per week. All the students are 15 year old male students. Other studies could be carried out at different state-private schools, for the different grades, with differing class hours, among girls or mixed schools with different age groups.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

The Questionnaire for Students

Dear Student

We are carrying out a research about speaking levels of the 9th grade students of Ankara Police College. It will not affect your grades in anyway and all the information you give will be kept confidential. We would only like to measure what speaking levels Ankara Police College 9th students are. There are 41 questions in this questionnaire and all the questions are stated both in Turkish and in English. You are expected to rate these questions from 1 to 5 (from “totally disagree” to “totally agree”). After reading each question, please just put an “X” to the place that best describes you in your speaking ability.

Thank you in advance for giving your objective and honest opinions.

Baykal Tıraş

EFL Teacher

		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
1	Tanışma, selamlaşma ve vedalaşmaya ilişkin kalıp ifadeleri kullanabilirim. I can introduce somebody and use basic greetings and leave taking expressions.	()	()	()	()	()
2	Çok bildik ve günlük konularda basit konuşmaları başlatıp karşılık vererek basit soru ve cevaplar üretebilirim. I can ask and answer simple questions, initiate and respond to simple statements on very familiar and everyday topics.	()	()	()	()	()
3	Konuştüğüm kişinin söylenenleri yavaş bir şekilde tekrar edip söylemek istediğimi ifade etmeme yardımcı olması durumunda kendimi basit bir şekilde ifade edebilirim. I can make myself understood in a simple way but I am dependent on my partner being prepared to repeat more slowly and rephrase what I say and to help me to say what I want.	()	()	()	()	()
4	Konuşmamı destekleyen jest ve mimiklerin yardımıyla küçük alışverişler yapabilirim. I can make simple purchases where pointing or other gestures can support what I say.	()	()	()	()	()
5	Rakam, miktar, fiyat ve saat ile ilgili ifadeleri kullanabilirim. I can handle numbers, quantities, costs and times.	()	()	()	()	()
6	Herhangi birşeyi isteyebilir ve istenilen birşeyi verebilirim. I can ask people for things and give people things.	()	()	()	()	()
7	Kişilere nerede yaşadıkları, kimleri tanıdıkları ve sahip oldukları şeylere ilişkin sorular sorabilir ve bu tür soruları yavaş ve açık sorulduğunda yanıtlayabilirim. I can ask people questions about where they live, people they know, things they have, etc. and answer such questions addressed to me provided they are articulated slowly and clearly.	()	()	()	()	()
8	"Gelecek Hafta", "geçen Cuma", "Kasım'da" ve "saat 3'te" gibi zaman ifadelerini kullanabilirim. I can use time expressions such as "next week", "last Friday", "in November", and "at three o'clock."	()	()	()	()	()
9	Hal hatır sorma gibi basit sohbetler yapabilirim. I can have simple conversations such as greeting.	()	()	()	()	()
10	Özür dileyebilir ve özürleri kabul edebilirim. I can make and accept apologies.	()	()	()	()	()
11	Hoşlandığım ve hoşlanmadığım şeyleri söyleyebilirim. I can say what I like and dislike.	()	()	()	()	()
12	Adres, telefon numarası, uyruk, yaş, aile ve hobiler gibi kişisel bilgileri verebilirim. I can give personal information such as address, telephone number, nationality, age, family and hobbies.	()	()	()	()	()
13	Yaşadığım yeri ve çevreyi tanımlayabilirim. I can describe where I live and my neighborhood.	()	()	()	()	()
14	Basit bir dille günlük hayatta neler yaptığımı ilişkin bilgi verebilirim. I can tell my daily routines with a very basic language.	()	()	()	()	()
15	Postane ya da bankalardaki basit işlemleri yapabilirim. I can make simple transactions in post offices, shops or banks.	()	()	()	()	()

		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
16	Toplu taşıma araçlarını (otobüs, tren, taksi vb.) kullanabilmek için gerekli bilgileri isteyebilir ve bilet satın alabilirim. I can use public transport: buses, trains and taxis, ask for basic information and buy tickets.	()	()	()	()	()
17	Yapacağım bir seyahatle ilgili bilgi alabilirim. I can get information about the travel that I will do.	()	()	()	()	()
18	Yiyecek ve içecek birşeyler sipariş edebilirim. I can order something to eat and drink.	()	()	()	()	()
19	Ne istediğimi belirtip fiyat sorarak basit alışverişler yapabilirim. I can make simple purchases by stating what I want and asking the price.	()	()	()	()	()
20	Bir harita ya da şehir planına bakarak yön tarifi yapabilir ve isteyebilirim. I can ask for and give directions by referring to a map or plan.	()	()	()	()	()
21	Davette bulunabilir ve gelen davetlere cevap verebilirim. I can make and respond to invitations.	()	()	()	()	()
22	Ne yapılacağı, nereye gidileceği gibi, buluşma planlarına ilişkin fikir alışverişi yapabilirim. I can discuss with other people what to do, where to go and make arrangements to meet.	()	()	()	()	()
23	Kişilere işte ve boş zamanlarında neler yaptıkların sorabilir ve bu tür soruları cevaplayabilirim. I can ask people questions about what they do at work and in free time and answer such questions addressed to me.	()	()	()	()	()
24	Kendimden ve ailemden bahsedebilir ve onları tanıtabilirim. I can talk about myself and my family and describe them.	()	()	()	()	()
25	Olayları ana hatlarıyla anlatabilirim. I can give basic descriptions of events.	()	()	()	()	()
26	Eğitim durumumu, önceki ya da şu anki işimi anlatabilirim. I can describe my educational background, my present or most recent job.	()	()	()	()	()
27	Basit bir şekilde hobilerim ve ilgi alanlarımdan bahsedebilirim. I can describe my hobbies and interests in a simple way.	()	()	()	()	()
28	Haftasonu ve tatil etkinlikleri gibi geçmiş olayları anlatabilirim. I can describe past activities such as last week or my last holiday.	()	()	()	()	()
29	Bilinen ya da ilgi alanıma giren konulardan oluşan bir konuşmayı başlatabilir, sürdürebilir ve bitirebilirim. I can start, maintain and end a conversation about topics that are familiar or of personal interest.	()	()	()	()	()
30	Bazen tam istediğimi söylemem ya da söyleneni takip etmem zor olsa bile bir konuşma ya da tartışmayı sürdürebilirim. I can maintain a conversation or discussion but may sometimes be difficult to follow when trying to say exactly what I would like.	()	()	()	()	()

		Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
31	Yolculuk planlarında ya da yolculuk sırasında karşılaşılabileceğim durumlarda derdimi anlatabilirim. I can deal with most situations likely to arise when making travel arrangements through an agent or when actually travelling.	()	()	()	()	()
32	Ayrıntılı yön tarifi isteyebilir ve anlatılanları takip edebilirim. I can ask for and follow detailed directions.	()	()	()	()	()
33	Şaşırma, mutluluk, üzüntü, ilgilenme ve kayıtsızlık gibi duyguları ifade edip bunlara karşılık verebilirim. I can express and respond to feelings such as surprise, happiness, sadness, interest and indifference.	()	()	()	()	()
34	Samimi bir ortamda yapılan tartışmalarda arkadaşlarıma görüşlerimi belirtebilir ya da onların görüşlerini alabilirim. I can give or ask for personal views in an informal discussion with friends.	()	()	()	()	()
35	Bir görüşe katılıp katılmadığımı kibar bir dille ifade edebilirim. I can agree and disagree politely.	()	()	()	()	()
36	Duygu ve düşüncelerimi katarak deneyimlerimi ayrıntılarıyla ifade edebilirim. I can give detailed accounts of experiences by describing feelings and reactions.	()	()	()	()	()
37	Hayallerimi, umutlarımı ve amaçlarımı ifade edebilirim. I can describe dreams, hopes and ambitions.	()	()	()	()	()
38	Planlarımı, hedef ve davranışlarımı nedenleriyle açıklayabilirim. I can explain and give reasons for my plans, intentions and actions.	()	()	()	()	()
39	Bir kitap ya da filmin konusu hakkında bilgi verebilir ya da düşüncelerimi söyleyebilirim. I can relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.	()	()	()	()	()
40	Kısa bir yazıyı metne sadık kalarak sözlü olarak basit bir dille anlatabilirim. I can paraphrase short written passages orally in a simple way, using the wording and structure of the original text.	()	()	()	()	()
41	Öykü anlatabilirim. I can narrate a story.	()	()	()	()	()

APPENDIX 2

The Questionnaire For Efl Teachers

Dear EFL Teacher

We are conducting a research about the speaking level of your students according to Common European Framework of Reference for Languages Criteria. We will evaluate the speaking levels of the 9th grade students at Ankara Polis College. Your objective answers are of vital importance for this research. Therefore, we would like to ask you to evaluate your students in general according to the statements stated below.

Thank you for your cooperation in advance.

	Please rate the questions below from 1 to 5 by putting an “X” in the blanks. MY STUDENTS IN GENERAL	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
1	can introduce somebody and use basic greetings and leave taking expressions.	()	()	()	()	()
2	can ask and answer simple questions, initiate and respond to simple statements on very familiar and everyday topics.	()	()	()	()	()
3	can make himself understood in a simple way but he is dependent on his partner being prepared to repeat more slowly and rephrase what he says and to help him to say what he wants.	()	()	()	()	()
4	can make simple purchases where pointing or other gestures can support what he says.	()	()	()	()	()
5	can handle numbers, quantities, costs and times.	()	()	()	()	()
6	can ask people for things and give people things.	()	()	()	()	()
7	can ask people questions about where they live, people they know, things they have, etc. and answer such questions addressed to them provided they are articulated slowly and clearly.	()	()	()	()	()
8	can use time expressions such as "next week", "last Friday", "in November", and "at three o'clock."	()	()	()	()	()
9	can have simple conversations such as greeting.	()	()	()	()	()
10	can make and accept apologies.	()	()	()	()	()
11	can say what he likes and dislikes.	()	()	()	()	()
12	can give personal information such as address, telephone number, nationality, age, family and hobbies.	()	()	()	()	()
13	can describe where he lives and his neighbourhood.	()	()	()	()	()
14	can tell his daily routines with a very basic language.	()	()	()	()	()
15	can make simple transactions in post offices, shops or banks.	()	()	()	()	()
16	can use public transport: buses, trains and taxis, ask for basic information and buy tickets.	()	()	()	()	()
17	can get information about the travel that he will do.	()	()	()	()	()
18	can order something to eat and drink.	()	()	()	()	()

19	can make simple purchases by stating what he wants and asking the price.	()	()	()	()	()
20	can ask for and give directions by referring to a map or plan.	()	()	()	()	()
21	can make and respond to invitations.	()	()	()	()	()
22	can discuss with other people what to do, where to go and make arrangements to meet.	()	()	()	()	()
23	can ask people questions about what he does at work and in free time and answers such questions addressed to him.	()	()	()	()	()
24	can talk about himself and his family and describe them.	()	()	()	()	()
25	can give basic descriptions of events.	()	()	()	()	()
26	can describe his educational background, his present or most recent job.	()	()	()	()	()
27	can describe his hobbies and interests in a simple way.	()	()	()	()	()
28	can describe past activities such as last week or his last holiday.	()	()	()	()	()
29	can start, maintain and end a conversation about topics that are familiar or of personal interest.	()	()	()	()	()
30	can maintain a conversation or discussion but may sometimes be difficult to follow when trying to say exactly what he would like.	()	()	()	()	()
31	can deal with most situations likely to arise when making travel arrangements through an agent or when actually travelling.	()	()	()	()	()
32	can ask for and follow detailed directions.	()	()	()	()	()
33	can express and respond to feelings such as surprise, happiness, sadness, interest and indifference.	()	()	()	()	()
34	can give or ask for personal views in an informal discussion with friends.	()	()	()	()	()
35	can agree and disagree politely.	()	()	()	()	()
36	can give detailed accounts of experiences by describing feelings and reactions.	()	()	()	()	()
37	can describe dreams, hopes and ambitions.	()	()	()	()	()
38	can explain and give reasons for his plans, intentions and actions.	()	()	()	()	()
39	can relate the plot of a book or film and describe his reactions	()	()	()	()	()
40	can paraphrase short written passages orally in a simple way, using the wording and structure of the original text.	()	()	()	()	()
41	can narrate a story.	()	()	()	()	()

APPENDIX 3

Discourse Completion Test

İNGİLİZCE KONUŞMA İÇİN ÇALIŞMA KAĞIDI

(A) Avrupa Birliği tarafından desteklenen bir gençlik programı kapsamında İngiltere’de bulunuyorsunuz. Toplantıya farklı milletlerden kişiler katılıyor ve gençliğin eğitim sorunlarını tartışıyorsunuz. Herkesin konuşmasını **tam olarak anlayamıyorsunuz**, buna rağmen konuşmaya katılıp ülkenizde eğitimin nasıl olduğu hakkındaki görüşlerinizi şu şekilde ifade ediyorsunuz:

Görüşleriniz:.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

(B) Bir arkadaşınızla birlikte trenle Avrupa seyahati kapsamında Amsterdam’dan Paris’e gitmek istiyorsunuz. Bu amaçla bilet satış bölümüne gidip **tren saatleri, bilet fiyatları, indirim durumu (örneğin, öğrenci, genç, hafta sonu v.b.) ve yolculuğun süresi** hakkında bilgi almak için şu **soruları** yöneltiyorsunuz:

Soru 1 (tren saatleri hakkında):.....?

Soru 2 (yolculuğun süresi hakkında):.....?

Soru 1 (bilet fiyatları hakkında):.....?

Soru 2 (indirim durumu hakkında):.....?

(C) Paris’e vardınız. İlk olarak Eyfel Kulesi’ni görmek istiyorsunuz. Ancak nasıl gidileceğini bilmiyorsunuz. Tren istasyonundan Eyfel Kulesi’ne nasıl gidebileceğinizi bir kişiye sorunuz:

Soru:.....?

Cevap olarak aşağıdaki şekilde cevap aldınız. Bunu İngilizce olarak söyleyiniz.
“*Hmm, Eyfel Kulesi’ne metroyla gidebilirsiniz. Buradan direkt olarak Paris Metrosuna binin. Eyfel Kulesine en yakın metro durağının adı Champ de Mars durağıdır. Burada indikten sonra elli metre yürüdükten sonra Eyfel’i göreceksiniz.*”

Siz:.....
.....
.....
.....

(D) Aşağıdaki durumlarda de dersiniz?

a. Anne-babanız sizi aniden memleketinizden gelerek yatılı olarak okuduğunuz okulunuzda ziyarete gelirler. Şaşkınlığınızı ve mutluluğunuzu onlara ifade ediniz.

Siz:
.....

b. Ancak anneniz yakın bir akrabanızın yakın zamanda ciddi bir trafik kazası geçirdiğini söyler. Bu durum karşısındaki üzüntünüzü ifade ediniz ve olayın ayrıntılarıyla ilgilendiğinizi belirten bir şeyler sorunuz.

Siz:
.....

(E) Unutamadığınız bir deneyimi o anki duygu ve düşüncelerinizi ifade ederek anlatınız:

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

(F) Gelecekteki en büyük hayaliniz nedir? Bu hayalinizi nedenleriyle birlikte açıklayınız.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

(G) İzlediğiniz bir film hakkında kısaca bilgi verip, bu film hakkındaki kişisel görüşlerinizi açıklayınız.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

(H) Bildiğiniz kısa bir fıkrayı anlatınız.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

APPENDIX 4

Common Reference Levels: Global Scale

(CoE, 2001:24).

Proficient User	C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
Independent User	B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics, which are familiar, or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
Basic User	A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

APPENDIX 5

Self-Assessment Grid

(COE, 2001:26-27)

		Reception		Interaction		Production	
		Listening	Reading	Spoken Interaction	Written Interaction	Spoken Production	Written Production
C2		I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language, whether live or broadcast, even when delivered at fast native speed, provided I have some time to get familiar with the accent.	I can read with ease virtually all forms of the written language, including abstract structurally or linguistically complex texts such as manuals, specialised articles and literary works.	I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. If I do have a problem I can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it.	I can express myself with clarity and precision, relating to the addressee flexibly and effectively in an assured, personal, style.	I can present a clear, smoothly-flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context and with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points.	I can write clear, smoothly flowing text in an appropriate style. I can write complex letters, reports or articles, which present a case with an effective logical structure, which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points. I can write summaries and reviews of professional or literary works.
	C1	I can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. I can understand television programmes and films without too much effort.	I can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. I can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field.	I can express myself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. I can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution skilfully to those of other speakers		I can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion	I can express myself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. I can write detailed expositions of complex subjects in an essay or a report, underlining what I consider to be the salient issues. I can write different kinds of texts in a style appropriate to the reader in mind.

B2	<p>I can understand extended speech and lectures and follow even complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. I can understand most TV news and current affairs programmes. I can understand the majority of films in standard dialect.</p>	<p>I can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular stances or viewpoints. I can understand contemporary literary prose.</p>	<p>I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views.</p>	<p>I can write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences.</p>	<p>I can present clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to my field of interest. I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.</p>	<p>I can write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view.</p>
B1	<p>I can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. I can understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear.</p>	<p>I can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency everyday or job-related language. I can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters.</p>	<p>I can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events).</p>	<p>I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.</p>	<p>I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes & ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.</p>	<p>I can write straightforward connected text on topics, which are familiar, or of personal interest.</p>

A2	<p>I can understand phrases and the highest frequency vocabulary related to areas of most immediate personal relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). I can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements</p>	<p>I can read very short, simple texts. I can find specific, predictable information in simple everyday material such as advertisements, prospectuses, menus and timetables and I can understand short simple personal letters</p>	<p>I can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar topics and activities. I can handle very short social exchanges, even though I can't usually understand enough to keep the conversation going myself.</p>	<p>I can write short, simple notes and messages relating to matters in areas of immediate need. I can write a very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.</p>	<p>I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people, living conditions, my educational background and my present or most recent job</p>	<p>I can write a series of simple phrases and sentences linked with simple connectors like "and", "but" and "because".</p>
A1	<p>I can recognise familiar words and very basic phrases concerning myself, my family and immediate concrete surroundings when people speak slowly and clearly.</p>	<p>I can understand familiar names, words and very simple sentences, for example on notices and posters or in catalogues.</p>	<p>I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say. I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.</p>	<p>I can write a short, simple postcard, for example sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.</p>	<p>I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.</p>	<p>I can write simple isolated phrases and sentences</p>

APPENDIX 6

Qualitative Aspects of Spoken Language Use

(CoE, 2001: 28-29)

	RANGE	ACCURACY	FLUENCY	INTERACTION	COHERENCE
C2	Shows great flexibility reformulating ideas in differing linguistic forms to convey finer shades of meaning precisely, to give emphasis, to differentiate and to eliminate ambiguity. Also has a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms.	Maintains consistent grammatical control of complex language, even while attention is otherwise engaged (e.g. in forward planning, in monitoring others' reactions).	Can express him/herself spontaneously at length with a natural colloquial flow, avoiding or backtracking around any difficulty so smoothly that the interlocutor is hardly aware of it.	Can interact with ease and skill, picking up and using non-verbal and intonational cues apparently effortlessly. Can interweave his/her contribution into the joint discourse with fully natural turntaking, referencing, allusion making etc.	Can create coherent and cohesive discourse making full and appropriate use of a variety of organisational patterns and a wide range of connectors and other cohesive devices.
C1	Has a good command of a broad range of language allowing him/her to select a formulation to express him/ herself clearly in an appropriate style on a wide range of general, academic, professional or leisure topics without having to restrict what he/she wants to say.	Consistently maintains a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors are rare, difficult to spot and generally corrected when they do occur.	Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language.	Can select a suitable phrase from a readily available range of discourse functions to preface his remarks in order to get or to keep the floor and to relate his/her own contributions skilfully to those of other speakers.	Can produce clear, smoothly flowing, well-structured speech, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
B2	Has a sufficient range of language to be able to give clear descriptions, express viewpoints on most general topics, without much conspicuous searching for words, using some complex sentence forms to do so.	Shows a relatively high degree of grammatical control. Does not make errors which cause misunderstanding, and can correct most of his/her mistakes.	Can produce stretches of language with a fairly even tempo; although he/she can be hesitant as he or she searches for patterns and expressions, there are few noticeably long pauses.	Can initiate discourse, take his/her turn when appropriate and end conversation when he / she needs to, though he /she may not always do this elegantly. Can help the discussion along on familiar ground confirming comprehension, inviting others in, etc.	Can use a limited number of cohesive devices to link his/her utterances into clear, coherent discourse, though there may be some "jumpiness" in a long contribution.
B1	Has enough language to get by, with sufficient vocabulary to express him/herself with some hesitation and circumlocutions on topics such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events.	Uses reasonably accurately a repertoire of frequently used "routines" and patterns associated with more predictable situations.	Can keep going comprehensibly, even though pausing for grammatical and lexical planning and repair is very evident, especially in longer stretches of free production.	Can initiate, maintain and close simple face-to-face conversation on topics that are familiar or of personal interest. Can repeat back part of what someone has said to confirm mutual understanding.	Can link a series of shorter, discrete simple elements into a connected, linear sequence of points.
A2	Uses basic sentence patterns with memorised phrases, groups of a few words and formulae in order to communicate limited information in simple everyday situations.	Uses some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes.	Can make him/herself understood in very short utterances, even though pauses, false starts and reformulation are very evident.	Can answer questions and respond to simple statements. Can indicate when he/she is following but is rarely able to understand enough to keep conversation going of his/her own accord.	Can link groups of words with simple connectors like "and", "but" and "because".
A1	Has a very basic repertoire of words and simple phrases related to personal details and particular concrete situations.	Shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a memorised repertoire.	Can manage very short, isolated, mainly pre-packaged utterances, with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words, and to repair communication.	Can ask and answer questions about personal details. Can interact in a simple way but communication is totally dependent on repetition, rephrasing and repair.	Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like "and" or "then".

APPENDIX 7

ANKARA POLICE HIGH SCHOOL

The Result of the Questionnaires to Identify the Interests of the Students

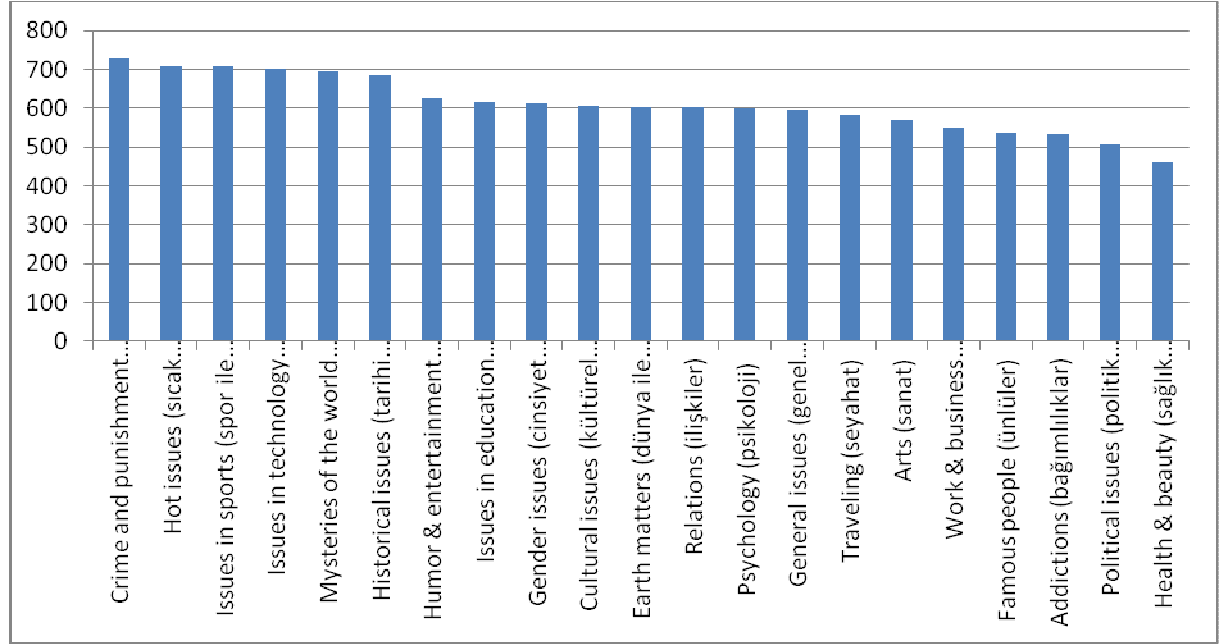
The questionnaire designed to identify the interests of the 9th grade students in the academic year 2010-2011 was administered to all the related students. The data was analyzed in EXCEL 2007. The questionnaire consists of 21 categories and 225 items in total. The students were asked to rate each item as following: 1 Boring , 2 Normal, 3 Interesting. The data was presented from the highest point to the lowest, namely from the most interesting to the least interesting. For a better understanding, all the items were presented in English and in Turkish.

The universe of the scale is 225. Therefore, the minimum point is 225 and the maximum point is 775.

Subjects	Average
Crime and punishment (suç ve ceza)	728
Hot issues (sıcak meseleler)	708
Issues in sports (spor ile ilgili konular)	707
Issues in technology (teknoloji ile ilgili konular)	703
Mysteries of the world (dünyanın gizemleri)	695
Historical issues (tarihi konular)	685
Humor & entertainment (mizah ve eğlence)	626
Issues in education (eğitim ile ilgili konular)	615
Gender issues (cinsiyet ile ilgili konular)	612
Cultural issues (kültürel meseleler)	605
Earth matters (dünya ile ilgili meseleler)	604
Relations (ilişkiler)	603
Psychology (psikoloji)	601
General issues (genel meseleler)	596
Traveling (seyahat)	584
Arts (sanat)	571

Work & business (çalışma ve iş hayatı)	551
Famous people (ünlüler)	538
Addictions (bağımlılıklar)	532
Political issues (politik meseleler)	508
Health & beauty (sağlık ve güzellik)	460

General Average



A. EARTH MATTERS (DÜNYA İLE İLGİLİ MESELELER)

	Total
Creation of the Earth (Dünyanın Yaradılışı)	746
Endangered Species (Nesli Tehlikeye Girmiş Türler)	744
Accidents (Kazalar)	742
War (Savaş)	736
Land Mines (Kara Mayınları)	729
Nuclear Weapons and Plants (Nükleer Silahlar ve Nükleer Enerji Santralleri)	727
Natural Disasters (Doğal Afetler)	710
Hunger (Açlık)	702
Extinct Species; Dinosaurs (Nesli Tükenmiş Türler; Dinazorlar)	698
Natural Beauties of the World (Dünyanın Doğal Güzellikleri)	698
World Peace (Dünya Barışı)	682
Refugees (Mülteciler)	644
Sources of Energy (Enerji Kaynakları)	629
Save the World (Dünyayı Korumak)	628
Geographical Events (Coğrafi Olaylar, Fırtına, Şimşek, Hortum)	587
Global Warming (Küresel Isınma)	568
Acid Rain (Asit Yağmurları)	488

Ecology (Ekoloji)	456
Recycling (Geri Dönüşüm)	422
Rain Forests (Yağmur Ormanları)	416
Increasing Population (Nüfus Artışı)	398
Urbanization (Şehirleşme)	385
Globalization (Küreselleşme)	362
General Average	604

B. ISSUES IN EDUCATION (EĞİTİM İLE İLGİLİ KONULAR)

Study Abroad (Yurtdışında Okuma)	743
Learn to Learn (Öğrenmeyi Öğrenme)	722
Education Through Internet (İnternet Tabanlı Eğitim)	712
Learning a Language (Yabancı Dil Öğrenme)	704
Life at Police College and Academy (Polis Koleji ve Akademisinde Hayat)	688
Problems in Education (Eğitimde Problemler)	683
Distance Learning and Home Schooling (Uzaktan Öğretim ve Evde Eğitim)	549
Educational Policies and Trends (Eğitim Politikaları ve Akımları)	528
The History of Languages (Dil Tarihi)	432
Public Versus Private Education (Devlet Okulları ve Özel Okullar)	388
General Average	615

C. ISSUES IN TECHNOLOGY (TEKNOLOJİ İLE İLGİLİ KONULAR)

Hidden Messages (Gizli Mesajlar; Kodlar, Şifreler)	748
Intelligence (İstihbarat)	746
Identity Recognition (Kimlik Teşhisi; Yüz, Göz, DNA, Parmak İzi)	745
Robots Versus Humans (Robotlar ve İnsanlar)	738
Time Travelling (Zamanda Seyahat)	735
Surveillance (Gözleme, İzleme; MOBESE)	732
Artificial Intelligence (Yapay Zeka)	728
Defense Warfare Systems (Savunma Sistemleri; Kalkan, Füze, Radar)	728
Internet (İnternet)	722
Virtual World (Sanal Dünya)	719
Nanotechnology (Nanoteknoloji)	711
Really Big Things (Devasa Yapılar ve Araçlar)	711
Latest and Strange Inventions (Son ve İlginç İcatlar)	706
Space and Galaxies (Uzay ve Evren)	704
Robotics (Robot Teknolojisi)	703
NASA (NASA)	698
Designing a Web Site (Web sitesi Dizayn Etme)	693
Telecommunication (İletişim)	687
How is it made? (Nasıl Yapılır?)	687
Fast and Expensive (En Hızlı ve En Pahalı Arabalar)	684
Life in the Future (Gelecekte Yaşam)	649
Advantages and Disadvantages of Technology (Teknolojinin Avantaj ve Dezavantajları)	489
General Average	703

D. ARTS (SANAT)

Cinema (Sinema)	706
Fantasy (Fantazi; Ejderhalar, Hobitler, Cinler, Periler)	673
Music (Müzik)	648
Architecture; European, Ottoman, Seljuki (Mimari; Avrupa, Osmanlı, Selçuklu)	618
Great Monuments (Görkemli Anıtlar)	603
Pop Art (Popüler Sanat)	598
Modern Versus Classic Art (Modern ve Klasik Sanat)	585
Literature (Edebiyat)	584
Famous People in the Art World (Sanat Dünyasından Ünlüler)	582
Visual Arts (Görsel Sanatlar)	502
Fashion (Moda)	386
Poem (Şiir)	368
General Average	571

E. CULTURAL ISSUES (KÜLTÜREL MESELELER)

Culture Shock (Kültür Şoku)	478
Popular Culture (Popüler Kültür)	587
Youth Culture (Gençlik Kültürü)	638
Different Cultures of the World (Farklı Kültürler)	621
Acculturation (Kültür Yozlaşması)	668
Assimilation (Asimilasyon)	598
Losing the Cultural Identity (Kültürel Kimliğin Kaybolması)	603
Codes of Conducts (Davranış Kuralları)	645
General Average	605

F. GENDER ISSUES (CİNSİYET İLE İLGİLİ KONULAR)

Men and Women Stereotypes (Kadın ve Erkek Rol Modelleri)	648
Gender Differences (Cinsiyet Farklılıkları)	612
Equality Between Men and Women (Kadın Erkek Eşitliği)	577
General Average	612

G. ADDICTIONS (BAĞIMLILIKLAR)

Computer games (Bilgisayar Oyunlarına Bağımlılık)	634
Smoking (Sigara Bağımlılığı)	612
Alcoholism (Alkol Bağımlılığı)	587
Drug Addictions (Uyuşturucu Bağımlılığı)	563
TV Addiction (TV Bağımlılığı)	541
Shopaholics (Alış-veriş Bağımlılığı)	482
Gambling (Kumar Bağımlılığı)	398
Food (Yeme İçme Bağımlılığı)	387
Chocolate (Çikolata Bağımlılığı)	348
General Average	532

H. HOT ISSUES (SICAK MESELELER)

Terrorism (Terörizm)	746
Child Abuse (Çocuk İstismarı)	739
Human Cloning (İnsan Klonlama)	732
Euthanasia (Ötenazi)	728
Capital Punishment (İdam Cezası)	728
Sentence/Fine (Cezalandırma)	719
Global Economic Crisis (Küresel Ekonomik Krizler)	649
Mass Media and its Effects (Basın ve Etkileri)	623
General Average	708

I. HISTORICAL ISSUES (TARİHİ KONULAR)

World 's Greatest Leaders (Büyük Liderler)	737
First Humans (İlk İnsanlar)	726
Mythology (Mitoloji)	718
Important Civilizations of the Past (Tarihteki Önemli Medeniyetler)	703
World Wars (Dünya Savaşları)	686
Turning Points in History (Tarihi Dönüm Noktaları)	682
Seven Wonders of the World (Dünyanın Yedi Harikası)	628
Prehistoric Ages (Tarih Öncesi Çağlar)	598
General Average	685

J. ISSUES IN SPORTS (SPOR İLE İLGİLİ KONULAR)

Olympics (Olimpiyatlar)	683
Extreme Sports (Sıradışı Sporlar)	736
Popular Sports (Popüler Sporlar)	718
World Sports Records (Dünya Sporları Rekorları)	698
Outdoor / Indoor Sports (Doğa ve Salon Sporları)	653
Art of Survival (Hayatta Kalma Sanatı)	739
Martial Arts (Savunma Sanatı)	741
Orienteering (Yön Bulma)	684
General Average	707

K. HUMOR & ENTERTAINMENT (MİZAH ve EĞLENCE)

Cinema (Sinema)	726
Puzzles; Sudoku (Bulmacalar; Sudoku)	715
Comedy Movies (Komedi Filmleri)	668
Comedy Series (Komedi Dizileri)	638
Comedians (Komedyenler)	626
Black Humor (Kara Mizah)	617
Famous Humorists (Ünlü Mizahçılar)	593
Oscars and Cannes Movie Festival (Oskar ve Cannes Film Festivali)	528
Caricaturists (Karikatüristler)	519
General Average	626

L. POLITICAL ISSUES (POLİTİK MESELELER)

Trends in Politics (Politik Eğilimler)	634
European Union (Avrupa Birliği)	587
Administration Systems (Yönetim Sistemleri)	468
United Nations (Birleşmiş Milletler)	432
History of Politics (Politika Tarihi)	422
General Average	508

M. MYSTERIES OF THE WORLD (DÜNYANIN GİZEMLERİ)

Bermuda Triangle (Bermuda Şeytan Üçgeni)	728
UFOs (UFOLar)	725
Reincarnation (Reankarnasyon)	719
Secret of Pyramids and Mummies (Piramitlerin ve Mumyaların Sırrı)	716
Atlantis (Atlantis)	708
Amazing Survival Stories (Şaşırtıcı Hayatta Kalma Hikayeleri)	705
Evil Eye (Kem Göz)	661
Ghosts (Hayaletler)	652
Mediums, Fortunetellers, etc. (Medyumlar ve falcılar)	638
General Average	695

N. FAMOUS PEOPLE (ÜNLÜLER)

Sportsmen / Women (Ünlü Sporcular)	648
Scientists (Bilim İnsanları)	602
Inventors (Mücitler)	578
Famous People's Life Styles (Ünlülerin Yaşam Tarzları)	562
Hollywood (Hollywood)	532
Famous Actors /Actresses (Ünlü Aktör ve Aktrisiler)	425
Price of Being Famous (Ünlü Olmanın Bedeli)	422
General Average	538

O. RELATIONS (İLİŞKİLER)

Social Networks; Facebook, Twitter (Sosyal Ağlar; Facebook, Twitter)	694
Colleagues (İş Arkadaşlığı)	693
Best Friends (İyi Arkadaşlık)	683
Morals (Ahlaki Değerler)	648
Getting Divorced (Boşanma)	646
Internet Couples (İnternet Evlilikleri)	642
Parents & Children Relations (Anne-Baba ve Çocuk İlişkileri)	636
Unusual People (Sıradışı İnsanlar)	628
Social Relations (Sosyal İlişkiler)	583
Generation Gap (Nesil Çatışması)	568
Neighbors (Komşuluk)	532
Having a Baby (Çocuk Sahibi Olma)	488
Getting Married (Evlilik)	398
General Average	603

P. PSYCHOLOGY (PSİKOLOJİ)

Self-help (Kişisel Gelişim; NLP, Tai Chi, Reiki, Yoga, Feng Shui)	728
Being a Leader (Lider Olma)	726
Personal Achievements (Bireysel Kazanımlar)	692
Dreams (Hayaller ve Rüyalar)	673
Body Language (Vücut Dili)	668
Personality Types (Kişilik Tipleri)	645
Regrets (Pişmanlıklar)	626
Phobias (Fobiler)	625
Obsessions (Saplantılar)	578
Colours and Emotions (Renkler ve Duygular)	468
Personal problems (Kişisel Problemler)	406
Likes /Dislikes (Hoşlanılan ve Hoşlanılmayan Şeyler)	379
General Average	601

Q. CRIME AND PUNISHMENT (SUÇ VE CEZA)

Types of Crimes (Suç Türleri)	744
Murder Stories (Cinayet Hikayeleri)	743
Attacks (Saldırıları)	739
Serial Killers (Seri Katiller)	738
Assassinations (Suikastler)	735
Computer Crimes (Bilişim Suçları)	735
Identity Theft (Kimlik Hırsızlığı)	734
Detective Stories (Polisiye Hikayeler)	728
Getting Armed (Silahlanma)	716
Punishment or Remedy? (Ceza bir çıkar yol mu?)	668
General Average	728

R. HEALTH & BEAUTY (SAĞLIK VE GÜZELLİK)

Deadly Viruses (Ölümcül Virüsler)	684
Stress Management (Stres Yönetimi)	668
Latest Cures for Illnesses (Hastalıklar İçin Bulunan Son Çareler)	638
Human Body (Vücudumuz)	516
Anti-Aging (Yaşlanmaya Karşı Çalışmalar)	489
Keeping Fit (Formda Kalma)	465
Food and Mood (Yemek ve Ruhsal Değişim)	428
Different Food Cultures (İlginç Yemek Kültürleri)	412
Diets (Diyet ve Yeme Alışkanlıkları)	368
Herbal Life (Bitkisel İlaçlar)	344
Obesity (Obezite)	342
Plastic Surgery (Estetik Ameliyat)	325
Cosmetics (Kozmetik)	312
General Average	460

S. WORK & BUSINESS (ÇALIŞMA VE İŞ HAYATI)

Habits of Successful People (Başarılı İnsanın Alışkanlıkları)	684
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Dangerous Jobs (Tehlikeli İşler)	681
Success Stories; Apple, Iphone (Başarı Hikayeleri; Apple, Iphone)	669
How to Impress People (İnsanları etkileme Yolları)	658
The World's Worst Jobs (Dünyanın En Kötü İşleri)	604
Training at Work (İşte Eğitim)	592
Work Ethics (İş Etiği)	582
Being Unemployed (İşsizlik)	546
Advertising (Reklamcılık)	514
Job Interviews (İş Mülakatları)	438
Insurance Systems (Sigorta Sistemleri)	426
Competition at Work (İş Rekabeti)	396
Employers & Employees (İşverenler ve Çalışanlar)	387
General Average	551

T. TRAVELING (SEYAHAT)

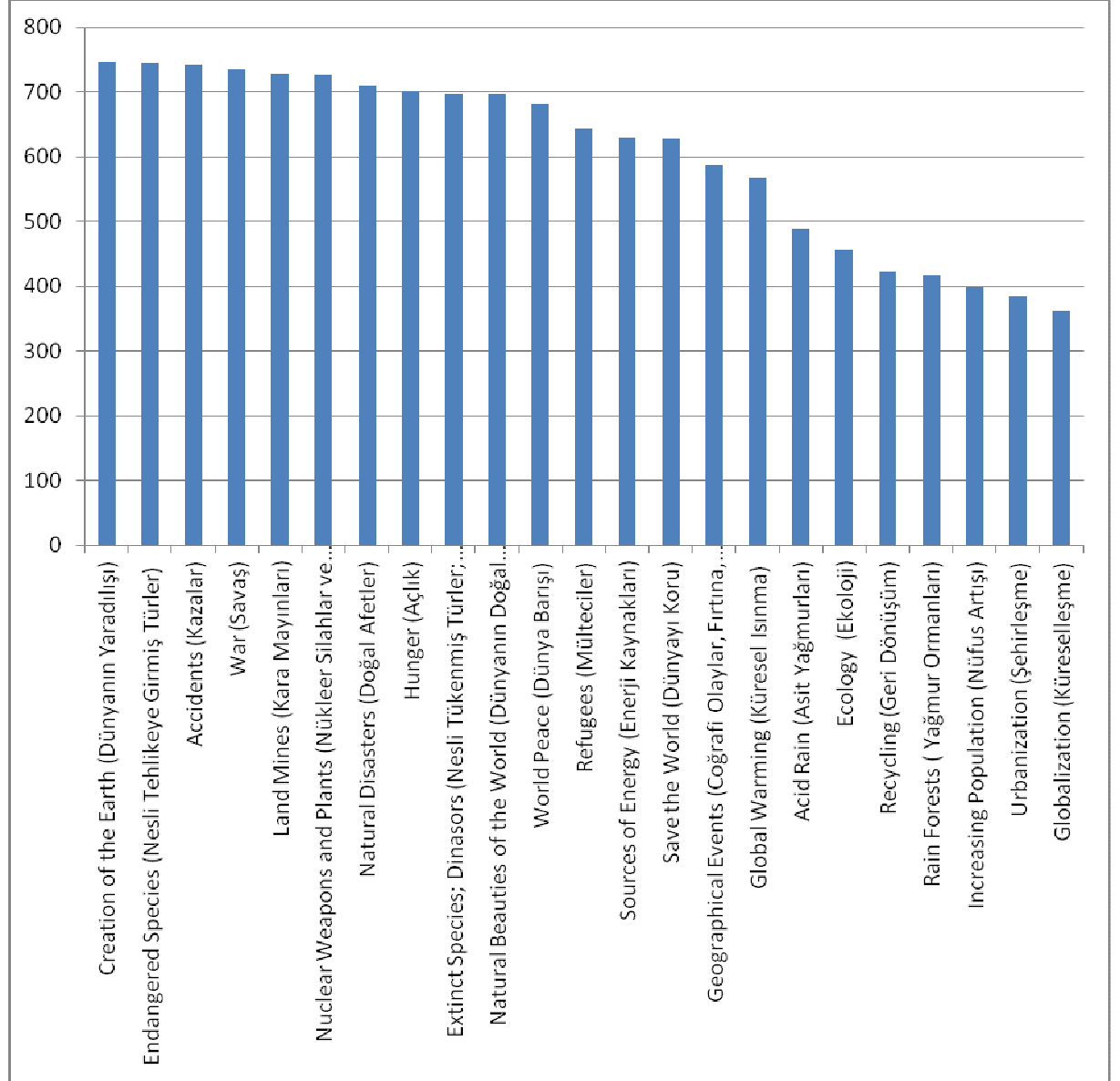
Interesting Places (Farklı mekanlar)	728
UNESCO World Heritage List (UNESCO Dünya Kültür Mirası Listesi)	696
Unusual Festivals (Sıradışı Festivaller)	584
Entertainment in Tourism (Turizmde Eğlence Sektörü)	582
Alternative Holidays (Alternatif Tatiller)	566
Holidays (Tatiller)	538
Transportation (Ulaşım)	508
Tourism (Turizm)	485
Package Tours (Paket Turlar)	485
General Average	584

U. GENERAL ISSUES (GENEL MESELELER)

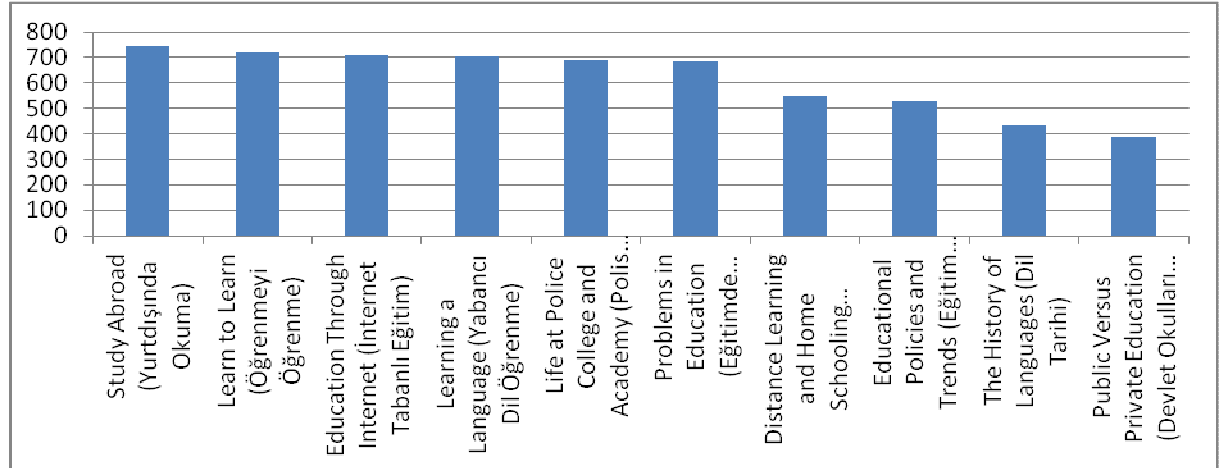
Personal Improvement (Kişisel Gelişim)	728
Deadliest Animals of the World (Dünyanın En Ölümcül Hayvanları)	728
Learning Styles and Strategies (Öğrenme Stilleri ve Stratejileri)	712
Under Sea Life (Deniz Altında Yaşam)	708
Challenges and Accomplishments (Zorluklar ve Başarılar)	695
World Guinness Records (Guinness Rekorları)	673
Time Management and Planning (Zaman Yönetimi ve Planlaması)	659
Traditions and Rituals (Gelenekler ve Törenler)	628
Firsts in Life (Yaşamdaki İlkler)	566
Hobbies (Hobiler)	514
Heroes and Heroines (Kahramanlar)	468
Keeping Strange Pets (Sıradışı Evcil Hayvan Besleme)	438
Important Days: birthdays, Valentine's day etc. (Önemli Günler)	426
Astrology (Astroloji)	406
General Average	596

General Average (Graphics)

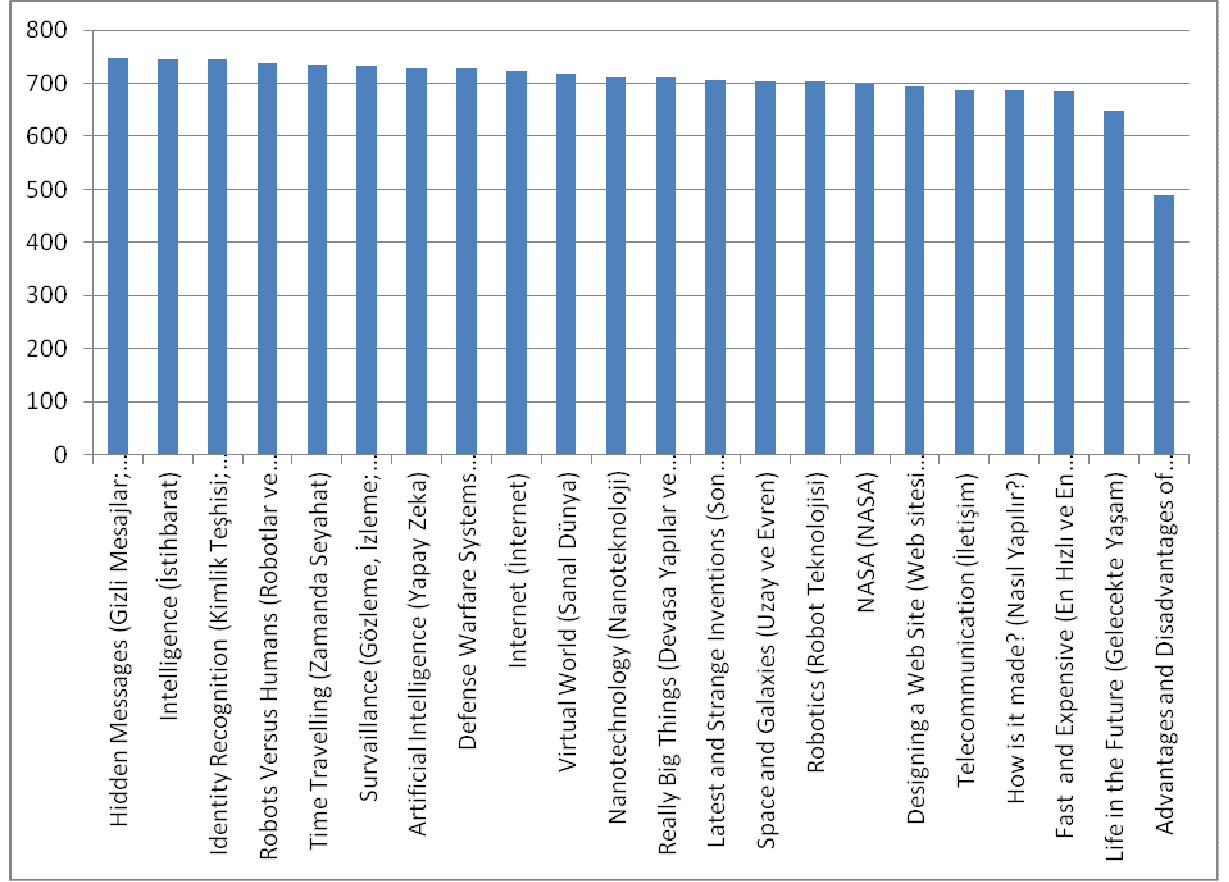
A. EARTH MATTERS (DÜNYA İLE İLGİLİ MESELELER)



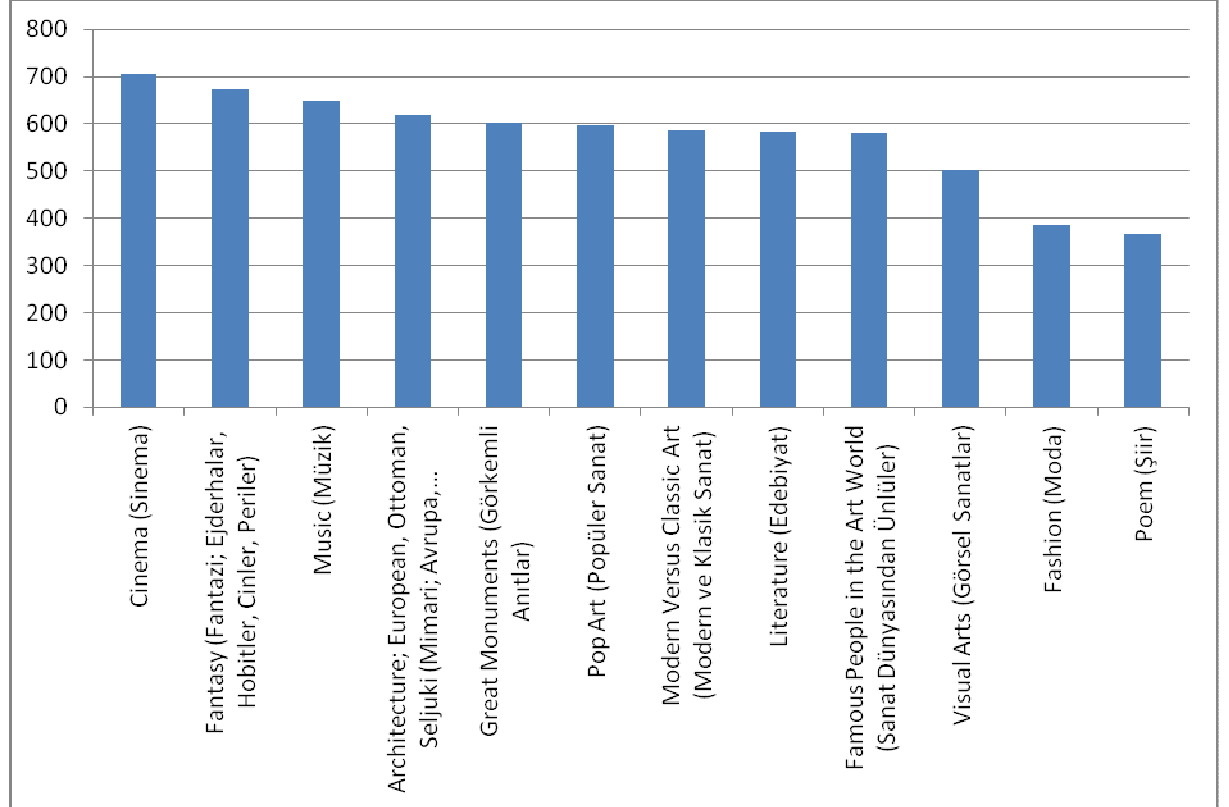
B. ISSUES IN EDUCATION (EĞİTİM İLE İLGİLİ KONULAR)



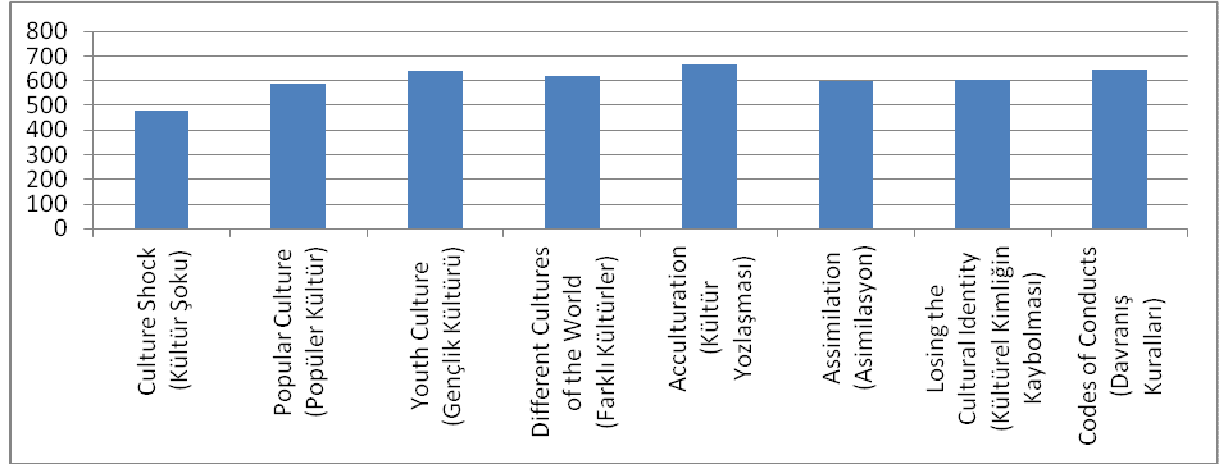
C. ISSUES IN TECHNOLOGY (TEKNOLOJİ İLE İLGİLİ KONULAR)



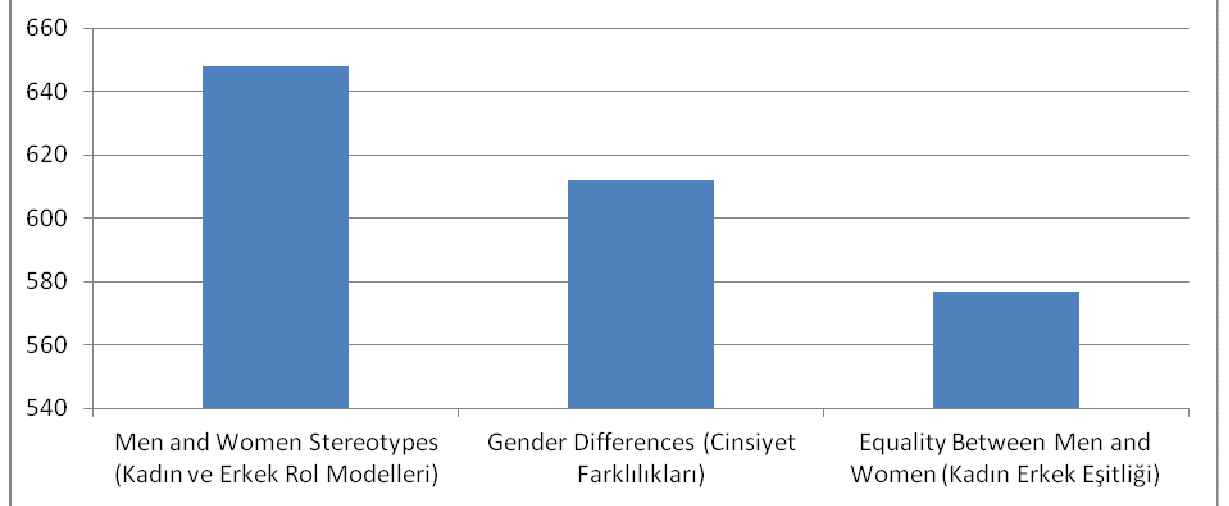
D. ARTS (SANAT)



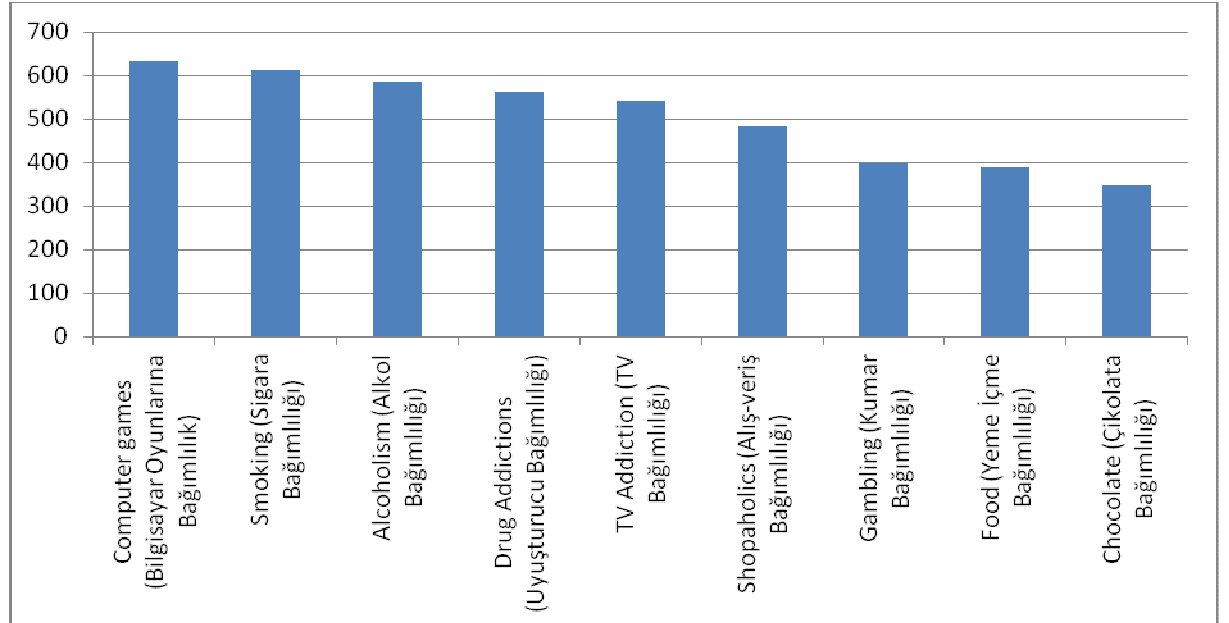
E.CULTURAL ISSUES (KÜLTÜREL MESELELER)



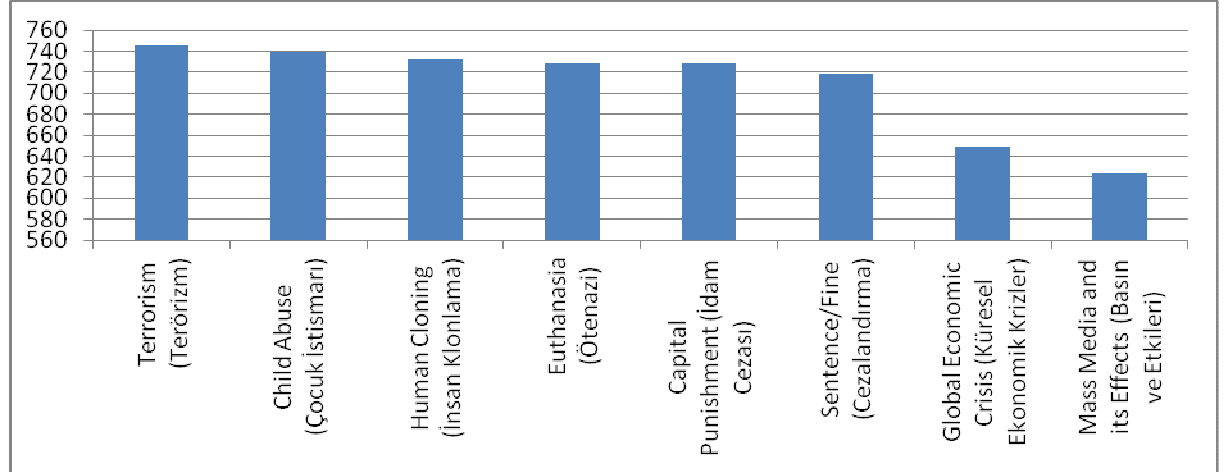
F.GENDER ISSUES (CİNSİYET İLE İLGİLİ KONULAR)



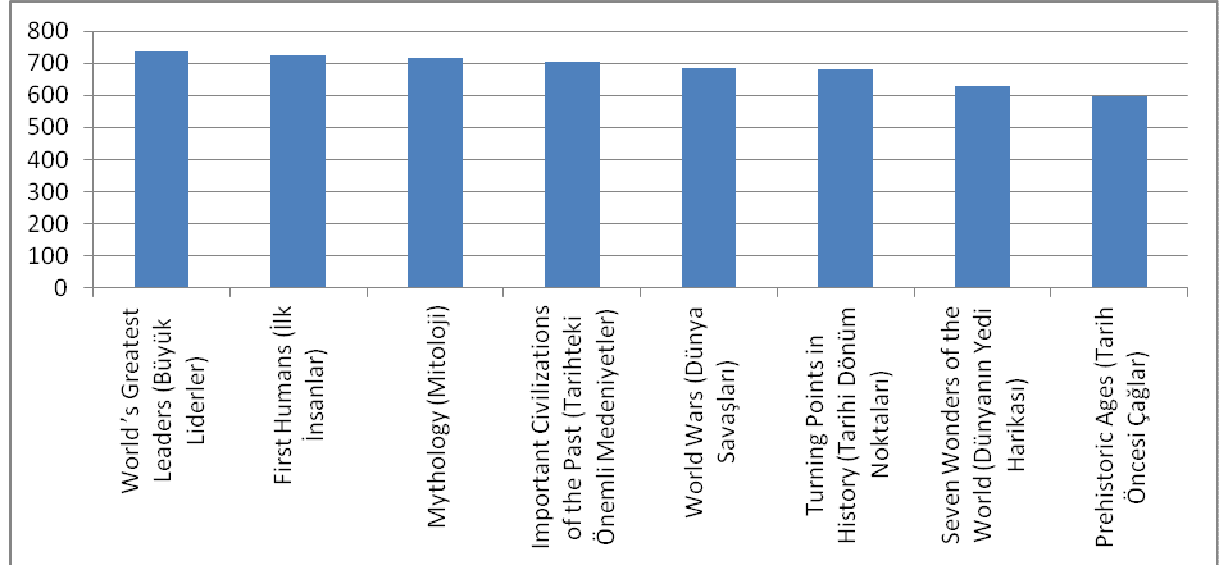
G.ADDICTIONS (BAĞIMLILIKLAR)



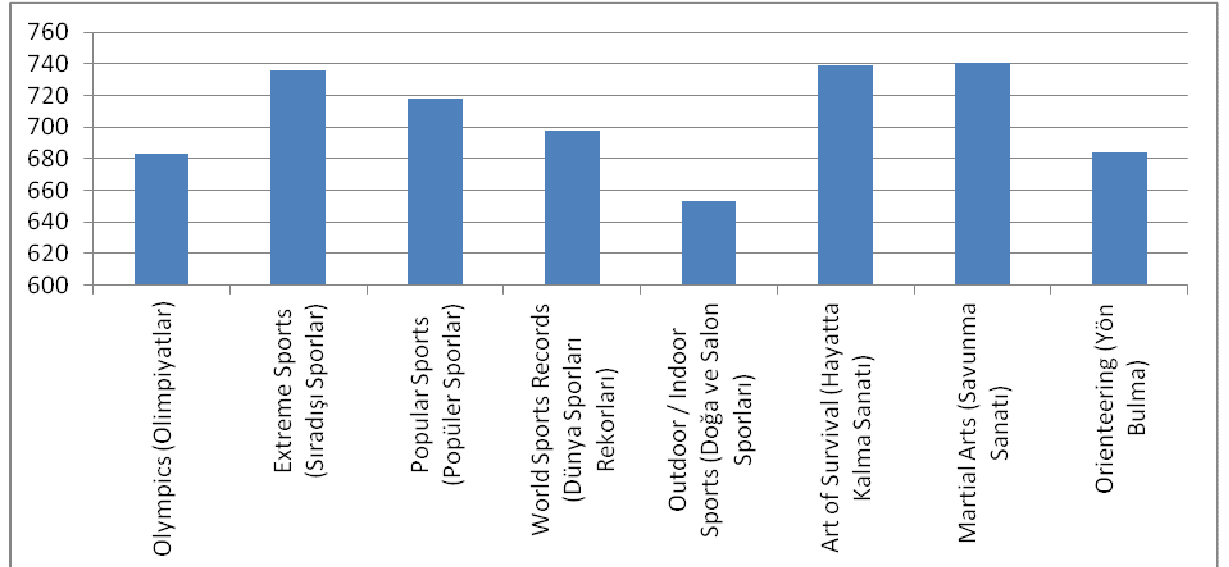
H.HOT ISSUES (SICAK MESELELER)



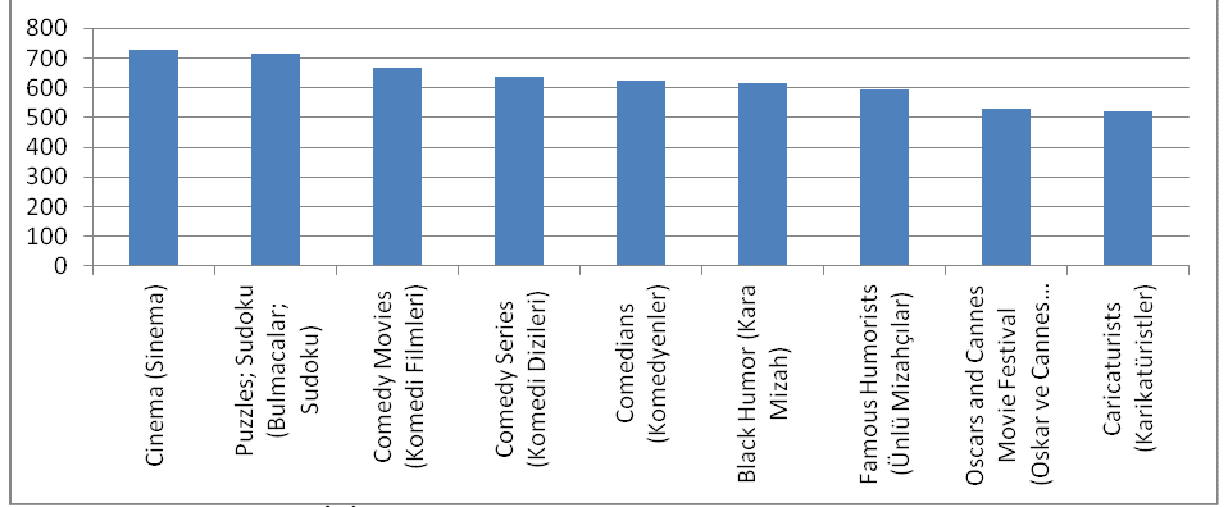
I.HISTORICAL ISSUES (TARİHİ KONULAR)



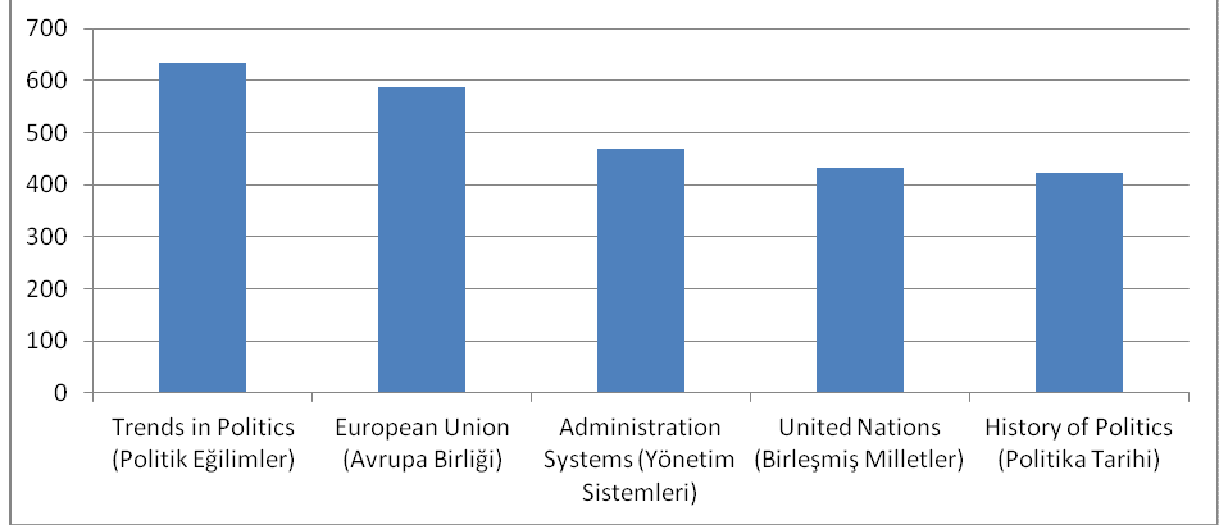
J. ISSUES IN SPORTS (SPOR İLE İLGİLİ KONULAR)



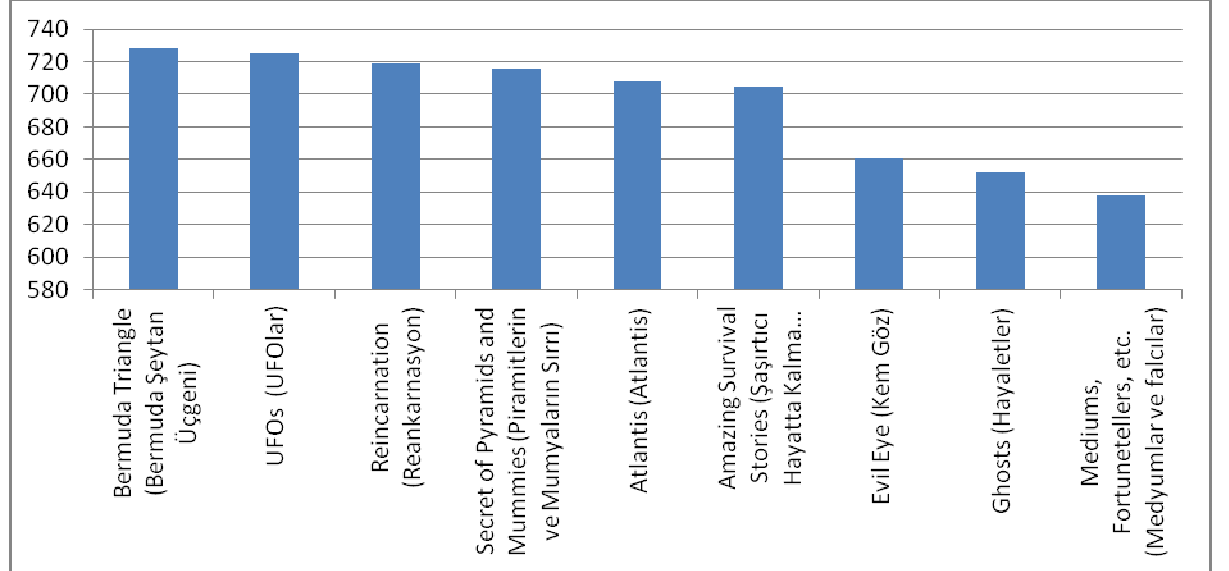
K. HUMOR & ENTERTAINMENT (MİZAH ve EĞLENCE)



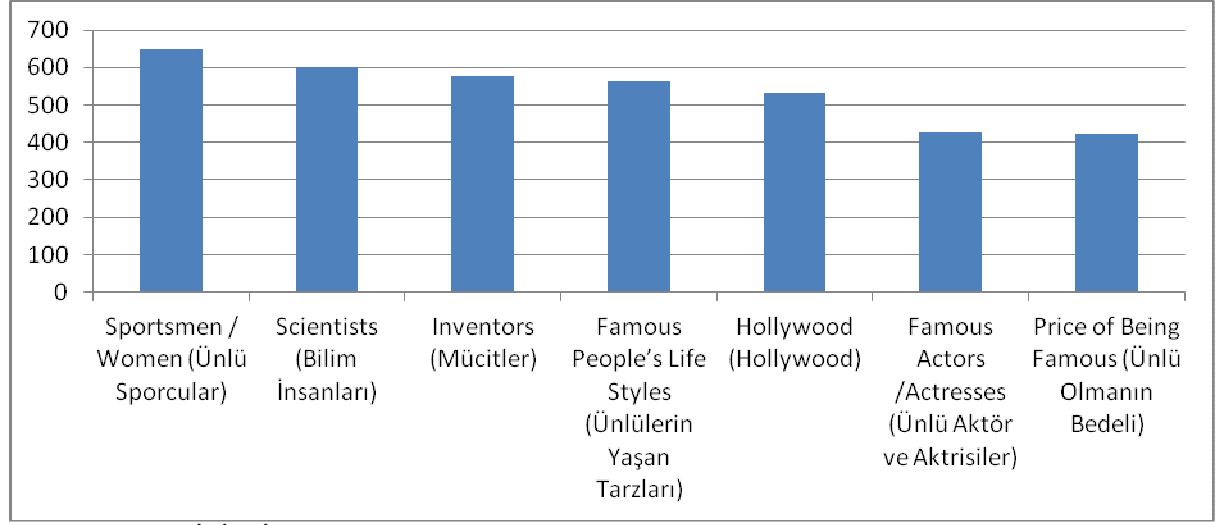
L. POLITICAL ISSUES (POLİTİK MESELELER)



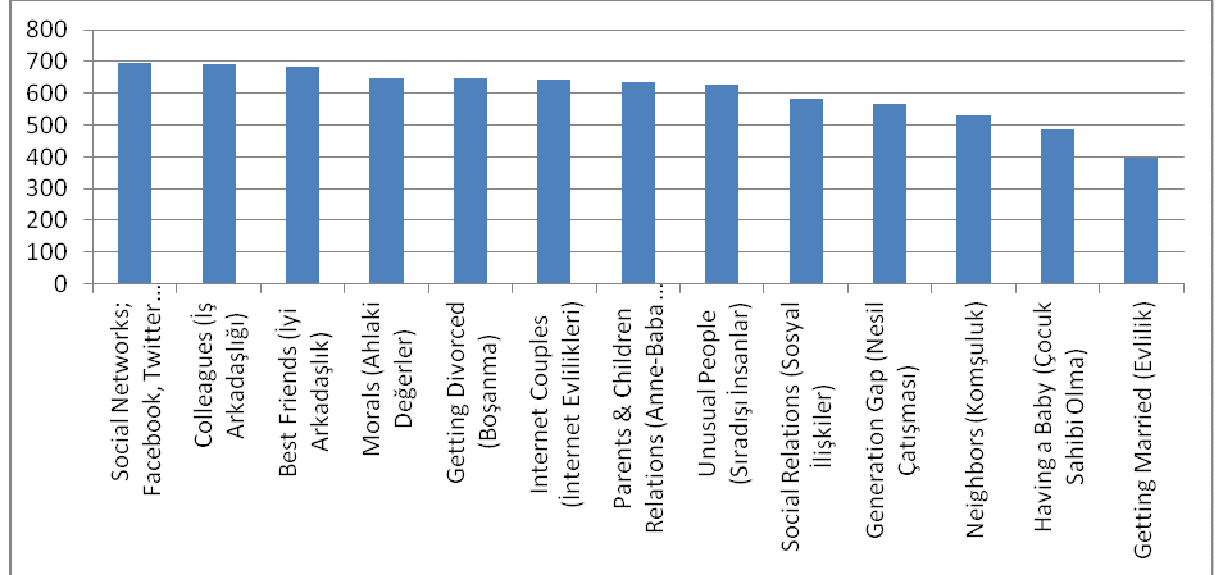
M. MYSTERIES OF THE WORLD (DÜNYANIN GİZEMLERİ)



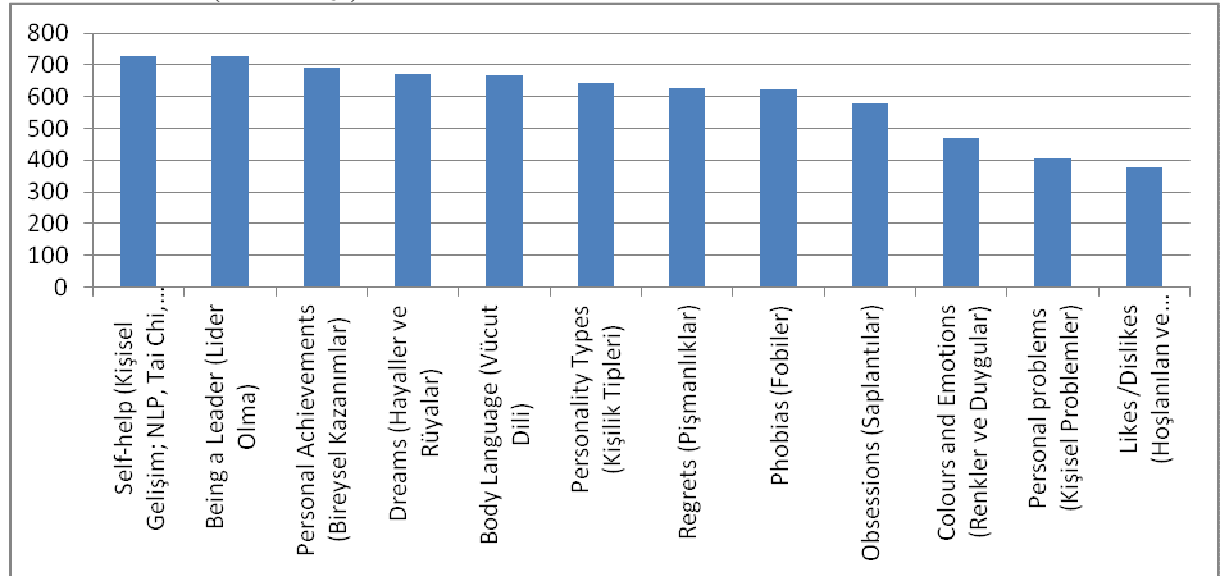
N. FAMOUS PEOPLE (ÜNLÜLER)



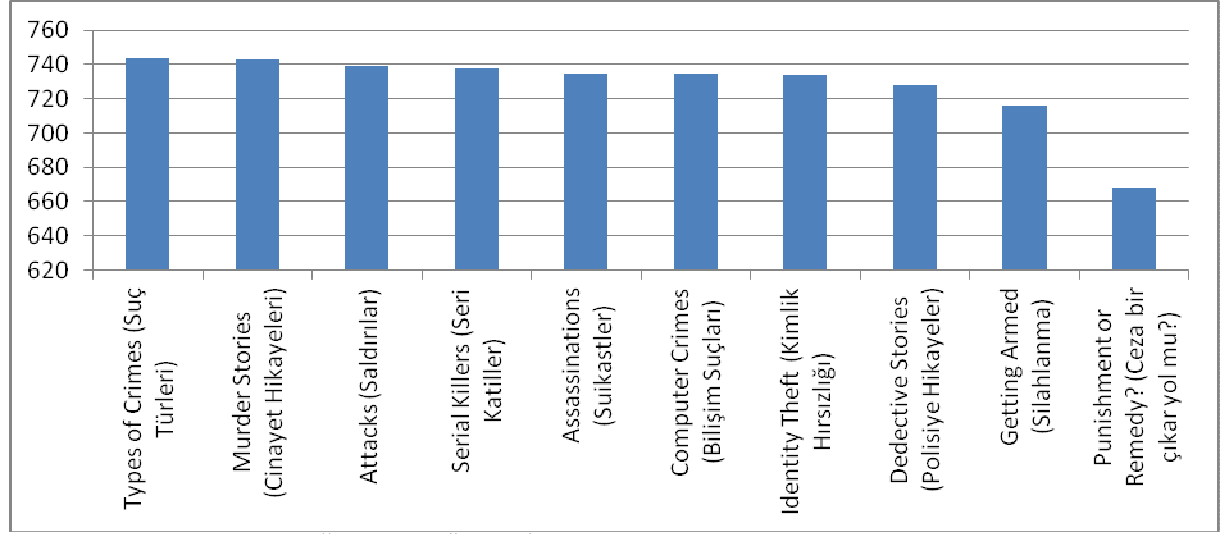
O. RELATIONS (İLİŞKİLER)



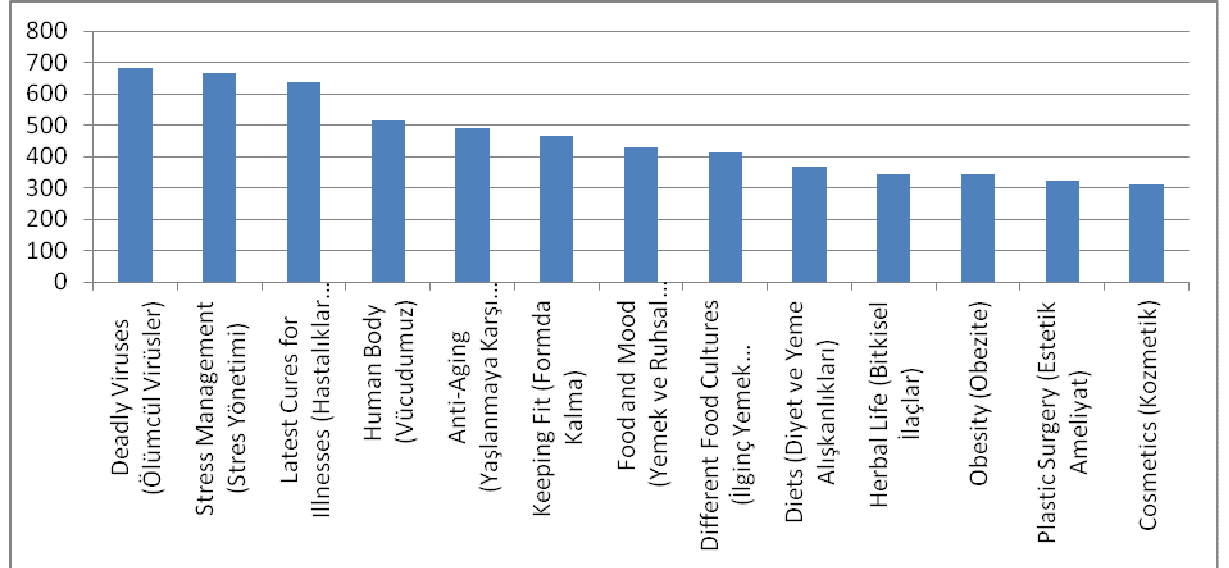
P. PSYCHOLOGY (PSİKOLOJİ)



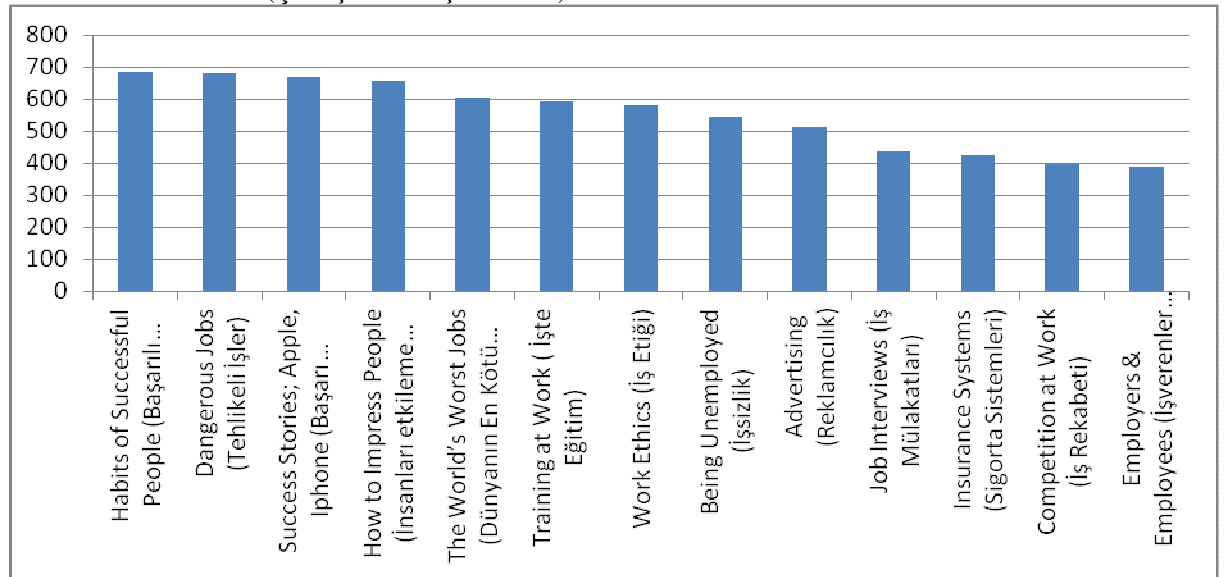
Q. CRIME AND PUNISHMENT (SUÇ VE CEZA)



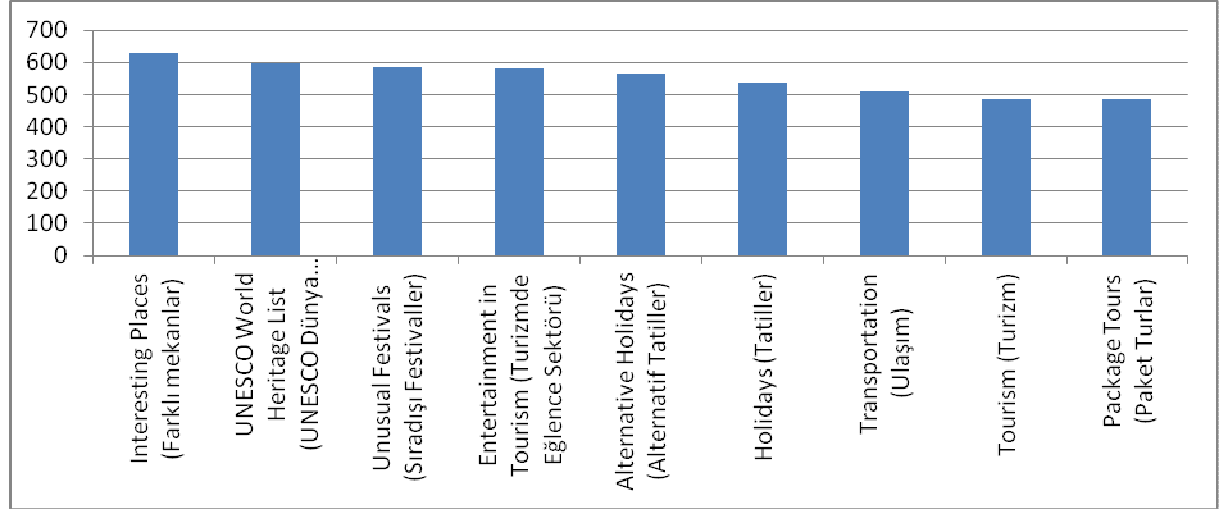
R. HEALTH & BEAUTY (SAĞLIK VE GÜZELLİK)



S. WORK & BUSINESS (ÇALIŞMA VE İŞ HAYATI)



T. TRAVELING (SEYAHAT)



U. GENERAL ISSUES (GENEL MESELELER)

