

ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT

AN EVALUATION OF ENGLISH PROGRAM
AT KOZAN VOCATIONAL SCHOOL OF ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY:
STUDENTS' POINT OF VIEW

Ayşe Seda GÜLLÜ

MASTER OF ARTS

Adana, 2007

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ÖZET

ÇUKUROVA ÜNİVERSİTESİ KOZAN MESLEK YÜKSEKOKULUNDAKİ İNGİLİZCE PROGRAMININ DEĞERLENDİRMESİ: ÖĞRENCİ BAKIŞ AÇISINDAN

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Bu çalışma öğrenci bakış açısından Çukurova Üniversitesi Kozan Meslek Yüksekokulundaki İngilizce Programının değerlendirmesini sunar. Öğrencilerin bu programın yararlılığı ve etkililiği ile ilgili ne düşündünü ve karşılaştıkları problemlerle aynı zamanda öğrencilerin ihtiyaç ve beklentilerine cevap verip vermediğini inceler

Bu amaç doğrultusunda iki veri toplama yöntemi kullanılmıştır. İlk olarak, öğrencilerin programı farklı açılardan değerlendirdikleri bir anket verilmiştir. Daha sonra programla ilgili görüşlerini ortaya çıkarmak için görüşmeler yapılmıştır.

Çalışmanın sonuçları, öğrencilerin İngilizce düzeyleri düşünüldüğünde ders içeriğinin zorluğu, ders materyallerinin çekici ve konuyla ilgili olmayışı, motivasyon ve ilgi eksikliği ve fiziksel gereçler eksikliği gibi problemlerle karşılaştığını ortaya koymuştur. Böylece veri programın öğrencilerin ihtiyaç ve beklentileriyle örtüşmediğini ortaya koymuştur. O yüzden, öğrencilerin gelecekteki ihtiyaçlarını karşılaması için programın geliştirilmesi ve uyarlanması gerekir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Değerlendirme, Program, İhtiyaçlar, Amaçlar, İçerik, Değerlendirme Teknikleri

ABSTRACT

**AN EVALUATION OF ENGLISH PROGRAM
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Master Thesis, English Language Teaching Department

Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Jülide İNÖZÜ

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This study presents an evaluation of the English program at Kozan Vocational School of Çukurova University from the students point of view. It investigates what the students think about the usefulness and effectiveness of this program and the problems they encounter as well as if this program meets the needs and expectations of the students.

In order to achieve this aim, two instruments were used. First of all, a questionnaire by which the students evaluate the program from different perspectives was given. Then, they were interviewed to elicit their opinions about the program.

The results reveal that the students face certain problems such as the difficulty of the course content considering their level of English, unattractive and irrelevant course materials, lack of motivation and interest and lack of physical equipments. Thus, the data reveal that the program does not match students' expectations and needs. Therefore, it needs to be improved and adapted for matching to students' future needs.

Key words: Evaluation, Program, Needs, Objectives, Content, Assessment Techniques

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

The program (i.e. curriculum, the syllabus, the materials, learning environment) of a course is one of the most important factors that affects learning of the students. In order to make the students learn better a reflective analysis of the practices that are involved in planning and teaching of a language should be made. Richards (2005) states that this has involved an examination of the context in which the program occurs, of the goals, syllabus, and structure of a course, and how these can be planned and developed, as well as analysis of the teaching and learning that takes place during the course. He adds that the focus throughout has been analysis of the different factors that determine the successful design and implementation of language programs and language teaching materials. He defines that this overall and interlinked system of elements (i.e., needs, goals, teachers, learners, syllabuses, materials, and teaching) is known as the second language curriculum. However, once a curriculum is in place, a number of important questions still need to be answered. These include:

- Is the curriculum achieving its goals?
- What is happening in classrooms and schools where it is being implemented?
- Are those affected by the curriculum (e.g., teachers, administrators, students, parents, employers) satisfied with the curriculum?
- Have those involved in developing and teaching a language course done a satisfactory job?
- Does the curriculum compare favorably with others of its kind? (Richards, 2005, p.286)

Richards also adds that curriculum evaluation is concerned with answering questions such as these. It focuses on collecting information about different aspects of a language program in order to understand how successfully it works, enabling

different kinds of decisions to be made about the program, such as whether the program responds to learners' needs, whether further teacher training is required for teachers working in the program, or whether students are learning sufficiently from it.

Richards et al. (1985, p. 98, in Brown, 1995, p. 218) define evaluation as "the systematic gathering of information for purposes of making decisions". Brown (1995) states that at first glance, this seems to be a serviceable definition, but reflection reveals that it is too broad and could equally well be used to define other curriculum components such as needs analysis and testing, both of which are ways of systematically collecting information for "purposes of making decisions". He adds that in truth, needs analysis and testing information might well be included in an evaluation, but this fact does not strengthen the definition given above.

Nunan considers evaluation to be "a necessary component in any curriculum plan" and "particularly important in a needs-based, learner-centred program which is directed towards the achievement of specific goals and objectives" (Nunan, 1984, p. 46, in Leung, 1991, p. 65). Brown argues that "evaluation should be the part of a curriculum that includes, connects and gives meaning to all of the other elements in a program" (Brown, 1989, p. 241, in Leung, 1991, p. 65). Elley stresses the important role of evaluation in education, stating that "if the quality of our educational programmes is to be enhanced, and we are to avoid following the misleading bandwagons of the past, it (evaluation) is an essential part of the enterprise of education" (Elley, 1989, p. 285, in Leung, 1991, p. 65) .

Evaluation has an utmost importance especially in ESP programs. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, in Dudley - Evans & St. John, 2004, p.2) see ESP as an *approach* rather than a *product*, by which they mean that ESP does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology. They suggest that "the foundation of ESP is the simple question: Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language?" The answer to this question relates to the learners, the language required and the learning context, and thus establishes the primacy of need in ESP. Need is defined by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, in Dudley - Evans & St. John, 2004, p.3) by the reasons for which the student is learning English, which will vary from study purposes such as following a postgraduate course in an English-speaking country to work

purposes such as participating in business meetings or taking hotel bookings. These purposes are the starting points which determine the language to be taught.

We believe that English as one of the courses given should also match students' needs considering their professions.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

As the language program for the ESP course should be prepared considering specific learner group that are being taught, we should evaluate the program from their point of view.

Following this line of argument, in order to evaluate the program from the students' point of view, a descriptive research was made at Vocational School of Kozan (see Appendix C).

The education at Vocational School of Kozan, where this study took place, started in 1993- 1994 Academic year. The Vocational School of Kozan with its seven departments, Seeding, Furniture Decoration, Local Administration, Accounting, Bank Accounting, Computer Technology and Programming and Office Management and Secretaryship, offers students courses that are specific to their field of their study.

We believe, by evaluating the program, the problems might come to light more specifically.

1.3. The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to find out how the students evaluate the English program regarding its effectiveness and relevance to their future applications in their fields. Besides this, it further tries to find out if the language teaching materials meet the expectations and needs of the students. In addition, it aims to identify the probable problematic issues about the English program.

I think, as a result of this study, some modifications might be made to the program by keeping in mind the problems which come to light from the students' point of view.

1.4. Research Questions

The present study aims at answering following research questions:

- 1- What do the students enrolled in Vocational School of Kozan think about the effectiveness of the language program regarding their future field of work?
- 2- What do the students enrolled in Vocational School of Kozan think about the usefulness of the language program?
- 3- Do the language teaching materials used in Vocational School of Kozan meet the expectations and needs of the students?
- 4- What are the problematic issues regarding English program from the students' point of view?

1.5. Operational Definitions

Evaluation: The systematic attempt to gather information in order to make judgments or decisions. (Lynch, 2003)

Program: A series of courses linked with some common goal or end product. (Lynch, 2003)

ESP: It is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning. (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987)

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter starts with the definitions and features of evaluation. Then, we talk about constructivism. Lastly, information about ESP and needs analysis is given.

2.2. What is Evaluation ?

To draw attention to its full range of functions, Cronbach (1991) defines evaluation broadly, as the *collection and use of information to make decisions about an educational program*. Cronbach (1991) states that this program may be a set of instructional materials distributed nationally, the instructional activities of a single school, or the educational experiences of a single pupil. Many types of decision are to be made, and many varieties of information are useful. It becomes immediately apparent that evaluation is a diversified activity and that no one set of principles will suffice for all situations. Cronbach (1991) states that these and other hallowed principles are not entirely appropriate to evaluation for course improvement. Before proceeding to support this contention, Cronbach (1991) distinguishes among purposes of evaluation and relate them to historical developments in testing and curriculum making.

Cronbach (1991) separates three types of decisions for which evaluation is used:

1. Course improvement: deciding what instructional materials and methods are satisfactory and where change is needed.
2. Decisions about individuals: identifying the needs of the pupil for the sake of planning his instruction, judging pupil merit for purposes of selection and grouping, acquainting the pupil with his own progress and deficiencies.
3. Administrative regulation: judging how good the school system is, how good individual teachers are, etc.

Cronbach (1991) states that course improvement is set apart by its broad temporal and geographical reference; it involves the modification of recurrently used materials and methods. Developing a standard exercise to overcome a misunderstanding would be course improvement, but deciding whether a certain pupil should work through that exercise would be an individual decision. Administrative regulation likewise is local in effect, whereas an improvement in a course is likely to be pertinent wherever the course is offered.

People are always evaluating. We do it every day. We buy a clothing, a car, or refrigerator. We select a movie or subscribe to a magazine. Payne (1994) states that all these decisions require data-based judgments. Data take many forms. Sometimes we rely on our own experience or the opinions of others. Sometimes we require more formal information like that derived from experiments and controlled studies. Educators make decisions about the effectiveness of curricula and/or programs, the progress of individual students toward specified goals, and efficiency of instructional methods. The most generally accepted definition of educational evaluation involves the idea of the assessment of merit, or the making of judgments of value or worth (Scriven, 1991, in Payne, 1994, p.6). The process employs both quantitative and qualitative approaches.

Mackay (1994) states that in the field of second language teaching, the term 'programme evaluation' is used to a wide variety of activities, ranging from academic, theory - driven research to informal enquiries carried out by a single classroom.

Evaluation may focus on many different aspects of a language program, such as:

- *curriculum design*: to provide insights about the quality of program planning and organization
- *the syllabus and program content*: for example, how relevant and engaging it was, how easy or difficult, how successful tests and assessment procedures were
- *classroom processes*: to provide insights about the extent to which a program is being implemented appropriately
- *materials of instruction*: to provide insights about whether specific materials are aiding student learning

- *the teachers*: for example, how they conducted their teaching, what their perceptions were of the program, what they taught
- *teacher training*: to assess whether training teachers have received is adequate
- *the students*: for example, what they learned from the program, their perceptions of it, and how they participated in it
- *monitoring of pupil progress*: to conduct formative (in-progress) evaluations of student learning
- *learner motivation*: to provide insights about the effectiveness of teachers in aiding students to achieve goals and objectives of the school
- *the institution*: for example, what administrative support was provided, what resources were used, what communication networks were employed
- *learning environment*: to provide insights about the extent to which students are provided with a responsive environment in terms of their educational needs
- *staff development*: to provide insights about the extent to which the school system provides the staff opportunities to increase their effectiveness
- *decision making*: to provide insights about how well the school staff - principals, teachers, and others - make decisions that result in learner benefits

(Sanders 1992; Weir and Roberts 1994, in Richards, 2005, p. 286- 287)

A definition was proposed by Popham (1975, p. 8, in Brown, 1995, p. 218) , who noted that “systematic educational evaluation consists of a formal assessment of the worth of educational phenomena.” If the Richards et al. definition was too broad, Popham's is too restrictive. Certainly, there should be an element within a program evaluation that focuses on “formal assessment,” but there is also room for a number of other more informal activities. Moreover, many forms of evaluation focus in one way or another on “the worth of educational phenomena.”

However, there are also forms that focus on improving the curriculum, and they are perhaps the most constructive and useful types.

A less restrictive alternative offered by Worthen and Sanders (1973, p. 19 in Brown, 1995, p. 218) might help: “Evaluation is the determination of the worth of a thing. It includes obtaining information for use in judging the worth of a program, product, procedure, or object, or the potential utility of alternative approaches designed to attain specified objectives.” They add that this definition is less restrictive in the sense that it includes the notion of “the worth of a program,” but it also provides for judging “the potential utility of alternative approaches.” They state that unfortunately, the goal of this view of evaluation is to “attain specified objectives.” Again, this may be unnecessarily limiting-implying a goal-oriented approach to the evaluation process, while ignoring the potential of evaluation to affect curriculum improvement.

Clearly, then, a new definition is needed. *Evaluation* is defined in Brown (1995) in the same way that it was in Brown (1989a, p. 223, in Brown, 1995) as “the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of a curriculum and assess its effectiveness within the context of the particular institutions involved.” Brown states that this definition requires that information be gathered and analyzed in a systematic manner and that only relevant information should be included, that is, information must necessarily be filtered so that irrelevant information can be ignored. He adds that notice that there are two purposes for the information: the promotion of improvement and the assessment of effectiveness (“worth” in the Popham or Worthen and Sanders definitions). As with so many of the concepts he discusses, this definition also stresses that evaluation must essentially be site-specific with a clear focus on the particular curriculum that is being examined. He claims that in other words, any evaluation is inescapably connected to the institution (s) being evaluated, whether that be one school, all the schools in a school district, or the school system of an entire nation. Once the institution of focus have been defined, the evaluation processes will naturally center on that institution.

Now I want to talk about some issues in program evaluation. Weir and Roberts (1994, 42, in Richards, 2005, p. 294) propose a broad view of evaluation that is characterized by:

- a need for both insider and outsider commitment and involvement to ensure adequate evaluation
- a central interest in improvement, as well as the demonstration of the “product value” of a program or project or their components
- an associated commitment to a deeper professional understanding of the processes of educational change, as well as the results of that change
- systematic documentation for evaluation purposes both during implementation and at the beginning and end of a program or project's life
- a willingness to embrace both qualitative and quantitative methodology appropriate to the purpose of the evaluation and the context under review

Leung (1991) states that until the 1980s, evaluation was a relatively neglected area in the field of language teaching. Mackay (in Leung,1991,p.65) suggests a reason for the apparent lack of evaluation studies:

“What may have contributed to the timidity regarding program evaluation were the great comparative studies carried out in the U.S.A. and U.K. to compare the effectiveness of different approaches to the teaching of ESL. ...The manifest lack of success of these studies in determining the relative effectiveness of the outcomes of different programs appears to have had the effect of convincing applied linguists that they should stay clear of such complicated and difficult-to-control activities.”

However, in recent years, the importance of evaluation has been gradually acknowledged. Candlin, Kirkwood and Moore (1978, in Leung,1991,p.65) already include ‘evaluation of students’ and ‘evaluation of course’ in their model of course design. Stern (1984, in Leung,1991,p.65) includes evaluation as one of the ‘curriculum processes’. Breen makes it the last level of his ‘Process Syllabus’, claiming that “on - going evaluation of the teaching - learning process in the classroom would be a crucial activity...” (Breen, 1984: 58, in Leung,1991,p.65) Allen states that curriculum decision - making “must be subject to some form of evaluation, in order to check that the results of our decisions are meeting their stated objectives,

and so that knowledge about curriculum processes can accumulate in a systematic and responsible way” (Allen, 1984 p. 70, in Leung, 1991, p.65)

2.2.1. Historical Background of Evaluation

If we want to look at historical background of language program evaluation, Beretta (2001) states that it is not easy to decide where to begin a review of published L2 program evaluation. He states that certainly, it is barely worth considering much L2 research of any description before 1963, as Agard and Dunkel’s (1948) and Carroll’s (1963) reviews despondently attest (in Beretta, 2001, p. 6). He adds that however, 1963 is a good place to start because it was an auspicious year for educational research in general and for program evaluation in particular. He continues that Campbell and Stanley’s (1963) monumental treatise on research design appeared that year as did Cronbach’s (1963) seminar paper on program evaluation (in Beretta, 2001, p. 6). He claims that however, 1963 was also the year that Keating’s large - scale evaluation of competing language teaching methods appeared, initiating a disillusionment with evaluation in language education that was quickly compounded by the more famous Scherer and Wertheimer (1964) and Smith (1970) studies, which also compared methods (in Beretta, 2001, p. 7).

Lynch (1990) states that evaluation, the systematic attempt to examine what happens in, and as a result of; language programs, typically serves as the basis for judgments and decisions about these programs. He adds that unfortunately, the applied linguistics literature on program evaluation has focused primarily on specific issues concerning evaluation methods (Long, 1983, 1984; Beretta, 1986a, 1986c; Elley, 1989, in Lynch, 1990, p.23) and the assessment of student achievement (Henning, 1982; Beretta, 1986b; Bachman, 1989; Hudson, 1989, in Lynch, 1990, p.23) He states that less frequently discussed has been the issue of a generalized evaluation model that addresses the full range of concerns of language teaching programs. Initial attempts to formulate a comprehensive framework for evaluating language teaching programs have lacked the detail necessary to be optimally useful (Robertson, 1982, in Lynch, 1990, p.23) , or have been tied to a particular evaluation purpose such as decision making (Alkin & Wooley, 1970, in Lynch, 1990, p.23) or curriculum design and

development (Brown, 1989, in Lynch, 1990, p.23) in fact, it may not be feasible to formulate a single model capable of serving the vast array of potential evaluation contexts. The purpose of his article is to outline a model for program evaluation that is able to adapt to a variety of, if not all, settings.

The *context - adaptive model* represents a refinement of the model initially outlined in Lynch (1988, in Lynch, 1990, p.24). He states that the distinguishing feature of this model is its flexibility in responding to the range of contextual constraints that program evaluation can encounter. He adds that this flexibility derives from a series of steps and considerations that will vary from context to context, in terms of the information they reveal and the evaluation design ultimately chosen. Where possible, these steps will be illustrated with examples from the evaluation of the Reading English for Science and Technology (REST) Project at the University of Guadalajara, Mexico. (For a more complete discussion of this particular evaluation, see Lynch, 1986, 1987, 1988, in Lynch, 1990, p.24)

The series of general steps for the context - adaptive model are the following:

1. Establish the *audience (s) and goals* for the evaluation.
2. Develop a *context inventory* and determine which dimensions are important in light of the goals and audience for the evaluation.
3. Develop a *preliminary thematic framework* based on the issues that are central to the particular context.
4. Develop a *data collection design / system* based on the audience and goals and on the context inventory, and that is focused by the thematic framework.
5. *Collect the data* and revise Steps 3 and 4 as necessary; possibly elaborate Step 2.
6. *Analyze the data* and revise Steps 3 and 4 as necessary.
7. Formulate the *evaluation report*.

They state that rather than being rigidly linear, this model is meant to be iterative, with the results of certain steps necessitating a return to earlier ones for changes in conceptualization.

2.2.2. Features of Evaluation

Kiely & Rea - Dickens (2005) state that evaluation has many meanings in language programs. They state that it is part of the novice teacher's checklist to guide the development of initial lesson plans and teaching practice, a process of determining learning achievements or student satisfaction, and a dimension of the analysis of data in a formal evaluation or research study. They add that it refers to judgements about students by teachers and by external assessors; the performance of teachers by their students, program managers and institutions; and programs, departments and institutions by internal assessors, external monitors and inspectors. They claim that evaluation is about the relationships between different program components, the procedures and epistemologies developed by the people involved in programs, and the processes and outcomes which are used to show the value of a program accountability - and enhance this value - development.

Now I will talk about the three features of evaluation. Kiely & Rea – Dickens (2005) state that the study and practice of evaluation has developed in diverse ways over recent decades. They state that these developments are driven by issues from within evaluation and aspects of the wider socio - political context. They add that three features of evaluation theory and practice illustrate the complexity of these developments and the difficulties inherent in the task of mapping achievements and directions. They claim that first, there is the question of definition; evaluation is a form of enquiry, ranging from research to systematic approaches to decision - making. Our account of the history of evaluation over the past several decades in chapter 2 (In Kiely & Rea - Dickens, 2005) illustrates a progression from reliance on stripped - down statistical representations of a program to inclusive, multi - perspective approaches. They add that the common thread - the making of judgements in a shared context gives a problematically wide- ranging basket of activities. Thus, they claim that in the context of an innovative language program, evaluation might include periodic reviews of the budget, staff appraisal and decisions relating to Professional development, iterated classroom observation for professional development of teachers or for quality assurance purposes, narratives of experience

from participants, as well as a one-off study to inform on the success of the innovation.

Second, they state that there are two perspectives on evaluation research. It is viewed, on the one hand, as a type of study which has both *research* functions - rolling back the frontiers of knowledge - and *evaluation* functions - providing information for judgements or decision-making; and, on the other, as research into the processes of evaluation. The former perspective has been significant in language program evaluations, as evidenced by edited collections such as those by (Alderson and Beretta 1992; Rea-Dickins and Lwaitama 1995; Rea-Dickins and Germaine 1998, in Kiely&Rea-Dickens, 2005, p.6). In the latter perspective evaluation research can be seen as analogous to the research which has for decades underpinned the validity and reliability of language testing processes. (For a recent account of the processes and issues here, see Weir 2004, in this series in Kiely&Rea-Dickens, 2005, p.6). There is no doubt that evaluation processes require such epistemological and methodological underpinning – (Lowe 1995; Dornyei 2003, in Kiely&Rea-Dickens, 2005, p.6), for example, examine in detail the issues involved in questionnaire design and completion; while (Alderson and Beretta 1992; Saville and Hawkey 2004, in Kiely&Rea-Dickens, 2005, p.6) note that validation procedures in test design have tended to be much more extensive than in the design of other evaluation instruments. Kiely&Rea-Dickens (2005) claims that without an understanding of the data types which are most appropriate for the different uses of evaluation, there may be a tendency to inefficient scrutiny of all practices, documents and perspectives, with constant doubts regarding the extent to which they actually evidence the success or otherwise of the program in question.

Third, they also put emphasis on that many accounts of evaluation do not reach the public domain. They add that for a range of reasons, some proper, others less so, evaluation processes and findings remain either insufficiently documented or unpublished. They state that one outcome of this feature of evaluation is the difficulty of mapping theory and practice when some of the terrain is obscured from view. They claim that evaluations of social programs are for the most part funded from the public purse. In addition, they continue that they involve aspects of people's lives in a way that profiles legal and ethical issues. Thus, they come to the point that there are contending

forces for transparency and confidentiality, which means that the issue of publishing and not publishing evaluations.

2.2.3. “Formative” and “Summative” Evaluation

The potential contributions of evaluation to the improvement of quality and quantity in education, have been described by Scriven (1967, in Payne,1994,p.8) as “summative” and “formative” evaluation. He notes that the goal of evaluation is always the same, that is, to determine the worth and value of something. That “something” may be a microscope, a unit in biology, a science curriculum, or an entire educational system. Depending upon the role the value judgments are to play, evaluation data may be used developmentally or in a summary way. In the case of an overall decision, the role of evaluation is summative. An end-of-course assessment would be considered summative. Summative evaluation may employ absolute or comparative standards and judgments.

Formative evaluation, on the other hand, is almost exclusively aimed at improving an educational experience or product during it’s developmental phases. A key element in the formative technique is feedback. Information is gathered during the developmental phase with an eye toward improving the total product. The evaluation activities associated with the development of Science--A Process Approach, the elementary science curriculum supported by the National Science Foundation and managed by the American Association for the Advancement of Science, are illustrative. During the several years of the program’s development, sample materials were used in centers throughout the country. Summer writing sessions were then held at which tryout data were fed back to the developers. A superior product resulted. Teacher materials were improved and student learning activities were changed to adapt better to their developmental level. The summative-formative distinction among kinds of evaluation reflects differences, for the most part, in intent rather than different methodologies or techniques.(Payne, 1994)

The suggestion has been made that summative and formative evaluations differ *only* with respect to the time when they are undertaken in the service of program or

project development. There are, however, other dimensions along which these two roles could be contrasted. A very informative and succinct summary has been created by Worthen and Sanders (1987, in Payne, 1994, p.8) and is reproduced in Table 1.

Payne (1994) states that most projects will use both approaches. Obviously an end-of-year summative evaluation can be formative for the next year. As projects and programs mature, the amount of time devoted to the type of evaluation will shift, with movement from more formative to more summative.

Table 1. Differences Between Summative and Formative Evaluation

Basis for <u>Comparison</u>	Formative <u>Evaluation</u>	Summative <u>Evaluation</u>
Purpose	To improve program	To certify program utility
Audience	Program administrators and staff	Potential consumer or funding agency
Who Should Do It	Internal evaluator	External evaluator
Major Characteristic	Timely	Convincing
Measures	Often informal	Valid / reliable
Frequency of Data Collection	Frequent	Limited
Sample Size	Often small	Usually large
Questions Asked	What is working? What needs to be improved? How can it be improved?	What results occur? With whom? Under What condition? With what training? At what cost?
Design Constraints	What information is needed? When?	What claims do you wish to make?

From: Educational Evaluation: Alternative Approaches and Practical Guidelines by Blaine R. Worthen and James R. Sanders. Copyright© 1987 by Longman Publishing Group.

Lynch (1990) provides a succinct definition of evaluation, “the systematic attempt to examine what happens in, and as a result of, language programs, typically serves as the basis for judgements and decisions about programs” (p. 23, in Fowle, 1999). Interestingly, Rea-Dickens (1994, in Fowle, 1999) includes the concept of stakeholders in her definition of evaluation, maintaining that the evaluations are stakeholder orientated unlike most other educational research. Fowle (1999) states that the term stakeholder has now become widely used in many fields particularly in business and management studies. Aspinwall (1992, in Fowle, 1999) provide a comprehensive analysis of the concept of stakeholders in the context of educational evaluations and state that “A *stakeholder* is any group or individual who is affected by, or can affect the future of the organization, programme or activity...Stakeholders can be both internal (e.g. staff) and external (e.g. parents) to the school” (p. 84- 85). The stakeholders in any given programme will thus be determined by the nature and context of the programme.

2.2.4. Purposes and Roles of Evaluation

When we look at purposes of evaluation, Weir & Roberts (1994) first distinguish between evaluation for purposes of *accountability* and evaluation for purposes of programme or project development. They add that these two purposes have often been assumed to be in conflict. However, as a result of our experiences reported in the case studies, they feel that in the future it would be more productive, to incorporate both dimensions *into* ELT programme or project evaluation.

They state that in general, *accountability* refers to the answerability of staff to others for the quality of their work. They add that ‘others’ in this case could be bureaucrats, employers; senior school staff, parents, students, the community, or the taxpayer. We should distinguish between *contractual accountability*, where job descriptions and planned outcomes are clearly specified in formal contracts and project frameworks (as for Overseas Development Administration project staff - see Coleman 1987, British Council 1990, chapter 3, and appendix L1, in Weir & Roberts, 1994, p.4) and more general *professional accountability*, where there may be an expectation that staff and administrators should be answerable for their work as it

affects others, for example in the use of resources, in their professional practice, or in programme outcomes. They continue that this is of ten less formally defined than contractual accountability; also, the term may be interpreted differently by different interest groups. Besides this, the most formal and explicit expression of professional accountability is met where practitioners submit themselves to external inspection or assessment by a regulatory body.

They claim that it is characteristic of the nineties, as state and private resources shrink, that in many sectors professional responsibility is seen to include public accountability both to clients and to resource providers. They add that an aspect of this greater accountability is that budgetary responsibility is of ten devolved to those who previously were merely spenders: this is currently the situation in the United Kingdom in the business sector and in the state sector, such as in health care and in state schools in England and Wales, which now have to manage their own annual budgets ('Local Management of Schools'). Weir & Roberts (1994) state that accountability-oriented evaluation is intended to assess the degree to which staff have met contractual or professional accountability demands. They continue that is usually *summative* in focus, in that it examines the effects of a programme or project at significant end points of an educational cycle (in the case of programmes) or at its completion date (in the case of projects). They add that it is usually conducted for the benefit of an external audience or decision maker.

In comparison, development-oriented evaluation is intended to bring about programme or project improvement and will normally be *formative* in nature; it 'regards the program as fluid and seeks ways to better it' (Cronbach, 1982, p. 12, in Weir & Roberts, 1994, p. 5); 'Formative evaluators. . . aim. . . to ensure that the program be implemented as effectively as possible'. 'The formative evaluator watches over the program, alert both for problems and good ideas that can be shared' (Morris and Fitz-Gibbon, 1978, p. 24, in Weir & Roberts, 1994, p. 5.) Weir & Roberts (1994) concludes that it may be carried out by internal or external evaluators but is generally held to be more effective when carried out by a combination of both.

Evaluation will play many roles, contingent on the demands and constraints placed on it (Heath, 1969, in Payne, 1994, p. 7). Three broad functions of evaluation are:

1. Improvement of the program during the development phase. The importance of formative evaluation is emphasized. Strengths and weaknesses of the program or unit can be identified and enhanced or strengthened. The process is iterative, involving continuous repetition of the tryout -- evaluation --redesign cycle.

2. Facilitation of rational comparison of competing programs. Although differing objectives pose a large problem, the description and comparison of alternative programs can contribute to rational decision making.

3. Contribution to the general body of knowledge about effective program design. Freed from the constraints of formal hypothesis testing, evaluators are at liberty to search out principles relating to the interaction of learner, learning, and environment

Saylor & Alexander (1974) state that although evaluation has only one basic *goal-the* determination of the worth or value of something-it has many *roles*. They add that *appraisal* of the outcomes of student learning in all of their ramifications is an example of one role. They claim that this type of evaluation is familiar to most teachers and administrators; it is accomplished through testing, measuring, and assessing pupil achievements, diagnosing individual progress, and comparing results with norms and scores of other members of the class or age group.

Saylor & Alexander (1974) put emphasis to the point that another significant function of evaluation is determining the value of the curriculum itself. They ask these questions: Is the curriculum fulfilling the purposes for which it was designed? Are the purposes themselves valid? Is the curriculum appropriate for the particular group of students with whom it is being used? Are the instructional modes selected the best choices in light of the goals sought? Is the content the best that may be selected? Are the materials recommended for instructional purposes appropriate and the best available for the purposes envisioned?

Saylor & Alexander (1974) add that a third major role of evaluation in schools is to judge the merits of all the administrative and managerial arrangements and practices and the structures within which the school itself operates. These aspects of the school establishment are important determinants of curriculum and instruction.

Another point is that the questions curriculum evaluation must answer. McNeil (1977) states that in a general sense, curriculum evaluation is an attempt to throw light on two questions: (1) Do planned learning opportunities, programs, courses, and activities as developed and organized actually produce desired results? (2) How can the curriculum offerings best be improved? He states that these general questions and the procedures for answering them translate a little differently at macro levels (for example, evaluating the citywide outcomes from several alternative reading programs) than at micro levels (evaluating the effect of a teacher's instructional plans for achieving objectives of a course). He adds that classroom teachers often have an additional set of evaluation questions to guide them in making decisions about individuals:

1. *Placement*. At which level of learning opportunity should the learner be placed in order Challenge but not frustrate?
2. *Mastery*. Has the learner acquired enough competency to succeed in the next planned phase?
3. *Diagnosis*. What particular difficulty is this learner experiencing?

Posner (2004) states that in analyzing a curriculum from an evaluation point of view, we first need to clarify the *purposes* of an evaluation. As we have said, one conducts an evaluation to determine the value of something. But why determine its value? What would one do with this information? He adds that most evaluation experts contend that the main reason to conduct an evaluation of any kind in the context of a curriculum is to provide information for making decisions about either individuals or the curriculum. Figure 1. depicts the distinction between these two kinds of decisions and summarizes the following discussion.

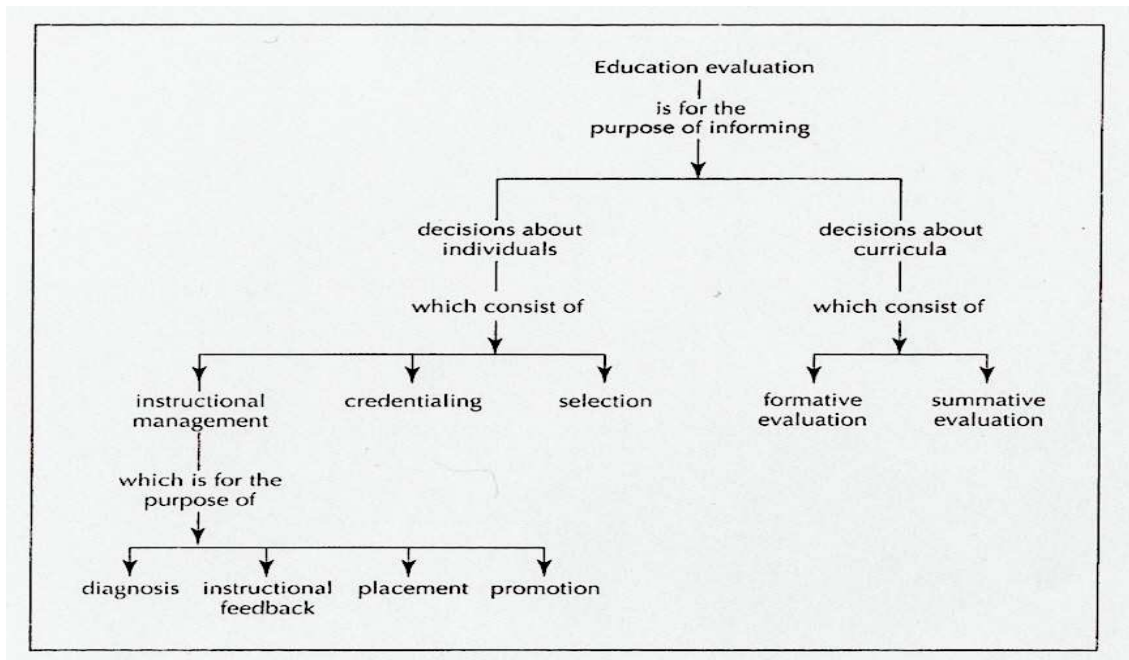


Figure 1. Purposes and roles of evaluation (Posner, 2004)

2.2.4.1. Decisions About Individuals

Posner (2004) states that decisions about individuals are necessary for six purposes: *diagnosis*, *instructional feedback*, *placement*, *promotion*, *credentialing*, and *selection*. He adds that those who must make *diagnostic* decisions require information about strengths and weaknesses and determination of areas that need special instructional attention. Diagnostic methods include (1) observations of student performance; (2) attitude, interest, and behavioral scales; and (3) standardized achievement and aptitude tests with subscores. He continues that *instructional feedback* decisions concern adjustments students might need to make in their approach to studying a subject based on their knowledge of the progress they are making. He claims that most teacher-made tests and quizzes are intended, in part, to help students monitor their progress and adjust their approaches. Besides this, to make *placement* decisions, information about the level of proficiency of the students in particular skills is required, in order to place them in groups that are relatively homogeneous. Similarly; decisions about *promotion* or its opposite, retention, are based on information about the proficiency and maturity of students, information necessary in order to decide whether or not to promote to the next grade level. He adds that standardized tests, individual conferences, and teacher recommendations based on in-class observations are typically

used methods for these two types of decision. Posner (2004) continues that *credentialing* decisions have to do with certification, licensure, and otherwise attesting to the competence of a program graduate. Typically, these decisions require attaining a predetermined passing level on a test designed by the credentialing body, typically the state or a professional organization like the American Bar Association. Lastly, *selection* decisions, such as those made by college admissions offices, typically use existing data about student achievement like grades, but may also depend on standardized tests like the Scholastic Aptitude Test.

Posner (2004) adds that most curricula do not provide data regarding the students that have typically been enrolled or the performance levels attained by these students. Also in fact, the only attention given by most curricula to student performance on evaluation instruments is the assurance that the curriculum prepares the students for credentialing tests or for nationally normed, standardized tests.

2.2.4.2. Curriculum Improvement

Oliver (1977) claims that evaluation is an integral part of the curriculum improvement process. He adds that it should provide both measurement and appraisal whenever and wherever needed. He states that both curriculum theory and good practice indicate that the times for evaluation are before, during, and after an aspect of curriculum study. *Evaluation is a continuous process* in curriculum planning and in the instruction which puts the plans into action.

Oliver (1977) claims that in the framework of curriculum improvement, evaluation may be viewed in a threefold role; (1) *within* the curriculum, that is, the evaluation that teachers make in the classroom situation-as was noted in Problem 9; (2) *about* the curriculum, that is, appraising the effectiveness of the educational program in meeting its goals-appraising such outcomes as problem-solving ability and skill in human relations; (3) *about the process of* curriculum improvement, that is, were the ways used to effect curriculum change in harmony with proposed curriculum theory and desirable practice?

Oliver (1977) states that writers on curriculum development generally agree that evaluation is more than measurement, yet practitioners of ten equate the two. He adds that the comprehensive definition of curriculum espoused in this book (for instance, including such matters as the hidden curriculum, the process for seeking improvement), and the increased attention to affective and psychomotor outcomes call for qualitative appraisals. He claims that movements toward “systems” approaches also add further dimension. Feyereisen et al (1970, in Oliver, 1977, p.300) advise us;

The process of evaluation begins where measurement ends. Evaluation utilizes the information derived from the measurement process as well as from such other sources as self-rating scales, questionnaires, direct observation, and interviews to arrive at a value judgment. Evaluation may be defined as a systematic process for judging the adequacy of the achievement of the objectives of the system.

The Encyclopedia of Educational Research (4th ed., p. 280 in Oliver, 1977, p. 300) adds its view:

In many respects the systematic evaluation of curricula is only beginning to emerge as a recognizable field of educational research. Curriculum reform in recent years has grown out of attempts to (1) bring the modern conceptual and methodological status of subject-matter fields into the experience of students, (2) apply current pedagogical and psychological thinking to classroom instruction, and (3) use the educational process to achieve social-ideological goals. Typically, curriculum evaluation has followed, rather than inspired, these changes.

Beretta (1986) states that in contrast to the prominence it has had in education journals, the question of evaluation methodology and purpose has received relatively little attention in language teaching journals. However, two recent contributors to the *TESOL Quarterly* have heightened awareness of the importance of program evaluation (especially method evaluation) and set out some of the major problems involved. Richards (1984, in Beretta, 1986, p.144) points out that many currently popular methods have yet to be evaluated in any rigorous manner, and Long (1984, in

Beretta, 1986, p.144) emphasizes the need to incorporate systematic observation as a means of explaining results.

Beretta (1986) adds that this discussion builds on these initiatives (though occasionally taking issue with them in the process). The arguments here are offered in the hope that they will give rise to further discussion and refinement. The starting point for this discussion is that evaluation is first and foremost *applied* inquiry. The choice of methodology, to some extent, flows naturally from this fundamental perspective. Beretta (1986) would suggest that (a) we conduct our investigations in the field rather than in artificially controlled “laboratory” settings, (b) we consider the effect of total programs rather than isolated components of them, (c) the duration of the studies be long-term rather than short-term, and (d) randomization is not always practicable or crucial. He elaborates on the kinds of questions that attempts at external validation might address and propose a viable agenda for cumulative investigation, affirming throughout that *relevance* is the consideration in all ESL program evaluation undertakings.

Oliver (1977) states that evaluation is both qualitative and quantitative. It looks at total situation rather than just at certain parts. At the present point the various threads must be pulled together so that they may be seen to form a major element in curriculum improvement.

Oliver (1977) adds that it might be well to repeat at this point the reciprocating relationships which exist both in the classroom and in the total curriculum of:

Philosophy ↔ Goals ↔ Objectives ↔ Activities ↔ Evaluation

In order to provide change and improvement, we should make an individual critical reflection. This idea also exists in constructivist view.

The next section deals with the view of constructivism

2.3. Constructivism

Al-Weher (2004) states that constructivism is one of the educational theories that educators have begun to pay more attention to during last two decades. Between 1999 and 2001, over 200 articles concerning constructivism were published (Vermette *et al.*, 2001, in Al-Weher, 2004, p.169). In general, constructivism adopts a group of ideas about knowledge, teaching and learning. It is, as Windschitl (1999, p. 2, in Al-Weher, 2004, p.169) says, ‘a group of beliefs, standards, and practices that constitute the whole school life’. Al-Weher (2004) adds that knowledge, from a constructivist point of view, is not separated from the knower; rather, it is a representation of the real world in our minds as a result of experiencing it. Furthermore, there are no common concepts held by all in the same manner; rather, each of us has his/her own understanding of things around him/her due to differences in our prior knowledge and experience (Zaiton & Zaiton, 1992, in Al-Weher, 2004, p.170). This explains why what we see is not exactly what exists, because the process of perceiving includes the process of interpreting knowledge, not just transmitting it (Cobern, 1995, in Al-Weher, 2004, p.170).

Cobern also says that the process of learning is a process of interpretation, and when we learn we build our own understanding of the material studied depending on our interpretation of it.

Al-Weher (2004) claims that constructivism has its own conception of instruction. He adds that it is no longer a process of transmitting information from the teacher to the student; rather, it is a process of arranging suitable conditions that allow the student to be involved in the learning process. He states that constructivism adopts a number of teaching methods that are considered to facilitate learning. The linear sequenced process is no longer the best method to teach (Hand & Treagust, 1994, in Al-Weher, 2004, p.170); rather, it is preferable to introduce knowledge in the same way that it is found in the student’s mind, that is, as a map of related and interconnected concepts in an integrated system.

Constructivism also adopts teaching methods such as inquiry, problem solving, action research and projects in which the learner constructs knowledge by himself /

herself (Windschitl, 1999, in Al-Weher, 2004, p.170). It also adopts cooperative learning methods that depend on the social negotiation process. The reason for this is that working cooperatively elicits the previous knowledge that the students have about the subject to be taught and reinforces students to negotiate this knowledge with their colleagues. This is supposed to help the students reconstruct their previous knowledge in a different way (Hand & Treagust, 1994, in Al-Weher, 2004, p.170).

Constructivism is also concerned with exploring alternative conceptions that the students already have, and with changing these conceptions (Watts, 1999, in Al-Weher, 2004, p.171). It also adopts the integration among the different branches of knowledge and connecting what the students learn at school with real life outside (Windschitl, 1999, in Al-Weher, 2004, p.171). In addition, it concentrates on giving enough wait-time to the students to give them chance to think of and produce as many answers as possible (Brooks & Brooks, 1993, in Al-Weher, 2004, p.171).

MacKinnon & Scarff- Seatter (2003) state that traditionally, the role of the teacher has been to impart knowledge to students. They add that in science teaching, where the subject matter consists in ways of representing and explaining nature, there is a long-standing ritual engaging students in experience with nature through text, films, stories, or laboratory experiences. They claim that, although this simplified view of teaching is sometimes evident in the discussions of educators, most would agree that pedagogical problems do arise in conveying concepts, principles, models, purposes, and criteria for interpreting the events of nature. They add that part of the problem is in learning how to perceive nature like a scientist. For example, we can speak in 'pedestrian' ways about cold entering the kitchen from the refrigerator, or the sun setting over the horizon. It is a very different accomplishment to *perceive* thermal energy being exchanged in the kitchen, or the earth rotating easterly on its axis (MacKinnon & Scarff- Seatter, 2003). Here we have the sort of problems facing teachers, as documented in a rather extensive literature pertaining to 'children's science' (MacKinnon & Scarff- Seatter, 2003).

MacKinnon & Scarff- Seatter (2003) states that, certainly, teachers rely on various strategies to overcome such problems of perception and cognition in their classrooms. They add that it is almost a moot point nowadays to suggest that students'

ideas must be taken into consideration in order to provide a foundation for extending concepts, or constructing new concepts and the meanings derived from them.

Brooks & Brooks (2001) have found that the following set of descriptors of constructivist teaching behaviours provides a useable framework within which teachers can experiment with this new approach.

- **Constructivist teachers encourage and accept student autonomy and initiative.**

While the philosophies and mission statements of many schools purport to want students to be thinking, exploring individuals who generate hypotheses and test them out, the organizational and management structures of most schools militate against these goals. So, if autonomy, initiative, and leadership are to be nurtured, it must be done in individual classrooms.

Autonomy and initiative prompt students' pursuit of connections among ideas and concepts. Students who frame questions and issues and then go about answering and analyzing them take responsibility for their own learning and become problem solvers and, perhaps more important, problem finders. These students – in pursuit of new understandings – are led by their own ideas and informed by the ideas of others. These students ask for, if not demand, the freedom to play with ideas, explore issues, and encounter new information.

- **Constructivist teachers allow student responses to drive lessons, shift instructional strategies, and alter content.**

This descriptor does *not* mean that students' initial interest, or lack of interest, in a topic determines whether the topic gets taught, nor does it mean that whole sections of the curriculum are to be jettisoned if students wish to discuss other issues. However, students' knowledge, experiences, and interests occasionally do coalesce around an urgent theme. Such was the case during the Persian Gulf War. Students at all grade levels were compelled by the images they saw, the reports they heard, and the fears they experienced. The social studies teacher attempting to continue discussions on the Renaissance, the science teacher moving ahead with the Krebs Cycle, and the art teacher in the middle of a unit on symmetry all experienced a similar phenomenon—the

students were preoccupied with the war. When magnetic events occur that exert an irresistible pull on students' minds, continuing with preplanned lessons is often fruitless.

- **Constructivist teachers inquire about students' understandings of concepts before sharing their own understandings of those concepts.**

When teachers share their ideas and theories before students have an opportunity to develop their own, students' *questioning* of their own theories is essentially eliminated. Students assume that teachers know more than they do. Consequently, most students stop thinking about a concept or theory once they hear "the correct answer" from the teacher.

It's hard for many teachers to withhold their theories and ideas. First, teachers *do* often have a "correct answer" that they want to share with students. Second, students themselves are often impatient. Some students don't want to "waste their time" developing theories and exploring ideas if the teacher already knows that they are "on the wrong track." So teachers sometimes feel great pressure from students to offer the "right" answer. Third, some teachers adhere to the old saw about knowledge being power. Teachers struggling for control of their classes may use their knowledge as a behavior management device: when they share their ideas, the students are likely to be quiet and more attentive. And fourth, time is a serious consideration in many classrooms. The curriculum must be covered, and teachers' theories and ideas typically bring closure to discussions and move the class on to the next topic.

Constructivist teachers, the caveats presented in the preceding paragraph notwithstanding, withhold their notions and encourage students to develop their own thoughts. Approximated (or invented) spelling is a good example of this approach. As very young students are learning how to put words into writing, they begin to approximate the conventional spellings of words. A kindergarten student titled a sign language book she had illustrated by writing on the cover "My sin lnge bk." The teacher chose not to correct her spelling but, instead, to permit her to continue approximating the spelling of words. Interestingly, when reading the book at home to her parents only one day after writing this title, the girl said, "Oh, I left the two *o*'s out of book." No one told the girl that her spelling was incorrect. She reformulated her own work in the process of sharing it. Her reformulation was a self-regulated event. The teacher's plan

to share her understanding of the conventional spelling, in this case, became unnecessary.

- **Constructivist teachers encourage students to engage in dialogue, both with the teacher and with one another.**

One very powerful way students come to change or reinforce conceptions is through social discourse. Having an opportunity to present one's own ideas, as well as being permitted to hear and reflect on the ideas of others, is an empowering experience. The benefit of discourse with others, particularly with peers, facilitates the meaning-making process.

Over the years, most students come to expect their teachers to differentiate between “good” and “bad” ideas, to indicate when responses are “right” and “wrong,” and to transmit these messages in a fairly straightforward fashion. Dialogue is not a tile in the mosaic of school experienced by most students.

Consequently, most students learn to offer brief responses to questions, and to speak only when they are reasonably certain that they are supporting either a “good” idea or the “right” answer. These classroom sound bytes may assist teachers in moving speedily through the curriculum, but they don't help students construct new understandings or reflect on old ones.

- **Constructivist teachers encourage student inquiry by asking thoughtful, open-ended questions and encouraging students to ask questions of each other.**

If we want students to value inquiry, we, as educators, must also value it. If teachers pose questions with the orientation that there is only one correct response, how can students be expected to develop either the interest in or the analytic skills necessary for more diverse modes of inquiry? Schools too often present students with one perspective: Columbus was a courageous explorer who discovered America (What does that imply about the Native Americans here when he came ashore?); and $Pi = 3.14$ (But C/d —circumference/diameter—yields another number; and if Pi is computed as the quotient of two integers, how can it be considered irrational?).

Complex, thoughtful questions challenge students to look beyond the apparent, to delve into issues deeply and broadly, and to form their own understandings of events and phenomena. Knowing, for example, that Columbus' ships carried with them diseases for which Native Americans had no antibodies and that Columbus and his men enslaved Native Americans for the return voyage home enables students to view the historical development of our nation in terms of Columbus' calculated and uncalculated risks, and the Native Americans' subsequent oppression.

- **Constructivist teachers seek elaboration of students' initial responses.**

Initial responses are just that—*initial* responses. Students' first thoughts about issues are not necessarily their final thoughts nor their best thoughts. Through elaboration, students often reconceptualize and assess their own errors. For example, one middle school mathematics teacher assigned his class problems in a textbook. A student, looking quite confused, asked the teacher if her approach to solving one of the problems was appropriate. The teacher asked the student to explain what she had done. As she was explaining her approach in a step-by-step manner, she recognized her own procedural error. She smiled and said, "I forgot to multiply *both* sides of the equation by "x." The teacher based his responses to the student on the premise that he could learn more about what teaching steps to take in subsequent lessons with the student than he could learn from simply fixing the mistake for her.

- **Constructivist teachers engage students in experiences that might engender contradictions to their initial hypotheses and then encourage discussion.**

Cognitive growth occurs when an individual revisits and reformulates a current perspective. Therefore, constructivist teachers engage students in experiences that might engender contradictions to students' current hypotheses. They then encourage discussions of hypotheses and perspectives. Contradictions are constructed by learners. Teachers cannot know what will be perceived as a contradiction by students; this is an internal process. But teachers can and must challenge students' present conceptions, knowing that the challenge only exists if the students *perceive* a contradiction. Teachers must, therefore, use information about the students' present conceptions, or points of view, to help them understand which notions students may accept or reject as contradictory.

Students of all ages develop and refine ideas about phenomena and then tenaciously hold onto these ideas as eternal truths. Even in the face of “authoritative” intervention and “hard” data that challenge their views, students typically adhere staunchly to their original notions. Through experiences that might engender contradictions, the frameworks for these notions weaken, causing students to rethink their perspectives and form new understandings.

- **Constructivist teachers provide time for students to construct relationships and create metaphors.**

In one 2nd grade classroom, students were given magnets to explore. In a short time, almost all of the students had discovered that one end of a magnet attracted the other magnet while the opposite end repelled it. Soon, most of the students discovered that if one of the magnets were turned around, the magnets that had attracted each other now repelled each other. This activity took nearly 45 minutes, during which some students went beyond these initial relationships and joined forces with their peers to create magnetic “trains,” and to create patterns with iron filings. A great number of relationships, patterns, and theories were generated during this activity, and none of them came from the teacher. The teacher structured and mediated, the activity and provided the necessary time and material for learning to occur, but the students constructed the relationships themselves.

Encouraging the use of metaphor is another important way to facilitate learning. People of all ages use metaphors to bolster their understandings of concepts. One kindergarten student, after a field trip to pick strawberries at a local farm, ran home to his parents saying “You should have been there. It was a red heaven.”

- **Constructivist teachers nurture students' natural curiosity through frequent use of the learning cycle model.**

The learning cycle model has a long history in science education. The most popular description of this model was published by Atkin and Karplus (1962, in Brooks & Brooks, 2001, p.116). Highlighting the important role of self-regulation in the learning process, the model describes curriculum development and instruction as a three-step cycle.

First, the teacher provides an open-ended opportunity for students to interact With purposefully selected materials. The primary, goal of this initial lesson is for students to generate questions and hypotheses from working with the materials. This step has historically been called “discovery.” Next, the teacher provides the “concept introduction” lessons aimed at focusing the students’ questions, providing related new vocabulary, framing with students their proposed laboratory experiences, and so forth. The third step, “concept application,” completes the cycle after one or more iterations of the discovery–concept introduction sequence. During concept application, students work on new problems with the potential for evoking a fresh look at the concepts previously studied.

Note that this cycle stands in contrast to the ways in which most curriculum, syllabi, and published materials present learning, and the ways in which most teachers were taught to teach. In the traditional model, concept introduction comes first, followed by concept application activities. Discovery, when it occurs, usually takes place after introduction and application, and with only the “quicker” students who are able to finish their application tasks before the rest of the class.

In summary, the teacher has to be a facilitator for the learning process; arranging suitable conditions for it and providing a non – threatening environment that suitable for dialogue and discussion between students and enabling them to pose their ideas and defend them freely and without hesitation (Watts, 1999, in Al-Weher, 2004, p.171).

2.4. ESP

If we want to talk about English program of a vocational school we should begin by looking at three definitions of ESP found in the literature, and then give Dudley - Evans & St. John’s. The three definitions are all relatively late in time if we assume that ESP began in the 1960s, but they build on earlier definitions.

Stevens' (1988, in Dudley - Evans & St. John, 2004, p.2) definition of ESP makes a distinction between four *absolute characteristics* and two *variable*

characteristics. The absolute characteristics are that ESP consists of English Language Teaching which is:

- designed to meet specified needs of the learner;
- related in content (that is in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;
- centred on language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics and so on, and analysis of the discourse;
- in contrast with 'General English'.

The variable characteristics are that ESP

- may be restricted as to the learning skills to be learned (for example reading only);
- may not be taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

Robinson (1991, in Dudley - Evans & St. John, 2004, p.2) also accepts the primacy of needs analysis in defining ESP. Her definition is based on two key defining criteria and a number of characteristics that are generally found to be true of ESP. Her key criteria are that ESP is '*normally goal-directed*', and that ESP courses develop from a *needs analysis*, which 'aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English' (Robinson, 1991, p. 3, in Dudley - Evans & St. John, 2004, p.2). Her characteristics are that ESP courses are generally constrained by a *limited time period*, in which their objectives have to be achieved, and are taught to *adults* in *homogeneous classes* in terms of the work or specialist studies that the students are involved in.

In Dudley - Evans & St. John's definition they stress two aspects of ESP methodology: all ESP teaching should reflect the methodology of the disciplines and professions it serves; and in more specific ESP teaching the nature of the interaction between the teacher and learner may be very different from that in a general English class. This is what they mean when we say that specific ESP teaching has its own methodology.

They also believe that language should be included as a defining feature of ESP. While the specified needs arising from needs analysis relate to activities that students need to carry out (rather than language), a key assumption of ESP is that these activities generate and depend on registers, genres and associated language that students need to be able to manipulate in order to carry out the activity. In Dudley - Evans & St. John's definition they use absolute and variable characteristics. Their definition is:

1. Absolute characteristics:

- ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner;
- ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves;
- ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

2. Variable characteristics:

- ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
- ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English;
- ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. it could, however, be used for learners at secondary schoollevel;
- ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

On-going demographic changes and increasing globalization have challenged Professional schools to prepare students for the plurilinguistic and pluricultural realities of the workplace both within and across national boundaries (Brecht & Walton, 2003; Kennedy & Weiner, 2003; McGinnis, 2003, in Purpura and Graziano - King, p.1-2.) However, it is not uncommon to find a serious disconnect between what professional school students need and expect from foreign language study and what they receive,

when foreign language study is administered by language departments in the larger institution (Bousquet, 2003; Davidson, 2001; Leaver & Shekhtman, 2002; Swales, 1990, in Purpura and Graziano – King, p.2). Purpura and Graziano – King (2004) states that given the evolving workplace realities of its graduates, professional schools may need to re-assess the degree to which their students' career needs are or are not being met by existing language programs. They add that the results of this reassessment could conceivably lead to much - needed readjustments in policy, practices, perceptions, and resources on the one hand, and the creation of interdisciplinary mechanisms for collaboration between language-related programs and the professional schools on the other.

2.4.1. Needs Analysis

Richards (2005) states that one of the basic assumptions of curriculum development is that a sound educational program should be based on an analysis of learners' needs. He states that procedures used to collect information about learners' needs are known as needs analysis. He adds that needs analysis as a distinct and necessary phase in planning educational programs emerged in the 1960s as part of the systems approach to curriculum development and was part of the prevalent philosophy of educational accountability (Stufflebeam, McCormick, Brinkerhoff, and Nelson 1985, in Richards, 2005, p. 51). If providers of training programs wanted public or other sources of funding in order to provide different kinds of training programs, they were required to demonstrate that a proposed program was a response to a genuine need (Pratt 1980, in Richards, 2005, p. 51). Subsequently needs analysis developed into something of an industry. Berwick (1989, 5 , in Richards, 2005, p. 51) comments:

“The need for convincing precision in educational needs assessment was also reinforced during this period by the “behavioral objectives” movement in educational planning, particularly in North America, which insisted on specifying in measurable form all goals of importance within an educational system. The emphasis on precision and accountability clearly influenced the appearance of needs assessment as a form of educational technology and its diversification into a collection of educational research methodologies”.

Richards (2005) claims that needs analysis was introduced into language teaching through the ESP movement. He adds that from the 1960s, the demand for specialized language programs grew and applied linguists increasingly began to employ needs analysis procedures in language teaching. By the 1980s, in many parts of the world a “needs-based philosophy” emerged in language teaching, particularly in relation to ESP and vocationally oriented program design Brindley (1984, in Richards, 2005, p. 51).

2.4.2. ESP and Language Programs Evaluation

Hutchinson & Waters (1987) state that the ESP course, like any course, should regularly demonstrate that its continued existence in its present form is justified. They add that since the ESP course exists to satisfy a particular educational need, evaluation helps to show how well the course is actually fulfilling the need. They argue that a sponsor may also wish to be supplied with clear information about the suitability of the course and may well base decisions as to further investment and support on the results.

Hutchinson & Waters (1987) claim that evaluating an ESP course helps to establish whether it is meeting its aims. They add that the information gathered forms the starting point for any necessary revisions of the course, and may also help to guide the design of other similar courses in your teaching institution or elsewhere. They state that course evaluation also plays a useful social role, by showing the various parties involved (teachers, learners, sponsors etc.) that their views are important. There are four main aspects of ESP course evaluation to be considered (Alderson and Waters, 1983, in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.152- 155):

- a) What should be evaluated?
- b) How can ESP courses be evaluated?
- c) Who should be involved in the evaluation?
- d) When (and how often) should evaluation take place?

a) *What should be evaluated?*

The short answer is: everything of significance. However, there are two important constraints:

- i) Your ability to collect the information;
- ii) Your ability to use the information once it has been collected. It will annoy everyone concerned if you collect all sorts of detailed evaluation information, possibly at considerable inconvenience, time and expense, and then do little or nothing with it. Next time round, your colleagues (and others) may not be so cooperative.

In a learning-centred approach to ESP, the overall aim of the ESP course is to meet two main needs of the learners: their needs as language *learners*, and their needs as language *users*. It follows that the ‘what’ of ESP course evaluation is concerned with assessing the extent to which the course satisfies both kinds of needs. Thus, the enquiry should begin with questions such as:

Is the course fulfilling the learners’ language *learning* needs?

Has the course fulfilled	}	the learners’ language <i>using</i> needs?
Is the course fulfilling*		

If the response to any of these questions is a ‘yes’, then congratulations are in order! However, assuming that you get only a qualified ‘yes’, (or even an outright ‘no’!) in reply to one or more of them, the next question that needs to be asked is:

What areas of need are not being / have not been fulfilled?

Once we know what these areas are, we can turn our attention to identifying the source(s) of these problems. Now the relevant questions are:

Were the unfulfilled needs identified during the course design process? If not, why not?

How can the course design process be improved to avoid this problem in future?

How can the course be changed to take these needs into account?

* The additional form of the question is for situations where exposure to the target situation occurs within the duration of the ESP course.

If these needs *were* identified during the course design process, why are they not being / have they not been fulfilled? Is the fault in:

- a) the syllabus(es);
- b) the materials;
- c) the teaching and learning techniques;
- d) the testing procedures;
- e) logistical/administrative arrangements;
- f) the course evaluation system?

b) How can ESP courses be evaluated?

In theory, there are very many ways in which the ESP course can be evaluated, ranging from simulations to suggestion boxes. However, in practice, most ESP courses are evaluated using one or more of the following techniques:

- test results;
- questionnaires;
- discussions;
- interviews;
- informal means (e.g. unsolicited comments, ‘casual’ chats etc.).

Which techniques you use will depend on what suits your teaching situation best. It needs to be stressed that gathering the evaluation information is only the first stage in the process. The information must next be collated, and if it is extensive, summarised. After this, it needs to be discussed with all interested parties, and some conclusions drawn. Finally, it should be included in a detailed course evaluation report, as a basis for further discussions and decision-making. As with (a) above, nothing is more discouraging than if useful suggestions for change are consigned to the wastepaper bin through apathy or laziness on the part of teachers or course designers. Having reached your conclusions, use them!

c) Who should be involved in the evaluation?

The extent of involvement of any group will vary, but it is likely, in practice, that the bodies most closely concerned will be the ESP teaching institution, the ESP teachers, the learners and the course sponsors. (Former students can also provide useful

information.) It is important to get a representative cross-section of views and to take them properly into account. Evaluation is concerned with people's perceptions of value and their views will, therefore, vary according to their own interests and concerns. With learners, in particular, it can be difficult to get feedback which is an expression of their real views. They may be reluctant to criticise authority, possibly thinking it might prejudice their assessment. They might simply be apathetic, feeling that any course revisions will not help them, but only future students. Orientation exercises (see Waters, 1985, in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.154) can be used to get learners accustomed to expressing their views honestly and candidly, although it must be said that an open and trusting relationship between the teacher and the students is the best basis for promoting frank and useful feedback.

Who you ask and how you ask will affect what you find out. Thus, the methodology of course evaluation procedures, although coming midway in our list of points here, should actually be seen as a primary consideration, and care should always be taken, in any statement about evaluation findings, to make explicit how the information was obtained, that is, from whom, and by what means.

d) When (and how often) should evaluation take place?

There is an undoubted danger in doing course evaluation too frequently. Respondents have only so much time to give the right quantity and quality of information: the ESP teacher is limited in how quickly and insightfully he or she can process it and so on. However, the dangers in not doing course evaluation often enough are equal, or greater. Learners, sponsors and others will evaluate the course informally anyway. If there is no proper channel or forum for these views, there is a risk of misunderstanding, or at worst, hostility.

It is difficult to prescribe how often course evaluation should be done. All sensitive and responsive teaching will include this as a continuing feature anyway. So much will also depend on the characteristics of the individual teaching situation. However, in our experience, the most important times occur:

i) in the first week of the course. The tone established here will probably have a greater overall effect on the success of the course than what occurs later, since initial

impressions are very often more enduring than later ones.

ii) at regular intervals throughout the course, for example, every half term.

iii) at the end of the course.

iv) (if possible) after the course. This is potentially the most valuable, since the learners will be in a position to judge how well the course prepared them for the target situation they are now in.

Finally, a general word of caution. Evaluation can be time-consuming, complex and frustrating. Apart from the matters already discussed, other possible difficulties may arise. For example, problems identified might have no obvious solution, or only solutions that are too radical or expensive for everyone to accept. Feedback from one party may contradict feedback from another. In some parts of the world, willingness to evaluate in consultation with the learners might be taken as a sign of incompetence: 'It's the teachers' job to know these things – why should we do their job?' Alternatively, criticising a course might be seen as showing a lack of respect for authority. On the other hand, an evaluation session can easily degenerate into a forum for airing minor, personal grievances. Recognising that course evaluation is likely to bring with it disadvantages of this kind, as well as benefits, is probably half the battle. And, in overall terms, it is likely that a sound evaluation system will provide a deeper insight, from all sides, into the nature of the most effective learning experiences and processes that can be accommodated. As Brumfit (1983) says:

'One of the most useful roles of formal feedback sessions (is) to reveal to students the wide variety of their own demands and needs, so that they (become) increasingly aware of the need for a general syllabus which (can) be individualised within boundaries imposed by finance and time.' (in Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.155)

Thus, in addition to its 'political' aspects, course evaluation, at its best, is an indispensable part of a learning-centred approach to ESP.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents all relevant information about the nature of the research, the subjects, and how the data have been collected and analyzed. The main concern of this study is to analyze and investigate the English course in terms of course objectives, course content, curriculum(see Appendix D), materials and techniques used in the classroom from the students' point of view.

3.2. Research Design

This is a descriptive study in which 595 students participated. The subjects were first year and second year students in Vocational School of Kozan. Their departments are Bank Accounting, Computer Technology and Programming, Office Management and Secreteriship, Furniture Decoration, Accounting, Seeding and Local Administration. The students in all departments take the English course in the first year with the exceptions of Bank Accounting, Computer Technology and Programming and Office Management and Secreteryship programs whose students continue to take the course in their second year.

The students were given a questionnaire about methods, aims, content and evaluation of the English course (see Appendix A, B). Also interviews were made with 10 volunteering students. The students were asked questions about methods, aims, content and evaluation of the English course.

3.3. Participants of the Study

The subjects are five hundred and ninety five first and second year students attending Vocational School of Kozan during the second term of the academic year

2006- 2007. Three hundred and forty seven of the students are male, and two hundred and forty eight are female. Their age range from 17 to 46.

3.4. Instruments

Two kinds of instruments have been used to collect data; a questionnaire (see Appendix A, B), and the interviews. The questionnaire given to students about the English course consists of 24 questions. In the questionnaire, multiple choice and open-ended questions were used.

The questionnaire has been adapted from Odabaşı (1998). It has been designed to find out how the students evaluate the course. By this instrument, course is evaluated in depth from the students' point of view. The program is analyzed and investigated from every aspect, so we obtained data about the content, objectives, materials and assessment techniques of the course. The questionnaire mainly includes four sections: the reasons for learning English, objectives of the course, course content and materials used and learners' self evaluation.

The second instrument were the interviews. Students were asked to comment on the content of the course, the materials used, teachers' classroom practices and general problems they encountered. By this instrument, students' ideas about the program are obtained. The interviews were made in friendly atmosphere in the researcher's office. The duration of the interviews varies from 10 to 15 minutes. The researcher took detailed notes.

3.5. Data Analysis

In the analysis of questionnaire and interview data, the results have been grouped under the headings of :

1. objectives of the course
2. content of the course
3. evaluation of the course
4. general ideas about the English course

The data obtained from the questionnaire were analyzed by means of descriptive statistical analysis programme. In addition to that, the data obtained from the interviews were analyzed by means of content analysis.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter deals with the analysis of the data collected from the questionnaires and the interviews. The following procedures were used in the analysis of the data.

- 1) The answers elicited from the questionnaires were using a statistical programme and presented in tables.
- 2) The interviews were subjected to content analysis.

Data obtained from the answers given to the questionnaires was categorized and discussed under the subtitles of the reasons for learning English of students, objectives of the course, content of the course and materials used and learners' self evaluation.

4.2. Analysis and Interpretation of Questionnaire Results

4.2.1. The Reasons for learning English

Question 1 searches for why the students are learning English. According to the responses, 54.5% of the students say that they are learning English since it will be useful in their professional life. 16.1 percent of the students say that they are learning it as it is compulsory. 8.2% of the students say they learn it to find a job easily and 5.5 percent say that they are learning it as they like English. This means most of the students think that they will use the language in their professional lives. Some of the students, (16.1 %) learn English to pass the course. Some of them (8.2 %) learn the language to earn money easily. The results reveal that the majority of the learners like to learn English for specific purposes. That is they believe that learning English would provide an advantage in their future career. The results are shown in the table below.

Table 2. The reasons for learning English

Choices	n	%
Because it will be useful in my professional life	324	54.5
Because it is compulsory	96	16.1
To find a job easily	49	8.2
Since I like it	33	5.5
Other (since it is an universal language, to improve myself...)	93	15.6
TOTAL	595	100.0

4.2.2. Objectives of the course

Question 2 searches for if the students are aware of the main objectives of the course. Students agree that the aim of this lesson is to prepare them to real life. As English is an international language to communicate, it will be useful in every areas of their lives. Not only for finding a good job it is also useful in improving themselves.

Question 6, an open-ended one, asks students what benefit they can deduce from having clear-cut objectives. The students think that they can follow themselves as they know what they will learn and how they will be assessed. Besides this, their interest to the lesson will increase.

Question 3, in this section of the questionnaire asks students if the teachers handout syllabi at the beginning of the term. , 28 % of the students give the answer “yes”.Those who choose “partly” is 38 %.The number of the students who say that they do not get syllabus is 33 %.

Question 4 relevant to the previous one, asks students if the teacher follows the syllabus throughout the term. 68.1% of the students say that teachers follow the syllabus. Percentage of the students who think syllabus is partly followed is 24.7. The percentage of the students who say that the syllabus is not followed is only 3.6.

Question 5 asks students if they think the objectives have been fulfilled at the end of the term. According to the responses, 16% of the students think that they reached the objectives given.34% of the students think that they “partly” reached the objectives

given in the syllabus. 36 % of the students believe that they did not achieve these objectives. Considering the students who are partly agree it can be said that most of the students think they did not achieve the objectives. This means, students experience problems in attaining the course objectives. This failure can be due to factors such as materials used, teacher's classroom practices or the methodology followed, the language level of the course content, the affective reasons etc.

Table 3. Responses concerning fulfillment of the objectives of the course at the end of the term

Choices	n	%
No	212	36
Partly	203	34
Yes	97	16
No response	83	14
TOTAL	595	100

4.2.3. Course Content and Materials Used

In this section, **question 7** queries if the students find the English course difficult. Table 4 shows the numbers and percentages related to this item.

Table 4. Responses for the difficulty of the content of the English course

Choices	n	%
Partly	249	42
No	191	32
Yes	151	25
No response	4	1
TOTAL	595	100

This table shows that almost half of the students (42 percent) find the English course partly difficult. 25% of the students find it difficult and 32% of the students find the course easy. Most of the students (42 % said “partly”, 25% said “yes”) think that the content of the course is difficult. Therefore, we should modify the content of the course and prepare it according to their level.

Question 8 investigates if students find the content of the English course appealing. Their responses are given in the table below.

Table 5. Responses for the attractiveness of the course

Choices	n	%
Yes	241	40.5
Partly	217	36.5
No	134	22.5
No response	3	0.5
TOTAL	595	100.0

As it is seen in Table 5, while only 40.5 percent of the students find the course interesting, more than half of the students, 36.5 % and 22.5 % (“partly” and “no” respectively) report their lack of interest in the course. This means, most of the students are not interested in the lesson. The answers given to this and previous questions provide reasons for students saying that they failed to attain the course objectives. In other words, their responses show that the content of the course is difficult to understand and not appealing. Thus, we should make the lesson more interesting and understandable by audial and visual aids, and by adding more materials.

Question 9, in relation to the previous one, deals with one of the main concerns of this study. With this question, it is aimed to find out if the students think the subjects of the English course will contribute to their future career.

Table 6. Responses for contribution of the content of “English” course to their future career.

Choices	n	%
Yes	458	77.0
Partly	86	14.5
No	49	8.2
No response	2	0.3
TOTAL	595	100.0

According to the table above, 77 % of the students think that the subjects contribute to their future career. 14.5 % think that, if not completely, this course

contributes, while only 8.2 percent do not agree. Majority of the students think that this course contributes to their future career. From the responses of the students to this question, we can infer that the problem with the course is not the content itself but the language level. Indeed responses to the next question clearly show that it is the language level of the course that makes the student believe the course would not contribute to their future career.

As an answer to **question 10**, most of the students say that the subjects of the course are too difficult, thus they will not come across with these subjects in their real life.

Question 11 investigates the materials used in the English course. The table below shows the materials used. The data in the table indicate that lecture notes are used most commonly, which is followed by, lecture notes and a source book. A course book comes next. A supplementary book is sometimes used. From the responses of the students, we can understand that the students mostly rely on their lesson notes as the course materials.

Table 7. The materials used in the courses.

Choices	n	%
Lecture notes	270	45.4
Lecture notes and source book	135	22.7
A course book	54	9.1
A supplementary book	18	3.0
Photocopy or handout	13	2.2
Other	105	17.6
TOTAL	595	100.0

To **the question 12** if the materials used help them to learn English, almost half of the students (45 %) said “yes”. However, 35 % said “partly”, and 13 % said “no”. This means, almost half of the students think that materials used in the course are not useful. Considering the fact that students take notes and use these as the primary source of their study and yet not find these notes useful, it can be said that they need to be provided with other types of materials in the course.

Table 8. Responses about the usefulness of the materials used in the English lesson

Choices	n	%
Yes	265	45
Partly	208	35
No	79	13
No response	43	7
TOTAL	595	100

Question 17 investigate the difficulty level of the course materials. When the students were asked if they found the course materials difficult, 34.5 % of the students answered “no”;29.6 % found it “partly difficult” and 30.3 % found them “difficult”.Majority of the students find the materials “partly difficult” or “difficult”. The numbers suggest that the materials used by the teacher, although it is used occasionally, are not at the right level for the students. Therefore, materials should be selected materials considering the learners’ language level. The results are shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Students’ responses concerning the difficulty of the course materials

Choices	n	%
No	205	34.5
Yes	180	30.3
Partly	176	29.6
No response	34	5.7
TOTAL	595	100.0

Question 18 asks the main reasons for not understading the course materials. Table 10 illustrates the answers:

Table 10. Main reasons for not understanding course materials.

Choices	n	%
Sentence structures are complex	75	46.9
Language of the book is difficult	49	30.6
Subjects are difficult	36	22.5
TOTAL	160	100.0

The students have difficulty in understanding course materials of the English course because sentence structures are hard to understand (46.9 %). They also think that language of the book is difficult (30.6 %). However, the subject matter of the book is not difficult. To sum up, majority of the students have difficulty to understand the course materials. This finding is parallel to the result of the previous question and they both signal a need for change in the course materials.

4.2.4 Learners' Self Evaluation

To **question 13** which asks whether the learners attend the courses regularly, more than half of the students (58.8 %) said “yes”, 30.8 % said “partly”, and 9.7 % said “no” as illustrated in table 11.

The numbers show that there is an important amount of learners who are not attending the course. The following question asks for the reasons.

Table 11. Students' responses concerning their attendance to the courses regularly.

Choices	n	%
Yes	350	58.8
Partly	183	30.8
No	58	9.7
No response	4	0.7
TOTAL	595	100.0

In **question 14**, based upon the previous question, it is aimed to learn the reasons of not attending the courses. The data obtained from this question is shown in Table 12.

Table 12. The main reasons why students do not attend the courses regularly.

Choices	n	%
Lessons are monotonous	52	25.7
Too many courses in one week	42	20.8
Subjects are not interesting	33	16.3
Attendance is not necessary to get a passing grade	18	8.9
Attendance is not necessary for being a good worker	5	2.5
Teachers do not care about the attendance	2	1.0
Other	50	24.8
TOTAL	202	100.0

According to the responses, it can be concluded that the major reason for students not attending the course regularly is the fact that the lessons are not taking their interest. They find the lessons dull and not attractive in addition to being hard to understand as discussed in the previous questions.

Question 15 examines to what extent students are active in the courses.

Table 13. Students' responses concerning active participation in the lessons.

Choices	n	%
Partly	274	46
Yes	194	33
No	119	20
No response	8	1
Total	595	100

As it is shown in table 13 above, the majority of students see themselves as “partly” active or active in the English course (46% and 33% respectively). Only twenty percent of the students choose the item “no”. From the students responses, it can be inferred that they thought of themselves as active participants in the lessons. Only 119 students (20 %) out of 595 said that they were not active in the lessons.

When we asked the students the reasons which hinder them to participate in the lessons in **question 16**, they gave the answers as shown in Table 14.

Table 14. The main reasons why students are not active in the lessons.

Choices	n	%
Inadequate motivation	90	26.2
Lessons are teacher centered	51	14.9
Lessons are based on memorization	51	14.9
The classrooms are crowded	37	10.8
Teachers' course knowledge is inadequate	6	1.7
Other	108	31.5
TOTAL	343	100.0

To students, one of the main reasons for lack of participation is inadequate motivation (26.2 %). Besides this, students think that lessons are based on memorization and lessons are teacher centered (14.9 %). Some students (10.8 %) think that the classrooms are crowded.

Question 19 asked students to state their preferred way of assessment. Table 15 illustrates the answers:

Table 15. The techniques that should be used to assess the success of the students.

Choices	Always		Sometimes		Never	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Test	255	29,9	152	17,2	24	6,4
Performance in class	248	29,0	151	17,1	43	11,5
Written exam	166	19,4	251	28,4	45	12,0
Oral exam	132	15,5	184	20,8	97	25,9
Homework	53	6,2	146	16,5	166	44,3

The data obtained from this question indicate that multiple choice tests and in-class performance are among the most favorite preferences of the students for the evaluation of success of the English course. 29.9 % of students always prefer multiple choice test. Twenty nine percent prefer an assessment based on their performance in class. On the other hand, as the table above shows, homework is not preferred much by the students (44.3 % says “never”). The reason behind such preference might be that students may feel not confident enough in productive skills which require independent

and creative use of the language knowledge. Thus, they may feel secure with multiple choice type of exams.

Question 20 examines how the students find themselves in the English course. Table 16 shows the results.

Table 16. The information about how the students evaluate their performance in the lessons.

Choices	n	%
Average	227	38
Successful	162	27
Not successful	108	18
Very successful	76	13
No response	22	4
TOTAL	595	100

Only 13 % of the students find themselves “very successful” in the English course, while 27 % evaluate themselves as “successful”.Thirty-eight percent of them think they are “average”.

According to the data obtained from question 20, it can be said that most of the students find their own success not satisfactory in the English course. When they were asked for the reasons for not being successful as a follow up question, their answers varied from not being motivated enough to crowded population of the classroom. Table 17 below presents the data from **question 21**.

Table 17. The main reasons for not being successful.

Choices	Yes		Partly		No	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Inadequate motivation in lessons	131	22.2	69	16.6	19	3.0
Having no interest in the lessons	103	17.5	69	16.6	42	6.7
Teachers cannot make it an interesting lesson	88	14.9	43	10.3	60	9.5
Exams cannot exactly assess students' success	66	11.2	50	12.0	46	7.3
Inadequate number of lesson hours	64	10.9	36	8.7	89	14.1
The classrooms are crowded, students do not have equal chance to take part in lesson; and this lessens the motivation	53	9.0	46	11.1	74	11.7
Contents are not directly related to my field	43	7.3	38	9.1	96	15.2
High frequency of exams	28	4.8	36	8.7	95	15.1
Low frequency of exams	13	2.2	29	7.0	109	17.3

The data in Table 17 indicates that there are four main reasons causing students' not being successful in the English course: inadequate motivation in the lessons, having no interest in the subjects, the fact that the teachers can not make it an interesting lesson, and the belief that exams can not evaluate students' success. These answers point to the important role of the teacher and the affective dimension of learning. The numbers suggest that the affective concerns of the students such as motivation and interest play a major role in their success.

Besides these four reasons, there are some other factors that are reported by students as affecting their success. Some students (10.9 % of the students) think that the number of the lesson hours are inadequate. In addition to that, some of the students think that the classrooms are crowded and students do not have equal chance to take part in the lesson and this lessens the motivation. Perhaps, some modifications might be made about the the number of the lesson hours and size of the classrooms.

The last factor is that the content is found not directly related to their field. Some of the students(7.3 % of the students) think that the subjects of the English course do not contribute to their own field of study, so they do not believe that it would be beneficial for them.9.1 percent of the students partly share this idea. Thus, we should consider the needs of the students and the course content while we are preparing the curriculum.

Question 22, an important one for the purposes of this study, asks if students think that this program meets their needs and expectations. Table 18 shows the results.

Table 18. Students responses concerning being enough for their needs and expectations of this program.

Choices	n	%
Partly	252	42
Yes	158	27
No	133	22
No response	52	9
TOTAL	595	100

The majority of the students are not certain about the usefulness of the program according to the responses. Nearly half of the students (42 %) stated that the program partly meets their expectations and needs. Including the students who answered as “no” (22 %), it can be said that the program fails to meet the students expectations and needs. The answers to this particular question are actually reflecting the fact that the overall language program is not designed considering the needs of specific target group of students. Students’ expectations towards ESP focused language course is revealed in their answers to this question as it is also put into words throughout the questionnaire in various questions. (Question 1, 8, 9, 10, 12)

Question 23 asks the main reasons of why program is not meeting the students’ expectations and needs. Table 19 illustrates the answers:

Table 19. Students’ responses concerning the main reasons for not meeting the students’ expectations and needs of this program

Choices	n	%
English program is inadequate to transfer to my professional life	163	48.9
Contents are not directly related to my field	84	25.2
Attendance to this lesson is not necessary for being a good worker	37	11.1
Other	49	14.7
TOTAL	333	100.0

Nearly half of the students, 48.9 %, think that the English program is inadequate to transfer to their professional life. 25.2 % think that the contents are not directly related to their field. Thus, modifications should be made according to students' future professions. Besides this, curriculum and the materials used should be changed according to students' needs and likes.

In the last part of the questionnaire, students are given an open-ended question to state their opinions and make suggestions. When the students comments were analyzed, it was found that almost all of the students suggested a change in the program. They asked for a language program which should be designed considering the learners' future needs in their lives and in their professions.

4.3. Analysis of the Interviews

As the second source of data semi structured interviews were held with 10 volunteering students about their English course. The interviews were made face to face in a friendly manner in a comfortable atmosphere in the researcher's office. Detailed notes were taken while interviewing the students. Students were asked to comment on the content of the course, the materials used, teachers' classroom practices and general problems they encountered. The responses given to the questions were subjected to content analysis and then the findings of the interviews were categorized. The overall conclusions reached from students' answers as follows:

The students think that the lesson should be more student-centered. More group-works and pair-works should be made in the class. Physical equipments like computers, VCD, television and tape recorders should be used in the class.

Some students stated that they could have been more successful if they had had more time. Unfortunately, some of the students were both working and studying at the same time.

The students find the administrative support provided by the institution not enough as there is lack of physical equipments.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

This study looked for answers to four questions related with the English programme offered in Kozan Vocational School of Çukurova University. The overall aim of the study is to investigate the effectiveness and usefulness of the English program at Kozan Vocational School of Çukurova University from students' point of view. The study also aims to elicit data on the materials used regarding their relevance to students' needs and future professions. In order to come to conclusions on the research questions, two types of data collection tools were used. First of all, totally 595 students were given a questionnaire to find out their views on the English programme. The students were asked questions about the reasons for learning English, the objectives and the content of the course, the materials used. Following that, 10 students were interviewed about the English programme.

5.2. Discussion and Conclusion

As it is stated in the report of Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (1998), quality or excellence has continued to be a dominant theme in educational discourse with a renewed emphasis on standards of student performance and the effectiveness of teaching. It is stated in the report that the problems of achieving more equal access to education and fairer chances for all to benefit from its outcomes have also come to exercise teachers, policy-makers and the research community, causing the concept of relevance to real life to emerge as a major consideration. Thus, the search is on for educators to find ways of engaging the interests and energies of every student, to reduce school failure and drop-out rates, and to raise the standards of all engaged in schooling.

OECD education systems have to cope with basic changes to their environment if new expectations are themselves to be created from the different stakeholders either

within or outside the formal system. It is stated in the report that societies are tending to erode central control and hand over responsibilities to the schools. It is added that every student is now expected to reveal more activity, more responsibility and a greater learning drive than in the past. Some key challenges arise:

- a rapidly evolving world, particularly because of the acceleration of technological progress in the field of communication, has two direct implications for education: the needs, first to clarify the common core of knowledge and skills that all young people require before embarking on adult life, and second to prepare the minds of the young for constant adaptation to new conditions in their lives as adults;
- education for all implies special efforts to help the under-served so that they may realise their full potential, whereby all the pools of talent in a country are tapped;
- a globalisation of the economy with greater interaction between countries, and a premium on human adaptability and flexibility, suggests the necessity of acquiring novel types of skills and competences and being able to deal with multiculturalism;
- the development of management paradigms within organisations requires a mobilisation of fresh competences at all levels and an increase of the general level of educational attainment of the whole labour force.

These four challenges all suggest the importance of implementing education as a lifelong learning process. Alongside these are at least the following outstanding problem areas:

- a durable slowdown of economic growth in certain industrialised countries, with some minorities cumulating social handicaps, especially in urban areas; in these areas it is expected that the school should contribute significantly to overcoming disadvantage;
- a predominance of materialistic values which leads certain young people to lose sight of existential landmarks, to fall into serious problems like drug addiction, or to reach out for certain extremist reactions - sects, fundamentalism, racism - all of which threaten peace on both the domestic and

international scenes. There is a moral dimension here;

- a threat to the ecological balance of our planet which calls for more awareness of the environmental issues and more concern for sustainable economic growth.

In the report of Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (1998) it is stated that a useful starting point for re-evaluating the curriculum is the quest for opportunities for all, with the further implication of differentiation according to the abilities of each student. It is added that a curriculum is meant here to cover the entire body of courses, including play, dramatic presentations and other recreational offerings. Provided by a given school. Radical responses to the need for curriculum growth are inhibited by the limits of location, space and time that are traditionally built into the school. Still, learning outcomes are everywhere receiving special emphasis, as countries seek to redefine the aims and goals of schooling. They are including interdisciplinary problem-solving, creative initiative, flexibility and adaptability to address change, ability to work in groups, and an intelligent interest in technology, - its uses, limitations and demands on social responsibility. A background consideration for this activity was the declaration of the OECD Ministers of Education at their meeting in 1990 of a need for coherence and focus to avoid curriculum overload. The widening range of tasks and clienteles calls for a rich variety of offerings and of teaching methods, to ensure that all students can experience programmes that meet their talents and interests.

In the report of Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (1998) it is stated that the academic/vocational tension in particular has received extensive attention. This report claims that progress here might lie in strengthening the core that is common across different tracks and in providing second chances. Students could thus move from one option to another, thereby improving the quality of their education. By organising fewer tracks, all built around broad groups of skills and all with a focus on the problem-solving needed in people's lives, more core skills can be imagined. If these principles were pursued effectively, the differences between the tracks would be reduced. The main problems would then be those of overload, for example, how to set standards for vocational competence while achieving the optimal level of academic performance for national or regional standards.

How then to create genuinely equal opportunities while recognising the differences that exist among students? How to ensure that students of modest ability maintain their motivation and development? There is a marked difference between, for example, the *German* approach, with its tripartite system, and the many countries with largely common provision up to the end of lower secondary education, and frequently beyond. Countries will probably agree that the following need to be considered: (the report of Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1998, p.9)

- the priority goals of schooling and the type of curriculum to be implemented at different ages;
- the best structuring of educational streams and organisation of learning pathways;
- the aims and means for suitable career guidance measures for all students;
- the means for improving the quality of teachers whose task is becoming more and more arduous;
- the means to enhance participation of all students and parents in the learning process;
- the most appropriate uses of educational and information technologies and how to put these in place; the best ways to steer and manage education systems, given the need to encourage innovation, grassroots initiatives and overall consistency.

In addition to preparing a new curriculum, teachers of the English course may enable students to use the language in the class, which was pointed as one of the main problems of the students in the English course. Apart from the content, there are some other suggestions for presentation and evaluation of the course. About the presentation, it may be suggested that the teachers of the English course should use other methods instead of lecturing, and use more visual and audial aids to enrich the lesson and increase students' motivation.

As for the assessment, students' performance in the classroom could be evaluated in the English course. Thus, students' motivation would increase and they would become active participants in the lessons.

Consequently, it is suggested that the content of the English course should be designed and renewed considering professional aspects to educate good workers in better programs.

This argument is supported by the findings of our research. As the results reveal English courses designed without considering the needs of the specific learner groups who are learning English as a tool for better works unfortunately fail in attaining its objectives. In such circumstances, as in our course, students lose their interest and motivation and this results in poor performance or total failure.

5.3. Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research

While the present study successfully evaluates the language program and the materials from the students' point of view, certain limitations of the study should be addressed. First of all, due to the heavy work load and time limitations, the researcher had to rely on the questionnaires as a source of data. So, in order to increase reliability of the data, a further research may include observation of the courses. Thus, more data about the content, methods, students' performance might be collected. In addition to the observations, the number of one-to-one interviews with students may be increased. Second, this study is limited with Kozan Vocational School of Çukurova University. Thus, the findings are valid within this context only.

Individual variables, such as age, sex, social and economic background of the students have not taken into consideration in this study. Some students in some classes come from Anatolian High School, so level of their English is not equal. Therefore, their perceptions of the English program may differ. Besides this, some students come to Kozan Vocational School of Çukurova University by the university entrance examination, the others come by directly passing from the high school. This also affects their perceptions of the English program. Socioeconomic states of the students also affect their perceptions about the English program.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Öğrenci Anketi

Lütfen isminizi yazmayın

Cinsiyet : a. () Kadın b. () Erkek

Yaş :

Bölüm / Sınıf :

1. Neden İngilizce öğreniyorsunuz ?

- a. () zorunlu olduğu için
- b. () sevdiğim için
- c. () meslek yaşantımda faydalı olacağı için
- d. () kolay iş bulabilmek için
- e. () diğer.....

DERS AMAÇLARINA İLİŞKİN BİLGİLER

2. Sizce “İngilizce” dersinin amaçları neler olabilir?

.....

.....

3. “İngilizce” dersini veren öğretim elamanları size bu dersin amaçlarını ,
konularını,

işleyiş ve değerlendirme yöntemlerini içeren bir program veriyorlar mı?

() evet () kısmen () hayır

4. Eğer yukarıdaki soruya yanıtınız “evet” ise, dönem içinde bu programa
uyuluyor mu?

() evet () kısmen () hayır

5. Dönem boyunca bu amaçla ulaşıldığını düşünüyor musunuz?

() evet () kısmen () hayır

6. Sizce ders amaçlarının açık ve net olarak belirlenmesinin en önemli yararı nedir?

.....

DERS İÇERİĞİNE İLİŞKİN BİLGİLER

7. “İngilizce” dersinde işlenen konuları zor buluyor musunuz?

() evet () kısmen () hayır

8. “İngilizce” dersinde işlenen konular ilginizi çekiyor mu?

() evet () kısmen () hayır

9. “İngilizce” dersinde işlenen konuların ileride yaşantınıza katkıda bulunacağını düşünüyor musunuz?

() evet () kısmen () hayır

10. Eğer yukarıdaki soruya yanıtınız “hayır” veya “kısmen” ise, bunun sebepleri neler olabilir?

.....

11. “İngilizce” dersinde en çok kullanılan ders araçları nelerdir?

a. () temel bir yardımcı kitap

b. () yardımcı bir kaynak kitap

c. () not tutturma

d. () teksir ya da fotokopi

e. () not tutturma ve kaynak kitap

f. () başka

12. Kullanılan ders araçları (kitap, teksir...) İngilizce öğrenmenizde size yardımcı oluyor mu?

() evet () kısmen () hayır

13. Derslere düzenli olarak devam ediyor musunuz?

() evet () kısmen () hayır

14. Eğer yukarıdaki soruya yanıtınız “hayır” veya “kısmen” ise, bunun en önemli sebebi ne olabilir?

- a. () haftalık ders yükünün fazla olması
- b. () öğretim elemanlarının devamı önemsememesi
- c. () derslerin ilgi çekici olmaması
- d. () dersleri başarmak için devamın gerekliliğine inanılmaması
- e. () mesleğinde iyi olmak için bu derslere devam etmek gerekliliğine inanılmaması
- f. () derslerin monoton geçmesi
- g. () başka

15. Derslere aktif olarak katılıyor musunuz?

() evet () kısmen () hayır

16. Eğer yukarıdaki soruya yanıtınız “hayır” veya “kısmen” ise, bunun sizce en önemli sebebi ne olabilir?

- a. () sınıfların kalabalık olması
- b. () derse yeterince güdülenmeme
- c. () derslerin genellikle öğretmen merkezli olması
- d. () öğretim elamanlarının alan bilgisinin yetersizliği
- e. () derslerin ezbere dayanması
- f. () başka

17. Ana ders kitabını ve ilgili basılı materyalleri anlamakta güçlük çekiyor musunuz?

() evet () kısmen () hayır

18. Eğer yukarıdaki soruya yanıtınız “evet” ise, sizce bunun en önemli sebebi nedir?

- a. () ders kitaplarının dilinin ağır olması
- b. () karmaşık cümle yapılarının olması
- c. () kitaptaki konuların ağır olması

ÖLÇME VE DEĞERLENDİRMEYE İLİŞKİN BİLGİLER

19. “İngilizce” dersini ölçme ve değerlendirmede sizce aşağıdaki tekniklerden hangisine ne derece yer verilmeli?

	her zaman	bazen	hiçbir zaman
a. yazılı sınav	()	()	()
b. sözlü sınav	()	()	()
c. objektif test (doğru, yanlış, eşleştirme, tamamlama...)	()	()	()
d. dönem ödevi	()	()	()
e. sınıf içi çalışmalar	()	()	()

20. Bu dersteki genel başarı durumunuz nasıl?

- a. () pek iyi b. () iyi
- c. () orta d. () zayıf

21. Eğer 20. soruya yanıtınız “orta” veya “zayıf” ise, sizce başarısızlık sebebi ne olabilir?

	EVET	KISMEN	HAYIR
a. sınavların çok sayıda verilmesi	☐	☐	☐
b. sınavların çok seyrek verilmesi	☐	☐	☐
c. derslere yeterince güdülenmeme	☐	☐	☐
d. derslere olan ilgisizlik	☐	☐	☐
e. öğretim elamanının dersi yeterince çekici hale getirememesi	☐	☐	☐
f. haftalık ders saatlerinin yeterli olmaması	☐	☐	☐
g. derslerde izlenen konular kendi bilim meslek alanımla ilgili değil, bu nedenle konuların bana yardımcı olacağına inanmam	☐	☐	☐
h. sınıflar kalabalık olduğu için öğrencilere yeterince söz hakkı tanınmamasının derslere olan ilgiyi azaltması	☐	☐	☐
i. verilen sınavların öğrenci başarısını tam olarak ölçmemesi	☐	☐	☐
j. kendi eleştiriniz			
.....			

22. Bu program gelecekle ilgili beklentilerinize ve ihtiyaçlarınıza cevap veriyor mu?

☐ evet ☐ kısmen ☐ hayır

23. Eğer yukarıdaki soruya yanıtınız “hayır” veya “kısmen” ise, bunun sizce en önemli sebebi ne olabilir?

- a. () derslerde izlenen kendi meslek alanımla ilgili değil
- b. () mesleğimde iyi olmak için bu derslere devam etmek gerekliliğine inanmamam
- c. () İngilizce programı ders içeriğini meslek hayatıma transfer edebilmek için yetersiz
- d. () diğer

24. Anket formunda yer alan sorulan dışında, araştırma konusu ve amacına ilişkin görüşünüz varsa lütfen not ediniz:

.....

.....

.....

İlgi ve katkılarınıza teşekkür ederim.

APPENDIX B

English Version of Student Questionnaire

Please do not write your name!

Sex : a. ☐ Female b. ☐ Male

Age :

Class :

1. Why are you learning English?

- a. ☐ because it is compulsory
- b. ☐ since I like it
- c. ☐ because it will be useful in my professional life
- d. ☐ to find a job easily
- e. ☐ other

OBJECTIVES OF THE COURSE

2. What do you think the objectives of “English” course are?

.....

3. Do the teachers of “English” course give you a syllabus at the beginning of the term?

☐ yes ☐ partly ☐ no

4. If your answer to the question above is “yes”, do the teachers follow this syllabus throughout the term?

☐ yes ☐ partly ☐ no

5. Do you believe that the objectives are reached at the end of the term?

☐ yes ☐ partly ☐ no

6. What do you think the benefits of knowing the objectives of the course are?

.....

CONTENT OF THE COURSE

7. Do you find the content of “English” course difficult?

☐ yes ☐ partly ☐ no

8. Is the content of “English” course appealing to you?

☐ yes ☐ partly ☐ no

9. Do you believe that the content of “English” course will contribute to your future career?

☐ yes ☐ partly ☐ no

10. If your answer is “no” or “partly” to the question above, what are the reasons of this?

.....

11. What are the most commonly used materials in “English” course?

- a. ☐ a course book
- b. ☐ a supplementary book
- c. ☐ note-taking
- d. ☐ photocopy or handout
- e. ☐ note-taking and source book
- f. ☐ other

12. Do the materials (book,handouts...) used help you to learn English?

☐ yes ☐ partly ☐ no

13. Do you attend the courses regularly?

☐ yes ☐ partly ☐ no

14. If your answer to the questions above is “no”, what are the main reasons?

- a. ☐ too many courses in one week
- b. ☐ teachers do not care about the attendance
- c. ☐ subjects are not interesting
- d. ☐ attendance is not necessary to get a passing grade
- e. ☐ attendance is not necessary for being a good worker
- f. ☐ lessons are monotonous
- g. ☐ other

15. Are you an active participant in the lesson?

☐ yes ☐ partly ☐ no

16. If your answer to the question above is “no”, what are the main reasons?

- a. ☐ the classrooms are crowded
- b. ☐ inadequate motivation
- c. ☐ lessons are teacher centered
- d. ☐ teachers' course knowledge is inadequate
- e. ☐ lessons are based on memorization
- f. ☐ other

17. Do you have any difficulty in understanding course materials?

☐ yes ☐ partly ☐ no

18. If your answer to the previous questions is “yes”, what are the reasons?

- a. ☐ language of the book is difficult
- b. ☐ sentence structures are complex
- c. ☐ subjects are difficult

ASSESSMENT

19. Which techniques do you think should be used to assess the success of the students?

	always	sometimes	never
a. written exam	☐	☐	☐
b. oral exam	☐	☐	☐
c. test	☐	☐	☐
d. homework	☐	☐	☐
e. performance in class	☐	☐	☐

20. How do you evaluate your performance in this lesson?

- a. ☐ very successful
- b. ☐ successful
- c. ☐ average
- d. ☐ not successful

21. If your answer to the previous question is “average” or “not successful” what do you think the causes are?

	YES	PARTLY	NO
a. high frequency of exams	☐	☐	☐
b. low frequency of exams	☐	☐	☐
c. inadequate motivation in lessons	☐	☐	☐
d. having no interest in the lessons	☐	☐	☐
e. teachers cannot make it an interesting lesson	☐	☐	☐

- | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| f. inadequate number of lesson hours | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| g. contents are not directly related to my field | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| h. the classrooms are crowded, students do not have equal change to take part in lesson; and this lessens the motivation | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| i. exams cannot exactly assess students' success | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

22. Does this program answer to your expectations and needs?

☐ yes ☐ partly ☐ no

23. If your answer is "no" or "partly" to the question above, what can be its main reason?

- a. ☐ contents are not directly related to my field
- b. ☐ attendance to this lesson is not necessary for being a good worker
- c. ☐ English program is inadequate to transfer to my professional life
- d. ☐ other

24. Please add if you have further comments.

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.....

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Thanks.

APPENDIX C

Kozan Vocational School of Çukurova University

There are 960 students and 15 instructors in the school. 2 of the instructors are English lecturers. The school has students from different parts of Turkey. In each class there are 35 to 50 students. The school benefits from technological developments, for instance, there is a computer lab and an O.H.P. There is also a library in the school. However, there isn't any language lab or room in the school. Besides this, there isn't any material (tape, VCD etc.) for using in English lessons.

APPENDIX D

Curriculum

Name of the course: English 1

Code of the course: IN 101

Hours: 2+0

Classes: Seeding, Local Administration, Furniture Decoration and Bank Accounting departments 1st graders (first semester)

Objectives: It is beginner English. With giving simple structures and tenses, the ability of understanding, reading and speaking of the taught foreign language correctly, is gained. After explaining the subjects, they are strengthened by the examples. The students make correct sentences with the things they learned. By teaching several tenses, kinds of words, suggestion structures and imperatives, learning of the language by the students is provided. Several reading and writing studies are done. Besides this, with the dialogues done, by speaking using the language is provided.

WEEK	SUBJECTS
1	The simple present The verb to be / A/ an. / Singular and plural nouns
2	The simple present tense / can and can't
3	And / but and or / possessive nouns
4	Adjectives / any and some
5	There is and there are / countable and uncountable nouns
6	Possessive adjectives, comparative adjectives
7	Infinitives with like, want, I'd like and need
8	Let's
9	The Present Progressive Tense
10	Questions and sentences
11	The simple present tense (talking about routines and frequency)
12	The simple present tense and the progressive tense
13	Imperatives
14	The simple past tense (regular and irregular verbs)

Name of the course: English 1

Code of the course:IN 101

Hours: 4+0

Classes: Computer technology and programming , Accounting and Office Management and Secretaryship departments 1st graders (first semester)

Objectives: It is beginner English. With giving simple structures and tenses, the ability of understanding, reading and speaking of the taught foreign language correctly, is gained. After explaining the subjects, they are strengthened by the examples. The students make correct sentences with the things they learned. By teaching several tenses, kinds of words, suggestion structures and imperatives, learning of the language by the students is provided. Several reading and writing studies are done. Besides this, with the dialogues done , by speaking using the language is provided.

WEEK	SUBJECTS
1	Present simple (to be) / subject pronouns / possessive adjectives pronouns
2	Commands / object pronouns / modal verbs (can, could, will, would, may)
3	Can (to express ability) / adjectives / adverbs .
4	Present simple (main verb) affirmative, negative, interrogative forms
5	Let's / Shall we? / Why don't we? / How about?
6	What's the matter ? / What's the matter with?
7	Ordinal numbers prepositions of location / time expressions
8	Adverbs of quantity (any, some, only a little, only a few, ...) / countable - uncountable nouns / How many - How much.
9	Would like / would like to ... / would you like me to ...?
10	Present progressive (affirmative, negative, interrogative forms)
11	Present progressive (for future meaning) .
12	Must / have to / need / should / ought to
13	Past verb to be
14	Past main verbs

Name of the course: English 2

Code of the course:IN 102

Hours: 2+0

Classes: Seeding, Local Administration, Furniture Decoration and Bank Accounting departments 1st graders (second semester)

Objectives: It is continued to the teaching of the tenses. The usage of structures like too, enough , usage of quantifiers with the countable and uncountable nouns, usage of if clauses, usage of passive structure and the usage of the relative clauses is taught and it is strengthened by doing the exercises about them. We make the students use the language. By doing reading and writing exercises in the classroom it is tried to teach the language. Especially, by the dialogues done in the classroom the students can easily talk.

WEEK	SUBJECTS
1	Object Pronouns / Verb Complementation
2	The future teuse with going to and will / gerunds and it + infinitive
3	Too and enough / before, after and when.
4	Have to, has to / direct and indirect objects
5	Specific and non specific amounts
6	The past progressive tense
7	Clause; When; while, because and, so
8	Nouns used as adjectives
9	The progressive tense with future meaning
10	Clause with if
11	Adverbs of manner
12	Reflexive Pronouns
13	Passive structure
14	Relative clause with "who", "that", "which", "whose".

Name of the course: English 2

Code of the course:IN 102

Hours: 4+0

Classes Computer technology and programming , Accounting and Office Management and Secretaryship departments 1st graders (second semester)

Objectives: It is continued to teach the tenses. The usage of noun clauses, usage of comparative/ superlative forms, usage of passive structure, usage of adverbs of manner And possibility and probability structures are taught and by doing exercises about them the things that are taught are strengthened. We make the students use the language. By doing reading and writing exercises in the classroom it is tried to teach the language. Especially, by the dialogues done in the classroom the students can easily talk.

WEEK	SUBJECTS
1	Adverbs of location, noun clauses
2	Prefer, would rather
3	Adverbs of manner / Adverbial clauses of manner
4	Comparative / Superlative forms
5	Will / Going to
6	Possible / probable / modal verbs (may, might, can, could, most) with present progressive and past forms.
7	Passive voice (present, past, future, modals)
8	Passive voice (present, past, future, modals)
9	Present perfect tense (affirmative, negative, interrogative forms) / just, already, yet, still, since, for, ever, never.
10	Present perfect tense (affirmative, negative, interrogative forms) / just, already, yet, still, since, for, ever, never.
11	Adverbial clauses of purpose (so that, in order to, so as to, to)
12	The same as / different from
13	Adverbial clauses of reason (because, since, as, due to, owing to, because of, on the ground of ...)
14	Adverbial clauses of result (so, therefore, that's why, so ... that, such ... that)

Name of the course: Professional English 1

Code of the course: BTK 209

Hours: 1+1

Class: Computer technology and programming department 2nd graders (first semester)

Objectives: The ability to use the foreign language in the students' profession is gained. Besides learning the grammar subjects the ability to use the language in real Contexts is gained. Besides reading and writing exercises, by writing dialogues students can use the language easily. Students gain lots of abilities during the lessons. The abilities can be given as follows:

- a) Students introduce themselves and the others
- b) Give information about the work done and the place they work
- c) Talk about their wants in the formal settings, offer help
- d) Apologizes, tell their excuses, answers when apologized
- e) Talk about necessity and obligation
- f) Use the phrases of amounts, proportion and percentages
- h) Give positive or negative orders and answer the orders
- i) Talk about the possibilities about his profession

WEEK	SUBJECTS
1	The simple present The verb to be
2	The simple present tense (mainverb)
3	Adjectives / post modifiers
4	Have got / has got.
5	There is / there are
6	Would you mind ...? / Would you mind if I ...? / Would you like me to...? / Shall I ...?
7	Sorry / I am afraid .../ It's all right
8	Must / have to / need / necessary
9	A little / only a little / a few /only a few / much / many / two - third / ten percent
10	A little / only a little / a few /only a few / much / many / two - third / ten percent
11	Imperatives / ordinal numbers
12	Imperatives / ordinal numbers
13	Possible / impossible / probable / improbable / can / can't / might / must
14	Possible / impossible / probable / improbable / can / can't / might / must

Name of the course: Professional English 2

Code of the course: BTK 210

Hours: 1+1

Class: Computer technology and programming department 2nd graders (second semester)

Objectives: While given structures are being strengthened, the students increase their vocabulary about their profession. Dialogues, paragraphs, tables and figures about their profession are studied. By dialogues the students can talk in real-life situations. Students gain lots of abilities during the lessons. The abilities can be given as follows:

- a) Give information about a tool, machine or a program about their profession
- b) Explain the features of the materials, tools or machines used in their profession. Compare if it is needed
- c) Explain a circuit, a diagram, a draft or a concept about their profession
- d) Give information about an operation or a concept about their profession
- e) Explain the reason and the result of formation of a process about their profession
- f) Give explanation about a process or work that has finished

WEEK	SUBJECTS
1	Simple present (mainverb)
2	Have got / has got
3	Passive
4	Passive
5	there is / there are
6	Like / alike / unlike / differ from / while / as compared with
7	Simple present / present progressive
8	Simple future / be going to / future time expressions / passive
9	Simple future / be going to / future time expressions / passive
10	Adverbial clauses of reason and result
11	Adverbial clauses of reason and result
12	Was / were
13	Simple past / passive / past time expressions
14	Simple past / passive / past time expressions

Name of the course: English III

Code of the course: B 215

Hours: 2+0

Class: Bank Accounting department 2nd graders (first semester)

Objectives: The students learn grammar structures with learning to use the language in their professional lives. Especially, talking on the phone and opening a bank account are taught by dialogues. Thus, the students can easily speak the language in their future lives.

WEEK	SUBJECTS
1	Special points in Passive voice
2	How may I help you ? (Dialogue)
3	Special points in Relative Clauses Non- Defining Clauses
4	Reduction of Relative Clauses
5	I want to open an account.(Dialogue)
6	Adverbial Clauses Adverbial Clauses of Time
7	Adverbial Clauses of Place
8	How Can I open a cheque account? (Dialogue)
9	Adverbial Clauses of Direct Contrast
10	Adverbial Clauses of Concessive Contrast
11	Adverbial Clauses of Result
12	How can I draw money out? (Dialogue)
13	Adverbial Clauses of Purpose
14	Adverbial Clauses of Manner

Name of the course: English IV

Code of the course: B 218

Hours: 2+0

Class: Bank Accounting department 2nd graders (second semester)

Objectives: The students continue to learn grammar structures with learning to use the language in their Professional lives. Especially, changing Money and cashing a cheque are taught by dialogues.

WEEK	SUBJECTS
1	Adverbial Clauses
	Adverbial Clauses of Degree (Proportion)
2	Where can I change Money ? (Dialogue)
3	Adverbial Clauses of Condition
4	Adverbial Clauses Comparison
5	What's the rate of exchange today? (Dialogue)
	Noun Clauses
6	Noun Clauses as the Subject of a Sentence
7	Noun Clauses as the Object of a Sentence
8	I want to open a savings account. (Dialogue)
9	Noun Clauses as Adjective Complement
10	Noun Clauses as Subject Complement
11	Noun Clauses as an Appositive
12	I want to cash this cheque (Dialogue)
13	Noun Clauses as the Object of a Preposition
14	Noun Clauses as Indirect Object

Name of the course: Professional English 1

Code of the course: BYK 211

Hours: 2+2

Class: Office Management and Secretaryship department 2nd graders (first semester)

Objectives: The ability to use the foreign language in the students' profession is gained. Besides learning the grammar subjects the ability to use the language in real contexts is gained. Besides reading and writing exercises, by writing dialogues students can use the language easily. Students gain lots of abilities during the lessons. Especially, talking on the phone is taught by dialogues.

WEEK	SUBJECTS
1	Basic Telephone Skills - 1 / Saying Hello and Answering Simple Questions / Do You Speak English? / May I help you?
2	May I Speak to? / He's not in at the moment / Language Notes / To be - Simple Present Tense / Questions Using Models
3	Basic Telephone Skills – 2 / Asking Simple Questions / May I tell him who's calling?
4	Could you repeat your name please? / Could I have your name please? / May I give him a message?
5	Language notes / Present Simple Tense / Questions and answers
6	Questions words how, what, when, where / Basic Telephone Skills 3 / Asking Additional Questions
7	Are you with a company? / Could I tell him the purpose of your call...? / What information would you like to give us.?
8	Language Notes / Prepositions / Location
9	Relationship / Modals / Would
10	Polite usage, Would, could, may, might / Possible / Possibly / Basic Telephone Skills - 4
11	Recording Basic Information – Taking Messages / Could you repeat please? / May I have your number?
12	Is there a problem? / Language Notes / There+be
13	Using correct tense / There's there're / Negatives
14	Questions / Basic Telephone Skills – 5

Name of the course: Professional English 2

Code of the course: BYK 212

Hours: 2+2

Class: Office Management and Secretaryship department 2nd graders (second semester)

Objectives: The ability to use the foreign language in the students' profession is gained. Besides learning the grammar subjects the ability to use the language in real contexts is gained. Besides reading and writing exercises, by writing dialogues students can use the language easily. Students gain lots of abilities during the lessons. Especially, talking on the phone is taught by dialogues.

WEEK	SUBJECTS
1	Taking Detailed Notes / Can I give him a message? / Certainly... Please go ahead. / Just a minute - What that?
2	He's not in at the moment. / Language Notes / Future tense / Going to + infinitive
3	Present continuous / Present simple / Will / Basic Telephone Skills - 6
4	Making a call in English / Could I speak to ... please? / The reason I'm calling is... / We would like information about ...
5	Language Notes / Present Perfect Tense / With for and since
6	Basic Telephone Skills - 7 / Making a call and Requests / Is it possible ...?
7	Do you know when you will be able to ... ? / We would like information about... / When we expect ...
8	Language Notes / Modifying phrases and clauses / Adverb phrases and clauses
9	Prepositional phrases / Adjective clauses / Noun clauses
10	Basic Writing Skills - 1 / Writing a memo / Definition of a memo
11	Sample situations / Noting important information / Writing the memo
12	Language Notes / Basic English Sentence Structure (Subject - Verb - Object) Basic Writing Skills - 2 / Writing a business letter /
13	Definition / Form
14	Business letter: Writing / Language Notes: Punctuation

CURRICULUM VITAE

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