



HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

Department of Foreign Language Education
Program of English Language Teaching

ASSESSING DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNERS' TARGET CULTURE
AWARENESS IN TURKISH ELT CLASSROOMS

Özge COŞKUN

Master's Thesis

Ankara, (2018)



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TÜRKİYE'DEKİ İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ SINIFLARINDA ÖĞRENCİLERİN
HEDEF KÜLTÜR FARKINDALIKLARININ ARTTIRILMASININ
DEĞERLENDİRİLMESİ

Özge COŞKUN

Master's Thesis

Ankara, (2018)

Acceptance and Approval

To the Graduate School of Educational Sciences,

This thesis entitled "Assessing Development of Learners' Target Culture Awareness in Turkish ELT Classrooms" has been approved as a thesis for the Degree of **Master** in the **Program of English Language Teaching/Foreign Languages Education** by the members of the Examining Committee.

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This is to certify that this thesis has been approved by the aforementioned examining committee members on 31/09/2018 in accordance with the relevant articles of the Rules and Regulations of Hacettepe University Graduate School of Educational Sciences, and was accepted as a **Master's Thesis** in the **Program of English Language Teaching/Foreign Languages Education** by the Board of Directors of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences on

Prof. Dr. Ali Ekber ŞAHİN

Director of Graduate School of Educational Sciences

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between direct teaching of culture in advanced writing skills courses and the development of target culture awareness of the first year ELT students at a state university in Turkey. A mixed method research design was applied. The quantitative data were collected through weekly-written scripts based on the learned paragraph development methods. An adapted version of analytic writing rubric as an assessment instrument was employed. The qualitative data were gathered from interview sessions and analyzed via interview transcripts. The sample included 33 participants from the ELT department at Hacettepe University. The implementation phase lasted six weeks that experimental group took their course with direct teaching of target culture in pre-writing phases. The scores given for the development of cultural sense in writing topics were analyzed via SPSS Statistics 22.0. Non-parametric tests were performed since the quantitative data did not display a normal distribution. Descriptive statistics and inferential analysis were operated. Quantitative findings indicated that the experimental group did not demonstrate substantially superior development over the control group in terms of target culture awareness concerning their weekly-collected writing assignments. Thirteen voluntary ELT students in the experimental group attended interview sessions. Qualitative findings displayed that ELT students had a positive attitude toward using techniques and materials they came across in implementation phases. They were of opinion that culturally-oriented activities could assist them to improve their English and be a knowledgeable FL educator. It was inferred that target culture and language learning could be facilitated through developing cultural sensitivity with language tasks by FL educators. This study concluded that since a discrepancy between the findings of quantitative and qualitative data emerged, there is still a requirement in conducting more quantitative and qualitative research on culture teaching in Turkish educational contexts with larger samples.

Keywords: target culture awareness, culture teaching, language teaching, assessment of writing skills, culture learning achievement.

Öz

Bu çalışma, Türkiye'deki bir devlet üniversitesinde İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümü birinci sınıf öğrencilerinin hedef kültür farkındalıkları gelişimi ile ileri yazma becerileri derslerindeki doğrudan kültür öğretimi arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bunu açığa kavuşturmak için, karma yöntem araştırma tasarımı uygulanmıştır. Nicel veriler, öğrenilmiş paragraf geliştirme yöntemine dayalı olarak haftalık yazılmış metinler aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Değerlendirme aracı olarak, uyarlanmış bir çözümleyici yazma yönergesi kullanılmıştır. Nitel veriler, deney grubundan gönüllü katılımcılarla gerçekleştirilen görüşmelerin kayıt belgeleri aracılığıyla incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın örneklemi, Hacettepe Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Eğitimi İngiliz Dili Öğretmenliği bölümünden 33 katılımcıdan oluşmaktadır. Uygulama aşaması altı hafta sürmüştür ve deney grubu, yazma öncesi aşamasında doğrudan kültür öğretimine tabi tutulmuşken kontrol grubu dolaylı kültür öğretimine maruz bırakılmıştır. Metinlerin yazma konularındaki kültürel algı gelişimi için verilen puanlar, nicel verileri oluşturmuştur ve bunlar SPSS İstatistik 22.0 programı ile analiz edilmiştir. Nicel veriler normal bir dağılım göstermediği için parametre dışı testler kullanılmıştır. Betimleyici ve çıkarımsal istatistiksel yöntemleri analizlerine başvurulmuştur. Nicel verilerin sonuçları, haftalık yazılmış metinler bakımından deney grubunun kontrol grubu üzerinde hedef kültür farkındalığı gelişimine yönelik esasen bir üstün gelişme göstermediğini ortaya koymuştur. Nitel veri analizi, deney grubundaki öğrencilerden gönüllü 13 katılımcı ile gerçekleştirilen görüşmelerle yapılmıştır. Nitel bulgular, öğrencilerin doğrudan kültür öğretiminin uygulama evrelerinde karşılaştıkları teknik ve materyalleri kullanma hususunda olumlu bir tutum sergilediklerini göstermiştir. Kültür odaklı faaliyetlerin, İngilizce yeterlik düzeylerini geliştirmelerine ve gelecekte mesleki alanlarına daha hakim birer yabancı dil eğitmeni olmalarına yardımcı olabileceği kanaatinde bulunmuşlardır. Ayrıca, dil görevleri vasıtasıyla hedef dil ve kültürüne ilişkin kültürel hassasiyeti geliştirerek kültür ve dil öğreniminin yabancı dil eğitmenleri tarafından öğrenciler için kolaylaştırılabileceği çıkarılmıştır. Elde edilen nicel ve nitel veri bulgular arasında bir tutarsızlık ortaya çıktığı için bu çalışma, dilsel becerilerin gelişiminde kültür öğretimi ve hedef kültür farkındalığının artırılmasının değerlendirilmesi üzerinde özellikle Türk eğitim sistemi

çerçevesinde daha büyük örneklemeler vasıtasıyla daha fazla nicel ve nitel araştırmaların yapılması gerektiği ihtiyacının hala var olduğu sonucuna ulaşmıştır.

Anahtar sözcükler: hedef kültür farkındalığı, kültür öğretimi, dil öğretimi, yazma becerileri değerlendirmesi, kültür öğrenimi başarısı.





*To Mom and Dad,
who raised me up to more than I could be...*

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I would like to thank my supervisor Assist. Prof. Dr. İsmail Fırat ALTAY for his everlasting guidance and stimulation throughout my MA process.

I am very thankful to get invaluable feedback and time from the committee members, Prof. Dr. Mehmet DEMİREZEN and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hüseyin ÖZ. My special thanks go to Assist. Prof. Dr. Bahadır YILDIZ, the faculty member of Hacettepe University Division of Primary Mathematics Education, Assist. Prof. Dr. Özge METİN ASLAN, the faculty member of Alanya Alaaddin Keykubat University Division of Early Childhood Education and Res. Assist. Derya TURFAN, Hacettepe University Department of Statistics, for their continuing supports and precious feedback throughout my MA adventure. I wish to express my gratitude to my English teacher Nazan KINAY owing to her role-modelling and inspiration for my future career since my childhood.

I would love to thank my dearest friends and colleagues Nursu Duha ÇUBUKÇU, MA student in Sociology at Cumhuriyet University, Havva Çiğdem KAYA and Burcu TUNA, English teachers at Ministry of National Education, Nizamettin Bleda DEMİRAĞ, MA student in English Language Teaching at Hacettepe University and English instructor at Osmangazi University, İlknur ARABACIOĞLU, Biology teacher with MSc at Biochemistry from Balıkesir University, Mathematics Teacher Süheyla ÇUHACIOĞLU, History teacher and Ph.D. student at History from Hacettepe University, Mehmet DOĞAN and the director of Haymana Bumsuz Multi-Programmed Anatolian High School, Levent ATEŞ for their never-ending encouragement and advice.

I wholeheartedly thank my family members; my Mum Filiz COŞKUN, my Dad Yusuf COŞKUN and my little sister Özlem COŞKUN for their unconditional love, care and relief in my whole life. Without them, I could not able to see the end of this tunnel. My particular thanks are also recorded to the students who spent their time and energy readily during my teaching practices and implementing this study. My heartfelt ‘thank you’ goes to Angus Malcolm MACDONALD, Biomedical Engineer and BSc student in Economics and Business Administration at University of Latvia, and Zeynep IŞIK, English teacher and MA student in Teaching Turkish

as a Foreign Language at Dokuz Eylül University. I was able to overcome the problems with which I was faced thanks to their worthwhile support and patience.

Lastly, I thank *you* for your reading my MA thesis.



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Symbols and Abbreviations

AACU:	Association of American Colleges and Universities
CA:	Communicative Approach
CBI:	Content Based Instruction
CEFR:	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CLL:	Cooperative Language Learning
CLIL:	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CLT:	Communicative Language Teaching
DM:	Direct Method
EAP:	English for Academic Purposes
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
EIL:	English as an International Language
ELP:	European Language Portfolio
ELT:	English Language Teaching
EMI:	English as a Medium of Instruction
EPOSTL:	European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages
FL:	Foreign Language
FLT:	Foreign Language Teaching
GTM:	Grammar Translation Method
ICC:	Intercultural Communicative Competence
ILT:	Intercultural Language Teaching
L1:	First Language
NCCC:	National Center for Cultural Competence (NCCC)
NS:	Native Speaker
NNS:	Non-Native Speaker
SCT:	Sociocultural Theory
SWH:	Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis
TBI:	Text Based Instruction
TBLT:	Task Based Language Teaching
TL:	Target Language
TPR:	Total Physical Response
YKS:	Higher Education Institutions Exam

Chapter 1

Introduction

This study aims to investigate the relationship between direct teaching of culture, which is corroborated by culturally informative written and audio-visual materials and communicative activities, and the development of target culture awareness in writing courses of Turkish ELT classrooms. In order to realize this aim, standard teaching of culture where the writing courses are supported by only textbooks as input is also examined comparatively. The rationale behind the present inquiry has been introduced by relevant studies extracting from the literature review in the background of the study. In pursuit of this, purpose and scope of the study, significance of the study, research questions, overview of methodology, overview of analytical procedures, limitations of the study and definitions of the key terms will be scrutinized in this part.

Background of the Study

For the last half-century, culture has enhanced its own significance in the foreign language (FL) classrooms. In this mobilized era of interaction and communication across the world, “both language and culture are interrelatedly developed” (Le Ha, 2008, p. 27). Through learning a language and integrating that culture into the phase of language learning, language learners could gain the entity of making comparison and contrast between their own and particular target/foreign culture. Henceforth, Ferri (2011) mentions that FL teachers have the responsibility of providing “interrelatedness” in consequence of cultural awareness in order to develop our language learners’ “sociocultural competence” (p. 382).

Yeganeh and Raeesi (2015) have recently found that as the commonest way of developing cultural awareness is “comparing aspects of the students' own culture with those of the target culture” (p. 534). The process of developing learners’ cultural awareness or acculturation can be provided in educational settings, as though. Since language and culture are “inseparable” (Akinyemi, 2005, p.115), a considerable amount of studies have been conducted that English as a foreign or second language which addresses to all cultures by enabling to those people of particular cultures “to express their own local meanings” in a communicative and intercultural manner (Kramsch, 2006, p. 326). In this respect,

not only local language and culture but also target ones should be taken into consideration in teaching and learning process in an intertwined manner.

In pursuit of stating inseparability of language and culture in foreign language teaching (FLT), the root of the present research has been cultivated by the conducted parallel studies that are scrutinized in the following chapters. For this purpose, the framework of general background information will be established by the outline of using culture to teach English, using English to teach culture and their relations to the assessment of language skills, particularly writing skills, in a nutshell. Opinions and findings of various researchers will be also presented. On that note, the stated issues above will be handled in the next sections of the present thesis.

Statement of the Problem

The main issue of this study is to examine whether the relationship between direct teaching of culture and the development of target culture awareness of the learners or not. The scope of the study consists of experimental and control groups. The participants of the experimental group, who are exposed to direct teaching of culture, is supported by a specific coursebook related to academic writing and facilitative-review familiarization activities through using songs, videos, newspapers, websites, whole-class discussion tasks, and so forth. The participants of the control group, who are exposed to 'standard teaching of culture', is only supported by the compile and coursebook in advanced writing skills courses of Turkish ELT classrooms.

When it comes to the rationale based on the problem statement for this study, it pertains the conducted studies in articles on the assessment of the development in target culture awareness and the benefits and problems of culture teaching in addition to linguistic enhancement for academic success (Graham, 1987; Altay, 2005; Yeganeh & Raeesi, 2015). Even though there are proceeding studies that have been investigated, they could not close the research gap that exists in the related literature. Likewise, there are still few studies conducted that integrate both culture teaching and language assessment qualitatively and quantitatively across Turkey. That is to say, there is an absence of the research in

literature that investigates the relationship between the effect of direct teaching of culture, which is explicit way of teaching, and standard teaching of culture, which is implicit way of teaching, on enhancing target culture awareness and overall language achievement, which is assessed by productive assignments either through midterms or final exams in many courses of ELT departments.

In an attempt to contributing to the field of culture teaching and learning, the scope of the study is comprised of not only the assessment of writing tasks as the midterms and final exam in terms of developing target culture awareness in writing skills, but also the oral reflections of the focus group learners based on the implementation of direct way of culture teaching. Thus, the study has the characteristics of a mixed-method and experimental study. Moreover, it is aimed to give more comprehensive results in assessing the data gathered quantitatively and qualitatively as the purpose of the research. The fact that studies have still investigated this hot-topic issue will enable to display more realistic and striking findings and evaluations about the effectiveness of culture and language teaching directly or indirectly in terms of developing cultural awareness for English as a foreign/second or even an additional language.

Aim and Significance of the Study

It is a widely-known fact that culture learning assessment in order to see the potential development of students' cultural awareness has been mostly ignored in the world of FL education. Even though there is an increasing demand in conducting studies that integrate culture teaching into language assessment for language education students that has revealed significant benefits in terms of personal and social growth by fostering self-confidence in a great deal of qualitative research, the quantitative studies that assess and demonstrate the actual situation in FL classrooms is relatively insufficient. To reveal this issue both quantitatively and qualitatively, this study aims to investigate the relationship between direct teaching of culture, which is the deliberate immersion of target culture, in advanced writing skills courses, and the development of target culture awareness of the Turkish freshmen ELT students who were enrolled at a state university.

In order to corroborate the quantitative data with the four main research questions of the study presented in the next sub-heading, the participants of experimental groups from writing courses are asked a set of face-to-face interview questions to unfold their thoughts on direct teaching of culture and their self-evaluation on their cultural-information richness in a qualitative manner. The interviews are conducted after the participants complete their semester with basic open-ended questions such as the following:

- What is your definition of culture?
- Which benefits have you experienced after direct teaching of culture during the writing course?
- What are the difficulties that you have encountered while integrating culture-loaded information into your writing tasks and performance in classroom?
- What kind of topics have you written in your weekly written tasks?
- As a prospective English teacher and as an advanced level English language learner, do you think that there is a necessity to teach about target culture in addition to the target language?

In this regard, the participants could comment what they experienced for post-direct teaching of culture at writing courses in ELT classrooms. The data that has been collected will be examined through presenting sample quotes of the participants in the thesis through conducting qualitative content analysis. The documents handled by the researcher are the transcriptions of the subjects' comments which were recorded via a voice recorder. The transcriptions have been prepared by the researcher, as well. Common answers are put in the same group of themes through applying context analysis. The information whether there are participants who had previously lived abroad in addition to the personal responses could be obtained, as well.

The significance of the study is laid on its characteristics of being preliminary in assessing development of cultural awareness after actual practice of writing courses in Turkish higher education context. Besides, the researcher has adapted a writing assessment rubric, which includes 'value' and 'performance' criteria. While the 'value' criterion is pertinent to skills, attitudes and cultural

knowledge about the target language, the 'performance' criterion bears upon progress in language proficiency of the learners through weekly-written assignments. Thanks to the interview sessions organized, triangulation of both quantitative and qualitative results could enable to have more in-depth information about the research problem and could increase the reliability of the study through the integration of diversified evidences.

Research Questions

In pursuit of brief and theme-to-theme theoretical framework of the present study that is planned to be conducted, it is assumed to find answers to the research questions below:

1. How should culture teaching be applied by English language instructors?
2. To what extent is culture teaching successful in ELT classrooms?
3. Is there any development of students' target culture awareness in writing courses of ELT classrooms? If so, to what extent?
4. Are there any achievement differences between ELT classrooms where direct teaching and standard teaching of culture are implemented? If so, to what extent?

Overview of Methodology

This study aims to uncover whether there is any relationship between direct teaching of culture that is supported by culturally informative written materials and communicative classroom activities such as using songs, videos, discussion and information-gap tasks – culturally-focused “consciousness-raising activities” for teaching of writing skills – and the development of target culture awareness of the freshmen ELT students (Hinkel, 1999, p. 151). The teaching practices will be implemented by the researcher during the course hours which covers the time period of six weeks. In review of literature, significant amount of qualitative studies which have been conducted show that culture-integrated language teaching has been successful in terms of better language acquisition by FL learners. With the purpose of promoting these findings, the researcher will analyze the scores of written assignments in respect to development of target culture awareness as the

midterms and final exam, which are held by the instructor of writing courses in the Department of English Language Teaching at Hacettepe University.

In total, it is envisaged that the number of participants are 33 students who are enrolled for the courses of writing in the Department of English Language Teaching at Hacettepe University. Their age range is between 18 - 36 (N = 33). Furthermore, 13 of them are interviewed on a volunteer basis after teaching practice sessions of direct teaching of culture (N = 13). The interviewees are from the experimental groups of writing courses on whom direct teaching of culture has been implemented by the researcher. While 18 students enrolled in the writing course are grouped for standard teaching of culture classroom and 15 students enrolled for this course are classified for the implementation of direct teaching of culture have attended this study in the fall semester of 2016-2017 academic year. By the use of a writing assessment rubric and voice recorder, the data were collected throughout the data collection processes.

Overview of Analytical Procedures

The midterms and final exams of two ELT classrooms of writing courses where direct teaching of culture is implemented by the researcher is in the format of assessment in written scripts by the students. Before starting this process, their consent from all of the participants is obtained through an official consent form in English and Turkish (See Appendix A and B). On the other hand, the midterms and final exams of two ELT classrooms of writing courses where standard teaching of culture is implemented by the researcher have been only based on the course syllabi of writing as a productive language skill. In this regard, whether there is any development in target culture awareness of freshmen undergraduate students were come out and then it was assessed at the heart of midterm and final exam achievement scores quantitatively. In order to give a qualitative nature to the study, the opinions of participants on whom both teaching practices have been implemented were asked in face-to-face interviews with regard to the impact of culture teaching in direct format.

At the other spectrum, open-ended questions of semi-structure interview were gone through by the researcher as stated in the chapter 3 of the thesis.

These semi-structured individual interviews are based on the responses of the interviewees and recorded via a voice recorder. They were interpreted through qualitative content analysis by the researcher. Notes were also taken by the researcher when necessary. In relation to the first research question, qualitative content analysis techniques are applied to determine common themes from the data of interviewees' answers. When it comes to the second research question, Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was applied to analyze to what extent culture teaching was successful in ELT classrooms compared to the learners' achievement in writing scores by the researcher.

Regarding the third research question, each group was evaluated in itself with the points given to their written scripts by unfolding the assessment of achievement scores in six weeks by utilizing Friedman test. In this respect, it is aimed at focusing on any potential progress levels of the experimental and control groups separately. For the fourth research question, Mann-Whitney U test was performed to investigate whether there are any achievement differences between the two ELT classrooms. Since there are essentially two groups of writing courses' participants, who are in experimental and control groups, to assess their development of target culture awareness by examining their way of reflecting cultural knowledge on their weekly writing tasks. In that way, it can be understood whether there is a statistically significant difference between the groups' achievement scores.

Assumptions

The following assumptions are proposed concerning this study. To start with, it is presumed that the chosen sample is representative of the population to make inferences since the ELT students at Hacettepe University come from different parts of Turkey every year after entering the related exam, which has been currently called Higher Education Institutions Exam (YKS). This forms a mosaic of candidates to being professional in the field who have diversified background knowledge of their own cultures that they bring into the classroom. It is also assumed that mixed-method research design will generate the supportive evidence in terms of determining the efficacy of the treatment and examination of the interviews conducted. Within this context, it is presumed that the researcher

will teach one day a week in advanced writing courses through direct teaching of target culture in a consistent manner. It is also supposed that the adapted version of analytic writing rubric as an assessment instrument will elicit reliable results in scoring procedures.

Another point to be assumed here is to obtain reliable and valid results quantitatively after comparing the achievement scores of the experimental group, which takes the implementation phases of deliberate immersion of target culture in pre-writing phases overtly, and the control group, which is exposed to indirect teaching of culture in their writing skills course in pre-writing phases covertly. For obtaining reliable and valid qualitative findings, it is expected that interviewees will freely provide honest responses after fully understanding the questions asked by the researcher. In the second part of study, participants are asked to identify their viewpoints on teaching target culture and acquiring target culture awareness. To preserve anonymity and confidentiality, the names of the respondents in interviews will be kept and they are abbreviated with a symbol and number. Since the participants are volunteers, they can withdraw from the study if they wish to do so.

As a consequence, it is speculated that the results of this investigation is likely to be useful in Turkish higher educational system with its worthwhile findings. In this regard, the conclusions drawn and decisions made can assist language assessment specialists, curriculum designers, material developers and FL teachers/instructors. For instance, language assessment specialists could review the criteria sections of assessment tools for language skills and take awareness of cultural sense into consideration if not included. Curriculum designers can organize the curriculum to help learners decrease their cultural anxiety and avoid adopting stereotypes relating to target culture. Material developers could produce culture-synthetic items that are the mirror of target culture such as statuettes of monuments or traditionally and widely used materials in the society for learners to experience a simulation of real life situations in the target language. Lastly, language teachers/instructors could establish more effective learning environment for learners by increasing their motivation toward learning target culture and language if required.

Limitations

There are some limitations in conducting the research to identify its potential weaknesses. Firstly, the main limitation of the study is that it only focuses on one of the productive language skills, that is, writing skills in developing target culture awareness of the students since it is assumed that the receptive language skills, particularly reading, of the students who are enrolled at Department of English Language Teaching at Hacettepe University are well-developed both linguistically and culturally. Thus, the researcher expects that the results of performance-based language skills on tasks and use in written communication can provide the enhancement of cultural competence to be examined in a much broader sense.

Secondly, it is a widely known fact that generalizability happens to occur when a large sample chosen is relatively representative of the population as a whole. Since the number of the student, who were able to pass the written English exam of preparatory school, was relatively lower than those of the previous years, the freshmen ELT students were too few in terms of the volunteer participants among them. In addition, since the present study also adopts qualitative research paradigm, the results obtained from the interviews could be diversified in various situations answered by different interviewees. Henceforth, the generalizability of the results in this study to the whole context of Turkish higher education is restricted.

Thirdly, the teaching practices will be implemented by the researcher during the course hours which covers the period of six weeks. This duration could be lengthened. Nonetheless, because of the time restriction for the submission of the ethical conduct and under the circumstances in the shorter duration of 2016-2017 academic year than those of the some previous years, data collection procedure is squeezed in this period. For further research, these limitations and possible suggestions would be taken into consideration within a larger scale while designing the related research. The next section will focus on the background of the thesis in the present literature from elaborating studies conducted in local and international settings.

Definitions

In pursuit of the aims in this study, the following basic terminologies are given as below:

Culture: Defined by Furstenberg (2010) as it “is a highly complex, elusive, multilayered notion that encompasses many different and overlapping areas and that inherently defies easy categorization and classification” (p. 329). Korshuk (2008) identifies the term as following:

culture is part and parcel of national identity understood as a dynamic mental (or emotional) construct based on certain objective prerequisites related to geography, human geography, history, anthropology, economy and technology on the one hand and culture both as artifacts and a shared system of beliefs, values, rules and norms of behaviour, symbols and relations . . . on the other hand. (p. 85)

Target culture: Refers to the culture of the target language expected to be acquired by regarding the dissemination of linguistic and cultural variations of the host country or countries.

Cultural awareness: Refers to “acceptance of cultural differences, and interest in the specific culture of the language being taught, as well as in intercultural topics in general (Aziz Fageeh, 2011, p. 66). “Cultural awareness is also connected to a number of other terms such as intercultural communication, intercultural communicative competence, Fremdverstehen (understanding ‘the other’), intercultural studies, multiculturalism” and so forth (Penz, 2001, p. 104). As such, by focusing on critical cultural awareness, Byram (1997) made his own definition as “an ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices and products in our own and other cultures and countries” (p. 53).

Target culture awareness: Refers to the being ‘aware’ of the foreign language culture with regard to overarching linguistic and cultural aspects of the host country or countries.

Language awareness: Described as “a person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life” (as cited in Little, 1997).

Cultural competence: Defined by National Center for Cultural Competence (NCCC) (2001) as it “requires that organizations and their personnel have the capacity to: (1) value diversity, (2) conduct self-assessment, (3) manage the dynamics of difference, (4) acquire and institutionalize cultural knowledge, and (5) adapt to diversity and the cultural contexts of individuals and communities served” (p. 1).

Cross-cultural competence: Its content deals with “to be appropriate and effective in the communication process that takes place between individuals from different national cultures” (Johnson, Lenartowicz and Apud, 2006, p. 528).

Intercultural competence: “[The] ability to ensure a shared understanding by people of different social identities and their ability to interact with people as complex human beings with multiple identities and their own individuality” (Byram, Gribkova & Starkey, 2002, p. 5).

Linguistic competence: “[It] refers to the ability of persons to use language. That is indeed the sense in which I myself use the term: ‘[L]inguistic competence’ is taken to refer to the actual abilities of persons” (Hymes, 1976, p. 232). “The actual linguistic abilities of definite persons in a definite social life” (ibid., p. 236).

Grammatical competence: It is defined as “competence refers to the knowledge we have of a language that accounts for our ability to produce sentences in a language. It refers to knowledge of the building blocks of sentences . . . and how sentences are formed” (Richards, 2005, p. 3).

Communicative competence: According to Savignon (1976), it is described as what native speakers know to interact in an effective way both how to say something and when to say it in a specific context by paying attention to “non-verbal communication cues such as gestures and facial expressions.

Acculturation: Refers to a process with an essentially changing character, characterised as such by multi-vocality, diversity, conflicts, and contradictions as by consistency to help foreign language learners to develop a sense of cultural pluralism (openness to and appreciation of other cultures) and have an improved self-concept and sense of achievement in school (Mekheimer & Aldosari, 2011).

Culture shock: Described as the distress experienced by the sojourner as a result of losing all the familiar signs and symbols of social interaction (Furnham & Bochner, 1982, p. 167). ... “[T]he extent and duration of what has been described as culture shock, is dependent on conditions that can be classified into three broad categories”: cultural differences, individual differences and sojourn experience (ibid., p. 171).

Cultural diversity: Melnick & Zeichner (1995) explain both the meaning of diversity and cultural diversity that the definition of diversity includes gender, age, religion, sexual preferences, etc., whereas the term cultural diversity essentially points to differences regarding social class, race, language, and so forth.

Linguistic diversity: It can be defined as the absolute number of languages and the numbers of people speaking a language (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2002).

Product-oriented writing assessment: It is language-focused by an emphasis upon correctness by the adherence to the model texts. This type of assessment deals with assessing language structure in written discourse through studying the model, manipulating the elements and producing a parallel text (Heaton, Harmer, Kingsbury & Parkins, 1988).

Process-oriented writing assessment: Lee (2006) illustrates the meaning of this kind of writing assessment that it not only refers to a process of generating ideas through transcribing and organizing the ideas before writing and revising the draft, but also is linked to a broad theoretical understanding of the construct of writing.

In a similar vein, Lee (2006) explains that “[it] attempts to capture important real world academic writing practices as it provided students not only with a chance to revise their essays, but also with opportunities for feedback, discussion, learning, and reflection” (p. 325).

Rubric: “A systematic scoring guideline to evaluate students’ performance (papers, speeches, problem solutions, portfolios, cases) through the use of a detailed description of performance standards” (Zimmaro, 2004, p. 1). “Holistic rubrics provide a single score based on an overall impression of a student’s performance on a task while analytic rubrics provide specific feedback along several

dimensions within more detailed feedback” but in a time-consuming manner (ibid., p. 2).

Conclusion

In the first chapter, basic information dealing with the current research was presented. It started with the framework of the literature which goes back to some relevant studies setting light to this study. Later, the scope and purpose of the study was examined in which the statement of the problem and rationale for the research were concerned. Aim and significance of the study was clarified in order to appreciate what the researcher has as a goal for conducting this study. The research questions were explained, then. A general view of methodological and analytical procedures were also summarized. Lastly, limitations of the study and the certain key terms were presented.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Introduction

Over the long run, which is approximately 50 years, language and culture teaching have been scrutinized in the relevant works of language studies (Demirezen, 1991; Hinkel, 1999; Corbett, 2003; Akinyemi, 2005; Çakır, 2006; Kramsch, 2006; Moore, Rizzi & Ristanio, 2012; Mikhaleva & Regnier, 2014; Ghanem, 2015). With the preliminary studies, target culture learning and development of target culture awareness have also been investigated (Irving, 1984; Monthienvichienchai, Bhibulbhanuwat, Kasemsuk & Speece, 2002; Knutson, 2006; Baker, 2008; Baker, 2012; Yeganeh & Raeesi, 2015; Kahraman, 2016). Not only the benefits of being knowledgeable about various cultures, but also the problems encountered during cross-cultural confrontations have been examined by much research (Lewald, 1963; David, 1971; Altay, 2005).

Apart from culture-oriented research in learning settings, there is a wide range of studies conducted on language assessment and writing assessment as a productive skill for decades (Breland, 1983; Ewing, 1992; Huot, 1996; Ashbaugh, Johnstone & Warfield, 2002; Little, 2005; Lee, 2006; Weigle, 2007; Schulz, 2009; Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010; Kirkgöz & Ağçam, 2012). After investigating the ways of assessing writing skills, alternative ways in assessment have been searched, and rubrics have been one of the most examined alternative assessment tools for productive skills (Andrade, 2000; Bargainnier, 2003; Kohn, 2006; Reddy, 2007; Beyreli & Ari, 2009; Gallavan & Kottler, 2009; Lovorn, 2010; Bophy, 2012; Wiseman, 2012; Tierney & Simon, 2014). In this thesis, because of the fact that focus is on writing skills, the writing rubrics are highlighted in depth within the following related section.

In this study, initially, the place and significance of culture and target culture awareness in FL classrooms are enlightened through the conducted studies. Secondly, the ways to develop target culture awareness are mentioned by elaborating culture and language teaching in the context of language use. Thirdly, assessment of language skills and assessment of writing skills are reflected in

detail. Fourthly, rubric as an alternative tool for writing assessment is examined thoroughly in this literature review part.

Theoretical Background

Principally, language does not consist of only written letters in its sense. It includes visually observed gestures and sign language, as well. It is a tool of transmitting information through communication between or among agents. These agents could be humanbeings, animals (e.g., ants, whales) and even plants. For instance, dolphins communicate through vocal (acoustic) signals that they produce to state their moods through whistles, chirp or screams; however, this is in the context of communication. What diverts human language from other communication styles is that human language is a system of including elements from smaller to larger units such as phonemes, words and sentences in both written and oral discourse.

At the present time, in EFL/ESL language classrooms, it can be seen that language is introduced and taught in a decontextualized manner without touching upon the culture in which the language exists. Doing exercises in specific grammatical points with multiple-choice item types and learning word groups or lexical chunks in isolated contexts are experienced by many language students in classroom settings around the world. Through only repetition drills for “single words or set of phrases” which is conducted behaviouristically within the frame of rote memorization, language learning happens (Whong, 2011, p. 116). It is possible to learn a target language without its focusing on its culture. However, this is not real life oriented and total language learning. It represents the mechanic side of language learning, indeed.

By thinking about first language (L1 hereafter) child development, through developmental stages, considering age factor as well, a human child is reared with no experience of human culture. By considering once again the case of a human baby who is adopted and raised by a wolf. This child could not obviously develop any side of human culture. He vocalizes some part of language, but this could not be deciphered because it is instinct. Primitive humans’ signing, paralinguistic elements such as gestures-use of body language and vocalizations gradually developed into standardized meanings that all community could communicate with

each other. Then, culture gets on the stage. Henceforth, language leads to the formation of a culture. Philosophically, Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, which claims that “the structure of a language influences how its speakers perceive the world around them”, sheds light on the issue that “speakers of different language think about the world in different ways” (Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, 2007, p. 25). To illustrate, languages differ in how they express colors and locations. While in American Indian language Zuni does not distinguish between the colours yellow and orange, it is gone “in” country in Italian, but it is gone “to” a country in English (Fromkin et al., 2007, p. 26). Culture that values, traditions and resources constitute could not have started in the first place if some means of communication had not previously been established. This means of communication here is language.

Metaphorically, if language is a skeleton, culture is the flesh on it. Language learning is the prior condition in the case of teaching English in this regard. Following this, “the better learners acculturate, the more successful the learning will be.” case would come to light (Mitchell, Myles & Marsden, 2013, p. 46). In addition, it should not be ignored that language and culture constantly change one another alternately over time. Language and culture are two sides of the same medallion. As a consequence, “culture has always been an integral part of language teaching” (Kramsch, 2006, p. 322). Within this context, the target language should be used in its own environment as much as possible, in other words, its own culture. Obviously, the basic problem in FL classrooms is that FL teachers, teach the foreign words within its grammar by enabling them to construct their L1 culture. “Many EFL students find it difficult to develop good language skills because of cultural problems” (Tseng & Chao, 2012, p. 1843). That is to say, if people do not understand each other’s culture, misunderstandings might occur inevitably.

This obstacle could be overcome by involving in “occasions for cultural exploration and intercultural comparison” through “ethnography, visual literacy and cultural studies” that are generally not concrete topics for intercultural learners (Corbett, 2003, p.210). Thus, intercultural learning demands not for reaching native accent or proficiency in target language but slow progress towards internalizing the mediation between the anglophone and home cultures. The intercultural learner learns how to explore the others’ beliefs without recourse to

address stereotyping and to respect these beliefs in their contexts through introspective analyses (Corbett, 2003; Bocanegra-Valle, 2015). Therefore, mediation between home and anglophone culture with integrated-effective, coherent language programs by the designs of progressive curricula of language and culture (Corbett, 2003; Moore et al., 2012).

For that matter, Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), which was proposed by Council of Europe in 2001, advocates one of its priorities across Europe through an intercultural approach by developing one's personality and enhancing the identity of otherness in language and culture that "[it] is necessary in the interests of greater mobility, more effective international communication combined with respect for identity and cultural diversity, better access to information, more intensive personal interaction, improved working relations and a deeper mutual understanding" (p. 5). What is meant by the term *otherness* is encountering "people of other cultures and origins in their environment" in a circle of close-knit internationalism and mobility (Sarıçoban & Çalışkan, 2011, p. 14). Within applied linguistics and teaching pedagogy, Vygotskian-oriented Sociocultural Theory (SCT) centered on mediation in process principally with "symbolic tools that cultures develop over time" such as language being the most crucial of them instead of only obtaining products (Byrnes, 2006, p. 8). The other significant constructs of SCT, regulation, internalization and the zone of proximal development are indivisible from the cognitively-psychologically-communicatively-culturally organized activity regarding the "humanistic issues of self-efficacy, agency and the effects of participation" (Lantolf, Thorne & Poehner, 2015, p. 218). After all these observations, suggestions, studies which were mentioned, teaching a foreign language essentially requires the teaching of the culture by establishing bridges of empathy between local and target ones to promote diversity, in which language and culture are inextricably connected, as voiced in this study. EFL/ESL teachers should pay attention to what and how can be done for their students to provide and encourage their development not only linguistically, "academically", but culturally in their educational experiences, as well (Ana-Drobot, 2014, p. 88).

Beyond the behavioristic perspective, for the sake of better teaching through cognitive ways of instruction, English language teachers need to use culture in their classrooms while teaching English. Language teachers can teach language without culture, but this does not reflect the targeted language teaching completely as stated above. This would lack of authentic nature of language learning phase. Kaya and Oran (2015) states that “everything in language is reflected in the language and each element that creates a culture finds its provision in language” and language learner “learns some cultural codes that belong to the target culture” (p. 1213). Bidirectionally, using English to teach culture and using culture to teach English are applied in language classrooms; however, language is generally first used to teach culture in terms of reaching explicit learning outcomes. As seen, the subcategories to be pondered explain why this conclusion is met in detail. It is right to speak metaphorically here: if language is a human body, culture is the outer garments on it. Without garments, the human body would be on the ropes, and the same situation is valid for language and culture. If language were without culture, there would be sociopragmatic breakdowns in communication, which might make teaching and learning difficult linguistically and culturally in language classrooms.

Target Language Teaching through Culture

Because of the fact that culture is ever-changing, that is, dynamic, it is not a quantitative but qualitative scale of values and civilizations (Balakian, 1961). Balakian (1961) argues “our educational objective in FLT is appreciation” by stating the reason behind that the diffusion of a language depends on the eminence of its culture throughout the years, not on the number of people speaking it as the mother tongue, the territory size where it is used as the native or official language (p. 254).

Within this context, it can be found out that the reason why a language is spoken widely is bounded to its related culture. In an attempt to increasing language learners’ “knowledge of and appreciation for global issues, languages, history, geography, literature, and the arts of other countries” within the concept of cultural acquisition, their language proficiency could be developed by making connections to their own culture (Moore, Rizzi & Ristanio, 2012, p. 102). Learners

cannot totally internalize a language without learning its culture where the language comes into being. “Cultural knowledge affects listening comprehension, oral production, reading, and the accuracy of translation”; therefore, “major causes of cultural errors are inadequate knowledge of and insufficient exposure to the target culture, and lack of comparative studies of cultures” (Liao, 1996, p. 1). That is why, target culture awareness is also to be made one of the goals of language teaching and assessment.

FL students mostly state that they know language rules, but they could not use the language adequately all the time because they feel they do not have enough knowledge about the target culture (Çakır, 2006). The use of English as a lingua franca (ELF), in which English is not bound to a specific culture or nation such as the US or UK, leads to the need of mutual understanding and communicative practices across different cultures (Baker, 2012). Accordingly, Moore et al. (2012) advocate that for “transcending the traditional barriers”, the integration of language and culture in adaptive curricula and classroom activities within the FLT is of utmost importance (p. 104). In the same vein, Alptekin (2002) also argues the importance of teaching English as an International Language (EIL) while the case in many teaching materials focuses on many stereotypes of UK and the US due to communicatively-oriented considerations involving idealized native speaker norms of utopian views of communicative competence. To examine elaborately, learning a target culture in educational settings, which is an essential part for using a target language, is examined under subcategories in terms of teaching English as follows.

The content-matter of using culture. “The relationship between language and culture is well established; it is probably not as dramatic as the strong version of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis would maintain, but it is perhaps more salient than the weak version” (Kaplan, 1986, p. 8). In the light of Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis (SWH) put forward by Benjamin Whorf and Edward Sapir in the 1930s, the interrelatedness between language and cognition and the influence on culture have attracted much academic attention in fashion a little while back (Perlovsky, 2009). It is to be recalled that the scope that the way people think is influenced by the language they speak has been also inquired in fMRI experimental

confirmations (Simmons, Stephan, Carla, Xiaoping & Barsalou, 2008). By connecting this hypothesis into target culture awareness through culture teaching as a holistic approach for target language acquisition, this can help learners to keep away immoderate culture restrictions to perceive the world differently in the milieu. Likewise, this would help learners see the native speakers of the target language as real people by a sense of authenticity in their learning process “without rejecting others” (Abdollahi-Guilani, Yasin, Hua & Aghaei, 2012, p. 119).

Within another perspective, Kramsch (2006) categorizes culture in two branches: big C and small c. While the ‘big C’ involves “teaching about history, the institutions, the literature, and the arts of the target country, ‘small c’ deals with everyday life which includes the native speakers’ ways of behaving, eating, talking, dwelling, customs, beliefs and values” (p. 323). By 1980s, using communicative language teaching as a method in language classrooms, holding a positive perspective against globalization and internalization process has gained momentum through culture and language integration (Kramsch, 2006; Tseng & Chao, 2012). In this sense, teaching cultural phenomena through cultural topics such as holidays, festivals and special days (e.g., Christmas, Thanksgiving, Easter, Mother’s Day), greetings, food and drinks, family and friends, shopping, printed and online media, literary works such as books, poems, song lyrics, dance and fashion, cinema and music, “karaoke singing”, superstitions and gestures are of great advantage to learn the foreign language within itself for all grades and proficiency levels (Erten, 2015, p. 591). However, Reimann (2009) emphasized that cultural content was being used typically as a reading material for comprehension or practising lexical items of language structures, which is one of the matters about which is to be attentive.

By engaging students’ interests in appreciation of cultural identity, “the goals of a curriculum oriented toward cross-cultural awareness are in some sense more modest, but arguably more salient, than those of a traditional content orientation”, which enables students to analyze critical incidents or cultural problems in meaningful contexts to understand others in pair or group work activities (Knutson, 2006, p. 605). For instance, Öz (2015) recommends that “teaching interview skills and techniques” for learners to encourage them to be

intercultural observers and interpreters by accumulating information about both their home and target culture (p. 51). Hence, the development of cultural awareness goes in line with the levels of communication apprehension and intercultural competence (Monthienvichienchai, Bhibulbhanuwat, Kasemsuk & Speece, 2002). Thus, "through an increased understanding of the relationship between culture and language, teachers should be able to provide ELT lessons which give learners an opportunity to engage in and reflect on intercultural encounters" (Baker, 2008, p. 144). This requires a dynamic learning process that allows learners "to deconstruct the differing worldviews, cultural orientations and sociopolitical realities that inform the current interaction" (Collins & Pieterse, 2007, p. 16), and it is possible through applying content-based cultural approach in FL classrooms by FL teachers. In the same vein, Alptekin (2002) referred to the claim that there are studies which provide ample evidence for culture-specific thought patterns embedding the norms, values, beliefs and figures of behaviour, and these in addition to organizational differences cause misunderstandings. That is why, he advocated teaching familiar topics to the students within the frame of "small 'c' concept of culture embracing daily customs and ways of life and mainstream ways of thinking and behaving" (Alptekin, 2002, p. 59). He pinpointed the matter as problematic that the communicative orientations to teaching English through the ways which reflect the native speaker's language and culture as unrealistic and often idealized even though there have been attempts to deculturize or nativize English as an educational purpose. That is why, he commented that the international status of English has not been totally recognized in most of the educational circles.

Likewise, in his another study, Alptekin (1993) focused on the recommendation that learning conventions of the learners be in harmony with the Western modes of communication; otherwise, learners could demonstrate "alien modes of behaviour", which is a kind of drawbacks against developing a new identity (pp. 139-140). This way of peculiar acculturation of the target language learner intensifies their sociopsychological problems during the target language learning process (Alptekin, 1982). For this reason, he supported the view that speaking a language such as the varieties of Canadian English, Indian English or Nigerian English without bounding to only one specific culture would be more

realistic and authentic in terms of communicative and intercultural learning (Alptekin, 1993).

Teaching proverbs, idioms and metaphors. Tomlinson (2001a) states that “culture provides an organizing concept for descriptions of ‘the way of life’ of a collectivity” (p. 5). Collectivity represents a community or a society where cultural elements make happen. Accordingly, Rassias, which is a teaching method that was “named after its founder John Rassias, beholds language as a cultural artefact which must be learned from within its social context” (Whong, 2011, p. 191). To exemplify, among many Turkish dialects such as Balkan, Central Anatolian, Western or Eastern Anatolian dialects, modern standard Turkish is based on the dialect of Istanbul. On that note, “stating proverbs, stressing nouns, adjectives whose etymology allows students to identify specific historical, cultural, anthropological events, presenting onomatopoeic sounds through paralinguistic features and nonverbal components” such as using body language without involving words are the essence of using culture to teach a language in a better way (Ciccarelli, 1996, p. 566, 569). On condition that the cultural perspectives are not taken into consideration while teaching a foreign/second language, learners could get into difficulty in communicating with speakers, so “communication breakdowns may occur” as a result (Altay, 2005, p. 173). In this respect, teaching collocations, proverbs and idioms is of utmost importance in terms of culture teaching through English as a foreign/second language. It is quite overwhelming for EFL/ESL learners to master English idioms and proverbs effectively and use them practically both in and outside the classroom culturally because they convey metaphorical meanings through figurative expressions beyond the basic word levels. Hence, teachers of English first have to determine the objectives to teach them and then which and how many idioms, proverbs and collocations in one-hour class considering their learners’ proficiency levels.

When should EFL/ESL teachers begin to teach idioms to learners? To what extent and in what language proficiency level should they teach idioms? These questions bear in researchers’ and language teachers’ minds for so long. “If the teacher decides to apply the traditional methods of memorization through various activities or their arrangement around general themes such as education and

business, it seems that every level is suitable for idiom instruction” (Andreou & Galantomos, 2008, p. 12). In this sense, Boers (2004) finds out that “intermediate learners could make up the most responsive target group” in terms of deploying established metaphoric themes to use figurative language in discourse (p. 222). Within the frame of the theoretically cognitivist view, elementary students might encounter difficulties in vocabulary retention and actual use in everyday life practically because of restricted language proficiency in L2. Khan and Daşkın (2014) conducted a study on teacher-trainee’s use of idioms FL teaching through instructional materials. Through quantitative and qualitative data analyses, they found that teacher-trainees generally did not use idioms in their materials. In doing this, it was covered that their lack in knowledge of target idioms also played a part even though they had a positive attitude towards idiom teaching.

When it comes to teaching proverbs, as being a part of cultural, functional, formulaic and figurative senses of language, proverbs are culturally-rich materials to make use of teaching lexical, grammatical and phonological features of the target language besides “teaching morals, personal experiences and popular wisdom by providing advice and warning” (Yurtbaşı, 2015, p. 31). Since “students feel more confident when they use L2 proverbs in their utterances”, sentential pronunciation teaching could be realized via exercises to acquire natural rhythm and articulation patterns (Yurtbaşı, 2012, p. 4334). Can Daşkın (2011) conducted a study in Turkish Anatolian Teacher Training High Schools by investigating future English teachers’ experiences of learning English proverbs. Both students’ opinions were sought and coursebooks were analysed, and she found that even though the students expressed their willingness to learn English proverbs, there were almost no explicit implications of proverbs’ aspects except for cultural and semantic fields in the local coursebooks. On the other hand, the case occurred in opposite direction in international coursebooks containing a good number of proverbs in the fixed forms. Henceforth, the findings of this study covered the requirement of teaching proverbs in English classrooms to enable the prospective teachers “to gain language competence and awareness” (Can Daşkın, 2011, p. 161).

Moreover, in order to teach English metaphors, which carry figurative meanings of the target language, the results of Khoshniyat and Dowlatabadi (2014)'s study has revealed the high effectiveness of cooperation of conceptual metaphors and their visual manifestations in movies while teaching English idiomatic expressions to young Iranian EFL learners. This strategy has provided high rate of retention in experimental group with its nature of being enjoyable, appropriate and least demanding for children (p. 1007). "The teacher as a gatekeeper who transmits to the students the cultural heritage of the society should use metaphors since metaphors appear to be the most potent cognitive device" (Saban, Kocbeker & Saban, 2007, p. 135). As a consequence, since teaching idioms and proverbs, which draw out the essence of the target culture help learners attain fluency in English and make these users sound natural, teachers should ensure the practice of these prefabricated units in the learners' speaking and writing activities by enhancing their language skills.

Learners' proficiency level of English and their age of teachability across gender types. Another view that is needed to be argued is that in which grade or level culture should be taught in FL classrooms. Thanks to being conducted several studies that investigated using culture to teach English at primary, elementary and higher educational levels (Curtain & Pesola, 1994; Tsou, 2005; Tseng & Chao, 2012) with the purpose of "best" to teach foreign cultures, it is not uncommon that cultural instruction, which means culture teaching, is beneficial to increasing motivation among students toward language learning. "Specifically speaking, culture instruction refers to an instruction that views culture learning as a process" (Tsou, 2005, p. 44). Hence, teaching a foreign culture begins with the process of learning a foreign language simultaneously. Needless to say, their extent to teachability varies from language proficiency levels and grades.

By means of compositions and oral presentations, students could get self-confidence to express in target language, as well. For learners who are at higher proficiency of English, controversial issues such as racial discrimination, homosexuality, gender "stereotypes without approaching prejudices for fear of losing one's own identity", business relations among countries may be even potential discussion topics if circumstances are convenient to teach (Scheu, 1996,

p. 37). As for teaching idioms, however, concerning the learner proficiency level of English, Píriz (2008) argues that even though “figurative language has been traditionally associated with an advance stage of cognitive development not found in children, there are semantic extensions of, for example, body terms such as *head a ball* or *hand it to me* which are relevant to the social, physical, communicative world of EFL learners even at early stages” (p. 222).

A more detailed note on teaching the sociolinguistic use of certain expressions such as idioms and proverbs, together with learners’ proficiency level and age, even gender is also dealt with. Grouping five to eight words in simple semantically-related clouds – compositionality – according to their high frequency, such as idioms that include names of animals, body parts, colours and foods, and so forth could be a good alternative for EFL/ESL learners to retrieve the lexis much easier if given in context, not in isolation. To illustrate, let us perceive the way to present a conversation between two people that includes use of the idioms *it is raining cats and dogs* and *counting one’s chicken before they’re hatched* in a context. Asking students to guess or figure out the meaning of the idiom and provide other examples of what it means to *it is raining cats and dogs* and *counting one’s chicken before they’re hatched* may enable learners to have comprehension of the given dialogue. EFL students could even make inferences about speakers’ cultural background, educational levels and worldwide of them who are talking by paying attention to the clues which are hidden in a conversational context.

When it comes to the age of teachability of proverbs, Güven and Halat (2015) assume that teaching Turkish proverbs start from the intermediate level of proficiency in *Istanbul* textbook series, which are Turkish teaching books for foreigners; moreover, they remind that “the use of idioms and proverbs takes part at B1 level” according to CEFR (p. 1245). While some important events special to targeted culture are taught, it is potential to experience with teaching difficulties since these events to celebrate or mention about them could be a taboo intarget culture in which the target language is taught. This issue is generally observed in Eastern cultures while learning Western people’s way of doing their habits. Also, some taboo topics such as marriage, divorce, violence, suicide, drug abuse,

alcohol use and atheism, Eastern religions and feminism are thought to be against “human capital”; henceforth, critical thinking is perceived as misleading at schools (Evans, Avery & Pederson, 2000). Such problems also potentially affect classroom participation of learners based on their gender type. According to El-Dib (2004)’s study, while male learners use more active-naturalistic language strategies thanks to contexts with rich authentic input in a Kuwaiti classroom, female learners use more cognitive-compensatory, repetition and revision strategies. He supported his findings that while females in a conservative society may have less chances to be socialize with the speakers of English by using the strategies to learn English outside the classroom, males who live in that kind of a society have “more freedom in traveling, socializing and going to the movies” where they can practice English (p. 93).

Through exercises with proverbs, besides the improvement in grammatical and lexical competences, natural rhythm and articulation could be acquired effectively in sentential level during L2 pronunciation teaching (Yurtbaşı, 2012). Especially, by working on broad transcriptions with proficient learners, a significant addition for better communication might be substantiated. Lastly, either gender could have any type of jobs. Instead of stereotypical roles stuck to females (e.g. nurses, cleaners, etc.) and males (e.g. lawyers), teaching the cultural make-up form of the targeted society are likely to be more beneficial for learners in terms of developing sense of multidimensionality (Otlowski, 2003).

Materials and activities for teaching idioms and proverbs. Many materials create a gap in teaching idioms (Irujo, 1986). Accessing them through mass media, textbooks and everyday language, presenting idioms and proverbs in “story contexts with rich illustrations”, flashcards, “collaboration activities such as group discussions, conversations, Reader Theater - which is for idiom oral practice by rereading scripts -, dialogue writing and role-play” could involve the students in an integration of language skills with learning idioms and proverbs (Wu, 2008, p. 4). As for a remedy of teaching proverbs, which Oxford Living Dictionary of English defines as “short, well-known pithy saying, stating a general truth or piece of advice”, same strategies and activities might be useful in addition to translating directly into their own language since students could find a similar

expression in their L1. It could help them retrieve if they compare the differences between English and their native language.

Not only the target language idioms or proverbs, but also Turkish idioms and proverbs could be taught in English, which could be interesting for L2 learners. “The literary history of proverbs in Turkish can be traced back to the appearance of some proverbial expressions in Ancient Turkic inscriptions”, and many a Turkish proverb and idiom are used by Turkish people in society (Yurtbaşı, 2015, p. 32). Cultural values could be obtained from “objects, events, styles of interpersonal relations, educational systems, management styles child-rearing practices, architecture, the arts, literature, the media”, cartoons and comic strips, so “the sources are endless” (Irving, 1984, p.143). These so-frequently encountered culture-immersed elements could be substituted in language lessons for the learners’ own culture awareness development for the sake of increasing their cross-cultural understanding. Alptekin (1993) touch upon the idea that topical priorities get changed from culture to culture; henceforth, “while the White House seems to be a favourite topic with American EFL textbook writers, the British Royal Family appears to be a popular topic with British EFL writers” since this does not mostly cause to big-budget expenses to set materials in learner’s society (p. 138).

Integration of non-verbal communication in culture teaching through English. Teaching English through culture is also engaged in integrating gestures, hand/head movements, facial expressions for various emotional transmissions, stereotypical manners of people of the target culture into a dialogue so that students could retrieve information more easily and communicate much better in the target language (Tognozzi, 2010, p. 73). Thus, “gestures, use of space, aspects of voice modification, silence play a crucial role in human life and they are highly culture-specific” (Pennycook, 1985, p. 259). Harrigan and Rosenthal (2008) corroborate the idea that kinesics (i.e. body and head movements), proxemics (i.e. interpersonal relating to body positions/touching and environmental space or distance), gaze (i.e. movements and directions of eyes in visual interaction) enables verbal and non-verbal congruence, which means they are relatedness between talk and behavior. Tsou (2005) also argues that kinesics and proxemics, which are sub-categories of *small c*, need to be taught earlier. Ünal and Altay

(2013) investigated the effect of *Teaching Practice* course on the non-verbal communication use level of the prospective ELT teachers. Because of the fact that there is no significant split between the pre-and post-test results, it was found that *Teaching Practice* course, which is based on classroom teaching experience, do not influence the non-verbal communication use level of the prospective ELT teachers. They concluded that they be informed on that necessary issue which is frequently encountered in difficulty to be handled in FL classrooms.

Use of proxemics, personal space and posture in culture teaching.

Moreover, Little (1965) defines personal space as “the area immediately surrounding the individual in which the majority of his interactions with others take place” (p. 237). While personal space in high-contact cultures such as Latin and Mediterranean people maintain smaller distances when interacting, low-contact cultures such as Nordic and Asian people prefer no contact physically. Arias (1996) gives another example on this issue by explaining that “An Arab ESL student in the United States who ignores the difference between the United State's and his own country's proxemic behaviors might have serious problems: S/he could be rejected, considered homosexual, promiscuous, physically abused, and so on” (p. 32). Hence, the degree of space varies from culture to culture all over the world, and gender, privacy and comfort levels affect one's reaction toward others. Therefore, all of these could be taught reasonably in classroom environment to language learners to help them raise their cultural awareness.

As another non-verbal channel, posture also guides others' perception of politeness. For instance, the perfect posture of an attentive applicant shows that s/he is eager to make a good impression by accompanying a polite utterance such as ‘Well, thanks a lot.’. In addition to the function of politeness, body postures such as body lean could produce the feelings of being powerful and tolerant for risk (Fuller, 2015). In this regard, getting knowledgeable about how target culture(s) hold(s) the distance during a communication process is significant for learners because language learning is not only comprised of comprehension skills, which are reading and listening, and production skills, which are speaking and writing, but also the other complementary and must-becomponent bound to them, that is, culture.

Use of paralinguistic features in culture teaching. Paralinguistic features, which include the manner of expressions such as gestures, facial expressions, eye contact and tone of voice, are highly important since they are able to change the meaning of the message transmitted during the communication process. From this point, the messages transmitted to the receiver(s) are changable across cultures. While the use of one paralinguistic feature corresponds to one exact meaning in one culture, it may be equal to more than one meaning in another culture. Although non-vocal elements accompany verbal phenomena to strengthen the effectiveness of communication, displaying paralanguage such as the nodding of head and raising the loudness of the voice in certain cultures even without accompanying an utterance has a particular meaning in its own right. Henceforth, being familiar with these features can help learners see the world from different perspectives and enhance tolerance towards other cultures not only as a language learner but also as humankind (Abdollahi-Guilani et al., 2012).

That is why, “since language teaching is accepted as a fundamentally multimodal process in which language and gesture work together in an integrated system”, the recently-conducted study by Van Compernelle and Smotrova (2017) bolsters the role of gestures in unfamiliar vocabulary explanations (UVEs) (p. 15). According to their study, the synchronization of speech and a gesture is “central to understanding the ways in which teachers deploy gestures and the contextualized meanings they are creating in the thinking-for-teaching (TFT) process” (p. 16). As such, in Iranian context, Karimi, Dabaghi and Tabatabaei (2012)’s study proved that “Iranian EFL Junior high school students had positive attitudes towards the application of non [-] verbal communication (NVC) in teaching and learning L2” (p. 200). This implies that teacher should also be cautious what type of paralinguistic, gestural and other nonverbal behavior they use and how they perform them flexibly and steeply if required. Abdollahi-Guilani et al. (2012) explains how some cultures develop their eye contact with their audiences. They focused on the evidence that Americans could maintain eye contact successfully while females, especially, are directed not to look in the eye of older people or opposite sex in some of the Eastern and Middle Eastern cultures since it refers to impoliteness or disobedience to religion rules.

When it comes to the Turkish context, the recently conducted study by Uştuk and Aydın (2016) investigated the impacts of using paralinguistic features in spoken interaction by the help of 40 advanced-level EFL learners during four weeks in the classroom. They have found that the use of paralinguistic features in EFL speaking classes reduces foreign language anxiety regarding the communication apprehension and fear of negative feedback (ibid.). In a similar vein, a recently-conducted study by Porter (2016) shows that the clear advantage for the memorisation of formulaic chunks of language through the gestured story for very young learners. Orally expressing per se is not enough for retrieving vocabulary in a long term. That is why, they conclude that “second language vocabulary”, which is French for this study, “should constantly revisited, renewed and refreshed” (p. 252). Besides, nonverbal cues of communication such as facial expressions and tone of voice are enormously informative and often inevitably used (Lapante and Ambady, 2003). Within this context, Bryant and Fox Tree (2005) searched for ironic tone of voice, and they found that acoustic, nasality, and prosodic dimensions such as loudness, pitch and speech rate might affect the interpretations of the listeners by combining a variety of cues including information outside the linguistic context. In sum, all of these paralinguistic features await being reflected through culture teaching in language classes, as well.

Use of haptics, olfactory and gustatory linguistic elements in culture teaching. In addition to semiotic elements such as signs, symbols and icons, “culturally specific linguistic factors such as use of humor and metaphors” might be even handled through video clips, scripts of radio programmes, commenting on blogsites on the Internet, and so forth (Senel, 2007; Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010, p. 142). In that way, culturally meaningful multimodality could be attained by FL learners. As a branch of non-verbal communication in terms of touching and tactile/kinaesthetic sensation, haptics is also used for teaching language sub-skills such as pronunciation. Acton, Baker, Burri, and Teaman (2013) have found out that the application of embodiment and haptic integration of pronunciation increases the capability of mastering sounds, words and phrases by making the retrieval process in verbal expression easier.

Acton et al. (2013) also advocate that the pronunciation - integrated speaking task, which was called as “Rhythmic Feet Fight Club” and used in a seven-week intermediate speaking course, required students to analyze the text and identify focal stress in English language (p. 240). In this task, a tennis or golf ball or boxing gloves is put in one hand to perform focal stress and rhythm by “using ‘boxing-like’ movement and touch”, which is likely to be fun for students and make learning pronunciation enjoyable (ibid., p. 240). Even gustatory and olfactory-related vocabulary items in themes such as foods and drinks and perfumes could be taught through the use of authentic materials that are presented in the classroom. Ghinea and Ademoye’s recent study (2015) indicates that participants task performance during a word search game “was significantly better in the presence of olfaction” in the environment (p. 296). Revell and Norman (1997) give us an instructive guideline about the vocabulary items for olfactory, gustatory and kinesthetics-related words to teach (p.46). These word items could be helpful for teachers while vocabulary teaching, and if they also make use of target culture related real objects in teaching these words, language and culture learning could be much easier and effective, as well. Having a look at the example in Table 1 can highlight the situation as follows:

Table 1

Olfactory and Gustatory Elements in Culture-Related Language Teaching

OLFACTORY/GUSTATORY

Nouns

smell, aroma, perfume, odour, whiff, flavour, taste

Verbs

sniff, breathe in, stink, savour

Adjectives

Fishy, stale, pungent, sour, sweet, bitter, acid, smelly, tasty, delicious

Expressions/Idioms

It’s a piece of cake! To have a good nose for something. To sniff out.

Retrieved from Revell and Norman (1997, p. 46)

Pikkarainen (2014) defines the term of competence in his own words that it is a concept as “the basic structure of education and all action”, (p. 634). He also

adds that it “contains and somehow balances different sides of an individual person’s abilities and capabilities such as skills, attitudes, and cognitive functions” (p. 625). Pikkarainen (2014) focuses on the semiotic perspective of the competence in his same paper theoretically, which is also related to “the subject who experiences the meaning-effect of the discourse taken into account” (p. 627). According to him, while the meaning represents the effect on the action of the subject, the competence of the subject determines the essence of the effect. With another perspective, a recent article conducted by Çimenli (2015) is based on pronunciation teaching and semiotics. She expresses that “using semiotics to teach pronunciation is also related to the mutual relationship between semiotics and culture since teaching environments can never be drained of them” (p. 635). Therefore, “the combination of verbal and visual components interact each other to create a type of “language” that is more than a simple sum of the two separate parts” (ibid., p. 640).

As mentioned in Özen (2010)’s master thesis, semiotic studies are widely used in cultural studies. According to her point of view, semiotics, which is the study of signs, deals with virtually everything to embody the world around living beings through verbal and non-verbal items to make sense about it. Giving emphasis on educational semiotics, her study aimed at creating awareness about signs within a cultural context with classroom practices by the help of different kinds of texts. Through semiotic analysis, her findings indicated that 24 fourth year ELT students became more professional and more interested in analyzing contextual elements in surface and deep structures, thus gaining practices in intercultural communication in addition to accelerating their foreign language awareness at conscious and subconscious levels.

In this regard, semiotics, whose prominent figures are “Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913)” and “the American philosopher Charles Sanders Peirce (1839-1914)”, comes on the stage with another concept that sign and language are the means of communication (Sert, 2006, p. 107). Language learning is sign learning in a sense in terms of developing the four basic language skills, and semiotics “helps learners of English store what they have learnt into their long-term memories with verbal, non-verbal and visual communication”

(Özen, 2010, p. 26). Since every culture has its unique systematic signs and codes, educational semiotics, as it is started to be named, “tries to find ways to improve and accelerate the process of learning a foreign language” (Sert, 2006, p. 108). As Çekiç (2010) stated in his article, “for foreign language teaching to achieve its ultimate aim to have learner develop intercultural communicative competence (ICC hereafter), it needs to focus on cross-cultural pragmatic similarities and differences in terms of sociopragmatics, paralinguistics, pragmalinguistics, which also helps learners’ semiotic competence develop (p. 203). Hence, teachers and learners of English should be aware of the fact that the signs and codes of the home culture is the source of comparative analyses in coding the sign systems of the target culture. To sum, a target language is a product of the target culture in the form of visual or cultural audio-visual materials which the linguistic messages are modified with cultural signs in them (Sert, 2006). For example, a no-parking or no-smoking sign can be accompanied by sentences written on the board or utterances of native speakers. In that way, new vocabulary and grammatical structures in meaningful contexts could be taught efficiently through semiotic approach by FL educators.

Teacher agency for culture teaching. In an effort to applying cultural instruction in foreignlanguage classrooms, Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2012) uncovers the fact that the necessity of establishing cultural training programs in language teaching departments by gearing to Turkish EFL pre-service teachers (p. 1529). She has found out that cultural training courses at university through linguistic conversation practices could be provided for them to enhance their ICC levels, which are based on “the components of knowledge, skills and attitudes” with the aim of constructing ties between cultures through apprehending and interpreting the cultural phenomena in interaction (Sarıçoban & Öz, 2014, p. 528). In an attempt to alleviating the perceptions of EFL teachers’ incompetency over target culture, study period of that country, which is overseas experience, through student exchange programs should be encouraged for the development of interpersonal skills (Balakian, 1961; Altay, 2005; Luk, 2012).

The EFL language teachers feel themselves secure, confident and qualified to teach culture through English by deconstructing the deep meaning through

critical thinking before doing his profession in classrooms, namely when “teacher agency” is shaped by themselves (Lai, Li & Gong, 2016, p. 20). Then, they could help their students make culturally aware/competent and “deal with multicultural issues” efficiently (Barry & Lechner, 1995, p. 149). In this regard, using English-speaking resources such as TV channels and programmes, (e.g., CNN – International, ARTE in English), advertisements, magazines (e.g., National Geographic), films which are representatives of everyday life sequences, global video-sharing websites (e.g., YouTube, TED talks), social networking services for making comments in target language (e.g., Facebook, Twitter) creates a chance to use English in its very own natural environment to teach culture through inquiry. However, there are also several findings which have uncovered the ambivalence among language teachers to use video gaming and social networking in learning culture – including popular culture – (Luk, 2012). According to Luk (2012)’s findings, there is a need for a closer collaboration among EFL teachers from different sociocultural backgrounds, so that they can consider deploying culture pedagogy as a meaning-making resource in exploratory dialogues with students.

Smolcic (2011) postulates how to become a culturally responsive teacher in an attempt to highlighting identity shift through an immersion experience abroad, which was in Spain. She analyzed the participants’ reflections, and revealed that “weekly meetings with interculturally experienced mentors, journal writing to reflect on daily culture, L2 learning and English teaching and group discussion to share varied individual experiences of local interactions” were the effective mediational resources for participants to activate their perception of their own and target culture (p. 29). She also concludes that this would render breaking the chains of traditionality by leading to “a type of personal transformational learning that is crucial to teachers working with students of difference” (ibid., p. 30). That is why, language teachers are advised to receive both experiential and academic training on how to incorporate the culture of the target language with the purpose of becoming mediators in culture teaching.

Culture Teaching through Foreign Language

The issue of teaching culture through English, which means that English is used as a means of teaching target culture in its own context, is taken into

consideration in this subsection. It is clear that teaching a foreign language requires teaching it in use by constructing a social context, so that learning the foreign language would make happen naturally. Kramsch (2006) questions in her article which culture should be taught in that sense. American, British, Canadian, Australian, New Zealand English or any other countries that English is spoken officially? It commonly depends on the language policy that home country holds, and it is a kind of a politically related issue. When it comes to the context in which English language is taught, one of the responsibilities of the language teachers is to make teaching and learning processes more meaningful. It is the prerequisite of realizing the use of pragmatics in language classrooms. As Demirezen (1991) states, “in language teaching, social interaction is very important because it is mostly culturally based, governing our choice of language” (p. 281).

Freeman (2010) stated that the Soviet psychologist Lev S. Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory and Dialectical Approach in the early 1900s were “prompted by the radical transformations in his own culture as a result of the Russian Revolution” by believing meaning and knowledge could be negotiated through an internalization process in language (p. 1). By seeing language as a mediational tool for culturally developmental processes, Vygotsky purported language as both interpsychological, which is social, and intrapsychological, which is individual, progressions through acknowledging language as a communication tool and as its mediation human mental action (Nasir & Hand, 2006). Since this social and cultural process-oriented learning framework enables dynamic assessment in language learning and testing to be applied, teachers are able to observe their students' learning and development through tasks individually or cooperatively, but not through a final achievement test (Yıldırım, 2008). Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory supports the idea that a focus on cultural activities based on daily lives together with semiotic analysis such as identifying signs, symbols and language allows for understanding others and their thoughts in a dynamic interaction (Nasir & Hand, 2006). No doubt, through emphasizing process-oriented learning over product-oriented learning would bring learners a long-term success in their lives.

Nearly for five decades, Communicative Approach (CA hereafter) has been widely utilised in language classrooms through adopting notional-functional syllabi.

This approach was pioneered by Hymes, who also popularized the notion of communicative competence (Mitchell, 1994). Following this, Canale and Swain extended communicative competence for a more valid and reliable measurement of second language communication skills in three categories as grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic competences (Canale & Swain, 1980). Hence, one of CA's methodological implementation has been put into practice via the British innovation Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which is one of the most prominent language teaching methodologies around the world and in Turkey (Özşevik, 2010). Özşevik (2010) expresses that CLT gives prime importance to meaning, "which is achieved through interaction between reader and writer, and through negotiation between speaker and listener" (p. 28). Communicative classroom activities ranging from such as games to problem-solving tasks provide learners with practising their communicative competences meaningfully in a contextual interconnectedness. Then, Bachman (1990) divided "communicative competence into 'organizational competence' including grammatical and discourse (textual) competences, which is spoken or written, and 'pragmatic competence' comprising sociolinguistic and illocutinary competence" (p. 87). On the other hand, Bax (2003) touches upon CLT with its ignored aspect through context learning by putting it to secondary place after language. Henceforth, what he meant by "Context Approach" in his proposal encompasses learner needs with their individual learning styles and strategies as well as drawing attention to "coursebooks, local conditions, school culture and national culture" as a learning environment (Bax, 2003, p. 285).

To top it all, starting from the early 2000s, together with the use of Council of Europe's CEFR-based assessment in language testing through its action-oriented approach to the language use, the focus on communicative activities acquired a new dimension regarding language proficiency by "34 illustrative scales for listening, reading, oral production, written production, spoken interaction, note-taking and processing text" (Little, 2007, p. 646). It is not dismissed that the action-oriented approach which is the core of the CEFR, "accommodates the self-assessment fundamental to effective European Language Portfolio (ELP) use" (Little, 2007, p. 652). North (2007) fleshes out in his article that "the action-oriented approach suggests focusing on relevant content and experiences, systematically

including holistic activities so that learners can develop strategic competence” (p. 656). In the current climate, with the aim of realising this effective learning procedure, there is still a lack of systematicity in a methodological, comparative and contrastive sense when it comes to interculturality teaching in particular (Saydi, 2014). In this regard, methodological approaches to culture teaching is of capital importance for a successful language internalization of the learners. When involving using English to teach culture for the sake of cross-cultural learning by behaving in a culturally acceptable manner, the sub-categorizations of issues that are frequently borne in mind are presented as below.

Employment of native versus non-native teachers of English. Another case that covers using English to teach culture is to employ the native speaker teachers or qualified non-native speaker teachers of English for teaching English at schools. The native speaker (NS hereafter) teachers of English still have an exclusive place in the recruitment process of employers, institutions and private language schools because of the popular belief “representing both the model speaker and the ideal teacher” (Clark & Paran, 2007, p. 407). Thus, “there is a broad social and commercial preference on behalf of NS teachers” (Todd & Pojanapunya, 2009, p. 23). The recruitment process of NS teachers of English has gained momentum by the advent of “Direct Method in the nineteenth century through the Reform Movement” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014 p. 11). It “does not focus on grammar teaching but exposure and interaction the way that native speakers acquire their first language” (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010 p. 293).

Arva and Medgyes (2000) examine that NS teachers of English represent “a different cultural heritage” by increasing students’ motivation and even untrained NS teachers of English could be employed for teaching goals. They come to a conclusion via their research that non-native speaker (NNS hereafter) teachers of English favour a step-by-step approach with tangible chunks to teach whereas NS teachers of English do not follow an organized route to teach and push students along a never-ending path (p. 369). On the other hand, Ghanem (2015) have conducted the research not on English, but German language teachers from another perspective and found out that “NS/NNS identities influenced graduate

instructors' self-perception, confidence, and comfort in the classroom in regard to teaching culture" (p. 169).

Instead of underestimating that NNS teachers of English have many important factors such as experience, qualifications and personality, Bayyurt (2006) finds out in her study that being NNS teachers of English is an advantage as far as linguistic and cultural issues are dealt in EFL classrooms. The informants, which are teachers, in her study reveal that the purpose and the nature of integration of culture in EFL classroom set the stone of culture-integrated language teaching process by paying attention to the materials used. For instance, the informants suggest that YouTube, which is a tool for transferring rich of linguistic and cultural elements, be not used during core teaching hours since they think that it is lack of explicit-assessable learning outcomes and they are generally just for fun. Luk (2012) also supports this view by reflecting that playing them during break hours make students more engaged in learning vocabulary, instead. Henceforth, determining the objective while presenting a culturally filled topic or material in the classroom is of utmost importance for both native and non-native language teachers who "offer diverse perspectives from different sociocultural backgrounds" (Luk, 2012, p. 262).

English as a medium of instruction (EMI). As a second point to be mentioned here is that where English is the medium of instruction (EMI hereafter). Because of the global impact of English as the language of international communication, English as the language of business, education, trade and science has become the medium of instruction at higher education in Turkey since the late 1950s such universities as Middle East Technical University (METU) (Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998; Kırkgöz, 2009). Then, it started to spread among other universities such as Bilkent University and Boğaziçi University (Kılıçkaya, 2006). Corbett (2003) argues that the language of imperialism became English, and this only created minority elite people, which is sympathetic to Western cultures. Accordingly, he expresses that EMI enables British-educated teachers to work and provide a market area for US- and UK- based publishing. In addition, he mentioned whether there is a necessity for educational institutions, which are public and private schools, to adopt EMI.

Currently, it is an undeniable fact that English has served the function of a gatekeeper to the further education, especially for higher education in most of the countries in recent times. Therefore, Corbett (2003) points out that less successful learners are eliminated before entering the higher education institutions due to the demanded strict mastery of English, and “they should not be alienated from the home culture”, thereby having the opportunity of negotiating between the contrasting world-views of home and target culture (p. 208). In the words of Ellis (1996), FL teachers have a role as cultural mediators in their classrooms; that is why, he defines with his terms briefly what mediation is that “mediation demonstrates awareness of other cultural identities whilst still remaining one’s own” (p. 217). Subsequently, he advocates the key elements to mediation as the ability to find common ideas to bond mutually opposed cultural norms and to emphasize with the experiences of others. In Danish higher education context, Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) conducted a survey study at the University of Copenhagen concerning the lecturers’ attitudes towards EMI, who are broken down into different age groups, and indicated that “younger lecturers and lecturers with a higher teaching load in English” were “more positive towards the increase in English medium instruction” (p. 13). Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) also highlight the stated negative attitudes as “less dissemination of knowledge to the general public, poorer learning for students, and domain loss for the national language Danish” (p. 29). On the other hand, when the subject is on positive attitudes of lecturers towards EMI, the majority of them agreed upon the “internationalisation” nature of English and less become alarmed on the potential downsides such as counterproductive impact “on the Danish language and society” (ibid., p. 30).

In the Turkish educational context, Kılıçkaya (2006) conducted a study in order to reflect on the instructors’ attitudes at universities in Ankara towards EMI for non-language subjects. According to the results, the instructors most favored Turkish-medium instruction by bolstering the ideas that instruction in Turkish could promote student learning in a better way; however, they also compromised that mixing Turkish and English is also beneficial by giving courses and assignments in Turkish and English in higher education. In this regard, Kılıçkaya (2006) concludes his research by summoning governments and other stakeholders to take the EMI into consideration. In another study, Kirkgöz (2009) investigated for this time

both students' and lecturers' perceptions about the effectiveness of foreign language instruction through an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) curriculum in English-medium university in Turkey. The findings revealed that there is an emphasis on the shift "from a skill-based curriculum to a discourse-community driven philosophy", which is beyond teaching languages for skills by considering writing as a sociocultural practice and reading with its a work-embedded nature to writing based on students' academic needs (p. 92). On the other hand, Kyeyune (2003) reported through her interviews she conducted in Ugandanian secondary school context that the teachers' use of EMI sometimes frustrated the students in spite of their learning efforts that resulted in challenges instead of learning facilitation. For this reason, she suggested that teachers also be aware of "language-related barriers" for their students, and "be fluent in the two critical skills of questioning and explaining" (p. 173). Kyeyune (2003) concluded her study by stating the reason behind why teachers were failing in teaching better standards of English that there were gross faults in practising EMI in multilingual classrooms regarding the students' interview reflections, in which the importance of student participation and teacher responsibility as a requirement of their professional development was emphasized.

EMI is overwhelmingly being applied in primary, secondary and tertiary education by affecting the education of young people in pursuit of its function as a lingua franca (Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998). From another angle, Coleman (2006)'s terms perceive English as a killer language in spite of its provision of social, cultural and linguistic diversity by advocating that Englishization is a salient threat to minority languages. In the light of this phenomenon, Dearden (2014) probes this situation in a global scale within the 55 countries including Turkey in her study through interviews. According to the British Council respondents, the results were striking in terms of EMI being more prevalent in private than public education in the academic year of 2013-2014. However, she sheds light on the Turkish university teachers' concerns that EMI reduced the students' ability to understand the subject-matter concepts by "creating an elite class" in isolation of most of the students who were absent from English education, thus, this led to "feelings of alienation and separation with the contribution to the low participant in classroom activities due to their low level proficiency in English (p. 15). Similarly, she thinks

that researchers and teachers are incumbent on making experience of EMI “for their learners as enabling and rewarding as possible” (p. 33). In sum, there is still a discrete distribution among researchers and teachers for implementing EMI in institutions, and it seems that this case is likely to last depending upon changing demands of the institutions and learner needs.

Means of teaching English through culture. Kramsch (1995) indicates the actual problem in practice that “teachers teach language and culture, or culture in language, but not language as culture” (p. 88). What is strategically important is to apply appropriate ways or means of teaching a target language within its culture in structured settings such as classrooms. Byram and Feng (2004) mentions about the political and social influences in language teaching either to boost students’ self-esteem or to reaffirm Western supremacy. When it comes to means of teaching English through culture, “task-oriented” and “anthropology-process approaches” are utilized (Tsou, 2005, p. 42). By using realias, making discussions, survey and expeditions, task-oriented approach could be attained whereas anthropology-process requires more in-depth study within culture and language through societal works, which seem more theoretical for students. In this respect, an intercultural approach in which the foreign language has been taught via cultural elements of the foreign culture over the past decades in language classrooms. This can be first accomplished by starting with the curriculum design, which reflects the lack of adequate inclusion regarding target culture. An intercultural curriculum includes literary, media, cultural texts of the target language, which these tools support “cultural diversity” to be appreciated (Lavrenteva & Barak, 2015, p. 653). It is to be borne in mind that differences stemming from cultural diversity can cause breakdowns in communication due to the pragmalinguistic failures such as verbally directness and emotionally restraint in expressing oneself (Alagözlü, 2017). Being aware on that issue is to be unfolded in FL classrooms, so that FL learners could have a sense of recognizing themselves and others by highlighting values, attitudes and behaviours, showing respect through making negotiation. Here the help of different kinds of activities such as role-playing, simulations, project-work, discussions, which are also intended to activate communicative skills in FL classrooms, is not uncommon. Once for all, it should not also be neglected that language development is

combined with the shared ways of perceiving the world of environment by raising one's cultural awareness.

Within this context, Crozet and Liddicoat (1999) propound Intercultural Language Teaching (ILT) as a modern approach to language education on the view that culture must be taught explicitly because of the shortcomings of CLT. This view supports that language use is fundamentally cultural, and the aim is to develop language learners' intercultural competence "which mediates language learners' own and that of the target culture" through conceptual and experiential learning (Crozet & Liddicoat, 1999, p. 113). Crozet and Liddicoat (1999) also support the view that culture must be taught explicitly. According to their view, in order to achieve this aim, teachers' roles are to be refined, and they need "to become not only learners of language but also learners of culture"; thus, an increased level of "tolerance and harmony between cultures" could be obtained through this acquisition process of target linguaculture with various cultural activities in the classroom environment (ibid., p.122). Byram and Feng (2004) point out that it is inevitable to investigate and teach culture whose nature is based on values as one of its characteristic social features. In this respect, applying the cultural insights into teaching materials selection and lesson planning is the responsibility of language educators in using means of teaching culture and language.

Set of culture-integrated language textbooks. Language textbooks are among the most used teaching materials in language classrooms, which help learners and teachers in learning and teaching processes. As the fourth perspective under the section of culture teaching through foreign language, Tosun (2013) suggests that "teachers', students' and administrators' preferences, needs and expectations may help textbook writers" (p. 1379). Thus, teachers' selecting a proper textbook for their learners is of importance due to the influence of the textbooks on learners' views or beliefs about both the target and their national identity (Alagözlü & Telçeken, 2015). This duty belongs to especially both administrative staff and teachers at institutions by giving necessary permission and evaluating the texts in the coursebooks critically "without trusting their popularity on the market" (ibid., p. 256).

In the same vein, Lewald (1963) proposes that English language textbooks, which are “on the subject of dynamic cultural changes in heterogenous societies” such as the United States - by “regular visits of experts” who design to the particular host country’s textbooks, are to be in line not only with “historical events, geographical, artistic” elements but also current trends of the host culture (pp. 254-255). In addition, religion as “an integral part of EFL textbooks which is taught indirectly” is also demonstrated so that target language learners could make a sense of the nationhood of the target community in a deeper manner (Behnam & Mozaheb, 2013, p. 1106). In the Iranian context, “almost no English textbook has been designed with the content-based approach dealing with global issues; giving the opportunity to think and reflect on the subjects they study” (Erfani, 2013, p. 156). For that purpose, Corbett (2003) suggests that the textbooks of state schools incorporate intercultural strategies into the kinds of textbooks used commonly in commercial language schools, so that learners can keep up with the culture of the target language.

According to Güven and Halat (2015), “the textbooks are one of the crucial elements” of cultural treasure transmission (p. 1240). In this regard, richly illustrated-new textbooks can serve better in teaching culture (Balakian, 1961). On the other hand, the used “names, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, reading passages in EFL textbooks” display the distribution of genders as male and female might occasionally show the approach of the target culture towards sexism (Bahman & Rahimi, 2010, p. 277). Moore et al. (2012) state that most textbooks reflect a filtered-simplified approach to learning culture and language in which students’ learning is limited to the environment of the classroom. With closer attention, the contents in the textbooks have “little or no conceptual relationship[s] to global realities students are being prepared to face” (ibid., p. 96). As a remedy, Moore et al. (2012) ideally propose a solution for the textbooks that they can be done as portable reader or hyperlinked via wiki, as well. Furthermore, Corbett (2003) offers that “intercultural textbooks”, which are the source of oral and written discourse of the target language, “would be targeted more specifically at particular communities, and result from partnerships between native-speaker and non-native speaker contributors” (p. 212).

In the Pakistani context, Karim and Haq (2014) examines two English language textbooks, one of which was used in the government-owned schools and the other one was used in private system of education. They uncover that the textbook used in private system education, which follows Cambridge system education, reflects more cultural elements in addition to the activities for the development of all four language skills, and Karim and Haq (2014) stated that “it promoted more Western culture of learning” (p. 166). In the Japanese context, Reimann (2009) reviews the cultural content in English language textbooks and posits that because learning context is generally restricted to the classroom atmosphere and staying in communication with the target language is not too intense, texts and materials in textbooks should provide this functional duty of language as impartially as possible. This also lays on the concept of deciding whose culture to represent without stereotypes for promoting effective cultural awareness by reflecting on the learner’s own culture. Thus, Reimann (2009) also elaborates that many texts do neglect the learner’s culture concerning international marketability issue, and most local publishers could not meet the needs of “teacher-centered materials and assessment criteria” (p. 97).

In the Turkish context, Böcü and Razi (2016) have recently conducted a study based on the evaluation of textbook series *Life* published by National Geographic Learning at A1 and A2 levels in terms of the elements with regard to ICC. They have analyzed the activities and visuals via a checklist including the criteria of target and international cultural elements with big C and small c features of culture. They also collected another data from the questionnaire related to the opinions about the content of the textbooks applied to six lecturers and 26 students from two universities in Istanbul. Four of the lecturers were interviewed. The findings indicated that “the textbooks were generally satisfactory”; however, “guidance for teachers needed to be more developed for their effective implementation in the classroom in order to integrate cultural components into lessons” (Böcü & Razi, 2016, p. 221). To sum up, culture-integrated language textbooks in teaching English as a target language are still one of the areas to be investigated by researchers in terms of the culture-immersed features of the textbooks since there are various differences applied across the host countries which aim their students to learn the target language.

L1 interpretation on cultural differences and similarities. Fifthly, another aspect that has been concerned under the section of culture teaching through foreign language is the role of L1 to interpret while comparing and contrasting between home and target cultures to internalize the target language at much deeper levels in terms of not only their differences but also similarities. Tomlinson (2001b) advocates that direct or explicit use L1 while “comparing selected examples from L1 and L2” so that “students can immediately understand similarities and differences between languages, and are then better prepared to use L2 correctly during practice” (p. 108). He continues to state that implicit appearance of L1 is even seen “in the organization of language programs, in textbook creation, in lesson planning, in the selection of teaching materials and in classroom exercises and drills” (ibid., p. 108). Alternatively, Altay (2005) states that “target or native language will be used for discussion, depending on the types of students attracted by the course” (p. 175). Through a parallel study of native and target language cultures, which advocates the combination of two teaching practices respectively, interaction with a teacher who shares the same culture with students and interaction with a teacher who represents the target language culture, “the personal development of a student in the process of language teaching could be encouraged” (Mikhaleva, L. V. & Regnier, J. C., 2014, p. 121). Furthermore, Ismaili (2015) also suggests that “balanced and careful use of L1 in the English classes seem not to affect the students’ exposure to the target language in the learning process to increase comprehension” (p. 194).

In the light of the differences and similarities across cultures, Cummins (1997) mentions about the educational attainment of culturally and linguistically diverse contexts. When the schools succeed “in bringing issues related to cultural and linguistic diversity from the periphery to the centre of their mission, they would be much more likely to prepare their students to thrive in the interdependent global society within which they will live” (p. 113). Accessing more than one culture and language in schools to communicate is a fruitful resource that challenges the racism and xenophobia in societies, as well. What is meant to be in the present thesis with the concept of cultural diversity is the target culture of the target language which influences the learners of this aforementioned language. Target culture that plays an integral role in language make-up also help learners develop

a global perspective, thereby knowing the other via exploration flexibly in a very supportive and encouraging environment can be possible for students. This transition process to gaining more advanced level of an unfamiliar, new and different global perspective could be realized by educators using related situations and strategies since “the more cultural events that students participate in, the greater global perspective they will develop” (Ferguson, 2013, p. 93). Hence, the development of cultural diversity sense among learners heavily depends on this life long journey in an intertwined process of acquiring global knowledge.

Teacher training: Useful tips for pre- and in-service English teachers.

Applied linguists and sociolinguists have discussed whether there is a need for teaching culture with English along for approximately two decades (Choudhury, 2014). Nonetheless, what is necessary to be done here is that language teachers present the culture not in the position of their local or national culture, but in the position of the target one. For instance, “the English language uses the word ‘please’, as an expression of kindness and respect, the most frequently in speech” (Demirezen, 1991, p. 285). Therefore, foreign language teachers ought to use English in the English context where it occurs naturally in discourse such as opening a dialogue between teacher-student in an American classroom while asking permission or maintaining a conversation between client-waiter in a British restaurant while making requests. Within this context, students are likely to gain a degree of familiarity with the unfamiliar culture by doing cultural investigation as a learner.

As another example, in the American context, Brown and Abeywickrama (2010) mention in their book that when teenagers talk about a *babe* or describe an event as *da bomb* the context of the conversation indicates that the first case is not a small baby but a nice-looking girl and the second one is the equivalent to awesome or great, which could lead to misunderstandings in communication between NS and NNS of English if those meanings were not known. Thus, handling sociopragmatic knowledge efficiently is of utmost importance in learning the target language and its culture. In a context that ensures the class size is reduced, through which the amount of interaction between teacher and students and among students could enhance, might make teachers motivate to “arduously

teach English through English” (Kim, 2002, p. 144). As a resort for this action, it could be considered that Desuggestopedia as a method which was proposed by Lozanov (1978) is the implementation of suggestions to the teaching areas to desuggest psychological barriers toward language learning. Accordingly, choosing a new identity could be a helpful alternative as a kind of classroom activity. Larsen-Freeman and Marti Anderson (2013) explain this procedure in such a way that students talk or write about the place they were born, their childhood and family after selecting “a target language name and a new occupation” by developing a biography of their fictional characters which they create (p. 81).

Bayyurt (2006) conducts a study, which investigates NNS teachers of English who work in public and private schools in Turkey. With a semi-structured interview, she collected her data and found that the subject teachers’ beliefs were in favor of teaching international cultures by emphasizing English-speaking Anglo-American cultures as well as students’ local cultures in EFL classrooms. They also advocate that being a NNS teacher of English is an advantage culturally and linguistically thereby becoming EFL teachers more critical about the integration of culture. Hence, they would “equip their students with the necessary linguistic and cultural resources to communicate with people from other cultural and linguistic backgrounds” (p. 233). Çevik (2005) suggests Turkish EFL teachers that they increase their own awareness of similarities and differences between home and target cultures through critical readings in articles and books on the related topic(s). He also elucidates that EFL teachers should emphasize the knowledge of culture-oriented distance in non-verbal language for their learners to function adequately in target community by looking from different perspectives and seeing the life through them. He added that this could “increase motivation in learning the target language culture and create an awareness of the home language” (p. 19).

Since “English is the most widely spoken language in the world”, and because of its representing “the economical and political power of the USA”, it has not been denied that it has been utilized for a variety of purposes such as education, tourism, trade and science (Choudhury, 2014, p. 1). In that sense, Choudhury (2014) proposes that English teachers should make use of visual aids, newspapers, websites, films, videos, other authentic materials from literature and

drama for illustrating differences, which are anything unedited in the target language, by benefiting from their home cultures in role-plays and making discussions through a set of questions. It is aimed here that learners active reflect their viewpoints actively by brainstorming in order to avoid any misinterpretations after these critical incidents of cross-cultural interactions. Sariçoban and Çalışkan (2011) argue on this issue that it is essential to focus on teaching contextually appropriate usage and interpretation since much of this knowledge is culture specific, which are especially “humor and interpreting literature” (p. 14). Furthermore, games, rhymes, songs, poems and short stories could be used for all grades by paying attention to age, experience, interests and proficiency levels of the learners to underlie and make them understand the values and behaviors of the people who live in the target culture. These are one of the enchanting ways of teaching which provides a non-threatening and vivid atmosphere for students in the phases of teaching productive language skills (Sariçoban & Metin, 2000).

With the first-hand cultural presentations through slides and abroad experiences that teachers share with their learners could be even stimulating and motivating. Therefore, Choudhury (2014) concluded that learners “should be taught English with the culture associated with it” in EFL/ESL classrooms so that they “can acquire the target language with cultural background and correspond in real life situations” (p. 18). Lastly, it is not to be discounted that learning English without thorough awareness of its culture results in raising students who find it difficult to correspond with native speakers in real situations although they have solid academic performances in the subject-matter English.

Direct teaching of culture in foreign language classrooms. The literature on culture teaching methodology is extensive, and a variety of techniques have been used although there are still some blurred points to deal with target culture in the FL classrooms (Brooks, 1968). Brooks (1968) explained the essence of culture teaching that “what is important in cultures is what one is expected to think, believe, say, do, eat, wear, pay, endure, resent, honor, laugh at, fight for, and worship, in typical life situations, some as dramatic as a wedding or a court trial or a battlefield, others as mundane as the breakfast table or the playground or the assemblyline” (p. 211). Through these lines, it can be

understood what constitutes the base of culture teaching is to develop learners' cross-cultural understanding so that they can communicate more appropriately and effectively in the target language when it is required to do so.

It is admitted in a widespread manner by the researchers who conducted studies on language and culture that culture has, even implicitly, been taught in FL classrooms. With the view of fostering communicative competence, what is debatable, though, is what is meant by the term culture and how it is melted into language learning teaching processes. Since communicative competence, which consists of both verbal and non-verbal communication, is more than the concern of language proficiency to enhance, cultural competence can also pave the way for empathy and respect toward different views and people from other cultures by stimulating objectivity (Thanasoulas, 2001). For this reason, teaching a foreign language without teaching its own culture simultaneously resembles teaching meaningless words as tokens to which the student ascribes a wrong meaning. With the transmission of sociocultural knowledge instead of giving primary care to grammatical input, both effective communication and understanding could be provided with walking in target language speaker's shoes. By setting the scenes which take place in the target culture's typical life situations such as ordering a meal in a restaurant, learners are given a chance to put themselves in a member of the target culture's place. These cultural input could enable learners to connect between cultures by constructing meaningful senses (Altay & Özer, 2018).

In target language lessons, target culture teaching is implemented in any way without any deliberate focus implicitly. However, with the term of direct teaching of culture, it is literally meant here that teaching each target language skill is decorated with the immersion of teaching target culture to help students develop an understanding of the cultural connotations of words and phrases in the target language. It is also aimed here to thrive a conception of social variables such as age, gender and social status that influence the ways target language-speaking people speak and behave. In doing so, Thanasoulas (2001) put forward that students' intellectual curiosity about the target culture is likely to be stimulated. Specifically, as long as the students' language proficiency levels go beyond depending on their ages, their need to see their global responsibilities and to move

comfortably from one cultural environment to another increases. By serving this purpose, FL teachers could make their students aware that there are no superior or inferior cultures and there are also differences among people within the target culture for which FL educators must combat and eradicate stereotypes. This can be done by identifying common ground within target cultures or between native and target cultures in view of using comparisons. Touching upon the target culture's music types, geographical features, architectural structures, crafts, clothing styles, national origins, values, customs, religious beliefs, arts and food and physical features could be a proper outset for teachers and students to dismiss any stereotypical cults much easier.

Not only raising students' cultural awareness, but also providing them with cultural experiences to gain is another alternative task for FL teachers. For instance, students can practise how to eat, learn how, and to what extent, the members of the target culture hold in highly regard with their friends. This kind of culture assimilator supplies the descriptions of diverse situations where a person from the target culture communicates with a person from the home culture that interprets the meaning of the behaviour displayed and speeches made by the interlocutor. With the the objective of raising mutual empathy, dispelling misunderstandings and guessing reactions of the interlocutors accurately through making discussions and experimentations in addition to the taking advantage of visual aids, the task of establishing the foreign language classroom oversteps being a place where only the foreign language is taught. In doing so, as Lessard-Clouston (1997) notes, evaluation of both language and culture learning provides students with important feedback and keeps teachers accountable in their teaching.

Indisputably, English has been widely recognized as a means or medium of ICC. Learners also need to master some skills in culturally appropriate communication and behaviour for the target culture. To give a second or even a third voice to students' thoughts by developing a kind of *cultural strategic competence*, which is Thanasoulas (2001)' own term, a recent article published by Ali, Kazemian and Mahar (2015) put forward that it is essential to incorporate cognitive, affective and behavioral patterns of learning English in order to acquire

maximum effectiveness of ICC. As an alternative, another newly written doctoral thesis by Brdarić (2016) has mentioned that teachers must create a culture friendly atmosphere in the classroom before they begin teaching the other culture for “a start of a fruitful culturally-related discussion”; for instance, they can ask learners to bring real objects which are characteristics of their home culture (p. 8). Thus, the students do not feel overwhelmed by a new and different culture. Teachers can prepare their materials about the target culture from the library, mass media and personal observation. As Bashaikh (2016) notes in his master’s thesis, teachers could “present the target language using technologies (video, computer, Internet), Total Physical Response (TPR), dimensions of culture and Multiple Intelligences”, and so forth (p. 78). So, students could be expected to assess manners, customs, appropriate or inappropriate behaviour by using problem-solving techniques.

Lessard-Clouston (1997) also addresses the significance of integrating students’ experience and knowledge about diverse languages and cultures during L2/FL culture teaching activities since the linguistic and cultural diversity of the classes is a valuable resource, as a matter of fact. Doing role-plays such as a job interview taking place in the target culture(s), reading narratives, making “a discussion” about living conditions, family life or leisure time in a target culture for elementary levels, studying the impact of geography, history or economy on a certain target culture represent great opportunities to get rid of language and cultural anxiety through not feeling the pressure of explicit learning (Brdarić, 2016, p. 8). In conclusion, “the students in interactive classroom activities can communicate meaning, build up vocabulary, enhance grammatical accuracy, and develop communicative competence” in addition to the cultural competence (Ali et al., 2015, p. 9). The traditional method of teaching as a habit of “the over-emphasis on single aspects as the central issue of language teaching and learning” (Liu & Shi, 2007, p. 69) is to be broken by language educators.

Attitudes towards Language Learning and Cultural Awareness

An examination of language learners’ insights into the ability to implement their language development and the instruction that is given to them shed light on learners’ attitudes toward the concept of knowledge about language and culture of

the target language (Brindley & Schneider, 2002). Especially, in the context of teacher education, training sophisticated pre- and in-service teachers and educating their available or future students by helping raise the awareness of prejudice and discrimination in coping with these negative social occurrences necessitate assuming appropriate time slots in order to give suitable examples from their students' experiences and background knowledge in a meaningful learning context (Ladson-Billings, 1998). Henceforth, the "instructor awareness is crucial for planning effective learning opportunities" in language-related, challenging but attainable tasks (Hammann, 2005, p. 16). It is an inevitable remark that "students' positive attitudes toward learning an L2 are central to motivated L2 learning, academic motivation and language achievement" (Pourfeiz, 2016, p. 674).

When it comes to the Turkish context, Kahraman (2016) has conducted a study about the perceptions of Turkish EFL teachers and students on the role of culture and culture teaching in foreign language learning. His data have shown that teachers' time allocation on language teaching is more than the time slots on culture teaching. However, the participants have expressed their eagerness to teach culture on the questionnaire, because of the curriculum burden, pressure of time limitation, existing examinations and their lack of familiarity with target culture. Another survey study in a Turkish setting is belonged to Önal (2005). The data of this study were collected at four universities that are located in Ankara. The findings demonstrated that teachers showed positive attitudes towards incorporating cultural information into their teaching practice. Furthermore, the teachers generally defined culture as within the frame of values and beliefs in terms of a sociological aspect. When a certain attitude towards language learning comes into existence, the positive correlation between academic achievement and motivation in learning process has been found significant in Turkish higher education context by Özönder (2015). According to Özönder (2015)'s study, her findings have indicated that "positive attitudes and motivation attribute to the process of self-development of prospective ELT students" (p. 728). Lastly, whether the studies are conducted in Turkish or another nationality context, the perception of teaching culture "from daily life to traditions or showing politeness to important occasions such as special days" in the target society should be scrutinized

thoroughly as “there is no direct contact with native speakers” in a host country-learning environment (Kırmızı, 2003, p. 160).

Viewpoints of Approaches and Methods toward Culture Teaching

The history of language teaching approaches goes back quite a long way. Nevertheless, which approaches and techniques to use in language classroom settings has been far from uncontroversial over the years. The approaches represent, to some extent, a combination of teaching methods, but it is evident that they put over-emphasis on single aspect of teaching beliefs as the core of language teaching and learning. There is also a debate in the EFL research area what type of culture should be taught. Zaid (1999) mentions that the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM), which is based on the structural view and behaviorist theory of language teaching, deals with culture through “a capital C or anthropological culture” perspective as “intellectual refinement and artistic endeavor”; though, the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) handles culture with “a small c” perspective as “the way of life of a target language society” (p. 111). Through GTM in the last years of the nineteenth century, people learned a target language to study its literature through reading written texts associated with the civilization of the target language. However, in the period of ALM in 1960s and 1970s, the importance of culture shifted from learning the literature to language learning. It shall be noted here that the tracks of behavioristic view of language learning were seen in the implementation of ALM in language classrooms.

The behaviorist theory is a theory of stimulus and response interaction of psychology through a process of habit formation. It supports the view that language learning is a mechanical process with imitation, practice, generalization, repetition, drilling, reinforcement and rewarding to reach threshold level in language learning (Demirezen, 1988). That is why, Direct Method (DM), which is another popular teaching method of 1960s, Demirezen (1988) also gives examples of language teaching methods that make use of behaviorist theory. However, DM requires teachers of English to be native or have native-like fluency in the target language, but it is likely to be hard to meet these requirements in general use. Apart from GTM and ALM, “Total Physical Response (TPR) and Silent Way also embody the behaviorist view of language” while British

Structuralism establishes the basis of Situational Language Teaching based on the Oral Approach (Demirezen, 1988, p. 140). In this regard, all these methods mentioned above recognize target culture as a means of engaging learners in repetitive phrases, grammar patterns and accuracy rather than more useful and authentic language performance in a fluent manner.

Having come up in the late 1960s, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was inspired by the changes in British language teaching methodology based on the Communicative Approach (CA) as a reaction to ALM (Demirezen, 2011). Taken roots from the communicative competence proposed by D. H. Hymes, CLT specifically takes precedence over social context of the communicative event, which gives meaning to the utterances. That is why, it mainly centers on idiomatic and everyday language through everyday life situations in view of the target culture. This real life form of the target language embellished with the transmission of knowledge of the target culture in different social contexts through communicative activities such as role-plays, dialogues and discussions promotes target culture awareness. Teaching speaking and writing skills with the help of authentic listening and reading texts through the appropriacy principle also provides learners with using an appropriate language and tone for a particular situation.

Bax (2003) pointed out that CLT does not take context at the heart of teaching and is much involved in the way to communicate rather than placing emphasis on the context, which is the environment the conversation occurs. Henceforth, the need for a more contextual approach has inevitably risen to the surface in language classrooms. The methods which support the Communicative Approach (CA) such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), Content-Based Instruction (CBI), Cooperative Language Learning (CLL), Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), which are the developed versions of CLT in a sense. Richards and Rodgers (2014) state in their book that one of the key characteristics of CBI and CLIL is attaching importance to the development of intercultural awareness. These methods' influence on current language teaching is that they pave the way of raising strong awareness in subject matter on real life purposes for target language learning. Richards and Rodgers (2014) also

mentions that Text-Based Instruction (TBI) as another method inducing target culture awareness promotes using “authentic spoken and written texts in their social and cultural context as the main source of input” (p. 393).

Beyond CA and its inspired methods, it has been moved to a postmethod condition by reason of the complexity and diversity of language learning contexts. In the era of the postmethod, eclectic approach has been adopted by the practitioners in language classrooms. Hu (2002) made a note in his article that educational policymakers and teacher should “take a cautiously eclectic approach and make well-informed pedagogical choices which are grounded in an understanding of sociocultural influences” (p. 103). Then, he also touched briefly on the use of a holistic, interactive and learner-centred CLT notion. To his mind, only can applied linguists’, policymakers’ and teachers’ collaborative work on critique of current methodologies used in the classroom enable an ongoing progress with a well-ordered investigation of alternative language teaching practices in a larger cultural context.

Consequently, Kumaravadivelu (2003) teased out the emerging concept of postmethod condition, which is the pedagogy of searching for the best method to use as an alternative resulted in futility regarding the limitations of using merely one method in second and foreign language education. Kumaravadivelu (2003) also went in detail that the postmethod pedagogy consists of the requirement in teachers’ acting autonomously through developing a critical approach to self-observe, self-analyze and self-evaluate their teaching practices regardless of “academic and administrative limitations imposed by institutions, curricula and textbooks” (p. 33). By this way, the postmethod pedagogy could help target language teachers construct their own theory of practice by virtue of principled pragmatism. This principled pragmatism is more likely to be directly responsive to student needs’, their learning goals and strategies. From this standpoint, the post-methods era has dispelled one of the characteristics of methods for decades, which is “one size that fits all” (Brown, 2002, p. 17). Taking students’ purposes for learning into consideration, target language teachers shall give importance to using literary texts based on dialogic interaction for cultural awareness and

language awareness communicatively in target language learning (Newby & Maley, 2003).

Overall, Heidari, Ketabi and Zonoobi (2014) summarizes the role of culture within the perspectives of different FLT approaches and methods. As one of the traditional methods in FLT, GTM approaches to culture teaching as the teaching of Latin dialogues and literary works by referring to the high arts of a country through translation in the comparison of native and target language. Another traditional method advocated by Berlitz and Jespersen, DM involves culture in benefiting from culturally oriented pictures reflecting the daily lives of the people, the history, geography of the country or countries where the target language is spoken with allowing only target language to be used. These authentic pictures could assist students' memory to be activated by more concepts before speaking and writing activities' production processes (Sert, 2006). As the last traditional method according to Heidari et al. (2014), ALM deals with culture through the use of dialogues consisting of colloquial and sociolinguistically appropriate language, which emphasizes the teaching of small c.

Since the need of real communication thanks to the advances in science and technology and increasing globalization with interaction opportunities by travelling, doing business and studying abroad, it was realized that the teaching of culture was still overshadowed in the field of FLT. Henceforth, Heidari et al. (2014) reviewed innovative/designer methods this time around. They collected these methods under the same title that are named humanistic approaches. These methods are the Silent Way, Desuggestopedia and Community Language Learning. While Silent Way identifies culture as an indispensable part of language learning by knowing everyday life, literature, art of the target culture and so forth, Desuggestopedia proposed by Bulgarian psychotherapist Lazanov in 1970s, culture learning is also based on music, games and puzzles. Community Language Learning integrates culture in language through communication where learners are encouraged to talk about their personal and linguistic problems in an emotionally secure environment to alleviate their language anxiety, which provides social life styles and customs are taught.

As for the modern methods starting from the Communicative Approach (CA), Heidari et al. (2014) first examined CLT as a method here. They argue that CLT ignores the social identity of the learner in an intercultural communicative atmosphere. This method takes native speakers as a model to define communicative competence in terms of sociolinguistic norms of the target culture. Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) determines a vision of motivating students to go beyond the classroom and school context into the larger society around them. In Content-Based Instruction (CBI), culture is presented through specific vocabulary and expressions students need to acquire based on their linguistic skills to understand language which depends on the cultural background of the learners. These may be demonstrated with texts linked to students' future area of expertise such as newspapers and magazines indicating a variety of cultural aspects and facts from the target country. Debates, role-plays and case studies are also among the activities that should be done because students are expected to express their viewpoints and see the world from the eyes of a foreigner. The last method Heidari et al. (2014) analyzed is TBLT that handles the direct use of culture with cultural artifacts such as postcards, photographs, bus or air tickets, receipts, money, symbols and images in song lyrics.

Tomlinson and Stempleski's study (as cited in Heidari et al., 2014) proposes that through writing and speaking tasks with the help of these materials mentioned above, students could make up a story by identifying each item in pairs or groups. Each member of the group tells a part of the story and each item appears to be in the story, it is shown to the class and put on the table. After this session, students can write their own version of the story and give peer-feedback to their products each other. By discussing and interpreting what they have written within the frame of target culture in comparison to their own culture. To equip students with ICC in which they emphasize culturally appropriate forms to address people, reveal gratefulness and make requests in everyday practices by knowing values, behavioral patterns, events and language of the target culture. Heidari et al. (2014) suggested that what falls to FL educators here is to be familiar with basic insights from cultural anthropology and willing to teach intercultural competence by knowing how to do so; moreover, a change of content to language instruction requires a change in curriculum, as well.

Assessment of Language Skills

For three decades, language testing research has gained ground of incremental progression in terms of “application of test design and psychometric theory to language testing” (Bachman & Clark, 1987, p. 21). Apart from L1 assessment, foreign/second language assessment has been an intriguing issue since 1970s and it has been dealt with from different aspects by researchers. For example, in the topics of determining language levels for proficiency, analyzing commercially available language proficiency tests, assessments of four language skills and its sub-components, which are grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, were investigated for the student test takers of different languages in higher education (Şahan, Şahan & Razi, 2014; Costa & Albergaria-Almeida, 2015; San Miguel & Rogan, 2015). In much smaller teaching settings, that is, in a classroom environment, the same language skills with their sub-components are assessed, measured and evaluated in the end. By designing classroom language tests, language teachers/instructors are able to assess their students based on their clear objectives and test specifications that they have determined beforehand. In this sense, according to Brown and Abeywickrama (2010), the four assessment scenarios would be reading quiz, grammar unit test, midterm essay and listening/speaking final exams (p. 54). Following the scoring, grading and feedback sessions, either the whole language proficiency or language skills on an individual basis are likely to be assessed.

The brief literature described so far has integrated significant topics relating to both culture and language teaching and language assessment. It is also asserted by studies conducted that the integration of culture teaching is also beneficial for personal growth and intellectual enhancement linguistically and culturally together with advantages of knowing and using English as a tool for employability and professional development (Costa & Albergaria-Almeida, 2015). To achieve this, developing cultural awareness plays a key role in learning and teaching processes. Therefore, it is essential that culture teaching and learning be paid more attention by researchers to examine for better foreign/second language internalization because culture is in everyday life situations and real environment deriving from inside us. Henceforth, our need of communicative curriculum cannot

be disregarded as a final note. Regarding this concern, Little (2005) lays emphasis on a CEFR-based curriculum for the development of learners' both linguistic and communicative competence through choosing appropriate learning tasks and materials with the help of developing assessment procedures by referring to the puzzling discrepancy between what is expected from language teachers and what language teachers envisage from their pedagogical outcomes. He mentions that it is not uncommon for learners to get quite high scores from examinations which omit to assess learners' communicative proficiency; as a consequence, the need of applying the CEFR comes out for preventing the learning phase from being "constrained or distorted" (Little, 2005, p. 334).

"Despite its popularity and widespread approval, CEFR-based English language teaching is far from effective implementation in Turkey" (Çağatay & Ünveren Gürocak, 2016, p. 705). In order to investigate the reality at tertiary level, Çağatay and Ünveren Gürocak (2016) have conducted a recent study at both Turkish state and private universities, and they realised that there was a significant difference between private and state institutions in terms of CEFR experiences in teaching and assessment circles. However, the findings of this study did not vary in terms of the consensus among the instructors' perceptions on the necessity of CEFR-based curriculum and implementation. They have concluded that the active in-service training was put into practice for English language instructors at private universities, and the positive effects of CEFR-based practices on in-service instructors' teaching implementation was reflected. They also refer to the implication that not only in-service teaching training but also pre-service teaching training should teach in-service teachers and pre-service teachers on CEFR and raise their awareness on how to use the criteria, objectives and materials for the assessment of foreign/second language teaching.

Mirici (2015a) supports the view in his article that he focuses on the benefits of the CEFR applications based on an action-oriented approach in Turkey and across Europe for students and teachers in a circle of three educational principles as self-assessment, cultural diversity and learner autonomy within a lifelong learning perspective. In another study, Mirici (2015b) also refers to the suggestions for both students and student teachers of languages upon the

European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL), the European Language Portfolio (ELP) as a tool of recording and reporting language competencies in order to be efficient and multiculturally adaptive users of language in a standardized manner. Particularly, this will enable teachers to keep pace with the global changes when they acknowledge and apply the recent scientific, technological and socio-cultural development in their teaching practices to achieve short term and long term educational objectives (Mirici, Göksu & Bozkurt, 2013).

Assessment of Writing Skills

Advanced writing skills are a significant part of academic discourse. What is more, “effective writing skills are central both in higher education and the world of work that follows” (Kellogg & Raulerson, 2007, p. 237). Starting from the three decades ago, a large number of institutions, schools and universities have still made their decisions in students’ language proficiency through their own standardized large-scale, direct writing assessment methods (Ewing, 1992). This kind of traditional writing assessment is solely based on final products but not the process in which students learn to write in a purposeful, meaningful and effective manner. Ewing (1992) found that the “method of instruction had an effect on amount and type of prewriting quality of writing”, which proves that writing instruction and writing assessment were closely-related to each other (p. 82). Schulz (2009) contended that “effective teaching is the key to sustained academic achievement for all students” (p. 61). Thus, it should not be ignored that effective instruction and assessments are interrelated. If suitable assessment and teaching based on learner needs are applied, English language learners will have a better chance in developing their writing skills in a progressive manner.

Assessing student writings is a critical duty for writing teachers (Weigle, 2007). On the other hand, since teachers are held responsible for teaching writing in school contexts, Hochstetler (2007) argues in her case study that “the failure of high school English teachers to teach writing derives not from a lack of will but a lack of preparation” (p. 71). Therefore, for instilling effective writing skills in higher education also becomes a necessity, and teacher-in-action movement bursts into prominence as a university level course. In that sense, some of the findings of

Hochstetler (2007) demonstrates that while one of the tertiary level teacher training institutions that participate in the study, which is institution A, teaches English methods courses to instruct prospective teachers how to teach writing based on the whole class discussions about process versus product writing, the institution B conducts writing instruction “to develop one’s own writing skills to aid in one’s teaching of writing”, and the institution C as the last one views writing instruction as “reading seminal texts in the content areas, writing reviews of those texts, and reporting their importance back to the class” (p. 79). In this regard, Allison (1995) stated that “a teaching focus on assertions and alternative wordings will also have to find a level of treatment that minimizes learner confusion” (p. 12). For this, as an option for writing courses, Altay (2010) elaborated the functions of compiles which are made up for a variety of coursebooks by collecting their useful sides under the same file “because no coursebook is perfect” (p. 27).

Process-oriented writing approach. The idea of the process-oriented approach in teaching of writing in classrooms started in the 1950s as in consequence of comprehensive studies on literacy acquisition of language learners (Montague, 1995). This dynamic and interactive illustration of writing as a process differs from sentential and mechanics level evaluation of the final product as a written text (Lipson, Daniels & Woodside-Jiron, 2000). Goldstein and Carr (1996) explain that “process writing refers to a broad range of strategies that include pre-writing activities, such as defining the audience, using a variety of resources, planning the writing, aswell as drafting and revising” (p. 2). On that note, the latent quality of process-oriented writing assessment has been inferred and suggested; however, it is not investigated in terms of detailed text analysis (Lee, 2006). In process-oriented writing assessment, giving a prolonged time for brainstorming, planning, drafting and revising a text is also of utmost importance. As a routine, giving fruitful feedback in an individual and collaborative sense on written works on time is significant to develop learners’ writing skills through deliberate practice over text production (Kellogg & Raulerson, 2007; Storch, 2005). Through teachers’ certain comments on students’ work, students could set a goal in their own writing. It might be performed via computers or paper-and-pencil to disambiguate meaning rather than making correction in writing.

Good writers or proficient writers benefit from multiple revisions, and this has led to the advance of process-oriented approach to writing by influencing assessment styles (Cho, 2003). In Cho (2003)'s study, it has been found that essays written on the process-oriented approach have more detailed ideas and better organization than the ones generated on the product-oriented approach. Horowitz (1986) came to the conclusion that applying the process-oriented approach in teaching a developmental skill would be constructive for academic writing tasks through multiple drafts, groupwork activities and peer assessment. In sum, a process-driven approach in writing "tends to focus more on varied classroom activities which promote the development of language use: brainstorming, group discussion and rewriting" (Hasan & Akhand, 2010, p. 79). From a different viewpoint, Lehr (1995) suggests that "publishing student writings can be a powerful means of motivating revision (p. 3). The product is not anticipated as an early assumption here. Instead, it emerges as a recursive output like portfolios. In the same vein, Meyer and Tusin (1999) conduct a study that they investigated prospective teachers' perceptions on using portfolios. They conclude that portfolio use not only improves students' understanding in learning new skills by making progress but also provides students with learning from their own mistakes in a goal-oriented manner instead of competing with others by focusing "more on the product than the process" (Meyer & Tusin, 1999, p. 131).

Portfolio assessment of writing deals with different kinds of writing samples that are created in-class and out-of-class time slots by student writers; henceforth, they are expected to gain control over their own learning autonomously (Song & August, 2010). Moving assessment procedures into "online delivery or computerized mode" give ways to making use of e-learning initiatives (Öz & Özturan, 2018, p. 67). In this sense, Acker and Halasek (2008) investigated the potential contribution of ePortfolio into the development of writing competency among high school students. They concluded that ePortfolio use in assessment and learning circles would "hold great promise as a means of creating a culture of lifelong learning among users" (p. 11). For this reason, this serves as an alternative assessment procedure on a formative purpose (Kırkgöz & Ağçam, 2012).

Product-oriented writing approach. The product-oriented approach in writing is a single-shot approach in which learners are expected to present a text as a final product. In this conventional form-dominated approach, writing is perceived as a linear path to the text as a final product. Prosser and Webb (1994) argue that “because the focus on the language in relation to context, and not on the person in relation to context, the pedagogy fails to address the learners’ prior experiences of essay writing . . .” (p. 136). This indicates the cognitive processes that learners go through do not remain at the forefront. They advocate that the inextricability of process and product-oriented writing instructions is linked in their study since the aim of teaching should be on thinking and writing for their own sakes at tertiary education, especially (Prosser & Webb, 1994).

The product-oriented approach in developing writing skills focuses more on product variables such as “punctuation, grammar usage and the mechanics of handwriting and spelling” (Lynch & Jones, 1989, p. 84). Accordingly, Huot (1996) states that the strategies in writing assessment here, “as they have been constructed traditionally, are designed to produce reliable numerical scores of individual student papers from independent judges” (p.549). Huot (1996) also summarizes in his essay what is comprehended when traditional writing assessment comes into question. He outlined the procedures, purposes and assumptions in traditional writing assessment. In this way of writing assessment, it is attached importance to the beliefs and assumptions on technology of testing, the development of scoring guidelines or rubrics, training of raters, scores given to papers and calculation degree of interrater reliability pursuant to validity as in the process-oriented one (Huot, 1996). From a curricular viewpoint, both approaches are needed to extend general writing and professionally meaningful writing experiences (Ashbaugh, Johnstone & Warfield, 2002). Lastly, a more balanced approach through the integration of process- and product-oriented approach in teaching and assessment of writing skills could be much more beneficial for the students because both approaches have specific upsides and downsides in their own right (Kamimura, 2000; Hoogveld, Paas & Jochems, 2005; Hasan & Akhand, 2010).

Use of Rubrics in Assessing Writing Skills

Analyzing and appraising student work samples are among the preeminent duties of writing teachers, which takes too much time (Ferris, 2007). In this regard, rubrics are widely used to shorten these time slots through administering a more objective assessment procedure. "A rubric is a measurement tool that describes the criteria against which a performance, behavior, or product is compared and measures" (Brophy, 2012, p. 3). Rubrics have been increasingly utilised in assessment of productive language skills, as well. Nonetheless, "creating an assessment rubric is the most vexing – and yet most important – aspect of teaching with writing portfolios" (Burch, 1997, p. 55). Within this context, Andrade (2000) explains why instructional rubrics, which are implemented for educational purposes, are to be used in language assessment. She explains some basic features of rubrics by elaborating that instructional rubrics are easy to use and make teachers' expectations clear, they enable informative feedback for students about their strengths and weaknesses by supporting learning and development of skills and understanding (ibid.).

The use of rubrics in language assessment has emerged from the discernable inefficiency in traditional assessment strategies. Rezaei and Lovorn (2010) state that "many teachers have used rubrics with the assumption that they increase grading objectivity, particularly, regarding students' writing submissions" (p. 19). Rubrics have been employed in assessment popularly since it provides enhancement with the quality of objectivity, reliability and validity in scoring procedure for a given assignment. On the other side, the implementation that language teachers improve the design of rubrics or invent their own will not figure the potential problem related to the target rubrics are attempted to solve (Kohn, 2006). The conceivable concern is to be specific to the groups and their available needs. Another issue which is likely to be dealt is that whether there is a potential rater bias through rubric assessment. To remove the trouble of subjectivity, two raters generally assess the assignments. In this sense, Bargainnier (2003) criticizes the measurement tools such as multiple-choice tests, true-false quizzes and vocabulary definitions which measure low-understanding. She points the core of rubrics with the perspective that rubrics categorize performance observations

relating to “different skill levels, behaviours and/or product quality”to measure “systems thinking, procedural knowledge and attitude formation”by making use of specific performance criteria (Bargainnier, 2003, p. 1).

The reliability and validity of rubrics is another important issue to be mentioned. The reliability of rubrics is provided with comprehensive language for each criterion. The validity of rubrics is posited through measuring core assumptions relating to the spoken or written performance of learners. In addition, there are several types of rubrics, and the line of scoring methods is illustrated in Hunter, Jones and Randhawa (1996)’s study. According to their investigation, *general impression scoring* is based on the scorer’s overall judgments of the writing quality after reading a paper, and it was developed in 1960s by the American institution Educational Testing System (Hunter, et al., 1996). *Holistic scoring* is based on the criteria of handwriting, length of written response, grammar usage, mechanics, word choice and organization to provide a universal mark (Vaughan, 1991). *Primary trait scoring* deals with giving a score from only one aspect that is core to the writing achievement (Becker, 2011). On the other hand, *analytic scoring* has “a part-to-whole; criterion-by-criterion judgment approach which makes multidimensional assessment possible” (Reddy, 2007, p. 5). Ultimately, one of the descriptions of *atomistic scoring* was suggested by Breland (1983). It is similar to analytic scoring, but this one is more detailed than the previous one. There are different kinds of enumerations in a variety of categories of the rubric for a piece of writing (Breland, 1983). It is tragic to say that many a rubric today are not useful on account of the incompatibility in the descriptions of performance criteria for pedagogical purposes (Tierney & Simon, 2004). They have considerable flaws that also affect the validity of rubrics. Among the rubrics explained above, two types of them “guide learning and outcomes” specifically, which are holistic and analytic rubrics (Gallavan & Kottler, 2009, p.3). They are clarified in the next two subsections below.

Holistic assessment rubrics. On holistic assessment rubrics, Hunter, Jones and Randhawa (1996) explain their views that “with holistic rubric, student work is rated as a complete unit against a prepared scale or rubric” (p. 62). Writing components are combined into one impressionistic scoring template. Although it is

hard to prepare and organize a holistic rubric, it makes assessment procedure easier. Despite its economical aspect to use, it is generally perceived as having lower inter-rater reliability (Penny, Johnson & Gordon, 2000). The focus of holistic rubrics in performance assessment is on what the writer has done well. The holistic scoring guide as an assessment tool is criticized because of the fact that it deals with giving a single score to a given whole text by integrating assessing and evaluating through different features which forms a writing (Beyreli & Arı, 2009). Holistic scoring is also defined as impression method of marking, which is highly subjective “affected by marker’s fatigue, carelessness, prejudice” based on a personal judgment (Heaton, 1988, p. 147).

In order to see the augmentation level of the fifth grade student writers, Penny et al. (2000) conducted the research that was dealt with assessing 120 essays via a holistic rubric. They found the evidence that the augmentation process, which aims “to indicate that particular papers are somewhat different from the exemplars”, increased the inter-rater reliability (Penny et al., 2000, p. 160). In addition, this augmentation process decreased “the need for follow-up review by the experts when the raters fail to agree exactly” (ibid., p. 161). Since human raters have some weaknesses in terms of interpretation variability, another study conducted by Enright and Quinlan (2010) investigated the effect of e-rater scoring on the reliability, fairness, usefulness and educational outcomes in TOEFL iBT writing assessment. By analyzing the independent writing tasks, they concluded that there was a need for automated scoring for a strong relationship between human holistic scoring and e-rater scoring for the purpose of attaining more valid and reliable writing assessment even though human judgment stays steady in the evaluation part (Enright & Quinlan, 2010). However, the usefulness of holistic rubrics to get a holistic view on the student writer’s growth in competence through longitudinal observations is not uncommon. Soltero-González, Escamilla and Hopewell (2012)’s study was a part of five-year longitudinal research that explored the biliteracy of Spanish and English emerging bilingual students from the first to fifth graders. Thirty-six teachers assessed the 216 student writing samples using a writing rubric designed for the project through cross-language comparison and analysis holistically considering the aspects such as content, punctuation, spelling and evidence of bilingual strategies. One of the major findings of the study was

that evaluations of the bilingual students' writing were bounded to both student production and more significantly to teachers' interpretations of the written scripts. Therefore, teachers' interpretations holistically but not separately led to judgments whether the literacy of the children was developed as supposed and what skills were to be the focuses of instruction. Overall, holistic rubric is one of the rating scales classified in the related literature, which is essentially based on intuitive methods, and it has both positive and negative sides to use it as mentioned above.

Analytic assessment rubrics. Several categorizations were proposed in theoretical framework of research, and the other type of assessing writing is drawn by using analytic rubrics, which are based on empirical methods. In an analytic rubric, "each component has its own scoring scale with descriptive statements, sometimes extending to several pages of descriptors" (Spence, 2010, p. 338). The focus of analytic rubrics in performance assessment is on scoring written responses more pointedly based on the particular descriptions by detecting weak spots in writing. One of the advantages of using analytic rubric is "the reliability of scoring is typically improved when raters use analytic rubrics" (Becker, 2011, p. 115). Nonetheless, it might take much more time in assessment than using a holistic rubric. Wiseman (2012) states that "while there appear to be advantages to analytic scoring for second language writing ability, e.g., a more individualized profile of the L2 writer, there is often resistance given the increased cost in time and money" (p. 60). It is more labor-intensive when compared to holistic scoring (Zhao, 2013).

Zhao (2013) discussed that the implications of the research result for L2 writing instruction and assessment. She seemed to advocate that an analytic rubric breaks "the concept down to smaller components; therefore, pedagogically more useful than a vague, intuition-based holistic rubric." (p. 218). In her study, the data were obtained from think-aloud and post-think-aloud interview sessions with the help of six raters. These raters were also Ph.D. candidates at a major American university, and she pinpointed that writing instructors could better help their students use such a rubric in written discourse with a strong content-related aspect of the authorial voice appropriately and effectively in their argumentative writing (Zhao, 2013). As Knoch (2009) suggests, these analytic rubrics should

provide a differentiated profile to obtain the score as “more valid and useful for diagnostic writing assessment purposes” (p. 300).

On the other hand, Sadler (2009) states the view that most of the analytic rubrics have fix criteria to give a score, and this application was hardly examined by researchers. He advocates that this seems to be problematic in both practice and theory since this mechanistic use of predetermined criteria prevent significant shifts from occurring in assessment with personal integrity. Henceforth, he suggests that teachers and students have more open ways of grading decisions by being able to explain their “holistic judgments” in a positive manner because this will provide learners with engaging self-monitoring process of their written works (Sadler, 2009, p. 14). Nonetheless, Park (2008) argues that using analytic rubrics helps inexperienced raters and teachers “evaluate specific textual features” and “giving consistent and direct feedback” to the writers with ease (p. 2). In addition, Park (2008) mentioned about the difficulty in integrating some qualitative judgments such as style and coherence into the analytic rubrics as opposed to holistic ones. To sum up, no assessing process is suitable for all purposes. Within the scope of writers’ specific needs, decisions on the most appropriate rating scheme are to be implemented for the procedure of writing assessment.

Conclusion

The conducted studies and written articles have elucidated up to now that target culture and target language teaching are contextually bound to each other. It has been evidently illustrated that the degree of achievement capacity reached in classrooms of these two essential components in the field of language teaching varies across international pedagogical frameworks. The factors that are also main variables on this current issue have been neatly discussed. Among them, the age of teachability, materials used, efficacy of language educators, language proficiency levels of students and their attitudes towards language learning and cultural awareness have existed in this literature review part.

In addition, since it is not assumed that teaching and assessment are apart from one another when language educators have objectives through which they teach their lessons on observable outcomes realized by their students,

assessment of language skills have been also examined. Specifically, assessment of writing skills has been reviewed with its two basic types as product and process-oriented writing assessment. As the tools used for making writing assessment more objective, the two major kinds of rubrics as holistic and analytic assessment writing rubrics have been analyzed. Even though the perceptions about cultural awareness have been much more investigated than seeing the impact of actualization of culture teaching in Turkey, there is still a remarkable demand to assess the development of target culture awareness with the help of implementation phases of target culture integrated language teaching in the Turkish context. Therefore, the present study is inspired by the lack of experimental studies carried out in the related literature.



Chapter 3

Methodology

Introduction

This section deals with the methodological steps taken in the study. To start with, a theoretical framework on qualitative studies is given. Especially, conducting interviews in language assessment is focused on here. Then, a theoretical framework on quantitative studies is presented. Using rubrics, particularly analytic rubrics, in language assessment is involved in detail. In other words, the mixed research design is employed in this research. Subsequently, the study is examined regarding its aims. The setting where the data were collected, the participants who were involved in the study, and data collection instruments are also explained. Lastly, the data collection phases and an elaborated section on data analysis are handled in this chapter.

Research Design

Because of the fact that the present study applied the mixed methods research design, both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis were integrated in order to obtain a more elaborate understanding of the attached research questions in this investigation. While the first stage concerned quantitative research design with the experimental and control groups that were assigned in a nonrandom manner, the second stage of the study administered qualitative data collection through conducting semi-structured interviews with the voluntary participants of the experimental group on which the treatment processes were executed. To be clearer, the experimental research design without a pre-test was employed in the first stage of the study. Utilizing the experimental research design with a post-test only here referred to the assessment of the weekly-collected writing assignments, which belonged to both groups' participants that the researcher gathered following weekly-applied treatment phases. Yet, the control group received no treatment, but the experimental group did. The repeated-treatment design over six weeks was applied in order to examine "how treatment and outcome covary over time" by reintroducing the treatment in the course of

progress (Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002, p. 113). In a causal relationship, it makes possible to assess the potential impacts of the treatment phases.

In this respect, Shadish et al. (2002) describes this kind of quasi-experimental research design that lacks either a pre-test or a control group as one of the weak research designs thereby suggesting the addition of both pre-tests and control groups in order to increase internal validity of the research. However, “in educational programs when random assignment is not possible or practical”, the application of quasi-experimental research design is commonly preferred by researchers (Gribbons & Herman, 1997, p. 2). The rationale behind it is that the two groups are handled as a whole by not choosing subjects one by one among them. Gribbons and Herman (1997) draws upon this case by explaining that it is not realistic to assign students randomly in educational settings because the experimental and control groups might show differences in terms of achievement or progress before the treatment is given due to the internal or external factors to which they are incidentally exposed. These factors could even lead to “being more motivated than” that of the other group in the treatment conditions (ibid., p. 7).

By the same token, through one of the nonprobability sampling techniques, convenience sampling was chosen for determining the subjects that would take part in the study. Etikan, Musa and Alkassim (2016) stated in their recent article that convenience sampling method, which draws the representative sample from the target population, is likely to be functional “when the researcher has limited resources, time and workforce” (p. 1). With the aim of exploring the attitudes of the ELT students in the experimental group mainly towards direct culture teaching implementations, interview sessions were carried out to be able to examine the quantitative data in breadth and depth. This comprises the second stage of this study’s research design. In order to give more insights into these two basic research paradigms, which were used in the present study as quantitative and qualitative ones, they are offered with the help of theoretical background in more detail as noted below.

Qualitative research paradigms. As stated above, qualitative and quantitative research paradigms have been implemented in this investigation; within this context, the theoretical framework of qualitative research paradigm will

be examined, initially. Guba and Lincoln (1994) describe a paradigm as “a set of basic beliefs that deals with ultimates or first principles” (p. 107). The qualitative paradigm promotes the use of qualitative methods. In this sense, Sofaer (2002) argues that it would be useful to adopt a qualitative research method in conducting studies for the sake of a much better quality development in dissemination of a comparative report. According to Richards (2009), it lightens the path to better understandings in the future. Over the years, “the shift towards more practical and contextual research issues” has entailed the integration of qualitative and quantitative research paradigms, which could be called as mixed methods (Richards, 2009, p. 149).

Since 2000, there is a promising development in the quality of qualitative research through guidelines, books, articles and studies provided (Richard, 2009). With its nature of insider perspective, qualitative research model enables both professional and novice researchers to investigate the cases of individuals, groups, societies or cultures from an emic view (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The insider perspective requires a close look to the data collected, and this leads to subjectivity in reflection of data analysis while concerning with a full appreciation of what is driving the human behavior (Yauch & Steudel, 2003). Understanding human-induced behavior is process-oriented, takes plenty of time, and some of the important points could be failed to notice. Since qualitative research deals with open-ended inquiry, the interpretations of participants are not limitless in a given time (Yauch & Steudel, 2003). Henceforth, it is not to be overlooked that the data collected through qualitative paradigm are ungeneralizable, and they represent single case studies through careful scrutiny.

Qualitative research focuses on a dynamic process “which links together problems, theories and methods” (Bryman & Burgess, 1994, p. 2). Accordingly, its data analysis is branched under the umbrella of inductive and comprehensive reviews. When it comes to the definition of qualitative data, Yauch and Steudel (2003) states that they “are the ‘words’ collected through interviews, focus groups, participant observation, or related methods” (p. 466) such as for ethnographic research and discourse analysis. As for data sources, documents in print or digital format are also likely to be used here. Bowen (2009) discusses the role of

documents as a data source in qualitative research procedure. He argued that analyzing documents involve both content and thematic analysis, as well. According to Bowen, while content analysis is “the process of organizing information into categories to the central questions of the research”, thematic analysis deals with close look into the data by coding and constructing categories to unfold themes, which are particular to a phenomenon (p. 32).

Sofaer (1999) noted that research questions in qualitative research are based on open-ended structure in the light of independent theories, and they do not have predetermined or specific answers. Henceforth, Harper and Kuh (2007) state that it is a common fallacy the best research suggests “generalizable and statistically significant findings”; consequently, “straightforward approaches to problem identification and data interpretation” are supposed to surpass “methodologically defensible reports to inform institutional action and policy” (p. 5). However, they do not skip to add that the need of knowing the ‘specifics’ will gain importance as long as higher education becomes more intricate together with the awaited educational effectiveness of documenting. In a sense, documents provide context and background as a means of tracking change and development through verifications of findings (Bowen, 2009). With all document, content, thematic analysis of qualitative research method, it warrants as a process of detailed investigation from a diverse range of perspectives.

Quantitative research paradigms. Research methodology encompasses two major branches as qualitative and quantitative paradigms or epistemologies. On that note, quantitative research model is examined in this section briefly. To start with, Howe and Eisenhart (1990) stated that “quantitative research is best framed in terms of the ‘logics in use’ associated with various research methodologies” (p. 2). From an outsider look, it deals with replicable and generalizable data to multiple case studies. Likewise, quantitative methods are used to generate hypotheses and realize more precise analyses of causes and effects to avoid biases or errors (Pekrun, Goetz, Titz & Perry, 2002). In this respect, it is contended that quantitative paradigm is outcome-oriented assuming the possibility of replication providing the same methods are used with the same sample, the same results should be obtained (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000).

With its confirmatory and reductionist nature, quantitative paradigm advocates the use of quantitative methods such as doing experiments and conducting surveys.

Muijs (2010) argues that the quantitative perspective is situated on a basis of 'realist' or 'positivist' view, and the qualitative perspective is perceived as 'subjectivist' framework. Positivist view seeks for the scientific facts in natural sciences such as biology or reasons of a phenomenon. That measuring quantitative data totally objectively, however, is problematic as has been a reality; in this regard, a little sense of subjectivity through beliefs or attitudes of the people influence the results of the research conducted (Muijs, 2010). Despite the amount of collecting quantitative data in educational sciences seems limited, researchers could create a site for themselves via subsidiary data collection tools such as surveys. By the help of statistics, numerical data is obtained and analyzed according to techniques used in a quantitative manner. For this reason, data analysis does take considerably less time, and it is convenient for studying with large number of participants (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). However, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) also attach that the knowledge produced might be too abstract for applying the results to particular local contexts and individuals, which is recognized as a weakness of quantitative research.

In order to close the gap between the validity and reliability issues of the results found and conduct studies more effectively, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) describe mixed methods research as "the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study" by offering a practical alternative to the paradigm wars between quantitative and qualitative models (p. 17). Mixed methods research utilizes 'pragmatism' philosophically and systematically by triangulation. Bryman (2006) defines the term of triangulation by stating that it refers to the traditional view that quantitative and qualitative research might be combined to triangulate findings in order that they may be mutually corroborated. Within this context, Jick (1979) suggests that "qualitative and quantitative methods be viewed as complementary" (p. 602).

According to Johnson and Turner (2003), using questionnaires and observation reflect intermethod mixing of data triangulation. This attempt towards

convergencies emerges as an indicator of pragmatic worldview in a sense. Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007) remarked that mixed methods research design both recognizes the importance of traditional quantitative and qualitative research and offers a powerful third paradigm choice that often will provide the most informative, complete, balanced, and useful research results (p. 129). Nonetheless, the breadth of the term 'methods' is to be thought widely since it refers to paradigms, methods of data collection, methods of research, and so forth. In sum, as Morgan (2007) states, "the pragmatic approach offers an effective alternative through its emphasis on the abductive-intersubjective-transferable aspects" within the integration of qualitative and quantitative research paradigms (p. 73).

Study

The aims of the present study, setting, participants, instruments, data collection phases and data analysis procedures will be depicted in this subsection.

Aims of the study. The current study aims to examine the relationship between direct teaching of culture that is corroborated by culturally informative written materials by making use of magazines, newspapers, web pages and communicative activities through using songs, videos, information-gap tasks, discussions and the development of target culture awareness in writing courses of ELT classrooms. The standard teaching of culture that is only supported by textbooks as input in writing courses is also examined relatively with the direct teaching of culture for this investigation. Even though there are proceeding studies which are being investigated across the world, they could not close the research gap in literature review in terms of the target culture learning. There are still few studies which were conducted that integrate both culture teaching and language assessment qualitatively and quantitatively in Turkey, as well. Through integrating culture teaching and language assessment, this study aims to assess development in target culture awareness of the freshmen ELT students in Turkey. By taking these conditions into account, the present study aims to answer the research questions as follows:

1. How should culture teaching be applied by English language instructors?
2. To what extent is culture teaching successful in ELT classrooms?

3. Is there any development of students' target culture awareness in writing courses of ELT classrooms? If so, to what extent?
4. Are there any achievement differences between ELT classrooms where direct teaching and standard teaching of culture are implemented? If so, to what extent?

Setting and Participants

The study was conducted in one setting. The place is situated at two classrooms of Hacettepe University, Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Languages Teaching, Division of English Language Teaching. The aim of this department is to train prospective English language teachers effectively and academically in accordance with the needs of primary, elementary, high schools and university level teaching and learning contexts. The course programme of the first year in this department is mainly based on developing four major language skills with their sub-categories, which are speaking, writing, reading, listening, grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. The first year students are the ones who either passed the examination of prep-class education or studied one-year intensive English for general purposes at Hacettepe University School of Foreign Languages. The weekly schedule is between 9 a.m. and 5 p.m., and there are no night class sessions at this faculty of education. The students generally have quizzes, reports, oral presentations, portfolios, midterms and final exams during a semester in terms of the requirements of their courses. Specifically, the first year students in the department of ELT are responsible for a midterm and a final exam for the 'Advanced Writing' course throughout the semester, which is the focus point of this study as a course at higher education context.

The participants of the present study were selected via convenience sampling. They were from Hacettepe University, Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Languages Teaching, Division of English Language Teaching (ELT). The total number who participated willingly in this study was 33 first year students in ELT department, which has day classes in a weekly schedule. They were both advanced level learners of English and prospective English teachers in this regard. When it comes to the gender distribution, 14 males (42.42%) and 19 females (57.58%) students took part in this study. So, the nearly balanced distribution between genders is realized as seen in Table 2.

Table 2

Study Participants Information Chart

	Total		Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Section 1	15	45.45	8	53.33	7	46.67
Section 2	18	54.55	11	61.11	7	38.89
Total students	33	100	19	57.58	14	42.42

In 2016-2017 academic year, first year ELT students were divided into two sections. While the 'Section 1' was comprised of 7 males (46.67%) and 8 females (53.33%) students, the 'Section 2' contained 7 male (38.89%) and 11 female (61.11%) students. The 'Section 1' formed the study as percentage 45.45%, and the 'Section 2' comprised the study as percentage 54.55% of 33 total participants. The 'Section 1' was chosen as the experimental group, and the 'Section 2' was selected as the control group in this study. Their ages ranged from 18 to 36. The learners from both sections passed the proficiency examination of prep-class education in which their knowledge of English based on listening, reading and writing skills was tested. The condition to pass this compulsory prep-school education is bound to get B1 level of English determined by CEFR benchmarks. If they had been failed, they would have been studied English for general purposes at School of Foreign Languages in a term or year.

The English instruction in the first year at the department of ELT is at the level of C1 according to CEFR benchmarks since the main aim of this department is to train prospective English teachers for teaching learners from different linguistic levels. The pass score of a course is to get minimum 65 out of 100 at the end of the term. This pass score is obtained through midterms and finals which can be in different formats such as portfolios, quizzes, reports, oral presentations or discrete-point written exams. The selected students had the same background in terms of the time period in learning English as foreign language. Starting from the primary education, they had learned English in elementary and secondary

education as a compulsory lesson, as well in Ministry of Education schools. However, some of the students also took the chance to visit English-speaking or European countries within the frame of educational purposes, motherland issues or the organized school trips to increase their cultural awareness. Since the number of the students who were able to pass the proficiency examination of the preparatory school was quite low this year, the generalizability of the findings in this study based on the analytic writing assessment rubric is thought-provoking. Nonetheless, the semi-structured interviews which were conducted with 13 willing participants from the experimental group 'Section 1'. This provides the rich data to analyze in detail, which potentially increases validity of the study.

Instruments

The data were collected after the experimental design in 'direct' and 'standard' teaching of culture. Six weekly-written assignments were collected from the 33 participants by the researchers. They were analyzed through analytic writing assessment rubric, which was adapted by the researcher from the studies that had been previously conducted (See Appendix C). After the experiment phase, semi-structured interviews including 10 questions were recorded via a voice-recorder (See Appendix D). Cultural knowledge as a content issue was a major variable in the study; briefly, it was evaluated via an adapted analytic writing assessment rubric and semi-structured interview.

Analytic writing assessment rubric. One instrument for quantitative data was employed in this study: the analytic writing assessment rubric. The benchmarks for writing assessment were adapted from Brown et al. (2009), East (2009) and Rezaei and Lovorn's (2010) studies. The benchmarks for 'genre & structural organization (25 points)', 'grammar usage/word choice (25 points)' and 'mechanics/disciplinary conventions (25 points)' were basically adapted from East (2009) and Rezaei and Lovorn's (2010) analytic rubrics. Initially, this adapted grading rubric was developed by East (2009) in his original study to investigate the two writing tests one with, and one without the dictionary. Secondly, this adapted analytic rubric was also designed by Rezaei and Lovorn (2010) to conform to the 100- point scale including the following criteria following "structural organization, understanding and synthesis of argument, understanding the goals and

implications of globalization, support and citation of sources, and writing mechanics" (p. 23).

However, structural organization, understanding the synthesis of grammatical items and word choices and writing mechanics were taken into account in the adaptation format of the rubric. 'The content development of cultural sense (25 points)', which was found in the adapted rubric, which was found in the adapted rubric, was developed from the value rubric of Association of American Colleges and Universities (AACU) which was quoted by Bennett et al. (2009). The criteria of the rubric for scores are based on 100-point scale because of the fact it is generally used in higher education system, and participants are familiar with it (Lovorn & Rezaei, 2011). The qualities were determined in terms of the scores for each benchmark, as well. The adapted rubric is composed of four main criteria as follows:

- Genre & Structural Organization (25 points)
- Grammar Usage & Word Choice (25 points)
- Mechanics & Disciplinary Conventions (25 points)
- Content Development of Cultural Sense (25 points)

The first three sections of criteria have been adapted through the study of Lovorn and Rezaei (2010). The last criterion, which is 'content development of cultural sense', has been adapted from both East (2009) and Bennett et al. (2009) studies. While the rubric used by East (2009) was created a priori for ESL writing and specified FL contexts, the rubric used by Bennett et al. (2009) was developed for the Essential Learning Outcomes as part of VALUE project, which is the abbreviation of Valid Assessment of Learning in Undergraduate Education, of the association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U). Since the core of this research is established on assessing target culture awareness of the participants, only the benchmark called 'content development of cultural sense' has been evaluated quantitatively by the researcher. This benchmark is also divided into five scoring slots as the other three criteria: The score interval 0-5 represents 'minimal', 6-10 score interval as 'limited', 11-15 score interval as 'adequate', 16-20 score interval as 'effective' and 21-25 score interval as 'exemplary' qualities were described one at a time by the researcher.

Semi-structured interview transcripts. In order to corroborate the numerical findings gathered, interviews as an instrument of collecting qualitative data plays a significant role in this study. Notwithstanding, “there is still work to be done to encourage yet deeper engagement with methodological issues, especially where interviews are concerned” (Richards, 2009, p. 168). In the current study, the interviews were conducted after the experimental teaching of culture standardly or directly in advanced writing courses. There were 10 questions in advance prepared by the researcher (See also Appendix D). The semi-structured interview design was applied in order to guide interviewees to explain their opinions without feeling stuck on only these 10 items, which constitutes the open-ended sides of the interview items. Spontaneously, question-and-answer sequences were also substantiated. In total, 13 voluntary interviewees from the experimental group were joined in a comfortable office one by one for interview sessions. The interview items were prepared on a basis of the treatment phase with regard to target culture awareness. It aimed to underpin the statistical results. Within the framework of being semi-structured interview, the voluntary interviewees could also give suggestions for further studies apart from their opinions about the treatment. In this regard, the researcher utilized mixed-methods research by triangulating quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis procedures. The interview questions are given as following:

1. What is your definition of culture?
2. Have you ever been to a foreign country/English-speaking country?
3. Which benefits have you experienced after ‘direct’ teaching of culture during the writing course?
4. What kind of topics have you written in your weekly written tasks?
5. Do you think that it is important to mention about the target culture and language in your written tasks? Why/Why not?
6. What are the difficulties that you have encountered while integrating culture-loaded information into your writing tasks and performance?
7. Do you think that it is important to be informed about the target culture? Why/Why not?
8. What kind of ways in developing of target culture awareness have your instructor used in the classroom?

9. Have you found these ways useful? Why/Why not?

10. As a prospective English teacher and as an advanced level English language learner, do you think that there is a necessity to teach about target culture in addition to the target language?

Data Collection

This section is dedicated to give an elaborated view of data collection and analysis phases, respectively.

Data collection procedures. Even though the current study dealt with the assessment of cultural content development through rubric use quantitatively and interviews with willing participants for more details into the research qualitatively, the investigation was mainly based on the treatment phase of direct and standard way of culture teaching in two writing classes. Henceforth, the researcher requested and received permission from Hacettepe University Ethics Commission for the 6-week-treatment (See Appendix D), and adaptation consent for the analytic writing rubric use was also obtained through e-mails.

The participants of this research were selected through convenience sampling. Because the course titled 'Advanced Writing' is one of the courses that first year ELT students, the researcher started to collect her data with the volunteer students among them at Hacettepe University. She visited the classes, and gave brief information about the study after getting the permission of the course instructor and department administration. It was explained that the data obtained from this study will be used only for academic and educational purposes within the frame of the Master's Degree thesis of the researcher in the Department of English Language Teaching at Hacettepe University. In addition, they were informed that they had the opportunity not to attend in this study, so the principle of the research was on a volunteer basis. Since nearly all of the students agreed to take part in the study, the researcher was able to start the implementation phases in the following week.

Applied teaching courses. The Advanced Writing course is offered every year to the first year students in the ELT department at Hacettepe University, and this course is one of the compulsory courses that every prospective teacher should be advanced-skilled at writing skills. In that way, they could learn writing in English at advanced level more effectively based on writing performance tasks.

The same faculty member taught this course in two different sections. The researcher got involved in the writing course of the experimental group. Throughout the 6-week-period, the intensive treatment of target culture teaching in experimental group involved the warm-up session of the writing course. On the other hand, the normal flow of the writing course in the control group was taught by the course instructor. The book used in both groups by the course instructor was owned by Demirezen's (1993) *Paragraph Development Methods* which describes the essentials in writing through an advanced level. A compile with multiple examples of scripts from different writer's books and lots of sample student assignments from the previous years was also utilized.

The instructional culture-related activities and topics applied by the researcher in experimental group were corroborated by the materials such as informative videos, pictures, graphics, critical songs, presentation slides, online web pages, excerpts from newspapers and magazines, sample scripts for writing methods and useful articles for further reading. These are based on the assumption which is proved by the Alptekin (2006)'s study that "implicit cultural content knowledge presupposed by a text significantly facilitates reading comprehension" (p. 501). At the beginning and end of each session, the discussion part about the materials and topics was made orally. Through the students' participation actively, promoting students' critical-thinking on the target culture phenomena is also aimed since "EFL students need to be supported in terms of critical thinking skills" in order to enable them "to overcome the difficulties in writing and to cope with the requirements of the multicultural world" (Alagözlü, 2007, p. 118). What is meant by the term target culture was the cultures where English is spoken as a native language or first language in especially American, British and Australian cultures. After these as a kind of warm-up phase, the main writing course was taught by the course instructor weekly. The experimental group's course was on Wednesdays, and the control group's course was on Thursdays.

Weekly-written assignments and analytic writing assessment rubric.

After the instructional processes were finalized in weekly sessions, the researcher collected the written assignments every week, which were based on the writing

methods that the students had learnt. The writing methods based on paragraphs, and they were taken from the coursebook by Demirezen (1993). They were listed as '*Listing Specific Details, Using Examples, Classification, Definition, Cause and Effect, Comparison and Contrast, Problem Solving and Combined Method*', respectively. The difficulty degree of the methods was adjusted for the students considering their requirements technically on how to write the weekly assignments and their cognitive burdens on students' shoulders while writing in terms of brainstorming, planning, outlining, drafting, editing and submitting processes. The written scripts were analyzed by the researcher and the course instructor, who is a professional rater in his field, via the analytic writing assessment rubric, which was adapted from Bennett et al. (2009), East (2009) and Rezaei and Lovorn's (2010) studies.

Follow-up interviews. The interview for this research constituted the last phase of data collection procedures. The interviews happened to be with the 13 student volunteers from the experimental group who attended the sessions. Each interview lasted approximately 10 minutes. The interviews were conducted in an office in a comfortable atmosphere for both the researcher and participants. What the interviewees stated was recorded via a voice-recorder. The interview questions were also written on a reflection paper, so that the researcher could take some highlighted notes down during interviews. Before starting the recording, the researcher gave brief information what the interview was going to be about. The interviews were conducted in English and Turkish based on the participants' choice of language to speak. When the interviewees felt ready to speak, the interviews were started by the researcher. Instead of depending only on the interview questions written on the reflection paper, the researcher let the interviewees share their various opinions spontaneously.

Data Analysis

The current study applied a mixed-methods research design. Henceforth, quantitative and qualitative data analyses were carried out to find answers to the stated research questions of the current study. Non-parametric tests are employed after the test of normality is conducted. Friedman test, Wilcoxon Signed Rank test

and via Mann-Whitney U test are among the tests run by the researcher for this study. These tests are explained in more detail as follows.

Rationale for the use of non-parametric tests. Basically, there are two types of statistical techniques to refer in statistics, which are parametric and non-parametric. The parametric tests are involved in making assumptions about the sample population from which such as the normally-distributed data are collected. On the other side, non-parametric tests are distribution-free ones, which means do not have a goal to make assumptions about the existed population. Even though the non-parametric tests have disadvantages such as not being able to cover differences between groups, it will be ideal to use them on nominal/categorical or ordinal/ranked scales. Similarly, they are much more convenient when the sample size is very small. SPSS presents many a non-parametric technique to measure the data; henceforth, SPSS Statistics 22, one of the specialist statistics packages, was used in this study.

In order to determine whether parametric or non-parametric tests would be more suitable to analyze the handled data, a test of normality was run with conducting Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test by the researcher. The results (See Table 3) demonstrate that the data in this study did not display a normal distribution. According to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, both writing achievement scores of the experimental and control groups as independent variables, had values that were not statistically significant ($p < .05$). Since the total number of the participants are less than 50 ($N = 33$), focusing on Shapiro-Wilk's results would be much appropriate to examine. In this regard, Shapiro-Wilk test revealed that the writing achievement scores were not normally distributed ($p < .05$).

Table 3
Test of Normality

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Week1	ExpGroup	,270	15	,004	,672	15	,000
	ContGroup	,473	18	,000	,439	18	,000
Week2	ExpGroup	,478	15	,000	,534	15	,000
	ContGroup	,234	18	,010	,805	18	,002
Week3	ExpGroup	,284	15	,002	,610	15	,000
	ContGroup	,379	18	,000	,594	18	,000
Week4	ExpGroup	,495	15	,000	,386	15	,000
	ContGroup	,510	18	,000	,360	18	,000
Week5	ExpGroup	,302	15	,001	,584	15	,000
	ContGroup	,337	18	,000	,691	18	,000
Week6	ExpGroup	,275	15	,003	,662	15	,000
	ContGroup	,431	18	,000	,471	18	,000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Test of normality is employed to determine whether the data of the study requires parametric or non-parametric design to perform. Since the current research study had a small sample group, these figures appeared to show a non-normally distributed data as seen on Table 3. The form of the distribution could also be viewed in histograms or normal probability (Q-Q plots), but they are mainly used for displaying normal distribution of the tests. Therefore, they are not shown at the normal flow, the non-normally distributed data is evidently transparent on Table 3 ($p < .05$).

Tests performed. It is essential to inform about the appropriate tests run in the study after the test of normality is conducted. For the quantitative data, descriptive and inferential statistical procedures were conducted using SPSS Statistics 22.0. The non-normal distribution of the data acts in accordance with the assumption of non-parametric techniques. Therefore, non-parametric tests were chosen in this study. The first research question is dealt with qualitative content analysis. The voice records were transcribed by the researcher and the context was coded into similar contents for the appropriate interview items (Kohlbacher, 2006). For the second research question, descriptive statistics was applied. Mean

scores of both experimental and control groups during six weeks, which they got from their written scripts, were calculated.

The third research question was analyzed via Friedman and Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests. Friedman Test is the non-parametric conjugate of one-way repeated measures ANOVA whereas Wilcoxon Signed Rank test is the non-parametric conjugate of the paired t-test. This research question dealt with any potential development of target culture awareness of the students in each group during six weeks and week by week. The fourth research question was analyzed via Mann-Whitney U test, which is the non-parametric equivalent of independent t-test. This research question was concerned about any potential differences between two groups in terms of achievement scores. Median values and Spearman's rank-order correlation coefficient (r) were also calculated and interpreted for this research question. Subsequently, intra-class correlation for both inter- and intra-rater reliability was measured. In the next section of this study, the findings that the researcher has found are explained regarding the four research questions, respectively.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the methodological framework of the present study is given. The research design implemented has been defined, and qualitative and quantitative research paradigms have been revealed by the help of literature. Following this, the reasons are mentioned why the mixed-method research design, which is the triangulation of qualitative and quantitative research paradigms, is adopted with the aim of getting more in-depth information about the ways of target culture awareness and impacts of treatment phases in advanced writing courses. After reviewing the aims of the study, setting and participants have been examined to introduce the background of the study in terms of the subjects and environment.

Furthermore, the instruments have been described as analytic writing assessment rubric used for the process-oriented writing course sessions taught and semi-structured interview transcripts analyzed. The applied teaching courses, weekly-written assignments and follow-up interviews have been investigated under the sub-heading of data collection procedures. The rationale behind why non-

parametric tests were performed the applications of these tests in the study has been also described. Thus, the analysis of the results found have been prepared to be presented in the next section.



Chapter 4

Findings

Introduction

In this section, the researcher presents the results of the analyses in the order of research questions of the study. Initially, the research questions are reviewed. Then, the results of each research question are presented on a basis of the quantitative and qualitative findings. Lastly, the chapter is completed with a conclusion part which summarizes this chapter.

Findings of the Data Analysis

The focal points of the study are based on the research questions which were exerted to be answered as following:

1. How should culture teaching be applied by English language instructors?
2. To what extent is culture teaching successful in ELT classrooms?
3. Is there any development of students' target culture awareness in writing courses of ELT classrooms? If so, to what extent?
4. Are there any achievement differences between ELT classrooms where direct teaching and standard teaching of culture are implemented? If so, to what extent?

Findings of the qualitative data analysis. The researcher thought that it would be vital to mention about the interviewees' experiences and opinions for the present thesis. Among the participants, 13 volunteer interviewees commented on their attitudes towards target culture, target culture teaching and target culture awareness accompanied with 10 interview items that were prepared by the researcher. The results of the qualitative data analysis are provided under the first research question of this study as follows.

Data analysis for the research question 1: How should culture teaching be applied by English language instructors? The analysis of the first research question deals with qualitative content analysis which the researcher recorded what the interviewees commented on each interview question during the interviews. The recorded interviews were transcribed by the researcher. Likewise,

the interviewees' names are kept confidential, and they are abbreviated with the symbol 'I' (Interviewee) and a 'number'. In this regard, anonymity is aimed by the researcher. The answers of the interviewees are categorized under each interview question as follows. In this way, the interview results are examined in detail.

What is your definition of culture? All of the participants made their own definitions by commenting on that term even though they were not exactly sure of what the accurate description is. I2 explained his own definitions as follows:

Culture is the way of life of a nation or other human communities. It is their way of thinking, and it is how they perceive themselves, the life and society. It is both an indicator and an indicative factor that is described as their way of demonstrating and expressing themselves.

I10 also defined the term of culture by stating that "culture is an element that a society or community which constitutes the country passes down in the course of time." In a general sense, the interviewees agreed upon the way of life in a community as a concept of culture. It is also found out that they think culture is not static, but an element which is handed from generation to generation. Thus, people who belong to the related society or community could internalize the societal life behavior so that they may express themselves successfully in a given environment. In this respect, acquiring the related culture aids the individual to 'live real' and much easier with social interaction.

Have you ever been to a foreign country/English-speaking country? Six out of 14 students have not been to any foreign country. Hence, the ones who have gone to abroad outweighed in this sample. Among the countries that were visited, there are the United States of America, Britain, Germany, France, the Netherlands, Greece, Bulgaria, Azerbaijan, Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, Portugal and Belgium. It was realized that the countries in Europe dominated the list. The reasons why they went to these places are various. One interviewee was born in France and moved to Germany after a short time later. I5 stated this situation by saying that "I think I had been in France for a few weeks, but I was really small. I really don't remember."

One interviewee attended a university for English speaking courses in Texas as a scholarship student. Two interviewees went to France and Britain

within the frame of a highschool trip. While the participant who went to Britain stayed there one month, the one who went to France stayed in France for a week. Four interviewees went to the remaining countries for sightseeing purposes. The ones who have not been to any other countries demands to go especially to the United States, Britain and European countries to know the language they learn and speak, which is English, in different cultures. They also want to attend study-abroad programs in the years ahead at university.

Which benefits have you experienced after 'direct' teaching of culture during the writing course? The participants touched upon different viewpoints about what they have experienced after 'direct' teaching of culture in writing courses. To start with, they stated that they were very excited and pleased to see American-British and Australian culture-related contexts to see and learn in the classroom. It was understood from the comments that not only viewing traditional-based introductory information, thinking critically on the up-to-date issues occurred in the United States, Britain and Australia made the students interested in topics more. After this target culture awareness-promoting procedure, one of the participants, who is I2, said that he realized the words and phrases which he had used in his weekly-written tasks became differed or could change by saying that he was able to enrich his writing tasksthrough examining the cultural materials brought by the researcher in the classroom.

Especially, there was a match between the videos that you showed us and the written materials that we read. In other words, I think that it was so beneficial in terms of both visuality and comprehension what we read. Of course, we are learning English, and we need to know that culture where the language we learn is spoken because language is not single-handed. I think that we need to learn both their cultures and the things which they sustain. Language and culture become one together, in my opinion. (I8)

I am of the opinion that it was useful because everybody does not have the chance of going abroad, ultimately. We are learning their language, and while we are learning this language, it is important to learn and be accustomed to the cultural elements of that specific language. For this reason, I think there was a contribution of what we learned in this teaching process to us. (I9)

Two of the interviewees stated that they had still kept the written scripts which had been distributed weekly by the researcher, so that they could search for detailed information about cultures based on the sources given in references. Two

of the students expressed that they also sometimes reviewed their background knowledge because they had already known the culture-related topics and information given in written scripts, music clips, advertisements, videos or presentation slides. However, the majority of the interviewees said that they were very surprised to hear anew details other countries and cultures, which they had never seen before about these cultures, and they were of the opinion that this treatment gave a novel to the writing course through written scripts in which sample paragraph development methods were extracted from authentic reading materials, magazines and scientific articles for their extensive reading. Therefore, I8 and I9 shared their opinion by stating as above.

What kind of topics have you written in your weekly written tasks? The students uttered that they generally wrote about what aroused their interests in fields such as sports, meals, economics, sociology, cinema, music, transportation vehicles and health in the target language. Two of the participants stated that they had written about scientific facts which required information after research. Four of the participants mentioned that they expressed their opinions in written formats on what had happened around them based on the topics such as child abuse, family relations, living in big cities and university life. One participant said that she generally chose a suitable topic to the specific paragraph writing methods of that week they she learned. She also added that she referred to her experiences about what happened in her life by saying as follows:

I couldn't remember exactly, but I had written about an earthquake. I am from Düzce, this occurred in Düzce when I was one year old. Instead of challenging topics, I generally wrote topics what might go well to the writing method that we learned. (I10)

Another participant stated that she also touched upon cross-cultural differences in her writings as below:

I selected much easier topics to write. I didn't want to do stuff that I didn't have enough knowledge. I wrote about music, but I also gave an example in one of my written assignment from parental discord and domestic violence in the United States and Turkey comparatively. (I3)

So to speak, I10 and I3 also mentioned that they preferred not to 'put their necks on the block' while doing their weekly writing assignments. Writing

assessments with a suitable context is of utmost importance in written communication between reader and writer. Hence, she took decisions about the writing topics in accordance with the writing techniques that she learned in the classroom. Similarly, I3 stated that she chose the well-known topics as a context comparatively. It was also shown that she was affected in topic choice by the researcher since the researcher taught the writing lessons by giving sample writing documents through either orally or in a written format which include subject-matters taken from target language countries.

Do you think that it is important to mention about the target culture and language in your written tasks? Why/Why not? The interviewees mostly think that it is important to go into particulars about target cultures in their writing tasks, but conversely, some of them stated that they did not touch upon culture at all. All of the interviewees agreed that language and culture are interrelated and are not thought as separated from each other. In addition, they supported their views by stating that when learning a language, its culture is also learnt unavoidably. As being the prospective teachers, they admitted that the necessity of knowing the target cultures whose language they speak. They also reached a compromise that they could not add authenticity to their teaching language skills without knowing the characteristics of the target culture. I3 addressed the importance of being acquainted with culture while using language in terms of functional aspects by saying:

Of course, it is important. We need to know the country's culture that we speak its language. Otherwise, what does knowing only language serve us? We act upon this and use the language accordingly in order to beat Turkish in our minds in terms of functions. (I3)

Notwithstanding, six of the interviewees explained that they did not prefer mentioning about target cultures on the ground that it required searching from various sources; therefore, they chose to keep their writings straightforward. They stated that they had written what they knew well from their everyday life styles based on their background knowledge by using familiar vocabulary. However, since culture-related topics were not thought-provoking for them in contrast to personal interests, there were also participants who stated that there was not

important to mention about culture and language in their writing tasks unless it was asked from them by the instructor.

What are the difficulties that you have encountered while integrating culture-loaded information into your writing tasks and performance? Eight of the students explained that they had not ever integrated culture-loaded information into their writing tasks. One of the interviewees, who is 19, reflected that she does not feel ready to take a risk by mentioning about target culture-related issue in her written assignments, but she hoped that she would be competent in expressing herself with richness in cultural contexts. Another participant stated that an experienced person could transmit the cultural information to them because what they found after searching could not always be right. On the other hand, one of the participants commented on the difficulties he encountered while writing culture-related topics in his written performances as follows:

Actually, I ran into a difficulty while searching them. For example, different words came in light, and this does not match with our own culture. Therefore, I had difficulty in changing or putting down some things on paper. Yes, I thought that expressing what I did not understand its logic might go wrong. (14)

When we were at secondary school or highschool, we first formed the sentence in Turkish in our minds. Then, we tried to translate it into English. It is not totally correct to translate from Turkish into English like this way. Our translations were smelling like Turkish. However, we need to think these English phrases in English. Sometimes the way we think in Turkish does not match with the one in English logically. To exemplify, British English and topics related to England are generally taught at secondary schools and highschools. Those kinds of things must not happen, in my opinion. Nonetheless, at least the places where English is spoken and the differences of the people who speak that language, the differences in this language are needed to be taught to the students for their understanding the cultural information. (113)

Another participant explained how he got into trouble while integrating culture-loaded information into his written tasks as below:

I compared the terms related to German and Turkish in one of my writings. In German, there are the concepts, which are 'Gesellschaft' and 'Gemeinschaft'. In Turkish, they are 'toplum' and 'cemiyyet'. Even in English, they are 'society' and 'community'. There is a huge difference between these concepts. If and only if you learn the cultures of those languages, will you discover the discrepancies because the 'community' and 'society' are different from each other. For this reason, I think

it is important to integrate both language and culture in writing skills, and I went through such a trouble. (I2)

In order to catch the point about the importance of teaching vocabulary/collocations heading in the target language, I4, I13 and I2's statements are to be taken into consideration attentively. They commonly stated that word matching between the target and home language in writing was a challenging issue for him to link up the word usage by knowing its cultural background to express what they were meant to be. In that sense, the researcher also touched upon the origin of the word or word groups, which appeared in the videos/on the Internet or in sample written documents. She drew attention to how they changed their meanings throughout the history, and gave examples how they could be used in daily life situations.

Do you think that it is important to be informed about the target culture? Why/Why not? I1 expressed her idea by focusing on how to behave the others in which situations, especially. She added that these could be taught to students through transmission of cultural information. I6 stated that it was crucial to get to know the idioms and proverbs of target culture. Likewise, I7 unfolded the importance of cultural sensitivity that this was too significant in order not to be prejudiced against other cultures and their people by supporting that "First of all, I think it has to be perceived that in which conditions and on which logic they do these things, and then it has to be looked through their perspectives." I9 also made her comment on her experience regarding being aware of and getting knowledgeable about the target culture within its language as given below:

Well, I am trying to learn this language, and I did not have a chance to have been in a country where English is spoken. I am trying to learn in my own country in any other ways. I am trying to make myself be exposed to the target culture by watching foreign movies and soap operas. (I9)

Culture and education are two major concepts that are intensely elaborated in Turkish educational system nowadays. I7 stated that perceiving that specific culture in which the specific language is used was able to overcome the prejudice against it. To be able to walk a thin line between two cultures, it is necessary not to have preconceived opinions about how people react to in what situation, which is called a stereotype, as well. On the other hand, I9 focused on the principle of

learning outside the classroom. Being exposed to the target language and culture not only in but also outside the classroom is another way to acquire and internalize veritably. Moreover, some of the students touched upon the importance of getting to know the target culture of the language they are learning since they are about to teach it.

It is important, of course. For example, I am learning English, and I will teach English later on. Getting to know the countries where English is their native language or getting information about the people who speak English is a significant point for both my self-development and improvement of my target language. (I13)

I11 shared his opinion on this issue by stating that “That is important. If we are going to be a teacher, it is a necessity for us.” While I13 advocated that target culture awareness was basically of vital importance with respect to being intellectual and improving target language skills, I11 thought it was a must for them to integrate the culture into their lessons. They supported their viewpoints with these words above.

What kind of ways in developing of target culture awareness have your instructor used in the classroom? For the eighth question, the interviewees shared the same opinion that the researcher had used a wide range of cultural materials for developing their target culture awareness. Moreover, they found the references useful for their further studies in ELT department and during teaching experience. With the target culture themes from the target countries differently every week throughout the teaching implementation, they added that they discussed over some cross-cultural differences and similarities. I2 and I7 expressed what he noticed something important about the ways the researcher had used to raise their target culture awareness.

First of all, I noticed that there were a few useful websites which the people interested in teaching English often use. They were both rich in diverse materials with lots of composite sentences and discourse patterns. (I2)

For instance, there were pictures, slide shows, videos and music clips related to those countries and cultures. In my opinion, they were too beneficial and attention-grabbing in terms of the course flow. That is to say, they were something permanent for our memory cards. (I7)

In this respect, I13 referred that they reflected their background knowledge about the target cultures in a friendly-speaking environment, as well.

Well, we talked about what we have known or what we had experienced related to the target countries or cultures beforehand. It was fun like a chat, but it was in the style of discussion. (I13)

It can be inferred that making use of technology-based multimodal materials in a culture-related context helps the participants be aware of the opportunities that they may apply in their future classrooms over the course of language teaching process. It is also inferred that expressing their own experiences as a lifelong learner regarding target languages and cultures within those emphasized countries yields their permanent target culture acquisition pleasure through in a speaking activity, which is a kind of discussion.

Have you found these ways useful? Why/Why not? The students were asked whether they found the techniques the instructor used in the classroom or not. They also requested to state the reasons behind for what. The volunteer interviewees said that they found the ways of developing target culture awareness useful. While I1 expressed her thoughts said that “I could see the details about the other cultures, actually.”, I11 answered this interview item by saying that “yes, I did. It helped us to interact and relate them in terms of the ideas of being an active student and being an effective teacher, hopefully.” In this respect, some of the interviewees made the following comments mentioned as below:

Needless to say, they were helpful. Audio, visual, and audio-visual materials contributed to the ease of learning. Visuality is of utmost importance. We read written scripts aloud related to the paragraph writing method of the week. I collected what we read in my dossier. I am going over them whenever I need. I categorized them week by week. In the future, we will use them in any case. (I4)

Language is a matter of fact which will develop only if it is in interaction with another culture. It is alive, not a static object. You could not say to a person that this grammar is being used here and there, and this sentence is being used here and there. Why is culture teaching important? By learning the manners of life in the culture where they are used, one can motivate themselves much more to be efficient in the target language skills. (I2)

Absolutely, I would like to apply them when I become a teacher. Yes, instead of being stuck onto only one teaching method, using various kinds of teaching

methods is more appropriate for the students, personally I think. Since every student has a different intake capacity, so each student is different from each other as an individual. (I8)

When the given comments by the prospective teacher interviewees are to be examined, it could be obviously judged here that the importance of using multifaceted materials addressing to the sense organs, creating a supplementary language dossier, developing a target identity concept through minding out the versatile aspects of the target culture and utilizing multiple techniques for effective target language learning and teaching were realized by the participants of the experimental group.

As a prospective English teacher and as an advanced level English language learner, do you think that there is a necessity to teach about target culture in addition to the target language? When it comes to the last question of the interview, the students preferred making an overview with general statements since their opinions concerning their future professional life and being an advanced level learner of English were asked. While I5 stated that “I think there should be a necessity because if you learn the culture, the country and the people, you will get more relaxed with that language.”, I14 uttered that “Yes. I have two idol lecturers in my department. I want to be cultured and well-mannered like them.”. I5 revealed the psychological aspect of acquiring language and culture. The more knowledgeable about the target culture someone is, the more relaxed they feel to express themselves in the target language since they also get to know how to perform in the target language in terms of using functions at a pragmatic level. I14 reviewed that learners were paid attention to how knowledgeable their lecturers were in their departments. He stated that it was not enough to perform the four language skills efficiently, but also being culturally equipped in a well-mannered way was what the learners wish to see as a quality belonging typically to their lecturers.

Some of the other comments about whether there is a necessity to teach about target culture besides its language were also given below:

I think so, because I find English lessons which are taught at schools too formal. Namely, when that student goes abroad one day, he or she will not understand what is being talked on the streets. To illustrate, if he or she learns

something over the country he or she has gone, he or she will be prepared in advance. Therefore, the adaptation process would be shortened. (I7)

Yes, of course. Let us suppose that we are teaching English. If we integrate culture into our lessons, then our students could be interested in overseas. In that way, s/he will add a new knowledge of the country, culture, language into his/her agenda, so that they will be more curious about its language, too. They may wish to study abroad or settle down and find a job. They might wish to become acquainted with the people there. Naturally, their language would be in contact and developed. (I8)

The people in that country are speaking a different language. They are thinking differently, they are perceiving the world around them differently. Therefore, this should be demonstrated in our classrooms. (I10)

To sum up, I7 thought that what was taught at schools did not reflect what would be come across abroad. She added that teaching a foreign language should be the mirror of everyday life so that target culture awareness through a developing language skills system can help increase their extrinsic and intrinsic motivation for achieving their goals and finding peace for themselves in that country. I8 touched upon the favorable influences of cultural awareness on language learners by increasing their both integrative and instrumental motivation levels. Likewise, I10 said that thinking differently supplies broadening their horizons about how to communicate effectively in that language and cultural environment. So, this would be also reflected in the language classrooms under the name of cultural sensitivity.

Findings of the quantitative data. Quantitative data collection tools were comprised of the weekly-obtained writing scripts by the participants and an analytic writing rubric adapted from 3 different studies by Brown et al. (2009), East (2009), Rezaei and Lovorn(2010). The weekly-obtained writing tasks included writing sample paragraphs based on the paragraph writing method taught by the instructor in the valid week. The benchmarks of the analytic writing rubric were defined as four main criteria genre and structural organization, grammar usage and word choice, mechanics and disciplinary conventions, content development of cultural sense by grading out of 25 points for each. Especially, the qualities of 'content development of cultural sense' benchmark were taken into consideration while scoring in order to see any potential differences quantitatively. The descriptive and inferential statistics of the writing achievement scores

were demonstrated as to whether there was any statistical significant difference between the experimental and control group in terms of development in their target culture awareness. As regards validity and reliability of the study, whether or not the two-times scoring procedures conducted by the two raters, who are the researcher and the professional rater from the field, overlapped was determined.

Data analysis for the research question 2: To what extent is culture teaching successful in ELT classrooms? Initially, to explore the levels of the reflection on target culture awareness of the first year ELT students regarding their written scripts throughout six weeks, descriptive statistics was employed. Mean scores over six weeks were calculated for the experimental and control groups separately. The results can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups per Week

Group		Week1	Week2	Week3	Week4	Week5	Week6
ExpGroup	Mean	4.53	3.00	3.26	1.73	3.00	3.26
	SD	7.41	6.49	5.72	5.28	5.66	5.47
	N	15	15	15	15	15	15
ContGroup	Mean	1.83	10.38	5.22	.61	7.33	1.50
	SD	4.92	10.21	9.32	1.97	9.81	3.80
	N	18	18	18	18	18	18
Total	Mean	3.06	7.03	4.33	1.12	5.36	2.30
	SD	6.22	9.36	7.84	3.82	8.39	4.64
	N	33	33	33	33	33	33

SD = Standard deviation

N = Number of the participants

Mean scores of both groups were investigated using descriptive statistics in SPSS 22.0. The scores were given points out of 25 since the content development of cultural sense consists of 25 points in the writing assessment rubric that the researcher used in this study. As presented in the table, the mean score of the control group in the second week appeared to be the highest one (mean = 10.38, SD = 10.21, N = 18). This was also the highest mean score obtained throughout six weeks. The mean score achieved by the control group in the fifth week followed it (mean = 7.33, SD = 9.81). Interestingly, the highest score of the experimental group was observed in the first week (mean = 4.53, SD = 7.41, N =

15). However, the mean scores of the remaining weeks turned out to be balanced for the experimental group (mean = 3.00, SD = 6.49; mean = 3.26, SD = 5.72; mean = 3.00, SD = 5.66; mean = 3.26, SD = 5.47), but not the fourth week (mean = 1.73, SD = 5.28).

When examining the mean scores of both groups in 'total' section in Table 6 (N = 33), a moderate fluctuation was seen among them (mean = 3.06 for the first week; mean = 7.03 for the second week; mean = 4.33 for the third week; mean = 1.12 for the fourth week; mean = 5.36 for the fifth week; mean = 2.30 for the sixth week). Nonetheless, the most dispersed amount of variation in this set of data values was observed in the second week (SD = 9.36), and the fifth week followed it (SD = 8.39). Overall, the mean scores of the control group are higher than the experimental group in the second, third and fifth weeks (mean = 10.38, SD = 10.21; mean = 5.22, SD = 9.32; mean = 7.33, SD = 9.81) whereas the mean scores of the experimental group are higher than that of the control group in the first, fourth and sixth weeks (mean = 4.53, SD = 7.41; mean = 1.73, SD = 5.28; mean = 3.26, SD = 5.47).

Following this, Wilcoxon Signed Rank test, which is alternative to the parametric design paired samples t-test, was employed in an attempt to analyze to what extent culture teaching was successful in ELT classrooms. Wilcoxon Signed Rank test is used in repeated measures "on two occasions or under two different conditions", and it "converts scores to ranks at Time 1 and Time 2 rather than comparing means" (Pallant, 2010, p. 230). By revealing the assessment of achievement scores on a weekly basis, each group was evaluated in itself with the points given to the written scripts week by week. In doing so, the researcher aimed at focusing on the success levels of both experimental and control group separately. Two-times relation between weeks such as the first week and the second week in experimental and control group was examined. While the developmental stages of the weekly-obtained achievement scores of the experimental group in Table 5 was found, the processing of the weekly-obtained achievement scores of the control group was seen in Table 6.

Table 5

Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for the Experimental Group on a Weekly Basis

	Process1- Process2	Process2- Process3	Process3- Process4	Process4- Process5	Process5- Process6
Z					
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	-1.053 ^a .292	.000 ^b 1.00	-1.080 ^a .280	-2.120 ^c .034	-1.482 ^a .138

a. Based on positive ranks.

b. The sum of negative ranks equals the sum of positive ranks.

c. Based on negative ranks.

Note. $N = 15$.

To inquire whether or to what extent 'culture teaching' is successful in ELT classrooms, it was started with the experimental group, first. In Table 5, it is seen that there is no statistically significant difference in terms of the obtained achievement scores of the participants between the first week and second week, between the second week and third week with, between the third week and fourth week, between the fifth week and sixth week (with the values of .292, 1.00, .280, .138, $p \geq .05$). However, it is observed that there is a statistically significant difference in terms of obtained achievement scores of the participants in the treatment group with the value of .034 ($N = 15$, $p < .05$) between the fourth and fifth week. That means there is a marked increase in achievement scores of the experimental group's participants from the transition of the fourth week to the fifth week.

Table 6

Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for the Control Group on a Weekly Basis

	Time1- Time2	Time2- Time3	Time3- Time4	Time4- Time5	Time5- Time6
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	-2.413 ^b .016	-1.494 ^a .135	-1.609 ^a .108	-2.296 ^b .022	-1.886 ^a .059

a. Based on positive ranks.

b. Based on negative ranks.

Note. $N = 18$.

To inquire whether or to what extent 'culture teaching' successful in ELT classrooms, it was continued with the control group, secondly. In Table 6, it is

seen that there is no statistically significant difference in terms of the obtained achievement scores of the participants between the second week and third week, between the third week and fourth week, between the fifth week and sixth week (with the values of .135, .108, .059, $p \geq .05$). However, it is observed that there is a statistically significant difference between the first week and second week, between the fourth week and fifth week in terms of obtained achievement scores of the participants in the control group with the values of .016 and .022, respectively ($p < .05$). That means there is a marked increase in achievement scores of the control groups' participants from the transition of the first week to the second week and the fourth week to the fifth week.

Data analysis for the research question 3: Is there any development of students' target culture awareness in writing courses of ELT classrooms? If so, to what extent? Friedman test, which is alternative to the parametric design one-way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA), was employed in an attempt to find out whether there is any development of students' target culture awareness in writing courses of ELT classrooms. Friedman test is used "when the same sample of participants" is taken to "measure them at three or more points in time" (Pallant, 2010, p. 235). By unfolding the assessment of achievement scores in all six weeks, each group was evaluated in itself with the points given to their written scripts. In this respect, the researcher aimed at focusing on any potential progress levels of the experimental and control groups separately. Six times intervention between the weeks starting from the first week to the sixth week for both groups was examined. On one hand, the developmental stages of all the obtained achievement scores of the experimental group in Table 7 was found. On the other hand, the potential processing of all the obtained achievement scores of the control group was seen in Table 8. Henceforth, Friedman test, which is the kind of a post-hoc test, provides observing the effect size of the treatment phases in a way.

Table 7

Friedman Test for the Experimental Group throughout the Six Weeks

	Test Statistics		
	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.
*FromProcess1toProcess6	7.112	5	.212

*Weeks which are named for the treatment procedures of the experimental group
Note. N = 15.

Friedman can also be used for continuous data that has violated the assumptions to run the one-way ANOVA with repeated measures. It explains that whether there are overall differences, but does not pinpoint which groups in particular differ from each other. "Chi-square test, which is symbolized as χ^2 , is a non-parametric test of significance used to" see the significance difference (Ekmekçi, 1999, p. 114). In this regard, the Table 7 above provides the chi-square (χ^2) with the value of 7.112. This value is smaller than the critical value 11.070 regarding the degree of freedom (df = 5) and the significance level is bigger than the p-value 0.05 (Asym. Sig. = .212). Accordingly, it can be stated that there is no statistically significant difference among the six weeks of the experimental group in relation to their achievement scores ($\chi^2=7.112$, $N=15$, $p < .05$). The table of critical values for chi-square (χ^2) can be examined in the section of appendices, which is originally found in Hatch and Lazaraton's book.

Table 8

Friedman Test for the Control Group throughout the Six Weeks

	Test Statistics		
	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.
*FromTime1toTime6	17.074	5	.004

*Weeks which are named for the treatment procedures of the control group
Note. N = 18.

Following this, the Table 8 above provides the chi-square (χ^2) with the value of 17.074. That value is bigger than the critical value 11.070 regarding the degree of freedom (df = 5). The significance level is smaller than the p-value .05 (Asym. Sig. = .004). In this regard, it can be said that there is a statistically significant

difference among the six weeks of the control group in terms of their achievement scores ($\chi^2=17.074$, $N = 18$, $p < .05$).

Data analysis for research question 4: Are there any achievement differences between ELT classrooms where direct teaching and standard teaching of culture are implemented? If so, to what extent? As an alternative to independent t-test as a parametric design, Mann-Whitney U test was performed here to investigate whether there are any achievement differences between ELT classrooms where direct teaching and standard teaching of culture were implemented. Because of the fact that “the Mann-Whitney U Test is used to test for differences between two independent groups on a continuous measure”, a comparative analysis was run based on the achievement scores of the experimental and control groups over six weeks in Table 9 (Pallant, 2010, p. 227). According to the findings, there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups in the first, third, fourth, fifth and sixth weeks ($p_1 = .126$; $p_3 = .666$; $p_4 = .799$; $p_5 = .429$; $p_6 = .137$, $p \geq .05$). Notwithstanding, there is a significant difference between the two groups’ achievement levels in the second week ($Z_2 = -2.452$, $p_2 = .014$, $p < .05$).

Table 9

Mann-Whitney U Test for the Comparison of the Potential Achievement Differences between the Experimental and Control Group

	Week1	Week2	Week3	Week4	Week5	Week6
Mann-Whitney U	99,500	74,000	124,500	131,000	115,000	100,500
Z	-1,532	-2,452	-,432	-,255	-,791	-1,488
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,126	,014	,666	,799	,429	,137

Since it has been found that there is a statistically difference between the two groups in the second week, median values of both groups is also presented below in order “to describe the direction of the difference” in terms of determining “which group is higher” (Pallant, 2010, p. 229). In Table 10, it is seen that the median score of the control group ($Md = 8.5$, $N = 18$) is higher than that of the experimental group ($Md = .0$, $N = 15$). Consequently, there is a statistically difference between the two groups in the second week in favor of the control group.

Table 10

Median Values of Experimental and Control Groups in the Second Week

Group		Median Week2
ExpGroup	N	15
	Median	,0000
ContGroup	N	18
	Median	8,5000
Total	N	33
	Median	,0000

In addition, with a view to visualizing the relationship between the independent variables 'time spent for applied teaching course' and 'the experimental and control groups' achievement scores obtained from weekly-written assignments', Spearman's rank-order correlation coefficient (r) was calculated, which is one of the non-parametric versions of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. It could be also correct to use Kendall's Tau-b (τ_b) correlation coefficient, which is also another "non-parametric measure of association for two random variables", since the sample size examined here is small with many tied ranks, but it is more insensitive to small numbers of extreme outliers (Fredricks & Nelsen, 2007, p. 2143). Henceforth, Spearman's rank-order correlation coefficient (r) was preferred in this study by the researcher. On that note, in order to measure the strength of the relationship between the variables 'achievement scores obtained from weekly-written assignments' and 'time spent for applied teaching course', Spearman's rho (r) was explored through this analysis type as seen in Table 11 below.

Table 11

Spearman's Rank-order Correlation Coefficients between the Independent Variables

	P1	T1	P2	T2	P3	T3	P4	T4	P5	T5	P6	T6
Process1	1											
Time1	.056	1										
Process2	.252	.039	1									
Time2	-.075	-.149	-.377	1								
Process3	.274	.343	.177	.187	1							
Time3	.507	.132	.265	-.076	.054	1						
Process4	-.344	-.233	-.194	.449	-.347	-.270	1					
Time4	.144	-.187	-.194	.239	.208	.056	-.153	1				
Process5	-.185	.336	-.165	.417	.151	-.104	.329	-.384	1			
Time5	-.357	.394	-.310	.223	.223	-.357	.028	-.156	.698**	1		
Process6	-.304	-.277	-.131	-.131	-.232	-.096	.207	-.345	.250	.479	1	
Time6	.194	-.280	.000	.169	.098	-.164	.201	.695**	-.408	-.332	-.524*	1

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlation coefficients range in value from -1 , which is a perfect negative relationship, and $+1$, which is a perfect positive relationship, whereas value of 0 indicates no linear relationship (Taylor, 1987; Büyüköztürk, Çokluk & Köklü, 2006). In this direction, the Table 11 above visualizes that the results have not shown significant correlations between the independent variables, which are the writing achievement scores obtained by the experimental and control groups' participants according to the written scripts that they have produced. In Table 11, 'Process' from 1 to 6 represents the scores obtained by the participants in the experimental group throughout six weeks. On the other hand, 'Time' from 1 to 6 represents the scores achieved by the participants in the control group over six weeks. Similarly, the abbreviations of P1 to P6 represent the scores obtained by the participants in the experimental group during six weeks while the abbreviations of T1 to T6 stand

for the scores achieved by the participants in the control group during six weeks in total.

When it comes to the interpretations of the findings, the highest correlation value has appeared in this study that 'Time5' is the most significantly and positively correlated with 'Process5' ($r_s = .698, p < .01$). This demonstrates that the control and experimental groups obtained the achievement scores in the fifth week in the same direction the most positively compared to the remaining weeks. That is to say, it was seen a significant score increase in both groups in this aforementioned week. Subsequently, 'Time6' is significantly and positively correlated with 'Time4' ($r_s = .695, p < .05$). This shows that the achievement scores of the control group seem to have a similar-ratio increase in the fourth and sixth weeks. Following it, regarding the same weeks' correlation among the variables, 'Time6' is significantly and negatively correlated with 'Process6' ($r_s = -.524, p < .05$), and the correlation between 'Time2' and 'Process2' followed it ($r_s = -.149, p < .05$). In other words, when the control group seems to get much higher scores regarding the task of the second and sixth week, the experimental group has obtained lower scores in contrast to the control group. All correlation coefficients could be viewed in Table 11 above.

Inter- and intra-rater reliability of the scoring procedures. Both inter- and intra-rater reliability show how and to what extent the assessment procedure was performed by the raters in themselves and between themselves. When it comes to the inter-rater reliability of scoring, "results from studies investigating intra-rater reliability indicate that rubrics seem to aid raters in achieving high internal consistency when scoring performance tasks" (Jonsson & Svingby, 2007, p. 135). However, they mentioned that reliability is not a prerequisite for validity for classroom assessments, so that decisions taken could be changed accordingly for the better assessment. It is assumed that percent agreement does take chance into account and overestimate the level of agreement. That is why, in order to see the degree of agreement between the two raters in this study, the procedure for the intra-class correlation, which is equivalent to Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, was computed in order to find out the measure of

agreement between raters through inter-rater reliability by using SPSS 22.0 regarding Cronbach's Alpha level, initially.

Table 12

Intra-Class Correlation of Inter-rater Reliability between the Raters for the Experimental and Control Groups regarding the First Assessment

Intra-class Correlation Coefficient		
	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
ExpGroupR1*R2*	15	.974
ContGroupR1R2	18	.771

R1*: Rater 1
R2*: Rater 2

It is important to estimate the degree of interrater reliability, as this value has significant implications for the validity of the study results. Stemler (2004) points out that "Cronbach's alpha coefficient is a measure of internal consistency reliability and is useful for understanding the extent to which the ratings from a group of judges hold together to measure a common dimension" (p. 4). As Barrett (2001) noted, "given an alpha internal consistency coefficient of < 0.70 is considered unacceptable" for consistency estimates of interrater reliability"when the researcher handles continuous data (p. 24). That means values greater than 0.70 are typically acceptable. In order to obtain more reliable achievement scores to investigate the research questions of the study, two-times assessment was run. In the first assessment procedure, a high value reliability was performed by the two raters' rating procedures for the experimental group as seen in Table 12 ($r_e = .974$, $\alpha > .70$). Similarly, a moderately strong reliability was provided by the two raters' rating procedures ($r_c = .771$, $\alpha > .70$). In this respect, it was observed that a considerably high-level reliability was provided for both groups by both raters consistently.

Table 13

Intra-Class Correlation of Inter-rater Reliability between the Raters for the Experimental and Control Groups regarding the Second Assessment

Intra-class Correlation Coefficient		
	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
ExpGroupR1*R2*	15	.990
ContGroupR1R2	18	.772

R1*: Rater 1

R2*: Rater 2

Secondly, to find out the degree of agreement between the two raters in themselves this time, the procedure for intra-class correlation measure of agreement that is parallel to Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was implemented with regard to intra-rater reliability through SPSS 22.0 by taking Cronbach's Alpha level ($\alpha > .70$) into consideration. In the second assessment procedure, a considerably high value reliability was performed by the two raters' rating procedures for the experimental group ($r_e = .990$, $\alpha > .70$). Similarly, a moderately strong reliability was provided by the two raters' rating procedures for the control group ($r_c = .772$, $\alpha > .70$). In this respect, it was observed that a considerably high-level reliability was provided for both groups by both raters consistently through the second overview of the written assignments of the participants. The results can be seen in Table 13 for the experimental and control groups, which shows the reliability degree of the given scores by the Rater 1 and Rater 2 consistently.

Table 14

Intra-Class Correlation of Intra-rater Reliability of Rater 1 for the Experimental and Control Groups regarding the First and Second Assessment

Intra-class Correlation Coefficient		
	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
ExpGroupR1*	15	.981
ContGroupR1	18	.999

R1*: Rater 1

“After a month’s gap between the two rating sessions”, the results can be viewed in Table 13 for the experimental and control groups, which shows the reliability degree of the given scores by only the Rater 1 (East, 2009, p. 105). In Table 14, intra-rater reliability of Rater 1, who is the researcher of the study, regarding the first and second assessment for both groups was calculated. To start with, it can be said that a high degree of reliability was realized in the first assessment of Rater 1. A considerably high value reliability was performed for the two groups ($r_1 = .981$, $\alpha > .70$). Likewise, it can be said that a considerably high degree of reliability was realized in the second assessment of Rater 1. A considerably high degree of reliability was performed for the two groups ($r_2 = .999$, $\alpha > .70$). Consequently, a relationship which is near being perfect regarding the assessment procedures for both groups was provided by Rater 1. If the reliability came in view low, then it would be made an inference that the assessment rubric itself might be at fault, or the rater, or both (Barrett, 2001). However, the results in this study showed the opposite, which is also expected by the researcher.

Table 15

Intra-Class Correlation of Intra-rater Reliability of Rater 2 for the Experimental and Control Groups regarding the First and Second Assessment

Intra-class Correlation Coefficient		
	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
ExpGroupR2	15	1.000
ContGroupR2	18	1.000

R2*: Rater 2

In Table 15, intra-rater reliability of Rater 2, who came to these rating sessions with considerable professional experience in the field, regarding the first and second assessment for both groups was calculated (East, 2009). To start with, it can be said that a high degree of reliability was realized in the first assessment of Rater 2. A very high value reliability was performed for the two groups by getting the top degree of reliability level positively ($r_1 = 1.000$, $\alpha > .70$). Likewise, it can be said that a high degree of reliability was realized in the second assessment of Rater 2. A very high degree of reliability was performed for the two groups by getting a “perfect overlap” positively ($r_2 = 1.000$, $\alpha > .70$) (Ekmecki, 1999,

p. 89). So, a perfect relationship regarding the assessment procedures for both groups was provided by Rater 2. To sum up, this study shows excellent interrater and intra-rater reliability for the achievement scores given by both the Rater 1 and Rater 2 (Holmefur, Krumlinde-Sundholm & Eliasson, 2007).

Conclusion

This section was based on the research questions and the documentary and statistical analysis of their answers. The first research question tried to find out the ways of effective culture teaching should be applied by English language instructors. To unfold the answer of this question, interviews were conducted with the participants in experimental group who experienced the implementation phase of the applied course in this study. The second research question dealt with seeking to what extent culture teaching was successful in ELT classrooms based on mean scores, first. Then, by revealing the assessment of achievement scores on a weekly basis, each group was evaluated in itself with the points given to the written scripts week by week.

The third research question sought to uncover the assessment of achievement scores in all six weeks. Each group was evaluated in itself with the points given to their written scripts to see whether there is any development of students' target culture awareness in writing courses of ELT classrooms over six weeks this time. In the fourth research question, a comparative analysis was run based on the median values of the experimental and control groups throughout six weeks to investigate whether there are any achievement differences between ELT classrooms where direct teaching and standard teaching of culture are applied. Lastly, Spearman's rank-order correlation coefficients between the variables and inter- and intra-rater reliability of the scoring procedures were performed for the sake of more reliable and valid results of the study.

Chapter 5

Conclusion, Discussion and Suggestions

Introduction

As Özen (2010) succinctly puts it, English continues its existence with being an international language as long as the social integration of multicultures increases. Because of the fact that a large amount of scholarly literature in the field of developing target culture awareness in a mixed-research design is not available, this study aimed to explore the attitudes of the participants as prospective English language teachers and to analyze their writing achievement scores regarding developing cultural sense in their written scripts as English language learners. Henceforth, the discussion of these important issues with the help of research questions was made in this section, which is followed by the subheading of conclusion, summary of the study, pedagogical implications, limitations and suggestions to shed light on the issue with regard to reach useful decisions in both EFL and ELT contexts.

Discussion of the Findings

This part deals with the summary of the findings regarding four research questions and discussion by referring to the studies conducted before in the related literature.

Research question 1: How should culture teaching be applied by English language instructors? The first question of this study is required to analyze the interview transcriptions qualitatively. Based on 10 interview questions asked by the researcher to the volunteer 13 participants of the experimental group, interviewees commented on their experience regarding 6-week-implementation of direct culture teaching in pre-writing phases of the course. In this vein, the prominent results that should be discussed here are listed succinctly. To start with, the interviewees have compromised that culture is comprised of a dynamic nature including societal characteristics such as values, worldviews and beliefs of that particular society which is transmitted from person to person in a mediated interactive environment by reflecting the society's way of life. The concept of this agreement is considerably in line with the previous studies in which it was defined and mentioned elaborately such as Brooks (1968), Lessard-Clouston (1997), Thanasoulas (2001), Çakır (2006), Chen and Yang (2015), Zafiri and Kourdis

(2017) since the defining issue of culture is mostly viewed as a continuum that never remains static but persistently alters.

A majority of the interviewees have been abroad in a short time, but those who have not gone any foreign countries have demanded to visit the target cultures where the target language is spoken either as a native or formal language such as the United States and the United Kingdom. In addition, they expressed that they would like to attend study abroad programs such as Erasmus+ in the future years at university. This view was also supported by the findings of Teichler (2004)'s study in which the participants rated positively the cultural and personal experience together with the increased aptitude of target language learning in the host country and the expected professional value of their temporary study period. The result that even a short-term educational mobility investment, what was implied here was Erasmus programme, could lead to the development of European labour market was also underpinned by Parey and Waldinger (2011). By investigating the university graduates in their sample, they found that studying abroad increased an individual's probability of working in a foreign country by nearly 15 percentage points. Henceforth, Parey and Waldinger (2011) reached a conclusion that appealing universities and educational scholarship opportunities might contribute to graduate students remain as skilled workers in future years.

Following these two general questions in view of getting to know the interviewees' background knowledge and experiences regarding foreign countries with cultures, they were addressed the third question which is about the potential benefits they have experienced after direct teaching of culture over the writing course. Through magazines, sample paragraphs about paragraph development methods for writing extracted from authentic reading materials, useful websites related to FLT for their professional field that is English language teaching, viewing advertisements, videos, music clips, presentation slides, scientific articles, they came to agreement that introduction to cultural information regarding target culture as lead-in before while-writing phases was provided. They viewed this kind of teaching as a novel to the writing course, so that they found the writing courses more meaningful and interesting for themselves. This finding is congruent with the suggestions of Khemies' (2015) doctoral thesis. Khemies (2015) advocates that

introducing learners to the target culture thanks to the advantages of using technology in classrooms. She suggests that with the abundance of audio-visual aids, printed texts, recorded dialogues, useful visual sources such as CD and DVD, cultural islands like maps, pictures and signs is inevitable at the present time in order to help learners create a mental image for the target culture. By the same token, she asserts that the determination of the topics will raise students' sensibility towards culture appropriately thereby highlighting students' and teachers' reflections upon the significant role of teaching and learning culture in the Algerian context.

The fourth question was about what kind of topics they have written in their weekly written tasks. The majority of the interviewees stated that they preferred the topics, which aroused their interests to write. They revealed these topics as inspired from their daily lives so as not to put themselves in danger by writing about the topics they did not have a command. However, they also expressed that they started to get inspired the topic choices from the implementation phases they came across in which they were taught by the researcher. This shows that the themes to be handled to teach the target language ought to be presented in the contexts going along with the topics extracted from the local culture (Çakır, 2006). In this manner, Çakır (2006) advocates that learners can match their own culture with the target one by comparison, and both their learning and critical thinking capacity are likely to be enhanced.

As regards to the fifth interview item, it is about whether they would find important to refer to the target culture and language in their writing tasks. Even though a great majority of the interviewees uttered that it was significant to elaborate the cultural themes in their writing tasks in order to think English in their minds concerning use of functions; conversely, some of them expressed that they did not mention it at all. They also promoted their own ideas that learning a language meant learning its very own culture inevitably. Since they were freshmen in English language teaching department in which they would shape their future professional life, they settled on the prerequisite of being well-informed about the target culture whose language they speak and teach. This view was also supported by Bennett (1997), Çakır (2006), Abdollahi-Guilani, Hua and Aghaei

(2012), for being culturally-literate helps learners to understand a foreign culture and use words and expressions more skillfully and authentically. According to Bennett (1997), the inexorable aftermath would end up with being a fluent fool, who speaks a foreign language well, but does not understand the social and philosophical content of the target language and develop negative attitudes toward the native speakers of it ultimately. This reflects the importance of approaching the cultural dimension of language intricately.

As to the sixth interview question, it focuses on the potential difficulties they have encountered while integrating culture-loaded information into their written performance. Five out of 14 interviewees explained that they integrated target culture related items in their writing tasks, yet they also expressed that they got into challenge while searching them in terms of matching suitable words between home and target culture, for this requires them to know the cultural background and where and in what condition it is used appropriately. Here is the main point to enable learners to “interpret linguistic codes and language behaviors from a cultural perspective” and embellish them to attain not only linguistic performance but also cultural performance coherently (Chen, 2017, p. 84).

The seventh question is linked to the previous one; therefore, the interviewees came to a mutual understanding that getting to know the culturally-rich word groups and phrases such as idioms, proverbs, collocations is of vital importance in gaining cultural sensitivity not to be biased against other cultures and their languages. One of the ways was explained how they were making themselves culturally aware. This self-development method is to watch movies and soap operas in the target language, which is supposed to make them intellectual, have a rich vocabulary pool in their minds and improve their target language skills, as well. Genç and Bada (2005) revealed similar findings with the present study that culture-integrated language courses assist students expand their vocabulary repertoire by using the newly acquired words since they get acquainted with specific words used in a given context. Likewise, Abdollahi-Guilani et al. (2012) discussed on this matter that cultural issues mostly include refined elements, and for they could get learners’ attention and motivate them into using

these words in the light of a learning outcome. Therefore, it is quite important to link language and culture in teaching vocabulary, particularly.

The eighth interview question posed by the researcher is related to the ways in developing of target culture awareness the instructor used in the classroom. They made a concession that a wide range of culture-related materials was used by the researcher. What was frequently expressed that the references which were used during the pre-writing phase were specified at the end of the reading materials; hence, the students could benefit from them in their further studies. They also mentioned about the discussion parts that were on some cross-cultural differences and similarities and were in a friendly-speaking mood, which is consistent with Chen and Yang (2015)'s study. They deduced that inviting students to cultural discussion and comparison is undoubtedly helpful in enhancing students' understanding. By the same token, technology-based multimodal materials were useful and attention-grabbing for them, which instils them with being a lifelong learner. Chen and Yang (2015) supported this view through their interview data that bringing short videos and having students watch and discuss them regarding which words they caught and comparing what happened in the video and commenting about language and culture are among the ways the instructors used in their study. This is also in line with one of the ways from which the present study's researcher benefited.

The following interview question was whether they found these ways useful and the reason(s) why. All of the interviewees stated that they found them useful because of the fact that they can motivate themselves much more to be accountable in the target language use. Their collecting what they read and wrote in a dossier for their self-feedback, which is a kind of a culturally-linguistic portfolio for their further studies, was another important obtained result. It was also stated that it is ideal to use different techniques, materials and themes in teaching by paying attention to individual differences of the learners through addressing various sense organs and their interests for different intake capacities. As Liu and Shi (2007) mentioned, language educators ought to consider their students' current level of language proficiency, their communicative needs and the potential set of conditions they will use English hereinafter while applying their teaching

methods effectively because no single method can guarantee successful results in learning.

As regards the last interview item, which is about whether the interviewees think there is a necessity to teach about target culture in addition to the target language, the point emphasized here was that learning the culture, the country and its people of the language they speak would get them more comfortable in using target language. It was also stated that the warm-up process towards the target culture, which should be realized at schools in a systematic way, enables students to adapt to the target culture in much shorter time when they go to the host countries. This cross-cultural experience through increased interaction also enables the risk of getting the culture shock to reduce (Adler, 1975) since the anxiety experienced by sojourners is mostly because of their paucity the demanded social skills with which they can negotiate particular social situations effectively (Furnham & Bochner, 1982).

However, it should be also noted that “short holidays are less likely to have produced culture shock than extended stays or working experiences when local culture has been fully engaged” as Furnham (2004) stated in his article (p. 16). Based on their professional goals in terms of both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation such as having a good career with a privileged status in the society or job with a satisfactory salary, studying abroad or settling down in that country to broaden their horizons, it was expressed that the interviewees would like to both perform the four language skills in a culturally-equipped and well-mannered way. Therefore, they also wished to be an active student in the present time and an effective teacher in the following years after their graduation. This finding is in line with Rafieyan, Eng and Mohamed (2013)’s study in Iranian context whose study found out that language learners have overall positive attitudes towards learning about the target language culture so that they support the view of incorporating cultural components into their classroom instructions. On the contrary, Jabeen and Shah (2011)’s study demonstrates that Pakistani learners have profoundly negative attitudes towards teaching of target culture in Government College University, which also refers to the learners’ preference of Islamic culture in ELT materials. Shemshadsara (2012) also pointed out this issue that a course on the

Middle East addressed only on Islamic culture by excluding Jews, Christians and other minority communities is likely to leave learners to face the dangers of ethnocentrism which is based on one's using particular biases towards other cultures to judge them. That is why, culture teaching stands its ground in terms of being a hotly-debated issue in the area of English language teaching; consequently, there is still room for further research in literature to uncover this matter.

Research question 2: To what extent is culture teaching successful in ELT classrooms? With the aim of exploring to what extent culture teaching is successful in ELT classrooms, mean scores and median values of both groups were first compared through descriptive statistics procedure in SPSS 22.0 (Bickel & Lehmann, 1975). Then, Wilcoxon signed rank test was performed in order to see whether there was any statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups' achievement scores inside themselves since the data consist of numerical measurements "indicating relative magnitudes", which is a part of conducting inferential statistics through SPSS 22.0 (Gibbons & Chakraborti, 2011, p. 443). To start with, the highest mean score of the experimental group was observed in the first week whereas the highest mean score of the control group appeared in the second week. It should be also noted that mean scores of the remaining weeks seemed to stabilize at low levels for the experimental group while the points given demonstrated sharp fluctuations across weeks. Since the number of the participants of each group was not representative enough for making generalizations, these low mean scores and sharp fluctuations among weeks are taken for granted indispensably. It is for this reason that numerous or stringent assumptions about the population were not be made (Siegel, 1957).

As for Wilcoxon Signed Rank test, it was found that there was not a statistically significant difference in terms of the obtained writing achievement scores over the six weeks except for the transition from the fourth week to the fifth week in the experimental group. On the other hand, it was explored that there was not a statistically significant difference among the obtained writing achievement scores over the six weeks except for the transition from the first to second week and from the fourth week to fifth week in the control group. It has been clearly

understood that the common weeks in which both groups showed relatively more success than the others were transition period of the fourth to fifth weeks. This finding is consistent with Mahmoud (2013). Mahmoud (2013) wondered the effectiveness of a strategy teaching over seven weeks on developing translation skills culture specific items at tertiary level in the Arabian context. Even though his findings showed that the change happened, the degree of it was not very high, and the percentage of unsuccessful students reached 25% and the percentage of students with fair degree was 40%. This reflects the time spent on application fell short of practising enough for the students.

Similarly, by using Wilcoxon Signed Rank test, Salazar and Agüero's (2016) study described intercultural profile of European student teachers in order to clarify the relationship between Intercultural competence and teacher training. The results of the Wilcoxon test showed that there was no significance in the test for knowledge, the means being equal for the personal and professional domains. Hence, this research also points the way of further studies which need to dissect intercultural awareness and attitudes of student teachers by providing self-learning in training for cultural competence. However, when the groups are assessed independently in the present study, standard teaching of culture in the control group, which is the implicit way of teaching during writing skills development, was a little bit more successful than the direct teaching of culture in the experimental group. This finding is parallel to the view of demand for potential results through longitudinal studies' evaluation (Williams, 2006).

Research question 3: Is there any development of students' target culture awareness in writing courses of ELT classrooms? If so, to what extent? Friedman test, which is frequently called the repeated measures design in the behavioral and social sciences literature, was employed in order to see whether there was any development of students' target culture awareness in writing courses of ELT classrooms by investigating any potential significant differences between the experimental and control groups' achievement scores over the six weeks (Zimmerman & Zumbo, 1993; Gibbons & Chakraborti, 2011). Through examining the six times intervention among the weeks as of the first week to the sixth week for both groups, it was found that there was no

statistically significant difference among the six weeks of the experimental group with regard to their writing achievement scores. However, it was revealed that there was a statistically difference among the six weeks of the control group's obtained writing achievement scores.

Even though a moderate-level more increase in achievement scores was observed in the control group at paragraph-level texts such as cause/effect, compare/contrast, problem-solving paragraphs, it is still questionable because of the assumption that the individual differences on writing task views might be related to internal factors such as their motivation, self-regulation and levels of writing achievement and development (Nicolás-Conesa, Larios & Coyle, 2014). Based on the resolutions of Nicolás-Conesa et al. (2014)'s study, the development over time of the advanced L2 students' multidimensional models of composition regarding task conceptualization affected goal of composing in terms of processes and products. Henceforth, the further studies ought to be conducted in much more time-inclusive research design to see the real effect of the strategic instruction. Yasuda (2015) explored that FL writers' genre awareness and meaning-making and lexicogrammatical choices in summarizing texts shifted toward more genre appropriate ones after a semester-long instruction. Similarly, McDonough, Crawford and De Vleeschauwer (2014) found similar findings that after having analyzed Thai EFL writers'summary paragraphs, their explicit reference to the source text improved over time in the course of a 17-week semester. Thus, the moderate-level, but not quite, more significant result appeared for the control group is likely to be incidental by reason of conducting the time-bound implementation in the current study.

Research question 4: Are there any achievement differences between ELT classrooms where direct teaching and standard teaching of culture are implemented? If so, to what extent? In order to pinpoint which groups in particular differ from each other and to find out whether there are any significant achievement differences between the experimental group where the direct teaching of culture was implemented and the control group in which standart teaching of culture was put into practice, Mann-Whitney U test was performed (Friedmann & Novogrodsky, 2004). The achievement scores of the experimental

and control groups over six weeks were analyzed by comparison. In accordance with the results, there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups' achievement scores in the first, third, fourth, fifth and sixth weeks. Notwithstanding, there is a significant difference between the two groups' achievement levels solely in the second week. The control groups' writing achievement scores were statistically higher than those of the experimental group as for the second week based on their median values.

Just as the present study, there are a good deal of research in the literature, which show no statistically significant difference between the experimental and control group such as Kubota (1995), Kayaoğlu, Akbaş and Öztürk (2011) and Bitchener and Knoch (2009). For instance, Kubota (1995) discussed that the guessing items regarding conversational implicature through explicit explanations of rules failed to obtain significant results. He reached a conclusion that since the subjects did not extract the anticipated pragmatic generalizations from the treatment that they were applying to the new items, the limited amount of time and exposure to the linguistic structures had an impact on the findings. In this line, the cause of variation in student achievement from professional development depends on duration and intensity of the instruction given (Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarloss & Shapley, 2007). It may be the case that additional input outside the classroom was a cause of these findings, which was the fact that no substantial advantage for the experimental group. Likewise, the sample size of the present study was fairly small, while acceptable, so this also affected the results and conclusions reached in this study (Ellis, Murakami & Takashima, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009).

Based on Spearman's rho (r) correlation coefficients, no relationship between the independent variables 'achievement scores obtained from weekly-written assignments' for both groups was uncovered, and the highest correlation among the time slots was found between the fifth week of the implementation in both groups positively, which shows the score increase in both groups for this week. In the remaining weeks, relatively sharp fluctuations were observed in favor of the control group such as the control group participants' getting much higher scores regarding the task of the second and sixth week compared to those of

experimental group. However, since no statistically significant difference in instruction effect upon writing achievement was found, the provision of direct culture teaching for developing students' target culture awareness may be relatively effective for learners at lower proficiency levels (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009). By the same token, after having found the degree of intra and inter-rater reliability in two-times assessment in order to see the validity of the investigation results, it has been explored that a considerably high degree of consistency in both assessment regarding intra and inter-rater reliability was provided for both groups by both raters (Stemler, 2004; Saxton, Belanger & Becker, 2012).

Conclusion

In the light of the interview questions' findings, it has been concluded that raising both language and target culture awareness has a humanizing and motivating impact on language learners during their self-development process. Since these language learners were also prospective target language teachers who were the freshmen in ELT department, they not only need to write and speak by seeing the world through the eyes of people who speak English as the L1, but also to hold out their own cultural identities as members of Turkish society and nationality in evaluating both home and target cultures. Moreover, according to the comments of the experimental group's participants, the 6-week-implementation process left nice memories for them in terms of using multimodal techniques to teach English within its culture. Considering the overall of findings, which requires quantitative data analysis, it can be commented that the present study within a mixed-methods research design could have been applied to students at lower proficiency levels in a larger sample size by examining the treatment essence and impacts over a more extended period of time. In this chapter, the key results of the study exposed were discussed thoroughly considering the relevant literature.

Summary of the Study

With the aim of giving a general outlook on the issue of this investigation, an overview of the research is offered in this section. The present study was performed to explore whether or not any relationship between direct teaching of culture in writing skills courses and the development of target culture awareness of

the freshmen ELT students at a state university in Turkey. To reveal this, a mixed method research design was adopted; thus, 15 tertiary level freshmen ELT students for the experimental group and 18 tertiary level freshmen ELT students for the control group was nonrandomly assigned. The six weekly-writing tasks based on the learned paragraph development method was assessed during six weeks by the researcher and the instructor of the course in terms of the development of cultural sense in the written scripts. By the help of the instrument adapted from Brown et al. (2009), East (2009) and Rezaei and Lovorn (2010), an analytic writing rubric was used for scoring procedures. The scores given by the researcher and the course instructor were analyzed via SPSS Statistics 22.0. This part forms the quantitative analysis of the study. In view of unearthing the qualitative side of the enquiry in pros and cons of teaching target culture and acquiring target culture awareness, participants' viewpoints in the treatment group were also concerned.

According to the findings of the study, there was not found any quantitatively substantial discrepancy between the experimental and control groups' writing achievement scores in term of developing cultural sense in their writing topics. However, the results obtained can assist English language instructors to organize their classes with more awareness regarding the importance of integrating target culture into their lessons or courses in a more intentional way. It was presented that the prospective English language teachers in the experimental group appeared to have in mind implementing the techniques and materials, which reflect the everyday slices of life to raise interests toward learning and teaching English as a FL in their future career and in their self-studies to improve their English proficiency level. They also believed the usefulness of this applied courses in order to be a knowledgeable person in their professional field through developing their self-confidence constantly.

In other words, these kinds of culturally-activated lessons might increase their capacity to be efficient in using the target language through gaining new culturally-informed perspectives about how to proceed in learning a foreign language in an instantly appealing and memorable way by reducing cultural anxiety. These qualitative findings are congruent with the studies of Adler (1975),

Furnham and Bochner (1982), Bennett (1997), Altay (2005), Genç and Bada (2005), Çakır (2006), Liu and Shi (2007), Abdollahi-Guilani et al. (2012), Rafieyan et al. (2013), Chen and Yang (2015), Khemies (2015) and Chen (2017). Likewise, the qualitative findings of this study indicated that the student teachers commonly had a challenge in expressing themselves by a culturally appropriate manner in the target language. It was also inferred from the participants' comments that they still felt a lack of knowledge how to act out in target language and culture contexts suitably without being lost in their cultural identity that they bring with them. What is important here is not to allow students to be stuck to particular values and beliefs for either the native culture or the target culture. Helping learners to develop cultural sensitivity by feeling empathy towards cross-cultural differences provides them with recognizing cultural influences contrary to losing their own cultural identities (Shemshadsara, 2012). Hence, the task of establishing the equilibrium of presenting the target culture reasonably was on curriculum developers' and teachers' shoulders, particularly (Brdarić, 2016).

In another vein, quantitative results revealed that mean scores obtained by the experimental and control groups were higher than that of the each other in different weeks. By the indication of descriptive statistics, the mean scores achieved in the first, fourth and sixth weeks seemed to be higher for the experimental group while the mean scores obtained in the second, third and fifth weeks tended to be in favor of the control group. Nonetheless, the results of the inferential statistics through the-weekly-conducted-Wilcoxon Signed Rank test demonstrated that there was an apparent increase in achievement scores of the experimental group in the transition of the fourth to the fifth week while this was seen in the transition of the first to second week and the fourth to fifth week for the control group. This analysis was performed to inquire to what extent culture teaching is successful in ELT classrooms, and it was realized that the time spent on culturally intensified language courses might have a significant role in the development of target culture awareness. The more students get to know the culture in which the target language is spoken, the more they could be efficient language users. Hence, culture teaching need to be viewed as a process of perceiving, interpreting, feeling and understanding (Shemshadsara, 2012).

With regard to another inferential statistics' results that embody the analysis of Friedman test, whether there was any development of students' target culture awareness in writing courses on the whole was searched. It was found that there was no statistically significant difference throughout the implementation process in terms of their writing achievement scores for the experimental group whereas the opposite was uncovered for the control group based on the Chi-square (χ^2) values. Therefore, there was a discrepancy between the two groups in the sense of developing target culture awareness with regard to the results of the quantitative data, and this might be bound to the personal topic choice for the writing task on their motivational, self-regulational and proficiency levels in writing skills (Nicolás-Conesa et al., 2014; Yasuda, 2015). That is to say, it might be possible that the students' level of interests in choosing writing topics differed from week to week regarding the paragraph development method they had learnt in their writing skills course. It is because of the fact that one topic which seemed to be suitable for the paragraph type they were expected to write would be inappropriate for another paragraph development method.

When it comes to comparing the two groups from an outsider perspective, Mann-Whitney U test was operated. The results showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups' achievement scores only except for the second week based on their median values. This might be the reason of the weaknesses in the density of instructions given methodologically (Yoon et al., 2007). Similarly, the additional input taken in the frame of extended learning could be another factor in the obtainment of these results. Consequently, the inter and intra-rater reliability was consistently provided by both of the raters as a basis for attaining reliable and valid results for this study.

Pedagogical Implications

Finding-based pedagogical implications of this study were obtained to give new perspectives to researchers, curriculum and material developers and FL educators. As Lessard-Couston (1997) reveals, culture learning assessment has been neglected in FL education, and it is an obligation for FL educators to enable students to comprehend and take advantage of this side of the FL classes. In both spoken and written communication, words are the mirrors of transmitting speaker's

or writer's attitudes, viewpoints and beliefs to the relevant interlocutor concerning an issue. To develop students' this kind of communicative competence, Çekiç (2010) suggests that FL educators ought to equip their learners "with cultural norms and relevant linguistic forms to communicate what they mean, which can be called enculturation." (p. 204). Henceforth, it needs to keep learners from being culture-bound individuals who tend to make inappropriate value judgments about their and others' cultural qualities. In this respect, Özen (2010) refers to a need of curriculum design in which students are given an opportunity to develop Firstness, a relation of emotional mutuality with the language by stating that the present curricula tend to be very linguistic and formal. When the FL learners find themselves in language activities through exposing real life situations or using realia to be up to date with global issues, they can respect for cultural differences by not seeing others as very peculiar or ill-mannered. By helping to elude the monolingual or monocultural environment the students mostly live in, FL educators could encourage students to create a positive feeling of getting familiar with others' languages and cultures. These minute details set the scene for long-term effective language learning process.

Nowadays, learners tend to learn more than one language for many a reason. At higher education, these reasons are exclusively oriented for both academic and professional purposes of life (Brdarić, 2016). Studying abroad for graduate education, finding more prospective job opportunities, interacting with more different cultures through socialization are among the commonly-acknowledged academic and professional purposes in the domain of higher education. Schulz (2007) suggested that language should be taught as an explicit cultural practice to provide learners with systematic opportunities in developing cross-cultural understanding with alternative assessment tools such as reflective journals, diaries and portfolios which enable teachers to collect evidence for their achieving teaching goals. In this regard, she also pointed out that the importance of clarity in objectives based on the tasks to be accomplished by the students because developing appropriate goals and assessment procedure remains an illusion most of the time. Henceforth, Schulz (2007) put forward a separate course or a minicourse based on comparative cultural studies requiring use of multiple sources of evidence at tertiary level foreign language instruction which is

corroborated by a template of an alternative assessment procedure – a culture learning portfolio.

According to this template, a semester-long task completion process is actualized through mass media and library search, interviewing with people and personal observation. In this way, students could develop and demonstrate an awareness of situational variables including social variables such as age, gender, ethnicity and social class, geographic, historical, economic, social/religious and political factors impinge on cultural perspectives, products, practices with language use and styles of communication. Moreover, the students could realize stereotypes and generalizations about the home and target cultures by evaluating them in terms of the existing evidence, which is likely to provide students to develop an awareness of some of the causes that lead to cultural misunderstanding between members of different cultures. The tasks proposed by Schulz (2007) to perform some of the objectives mentioned above include comparing home and target language-speaking culture in a discussion of cultural similarities and differences, describing and interpreting the differences of younger and elder people, male and female speakers in English language use. Furthermore, they are expected to classify the interactions as formal/polite, informal/familiar, socially more powerful/socially less powerful and appropriate/inappropriate given cultural norms, so that they can recognize culture-specific connotations of some words, phrases, proverbs, idiomatic formulations, gestures, symbols, and so forth. That is why, defining the set of cultural goals is set to be determined by language educators.

It is mostly asserted that cultural differences might inhibit communication. At this stage, FL educators can enounce scenarios or critical incidents which demonstrate cross-cultural misunderstanding. According to the sample activity for creating a critical incident, which is a sort of culture capsules assigned to groups, put forward by Lafayette (1978), student read an episode, and they are given four possible explanations why the native speaker is faced with a conflict in the target culture. Each alternative is promoted by a rationale behind it, and one response provides a culturally accurate explanation for the incident. After finding out the appropriate response, students can develop their own critical incident individually

by listing its four alternative responses and rationales. This critical incident could be derived from students' own personal experiences or the experiences of others within cross-cultural affairs, observations made about cross-cultural interactions or reading they have done about the target culture and human behaviour. Another technique postulated by Lafayette (1978) is the use of minidramas. They create an opportunity for active student participation through solving a problem, which could be a case of critical incident, with the help of dramatization. In this paper, language educators and curriculum developers could find useful pedagogical and culture-specific sources to accomplish their tasks better.

All of these attempts to develop students' target culture awareness have a potential of resulting in seeing the logic of a pattern in its own context. Instead of traditional-language focused curricula, the contemporary culture-integrated curricula which raise their critical thinking skills and their capacity to use functions in its related pragmatics through appropriate way of interacting can meet the requirements of a bicultural involvement with a view to gaining cultural insights. Another pedagogical implication that could be exerted from this study is that integrating students' home culture content into communicative activities could increase their motivation in learning the language on the path of being ethnographic learners. It would be much better to conduct more studies in a Turkish context because this will aid handling further data for researchers since there is still a research gap in Turkey on this issue.

Moreover, the explicit way of task demand should be provided by FL educators since the students need guidance on reflecting their cultural awareness on given tasks. Malczwska-Webb (2014)'s study supports this view by stressing that benefiting from the systematic focused tasks could be assist students in becoming intercultural beings due to fact that the participant students' existing international experience did not guarantee their being intercultural individuals. It was understood in from this study that the interviewees chose topics from their local contexts for their writing tasks because of the lack of their adequate prior knowledge about the target cultures. FL learners should be equipped with intercultural competence along with communicative competence in order to mediate between cultures. Accordingly, the role of FL curriculum, material

developers and educators ought to be highlighting the cultural dimension of FL teaching in learning designs and applications.

It should not be overlooked that students cannot master a language without owning a thriving bound to cultural context in which the language happens to exist. Thus, the aim of learning English might play a key role in specifying how much instructional time FL educators should allocate in their culture teaching purposefully. The learner profile in learning objectives also drives the content in allocating time for culture teaching. The inclusion of culture in FL classrooms can also depend on FL educators' experiences and knowledge about target culture, their involvement in professional development, age of the learners and their language proficiency levels taught, learners' background knowledge and educational policy on which the home country holds where the FL is taught. These are among the possible predictors in relation to the amount of time FL educators could allocate on target culture teaching. The percentage or amount of instructional time for teaching culture is not likely to be identified exactly because it would vary because of the predictors listed above. This implies that each classroom which has different goals for learning may be exposed to different levels of culture, but culture should not be totally omitted. Learning activities ought to have cultural context to some extent for all levels. Giving a measured amount of cultural information can even help beginners be interested in learning and using the language effectively in the future. This can be done for young learners by the help of songs and rhymes that make them acquire a sense of cultural familiarity toward the target culture, for instance.

As a last resort, being contingent on the topics and skills-to-be-taught of the week, FL educators could attempt to include cultural aspects to the best extent possible as a part of teaching procedures and giving supplemental assignments for learners to explore outside the classroom. It should be also brought on mind that exposing students to authentic materials such as daily newspapers, online articles and tickets which are basically made for English-speaking audience, bringing native speakers into the classroom, having text chat with them regularly (i.e. enabling students to have pen-pals), FL educators' sharing personal anecdotes, trying local food unique to target culture in the language class could be

implemented to maintain students' interests on a high level. Overall, teaching culture is to be applied in a proper context, not in isolation. Thus, FL educators should be prepared to the best extent regarding the content of the topic to be taught. There might be a case where they have to demonstrate a specific cultural perspective for their learners' catching the point of what is familiarized during the teaching phenomena in classrooms.

Limitations

There were some limitations in conducting this research. Firstly, only 33 prospective teachers in the department of English language teaching at a state university were included. Because of the fact that the number of the students who could not pass preparatory class exam in 2016-2017 academic year outnumbered the number of those who could pass, the number of the participants was not representative enough to generalize the findings to all Turkish higher education system. More students in the same department from different universities could have participated in this study, so results that have been found might be more unscattered. Secondly, the study was mainly focused on tertiary level students in teacher education. Yet, this study could have covered high school, secondary school or primary school students by examining only the learner profile.

Thirdly, the time spent for implementation was not comprehensive enough to yield results that are more positive. On condition that the implementation processes, which covered the pre-writing phases, had continued during the semester or whole year instead of the six weeks, quantitative results would have been more sensitive and generalizable. Another major limitation of this study is that it only focused on writing skills in developing target culture awareness of the students. It could be also focused on speaking skills, but time limit for implementation restricted this kind of experimentation. Lastly, the participants could be from freshmen students in the 2017-2018 academic year since the number of the participants who could pass the preparatory class exam was much more than the last year. Thus, the chosen sample would be larger than that of the present one with the aim of obtaining results that are more valid for the study.

Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the limitations of this investigation, some suggestions which may give ideas to researchers for new studies. First of all, another research could be designed within a larger scale in terms of the sample size at the same university or from different universities in various departments. Secondly, the influence of task demand by the instructor on the reflection of target culture awareness in writing or speaking skills, which are the productive language skills, could be examined by future researchers. The results of performance-based language skills on tasks and use not only in written and but also spoken communication can provide the enhancement of cultural competence to be examined extensively. If the instructor had put the task demand on students such as writing on a national holiday in the USA, the student teachers could have reflected upon these cultural themes by raising their target culture awareness consciously. Thirdly, since learners' cognitive, affective, socio-economic, linguistic levels are different at developmental ages, this study could have covered high school, secondary school or primary school students by examining only the learner profile through excluding teacher training part for which this study focuses on the investigation of tertiary level prospective English teachers. Lastly, future studies can last one semester or a year. In this regard, the impact of continuous exposure to the implementations could be analyzed in a more systematic, valid and reliable way.

Concluding Remarks

On a final note, culture and language are inseparable; therefore, an authentic setting of target language teaching without focusing on its target culture cannot be thought as a complete procedure of circular learning. It is vital to embed culture into teaching context at all levels of education to give meanings to learners and raise their cultural awareness in the process of FL learning. This study only focused on the developing target culture awareness of tertiary level EFL learners and prospective EFL teachers in a Turkish context. It was marked that there was a positive attitude toward and a large amount of interest in raising target culture awareness among the participants; however, meeting the expected outcome through the impacts of the culture teaching does not fall into someone's lap in a short span of time. It should be borne in mind that being active in using various

techniques and methods in the classroom by creating a similar atmosphere to the one that occurs in the target culture will facilitate the language tasks to be performed. Lastly, being patient during the assessment procedures, either formal or alternative forms, to see the potential development in target culture awareness and language learning achievement is what is expected from both FL educators and learners.



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APPENDIX-A: Informed Consent Form in English

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

This informed consent form is prepared by Özge Coşkun, who is an English teacher at Haymana Bumsuz Multi - Program Anatolian High School and a graduate student in Institute of Educational Sciences, Department of English Language Education at Hacettepe University.

Together with understanding better and facilitate learning and teaching in classroom settings, the main purpose of this study is to assess the development of the first yearELT students' cultural awareness after actual practice of writing courses by evaluating their written assignments in the Turkish higher education context. The study will be conducted in the 2016-2017 academic year. At the end of the course taught, the interviews will be conducted with the volunteer respondents after the participants complete their semester with ten basic open-ended questions about the implementation of the advanced writing skills course. It will be recorded via a voice recorder. The researcher will take notes if needed.

The data obtained from this study will be used **only** for academic and educational purposes within the frame of the Master's Degree thesis of the researcher in the Department of English Language Teaching at Hacettepe University. You can contact me any time via my e-mail address and telephone number that are written below.

Thank you for your attention and cooperation to my research.

Yours sincerely

Signature of the Thesis Supervisor:

Name of the Thesis:

Date of Consent Given:

(Day/Month/Year)

Signature of the Researcher:

Name of the Researcher:

Date of Consent Taken:

(Day/Month/Year)

e-mail Address:ozgecoskun20@gmail.com

Telephone Number: +90 544 374 79 93

APPENDIX-B: Informed Consent Form in Turkish

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ ONAY FORMU

Receiver:

Bu bilgilendirilmiş onay formu, Haymana Bumsuz Çok Pogramlı Anadolu Lisesi'nde İngilizce Öğretmeni ve Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi bölümünde yüksek lisans öğrencisi Özge Coşkun tarafından hazırlanmıştır.

Sınıf ortamındaki öğrenme ve öğretme döngüsünü daha iyi anlamak ve kolaylaştırmanın yanında, bu çalışmanın esas amacı Hacettepe Üniversitesi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi bölümünün birincisınıf öğrencilerinin yazmabecerileri derslerindeki hedef kültür farkındalığı gelişimlerinin sınıf içi öğretim uygulaması sırası ve sonrasında ara ve final sınavları aracılığıyla Türk yüksek öğretim bağlamında değerlendirilmesidir. Çalışma, zaman aralığı olarak 2016-2017 eğitim-öğretim yılında gerçekleşecektir. Ders uygulamaları bitiminde, gönüllü cevap verenlerle on açık uçlu soru eşliğinde ilgili derslerin öğretimine dayalı sözlü/yüz yüze mülakatlar yapılacaktır. Görüşmeler ses kayıt cihazı ile kaydedilecektir. Gerekli olduğu durumda da araştırmacı yazılı biçimde not tutma işlemini gerçekleştirecektir.

Bu çalışmadan elde edilecek olan veriler, **sadece** akademik ve eğitsel amaçlar doğrultusunda araştırmacının yüksek lisans tezi çerçevesinde Hacettepe Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi bölümü bünyesinde kullanılacaktır. Aşağıda belirtilen e-posta adresim ve telefon numaram vasıtasıyla herhangi bir zaman diliminde benimle iletişime geçebilirsiniz.

Araştırmama olan ilginiz ve işbirliğiniz için teşekkürler.

Bu rıza formunu imzalayarak ben _____ bu araştırmaya
(İsminin tam halini buraya yazınız.)
katılımın şartlarını kabul ettiğimi onaylıyorum.

Katılımcının İmzası:

Tezin İsmi:

Onayın Verildiği Tarih:

(Gün/Ay/Yıl)

Araştırmacının İmzası:

Araştırmacının İsmi:

Onayın Alındığı Tarih:

(Gün/Ay/Yıl)

E-Posta Adresi: ozgecoskun20@gmail.com

Telefon Numarası: +90 544 374 79 93

APPENDIX-C: Sample Lesson Plan for Advanced Writing Skills Course

LAYING THE GROUND

Class Profile

Type of Student: ELT freshmen students

Age: 17 years of age or older

Proficiency Level: Upper-Intermediate (B2) / Advanced (C1)

Class Size: 15

Estimated Duration of the Course Hour: 80 minutes (12 p.m. – 2 p.m. on Wednesdays)

Materials: White board, board markers, PowerPoint slides, projector, videos, handouts, coursebook and the compile for sample written works for paragraph development methods.

(‘R’ is the abbreviation for the subject ‘Researcher’, and ‘S’ represents the subject ‘Student’. Each student is given a number and an anonymous name, so that confidentiality of the study is kept.)

PRE-WRITING PHASE

Time: 25 minutes

Setting: Whole class, individual work

Interaction Types: T=>C

C=>T

Ss=>Ss

Objectives

At the end of this warm-up session, the students will be able to:

- expand their vocabulary about the target culture through associograms
- comment on the topics of the culture-oriented videos and reading texts cooperatively
- enhance their note-taking abilities
- foster their creativity for writing via written and oral prompts
- improve their linguistic and general world knowledge
- develop their speaking and writing skills

Before the course starts, the researcher writes the outline of exemplification as a paragraph development method for review of the last week on the white board. On weekly the course hours, she enters the classroom and greets the students.

R: Hi, class. How are you today?

Ss: We are fine, thank you. How are you?

R: I am really fine, too. Thanks. Today, we will talk about exemplification for review of the previous week and retrieve what is required in writing through this paragraph development method. I hope you are all ready for the class.

Ss: Yes! We are excited.

She mentions about what she will talk about first. Then, she opens a PowerPoint slide which includes a picture of American apple pie. She asks the students to explain their opinions about what American apple pie is. She gives 1 minute to think about the question with the aim of warming them up to the topic. They talk about it for a while by maintaining the discussion.

R: OK. Firstly, I want to talk about cook culture today. I really love the taste of American apple pie as you see on the slide. Have you ever tasted it?

S1: Yes!

S2: No.

R: Okay. For those who tasted it, do you like it?

Ss: Yes, it's delicious!

R: How nice! Also, we could not ever have tasted it, but we may know what ingredients are required to make it in the recipe. Do you have an idea?

S3: Apple? (*students laughing*)

R: The basic and indispensable one, exactly. If you don't know what the recipe is, we can search it on the Net.

She passes the second slide on PowerPoint where there is an extract of the first written known recipe for apple pie dating back to 1381 from an English cookbook. She asks the students to analyze the language of that period and interpret the recipe by finding out the ingredients of the apple pie.

R: On the other hand, now please look at this recipe on the slide taken from an English cookbook which dates back to 1300s. Let's try to unravel the origins of apple pie by finding out the ingredients. You have 2 minutes for reading silently the extract. Anyone who wants to share ideas? Yes, Koray?

S4: I think in the recipe, there are apples, figs, spices and saffron in the apple tart.

R: Alright, what else? Is there any words how to cook the pie?

Ss: Bake it well. Properly. On the temperature 28?

R: Good try. How are the words used in those times different from the ones used today, aren't they?

Ss: Absolutely!

R: Let's view these two pictures of a apple pie shop in earlier times again. There are still lots of apple pie shops in the US since they give private attention to their mouth-watering tarts.

On the third slide, there are two pictures regarding apple pie and a shop which sells apple pies in earlier times. While the students examine the pictures, the researcher distributes a handout which is comprised of sample paragraphs for review of the last week.

S6: Around the world, this delicious taste is widely cooked at the kitchens.

Ss: Yes, of course. In our culture, we also make tarts with different marmalade or fruits, as you know.

The paragraphs on the handout are written based on the specific paragraph development method which was taught the previous week by the course instructor. Since it is hard to find the proper paragraphs that reflect the features of the paragraph development method completely, some adaptations have been made by the researcher such as putting basic conjunctions between sentences without destroying the plot of the paragraph written by its own writer.

Firstly, the researcher reads aloud the first sample paragraph for the paragraph development method 'exemplification', which is in the part of 'types of examples' on the handout with the sub-branch of 'one extended example'. After this model-reading, the researcher asks students to read silently the one example which is specifically explained throughout the paragraph by the writer. She also

asks the students to find the topic, supporting ideas and concluding sentence by paying attention to the bold words which are the frequently used conjunctions in the particular paragraph development method. Henceforth, the students are able to review the way of forming a paragraph in the one extended example as a sub-branch of exemplification writing method.

Subsequently, the researcher opens the fourth PowerPoint slides on which there is a distribution graph of religions in the US between 2007 and 2014. She asks students to read aloud the second sample writing paragraph for 'one extended example' on the handout. Thus, she can judge how the students' pronunciation is. On condition that there are any mistakes in pronunciation of the words uttered, she corrects the mistakes indirectly or makes the students self-correction after reading aloud session. After reading-aloud part, the researcher asks students to share their ideas by discussing the graph orally concerning how religions are held among the people in the US.

R: Here is a graph of the changing US religious landscape of the population between 2007 and 2014 based on a conducted study in 2014. Can you tell me the ratios regarding declines and increases?

S7: The share of Catholics decreases from 23.9 percent to 20.8 percent, and the change is shown as -3.1.

S8: The share of Americans who non-Christian faiths such as Jews, Muslims, Buddhists and other faiths increases to 5.9 from 4.7 percentage point.

R: Well, it is inferred that the shares are different for different religions. So, which factors do you think could influence these changes among religions in the US context?

(silences for a while)

R: In addition, the Pew Research Center have conducted this survey with more than 35,000 Americans who are at the ages of 18 or older.

S9: Maybe, the US population are becoming more ethnically diverse.

R: Why not? Why do you think it can getting more ethnically diverse?

S10: Is it owing to globalization?

R: Right. Globalization can affect the population structure. Thanks for your sharing opinion. Any other ideas for this affiliation? Yes, Kutay?

S11: Religious intermarriage could be on the rise. From different faiths, different people are getting married much more nowadays, and they might influence each other's faiths.

R: Precisely, marriages with people who adopt different religions can be another factor since religions also affect cultures, and this can be a change on people's perspectives on their views and beliefs. Of course, lots of factors could be factors on this issue, but thanks to all for your sharing your ideas. Let's have a look at the sample paragraph to examine the type of multiple small examples.

Following this oral discussion, the researcher skips into the second type of examples that is 'multiple small examples'. She passes the next slide on which there are pictures of indigenous animals and endemic plants existing in Australia. After eliciting whether they know these animals' and plants' names, the researcher asks one of the students to read the paragraph aloud, so that students can gather their attention on both the topic, conjunctions used in bold face and analyze the outline of the paragraph with supporting ideas and concluding sentence.

R: Alright, you see some pictures of animals which are indigenous to Australia. Is there any animal that you get familiar with? In other words, do you know how these animals are called? Nobody? Alright. Let's read the related paragraph, so that we can learn something about them.

(After a while)

R: There are some conjunctions used in the paragraph that they can help us communicate more meaningfully. They are also written in bold, as you see.

Ss: Yes! They are such as, also, furthermore.

R: Certainly. Which one is the topic sentence according to you? Delta?

S12: The first sentence, I think.

R: Any other idea? Okay, the first sentence is the topic sentence, which is there are many native animals and rich biodiversities among plants in Australia. Why do you think so, Delta?

S12: Because the paragraph is shaped around the theme of biodiversity in Australia.

R: For example? Efe?

S13: The sentence starting with 'some of the wild animals are very famous, such as koalas and kangaroos, while others may not be familiar to the visitors.' The other one is starting with 'furthermore, The flora of Australia comprises a vast variety of plant species estimated to over 20,000 vascular and 14,000 non-vascular plants, 250,000 species of fungi and over 3,000 lichens'.

R: Alright, that's true. Thanks a lot. What about the concluding sentence? Yes, Yeliz?

S2: The last sentence reflects the conclusion of the paragraph. The writer expresses that we could visit their natural habitat if we have a chance to do, so we can have a closer look at them in their environment.

R: As you said Yeliz, the last sentence gives us the concluding remarks. This sentence also recap the paragraph by summarizing it.

Afterwards, the researcher transmits the second sample paragraph of 'multiple small examples' on the handout. She reads it aloud, and demonstrates the pictures of various sports which are generally played in the American society. After eliciting session by sharing opinions on these kinds of sports that reflect one important side of the American culture, the researcher passes the sample paragraphs of 'narrative examples'.

R: Alright, you see some pictures of sports which are generally played in the US. Is there any sports that you are familiar with? Or, do you know how these sports are called? Yes, Demir?

S1: This one is lacrosse and the other one is softball.

R: Okay, is there anyone who plays or have played one of these sports among us?

S1: I have played frisbee two or three times, I think. But, it was hard for me to play when the wind was blowing.

R: Apart from the blowing wind, the tactics in physical and mental workout are too challenging to get balanced. Alright. Let's read the related paragraph, so that we can learn much more about them.

Subsequently, before going over the paragraphs of narrative examples neatly, the researcher opens a video titled 'Studying abroad – why you should do it!' which lasts approximately 2 minutes. She wants the students to describe the rationale(s) behind choosing to study in foreign countries that they notice in the

video. While viewing the video, she also asks them to take notes about the reasons for studying abroad which they find remarkable. Then, she demonstrates the pictures on the next slide which shows some illustrations on two people who have experienced studying across countries by being more than a student. Thus, the researcher inquires whether they have any opinions about what the related students get their feet wet during both linguistic and cultural exchange in their lives.

After this part of small discussion orally, the researcher focuses on the last sample paragraph of exemplification in the sub-branch of narrative examples. She wants the students to brainstorm on the two photos shown on the slide. She asks them where these photos might be taken and what could be their relations with the text they will read soon. After this part, she reads the paragraph aloud which is about a female university student's study experience on abroad. Then, she takes their opinions on the pros and cons on living abroad for educational purposes.

R: Have you ever been abroad for any purposes such as for educational purposes, for business or just for travelling?

(Students share their opinions.)

By recapping the method of exemplification with its sub-branches on the board that the researcher has written beforehand, she reminds the references on the handout for further information the students can obtain that she has distributed to them. Following this, she leaves the stage to the course instructor for his actualization of the while-writing phase in the classroom.

WHILE-WRITING PHASE

Time: 55 minutes

Setting: Whole class, individual work

Interaction Types: T=>C

C=>T

Ss=>Ss

Objectives

At the end of this while-writing session, the students will be able to:

- brainstorm collaboratively on the appropriate topics for the related paragraph development method they have learnt
- write down the outlines of their paragraphs individually
- complete writing the first drafts of their paragraphs
- proofread their paragraphs that they have written for fluency, vocabulary, grammar, style and mechanics
- improve their linguistic and general world knowledge
- develop their writing and speaking skills

In this part, the course instructor takes the stage for during writing phase of the course hour. He introduces the new paragraph development method of the week, which is 'classification' with its types as 'exhaustive, non-exhaustive and binary classification', through their basic characteristic features and phrases with conjunctions that can help students in their writing process. Then, he asks students to open the related pages in their compiles, so that they can go over the three sample paragraphs written in classification method by different writers. They also view the sample paragraphs on the related pages on their coursebook. Afterwards, he directs them to open some other pages in the compile once again. He asks them to read the sample paragraphs selected among the writing assignments of the students in previous years. In this regard, students can both see the written language from both sides, which addresses to native and non-native writers of English in advanced proficiency level.

Subsequently, he asks students to brainstorm on what topic(s) they can make an outline and write a paragraph about it using the newly learnt paragraph development method, which is classification. While doing this, he also jots down answers to the questions beginning with who, what, where, when and how. After deciding unanimously on writing the topic of the sample outline and its paragraph through the classification method, the instructor connects the bubbled ideas with lines to show the relationships among the ideas in clusters. After the students concentrate on these ideas and combine them in an interrelated manner, the course instructor begins to organize the outline of the sample paragraph. The students decide on the topic and choose the type of outline, which is the phrase outline on this occasion. In a collaborative manner, they form the outline, and the

course instructor writes down the outline on the white board to view it in a systematic manner.

As a whole class activity, the sample first draft is written by the help of students. What the course instructor does as a facilitator is to eliminate redundant details and put the necessary ones if needed. He also reminds them of the features belonging to non-exhaustive classification such as not giving exact numbers of types. Following this, the instructor asks them to write down their own outlines and paragraphs individually. Finally, the instructor is able to continue with the post-writing phase of the course hour.

POST-WRITING PHASE (40 minutes)

Time: 40 minutes

Setting: Whole class, pair work, individual work

Interaction Type: T=>C

C=>T

Ss=>Ss

S=>S

Objectives

At the end of this post-writing session, the students will be able to:

- edit their peers' papers collaboratively in terms of fluency, vocabulary, grammar, style and mechanics
- edit their own papers individually in terms of fluency, vocabulary, grammar, style and mechanics
- add phrases to make the paragraph flow smoothly through cohesion markers and conjunctions
- complete writing the final draft of their paragraphs
- publish their paragraphs with the audience on an online blog
- develop their writing skills

In this step of the writing process, the instructor asks the students to share the written texts with their peers. Through this session of peer-correction, the students have a role of the peer-editor. Thus, they are able to communicate with themselves and spot their mistakes by analyzing each other's papers. After this,

the course instructor collects the first drafts of their students' written texts. He proofreads the papers with the phase of post-teacher editing and makes the necessary corrections. Then, he distributes the papers back to the students and asks them to share the final drafts of their written texts, which are the corrected versions, with the audience on the online class blog where they publish their works weekly in a consistent manner. Henceforth, students can learn from each other on a digital platform outside the classroom by retrieving what they have learnt inside the classroom. This publishing process with multiple readers and viewers also substitutes the one part of the weekly given homework.

As the follow-up activity, an oral discussion about what they have written in their paragraphs as the content. Afterwards, the course instructor directs them to summarize what they have learned on this course hour from the beginning to the end. The course instructor also clarifies the points which are not understood well by the students. After this reflective opinion-sharing phase is finished, he gives the second part of the weekly homework. It includes critical reading related to *definition* as a paragraph development method from the chapter in the compile. He also asks them to examine the related chapter on their coursebook. Then, the course instructor asks whether there is something unclear in a general sense regarding both the taught lesson today and the given homework. Lastly, by hoping to see them on the next Wednesday, he announces that the class is dismissed.

MATERIALS USED

PowerPoint Slide



An illustration of American apple pie (Crockett, 2015).

Tracing the Origins of Apple Pie

XXIII. For to make Tartys in Applis.

Tak gode Applys and gode Spycis and Figys and reyfons and Perys and wan they are wel ybrayed colourd^b wyth Safron wel and do yt in a cofyn and do yt forth to bake wel.

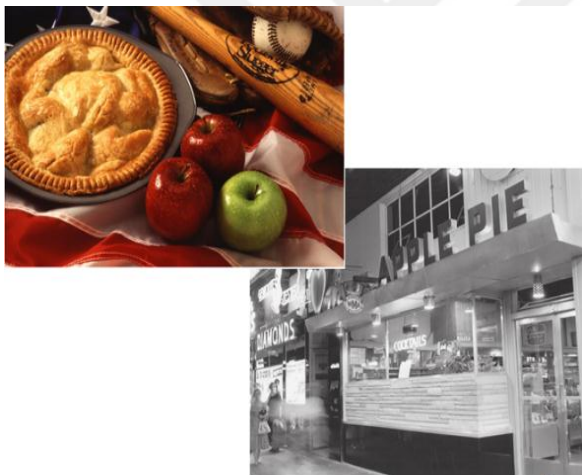
^y Seth it mete, i. e. seeth it properly.
^z Coloured. See N^o 28. below.
^a i. e. Seeth.
^b Perhaps, *colours*.

XXIV.

The first known written recipe for apple pie dates back to an English cookbook published in 1381 (original source [here](#)).

2

An illustration of tracing the origins of apple pie (Crockett, 2015).

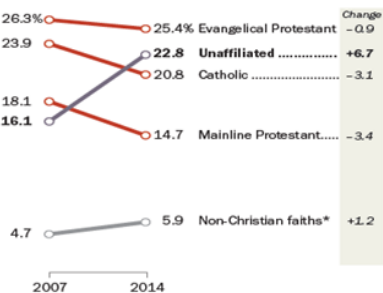


3

Illustrations of American apple pie and a shop which sells it in old times, respectively (Crockett, 2015).

Changing U.S. Religious Landscape

Between 2007 and 2014, the Christian share of the population fell from 78.4% to 70.6%, driven mainly by declines among mainline Protestants and Catholics. The unaffiliated experienced the most growth, and the share of Americans who belong to non-Christian faiths also increased.



* Includes Jews, Muslims, Buddhists, Hindus, other world religions and other faiths. Those who did not answer the religious identity question, as well as groups whose share of the population did not change significantly, including the historically black Protestant tradition, Mormons and others, are not shown.

Source: 2014 Religious Landscape Study, conducted June 4-Sept. 30, 2014

PEW RESEARCH CENTER

4

A figure of religious landscape study conducted by Pew Research Center in September 2014 (as cited in Lipka, 2015).



5

An illustration of a koala, which lives in Australia
("Australia's animals", n.d.)

Marsupials



Top: Musky Rat-kangaroo , Brown Dorcopsis, Bilby. Bottom: Tammar Wallaby, Kangaroo, Tree Kangaroo, Koala.

6

An illustration of marsupials which exist
("Untitled illustration of marsipuals", 2013).

Monotremes



Placentals

7

An illustration of monotremes whose image credit is taken from Noodle-snacks (as cited in Reshanov, 2014) and placentals whose image credit is taken from Courtesy of Carl Buell (as cited in Wong, 2013).



Great Barrier Reef, Australia

8

An illustration of the Great Barrier Reef which is situated in Australia
("Untitled illustration of the Great Barrier Reef", 2016).

Fungi



Lichens

An illustration of fungi (“Untitled illustration of fungi”, retrieved March 29, 2017) and a type of lichen species taken by Andrew Hill (as cited in Callaghan, 2016).

9



Iconic Emu

Illustrations of Australia’s iconic animal, respectively (David, 2015; “Eric the emu’s Facebook page, 2015).

10

Frisbee



Illustrations of Frisbee as a kind of sports (Baker, 2015; “Ultimate keeps you”, 2015; “A hand throwing”, retrieved March 11, 2017).

11

Soccer



American Football



12

Field Hockey



Ice Hockey



13

Illustrations of soccer (“Untitled illustration”, 2016) and American football (“Untitled illustration”, retrieved March 11, 2017).

Illustrations of field hockey (“Untitled illustration”, retrieved March 13, 2017) and ice hockey (“Untitled illustration”, retrieved March 14, 2017).



An illustration of lacrosse (Brunson, 2017) and softball (“Untitled illustration”, retrieved February 9, 2017).



An illustration of a student’s first impression

15



City Gateway Halls

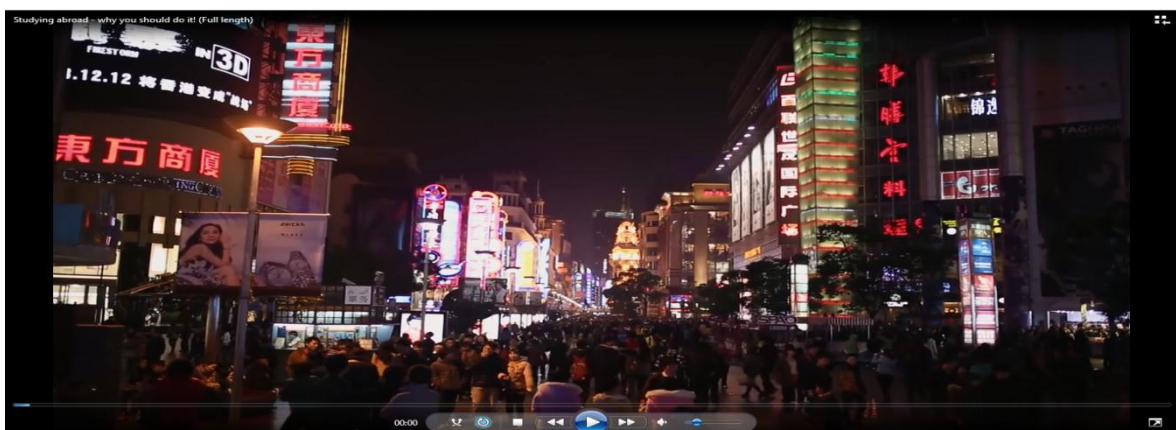
16

An illustration of a female African American student who studies in Italy ("Untitled illustration", retrieved March 6, 2017).



17

A Screenshot of the Video about Studying Abroad (University of Adelaide, 2015)



A Handout of the Sample Paragraphs

All the paragraphs are adapted from the blog posts which are cited in the parentheses affiliated with APA style and referenced in the bibliography section.

USING EXAMPLES (EXEMPLIFICATION) AS A PARAGRAPH DEVELOPMENT METHOD

A. Types of Examples

1. One Extended Examples

In America, its patriotism is often qualified in strange terms. **For instance**, the primary origins of “*as American as apple pie*” are difficult to pinpoint, but it was used as early as 1928 to describe the home-making abilities of Lou Henry Hoover (President Herbert Hoover’s wife). Regardless, news archive search results indicate a tremendous upswing in the use of the saying in the 1960s, and apple pie continued on to establish itself as the reigning symbol of American patriotism. Even though United States produces only about 6% of the world’s apples today, one could argue that just because something originated somewhere else doesn’t mean that it shouldn’t become a source of national pride elsewhere. America took the apple pie to heights it had never seen before -- elevated it as a treasured part of its lore and history. All in all, even though it wouldn’t be fair to call apple pie “American” without acknowledging its past, the baked good seems to be just at home here as anywhere else in the world (Crockett, 2015).

There is a wide range of racial and ethnic diversity among U.S. religious groups and denominations. One of the most important and well-documented shifts taking place over the past decade is the steadily rising share of people who are religiously *unaffiliated* – from 16% in 2007 to 23% in 2014. As journalists and others gather in Philadelphia for the annual Religion Newswriters Association conference this week, there are things we’ve learned from our recent research. **For example, Protestants no longer make up a majority of U.S. adults.** Closely tied to the rise of the religious “nones” is the decline of Christians, including Protestants. 2007 Pew Research Center Religious Landscape Study,

more than half of U.S. adults (51.3%) identified as Protestants. But that figure has fallen, and our 2014 study found that 46.5% of Americans are now Protestants. **Since religious switching is a common occurrence in the U.S.**, as many as 42% of U.S. adults have switched religions. To sum up, it seems that the country's religion landscape will have changed in the forthcoming years again, too (Lipka, 2015).

2. Multiple Small Examples

In Australia, there are many native animals and rich biodiversities among plants. Some of the wild animals are very famous, **such as** koalas and kangaroos, while others may not be familiar to the visitors. Australia is one of the few continents to have all three groups of mammals – monotremes, marsupials and placentals – and are home to more than 800 species of birds, including the iconic emu. They've got two crocodile species, 4,000 fish species and 50 types of marine mammals. They **also** have the world's largest coral reef system, the World Heritage-listed Great Barrier Reef, where there are countless species of colourful fish. **Furthermore**, The flora of Australia comprises a vast variety of plant species estimated to over 20,000 vascular and 14,000 non-vascular plants, 250,000 species of fungi and over 3,000 lichens. Thus, since discovering Australia's animals is one of the highlights for many visitors to this country, You can get up close and personal with many of them in the zoos and wildlife parks or, if you're lucky, you might just spot them in their natural habitat ("Australia's animals", n.d.).

Whether it is tossing the Frisbee on the campus quad or representing your town in the local soccer league, sports remain prevalent in American society. **To illustrate**, athletics begin at a young age, with kids joining the parks and recreations program in their towns or even just playing baseball in the backyard. The large number of sports is not limited to baseball, ice hockey, basketball, American football and soccer, golf and tennis, but rather includes a wide scope of athletic activities. Sports **also** play a major role in the education system in the United States, whether it is through a mandatory physical education class or an extracurricular club sports. **As an example of that**, middle schools that offer competitive sports continue to develop skills and prepare athletes for future

opportunities. These schools usually also offer competitive programs in cross country running, field hockey, volleyball, ice hockey, skiing, squash, wrestling, track and field, rowing, lacrosse, softball and golf at high schools. Following high school, gifted athletes continue to play in universities. In the recruitment process, colleges send scouts across the country, and sometimes abroad, to find the best talent to add to their sports teams. Last but not least, sports in America ultimately play a large role in the society's culture, enabling the American youth to understand the importance of physical fitness and sportsmanship at the local level, and providing an outlet to rally around universities, professional teams or even the country ("Society's culture", 2012).

3. Narrative Examples

It was late September 2015, and it was such a long journey to get to this wonderful country. I remember first arriving to the UK. After a seven hour flying to Dubai, a three hour transit there, seven hours more flying to London Heathrow Airport, one and a half hours sitting on the university bus, I finally made it safe and sound to my room at the newest City Gateway Halls of Southampton University. My first impressions of the UK are quite funny and embarrassing. **For instance**, when you come to the UK you will probably see loads of signs like this on the Street. While I was sitting on the bus from Heathrow Airport to Southampton, I saw lots of signs on the street saying 'TO LET'. They seemed to be all over the place. Due to my limited English, I did not understand 'To let' means 'To rent' (very British). **As an another example of** my impressions about the UK was that 'this country is toilet-friendly' as there were so many signposted on the street. **Moreover**, I have enjoyed making new friends from around the world as well as immersing myself in studying the Bible and doing social activities at international organizations and Christ Church Southampton. These places are where I have been learning about interesting cultures and meeting diverse people - not only the British but also many other nationalities. Overall, I have enjoyed a variety of things at Southampton University, where I am reading the MSc Marketing Management course. I am looking forward to enjoying the rest of my time here as I know for sure; the best is yet to come (Alex, 2016).

Growing up in Kansas, I was not a stranger to being the only one that looked like me in my classes or activities. If you know what it is like being a minority, you know that it isn't easy and it is a constant personal battle of trial and triumph. Milan, there is a very small community of Africans and an even smaller community of African Americans. Usually, there are different areas in a city where different ethnic groups reside. However, in Milan I have not seen the predominately black area of town yet. There are tons of Americans in my program, but I am different from them. We may be from the same country, but we have completely different experiences in it. **In addition**, the people in Europe crave to learn about the African American perspective and it is an honor to be able to teach them about it. **To illustrate**, it's as simple as my roommate asking me about my hair that I have twisted. It starts as a simple conversation about technicalities, which turns into how it is a part of black culture to wear our hair in different braided styles, which turns into a whole conversation about the issues of cultural appropriation and why it matters so much to our community. **Furthermore**, while studying abroad, I have learned and felt that my culture is interesting, unique and important to the world. It is an integral piece of American culture as a whole. As a consequence, I think that every minority student should consider studying abroad. It has given me a new perspective on myself and has given me an eye into the rest of the world (Donnelly, 2016).

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APPENDIX-D: Analytic Rubric for Paragraph Writing Assessment (*Adapted from Brown et al., 2009; East, 2009; Rezaei & Lovorn, 2010*)

QUALITIES BENCHMARKS	MINIMAL (0-5)	LIMITED (6-10)	ADEQUATE (11-15)	EFFECTIVE (16-20)	EXEMPLARY (21-25)
Genre & Structural Organization (25 points)	There is no clear purpose. Paragraph lacks logical progression of ideas. Paragraph addresses topic but loses focus by including irrelevant ideas. Ideas are unclear and/ or not well-developed based on the paragraph method used. The writing is quite 'choppy' and not very fluent in weak cohesion.	It attempts to communicate the purpose throughout. Paragraph includes brief skeleton (introduction, body, conclusion sentences) but lacks transitions. Paragraph is focused on topic and includes few loosely related ideas. Unelaborated ideas are not fully explained or supported. There is repetitive information.	It generally maintains purpose. Paragraph includes logical progression of ideas aided by clear transitions. Paragraph is focused on the topic and includes relevant ideas. However, elaborated ideas are still not fully explained or supported. It contains details, but there are several instances of incomplete sequencing.	It mostly maintains the purpose of writing. The task is well understood, and is logically-organized and developed. There are an introductory, body and concluding sentences. Depth of thought supported by some elaborated, supportive evidence provides clear vision of the main idea.	It establishes and maintains clear purpose of writing. The writing flows, powerfully organized and fully developed. The paragraph is focused, purposeful and reflects clear insights and ideas. Depth and complexity of thought is supported by rich, pertinent detail. Supporting evidence in logical sequencing leads to high-level idea development.
Grammar Usage / Word Choice (25 points)	Very frequent errors are observed in grammar. The words used are repetitive and not-informative. Some words lead to confusion.	Frequent errors are detected in grammar. The words used are often uninspired. The meaning is obscured.	Occasional grammatical errors occur. There is a questionable word choice. The meaning is seldom obscured.	Limited grammatical errors occur. There is a clear word diversity to express ideas.	It is nearly error-free which reflects clear understanding and thorough proofreading. Word choice is diversified quite well.

Mechanics / Disciplinary Conventions (25 points)	Very frequent errors are detected in spelling, punctuation and capitalization.	Frequent errors are seen in grammar and punctuation, but spelling and capitalization have been slightly proofread.	Occasional grammatical and punctuation errors occur, but spelling and capitalization have been satisfactorily proofread.	It demonstrates good mastery of spelling and capitalization conventions. Limited grammatical and punctuation errors occur.	It is nearly error-free which reflects clear understanding and thorough proofreading.
Content Development of Cultural Sense (25 points)	There is surface understanding of the complexity of elements important to members of another culture in relation to its history, values, politics, communication styles, economy, or beliefs, practices, etc. It articulates surface insights into its own cultural worldview, cross-cultural differences and similarities. The content sounds weak. There is a lack of examples and ideas to strengthen the content.	It shows partial understanding of the complexity of elements important to members of another culture in relation to its history, values, politics, communication styles, economy, or beliefs, practices, etc. It articulates partial insights into its own cultural worldview, cross-cultural differences and similarities. The content is not particularly well-argued with subordinate and complementary ideas.	It displays adequate understanding of the complexity of elements important to members of another culture in relation to its history, values, politics, communication styles, economy, or beliefs, practices, etc. It articulates adequate insights into its own cultural worldview, cross-cultural differences and similarities. The content sounds solid to some extent.	It demonstrates effective understanding of the complexity of elements important to members of another culture in relation to its history, values, politics, communication styles, economy, or beliefs, practice, etc. with some supportive ideas. It articulates effective insights into its own cultural worldview, cross-cultural differences and similarities. The content is developed with mostly specific details.	There is sophisticated understanding of the complexity of elements important to members of another culture in relation to its history, values, politics, communication styles, economy, or beliefs, practices, etc. It articulates sophisticated insights into its own cultural worldview, cross-cultural differences and similarities. The content is well-presented with supportive and specific examples and ideas.

APPENDIX-E: Interview Questions

1. What is your definition of “culture”?

2. Have you ever been to a foreign country/English-speaking country?

3. Which benefits have you experienced after ‘direct’ teaching of culture during the writing course?

4. What kind of topics have you written in your weekly written tasks?

5. Do you think that it is important to mention about the target culture and language in your written tasks? Why/Why not?

6. What are the difficulties that you have encountered while integrating culture-loaded information into your writing tasks and performance?

7. Do you think that it is important to be informed about the target culture? Why/ Why not?

8. What kind of ways in developing of target culture awareness have your instructor used in the classroom?

9. Have you found these ways useful? Why/Why not?

10. As a prospective English teacher and as an advanced level English language learner, do you think that there is a necessity to teach about target culture in addition to the target language?

APPENDIX-F: Critical Values for Chi-Square (χ^2) (as cited in Ekmekçi, 1999, p. 222)

df	.10	.05	0.25	.01	.001
1	2.71	3.84	5.02	6.64	10.83
2	4.60	5.99	7.38	9.21	13.82
3	6.25	7.82	9.35	11.35	16.27
4	7.78	9.49	11.14	13.28	18.47
5	9.49	11.07	12.83	15.09	20.52
6	10.65	12.59	14.45	16.81	22.46
7	12.02	14.07	16.01	18.48	24.32
8	13.36	15.51	17.54	20.09	26.13
9	14.68	16.92	19.02	21.67	27.88
10	15.99	18.31	20.48	23.21	29.59
11	17.28	19.68	21.92	24.73	31.26
12	18.55	21.03	23.34	26.22	32.91
13	19.81	22.36	24.74	27.69	34.53
14	21.06	23.69	26.12	29.14	36.12
15	22.31	25.00	27.49	30.58	37.70
16	23.54	26.30	28.85	31.10	39.25
17	24.77	27.59	30.19	33.41	40.79
18	25.99	28.87	31.53	34.81	42.31
19	27.20	30.14	32.85	36.19	43.82
20	28.41	31.41	34.17	37.57	45.32
25	34.28	37.65	49.65	44.31	50.62
30	40.26	43.77	46.98	44.31	50.62
40	51.81	55.76	59.34	63.69	73.40
50	63.17	67.51	71.42	76.15	86.66
60	74.40	79.08	83.30	88.38	99.61
70	85.53	90.53	95.02	100.43	112.32
80	96.58	101.88	106.63	112.33	124.84
90	107.57	113.15	118.14	124.12	137.21
100	118.50	124.34	129.56	135.81	149.45

* The last digits have been rounded off.

APPENDIX-G: Ethics Committee Approval



T.C.
HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Rektörlük

Sayı : 35853172/ 483-1305

06.04.2017

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı tezli yüksek lisans programı öğrencilerinden Özge COŞKUN'un Yrd. Doç. Dr. İsmail Fırat ALTAY danışmanlığında yürüttüğü "Türkiye'deki İngilizce Öğretmenliği Sınıflarında Öğrencilerin Hedef Kültür Farkındalıklarının Arttırılmasının Değerlendirilmesi" başlıklı tez çalışması, Üniversitemiz Senatosu Etik Komisyonunun 28 Mart 2017 tarihinde yaptığı toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Rahime M. NOHUTCU
Rektör a.
Rektör Yardımcısı

APPENDIX-H: Declaration of Ethical Conduct

I hereby declare that...

- I have prepared this thesis in accordance with the thesis writing guidelines of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences of Hacettepe University;
- all information and documents in the thesis/dissertation have been obtained in accordance with academic regulations;
- all audio visual and written information and results have been presented in compliance with scientific and ethical standards;
- in case of using other people's work, related studies have been cited in accordance with scientific and ethical standards;
- all cited studies have been fully and decently referenced and included in the list of References;
- I did not do any distortion and/or manipulation on the data set,
- and **NO** part of this work was presented as a part of any other thesis study at this or any other university.

(08)/(06)/(2018)


Özge Coşkun

APPENDIX-I: Thesis/Dissertation Originality Report

08/06/2018

HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY
Graduate School of Educational Sciences
To The Department of Foreign Language Education

Thesis Title : Assessing Development of Learners' Target Culture Awareness in Turkish ELT Classrooms

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ADVISOR APPROVAL

APPROVED
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APPENDIX-J: Yayımlama ve Fikri Mülkiyet Hakları Beyanı

Enstitü tarafından onaylanan lisansüstü tezimin/raporumun tamamını veya herhangi bir kısmını, basılı (kâğıt) ve elektronik formatta arşivleme ve aşağıda verilen koşullarla kullanıma açma iznini Hacettepe Üniversitesine verdiğimi bildiririm. Bu izinle Üniversite'ye verilen kullanım hakları dışındaki bütün fikri mülkiyet haklarım bende kalacak, tezimin tamamının veya bir bölümünün gelecekteki çalışmalarda (makale, kitap, lisans ve patent vb.) kullanım hakları bana ait olacaktır.

Tezin kendi orijinal çalışmam olduğunu, başkalarının haklarını ihlal etmediğimi ve tezimin tek yetkili sahibi olduğumu beyan ve taahhüt ederim. Tezimde yer alan telif hakkı bulunan ve sahiplerinden yazılı izin alınarak kullanılması zorunlu metinleri yazılı izin alarak kullandığımı ve istenildiğinde suretlerini Üniversite'ye teslim etmeyi taahhüt ederim.

☒ Tezimin/Raporumun tamamı dünya çapında erişime açılabilir ve bir kısmı veya tamamının fotokopisi alınabilir.

(Bu seçenekle teziniz arama motorlarında indekslenebilecek, daha sonra tezinizin erişim statüsünün değiştirilmesini talep etmeniz ve kütüphane bu talebinizi yerine getirirse bile, teziniz arama motorlarının ön belleklerinde kalmaya devam edebilecektir)

☐ Tezimin/Raporumun tarihine kadar erişime açılmasını ve fotokopi alınmasını (İç Kapak, Özet, İçindekiler ve Kaynakça hariç) istemiyorum.

(Bu sürenin sonunda uzatma için başvuruda bulunmadığım takdirde, tezimin/raporumun tamamı her yerden erişime açılabilir, kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla bir kısmı veya tamamının fotokopisi alınabilir).

☐ Tezimin/Raporumun tarihine kadar erişime açılmasını istemiyorum ancak kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla bir kısmı veya tamamının fotokopisinin alınmasını onaylıyorum.

☐ Serbest

Seçenek/Yazarın

Seçimi:

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08.06.2018

Özge COŞKUN

