

T.C.
ABANT İZZET BAYSAL UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

EFFECTS OF DATA-DRIVEN LEARNING ON
LANGUAGE LEARNING: A STUDY OF TURKISH LEARNERS OF
ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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April, 2009

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FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

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In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
MASTER OF ARTS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

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April, 2009

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ÖZET

VERİ GÜDÜMLÜ ÖĞRENME YAKLAŞIMININ DİL ÖĞRENİMİ ÜZERİNE ETKİLERİ: TÜRKİYE’DEKİ YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENCİLERİ ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

Anaç, Gülşen

Veri güdümlü öğrenme yaklaşımı, etkin ve buluşa dayalı öğrenme alanında oldukça yeni bir yaklaşımdır. Johns (1991a) tarafından ortaya atılan bu yaklaşım, öğrencilerin veri yığınındaki belli yapıları ve dil kullanımını çözümlerken farkında olmadan öğrenmelerine vurgu yapar. Veri güdümlü öğrenme yaklaşımı öğrencilerin veriye doğrudan ulaşmasını sağladığından, öğrenciler kendilerine özgü anlamları ve kullanımları oluşturabilirler. Öğrenciler öğrenme aşamasında neler yaptıklarının bilincindedirler ve dil ile ilgili araştırmalarını sürdürebilmeleri için uygun becerilerle donatılmalıdırlar (Koo, 2006).

Bu çalışmanın genel amacı veri güdümlü öğrenme yaklaşımının Türkiye’deki İngilizce yabancı dil öğrencilerinin dil başarıları üzerindeki etkilerini araştırmaktır. Araştırmanın özel amacı ise, bu yaklaşımın materyallerde sunulan dil öğelerini öğrenmede ve öğrencilerin bağlama dayalı gözlem becerilerini benzer dil çalışmalarına aktarabilme yetileri üzerinde gözle görülür bir etkisi olup olmadığını anlamaktır. Bu çalışmada veri güdümlü öğrenme yaklaşımı iki açıdan değerlendirildi. İlk önce bu yaklaşımın öğrenme üzerine etkisi deneysel araştırma tasarımı ile ön ve son test kullanılarak ölçüldü. Kontrol grubuna aynı konuları işleyen fakat veri güdümlü olmayan uniteler verilirken, deney grubu veri güdümlü materyallerle çalıştı. Sonuçlar veri güdümlü öğrenme yaklaşımının materyallerde sunulan dil konularını öğrenme üzerinde gözle görülür bir etkisi olduğunu gösterdi. Fakat aynı etkinin öğrencilerin becerilerini benzer dil çalışmalarına aktarma konusunda etkili olmadığı anlaşıldı. Daha sonra öğrencilerin veri güdümlü yaklaşıma göre hazırlanmış materyallere karşı tutumları fikir ölçekli bir anket kullanılarak tespit edildi. Genel olarak, ilgiyi parçadaki kelimelere çektikleri için öğrencilerin veri güdümlü materyallere karşı tutumları olumlu olarak derecelendirildi.

Anahtar kelimeler: aktif ve keşfederek öğrenme, veri yığını, dil başarısı, öğrenci-öğretmen etkileşimi, veri güdümlü öğrenme, tutumlar, farkında olmadan öğrenme

ABSTRACT

EFFECTS OF DATA-DRIVEN LEARNING ON LANGUAGE LEARNING: A STUDY OF TURKISH LEARNERS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

by

Anaç, Gülşen

The Data-Driven Learning (DDL) approach is relatively new in the area of active and discovery-style learning. Proposed by Johns (1991a), this approach emphasizes inductive acquisition as the learners analyze language use and patterns of specific items in a corpus. The methodology of the DDL approach gives the learner direct access to data so that the learners create their own meanings and uses. Students are in control of their learning and must be given appropriate skills to carry out their language investigation (Koo, 2006).

The general aim of this study is to better understand effects of Data-driven (DDL) on language achievement of Turkish EFL learners. The specific purpose of this study is to look closely at whether this approach has a marked effect on the learning of language items presented in the materials, and on the learners' ability to transfer context observation skills to similar language tasks. DDL was evaluated in two respects. First, the learning effect of DDL was measured using experimental research design with pre- and post-tests. The experimental group worked on concordance-based materials, whereas the control group was given corresponding non-concordance teaching units focusing on almost the same language items. The results showed that DDL has a marked effect on the learning of language items presented in the materials, but not on the learners' ability to transfer context observation skills to similar language tasks. Second, the learners' attitudes towards DDL materials were elicited using a questionnaire in the form of an agreement scale. In general, DDL materials were rated highly, particularly as a means of drawing attention to words in context.

Key words: active and discovery learning, corpus, language achievement, teacher-student interaction, data-driven learning, attitudes, inductive learning

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge several people whose support I always felt during the process of writing this thesis. First of all, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Assist. Prof. Dr. Muhsin KARAS, who is the advisor and supervisor of this thesis, because of his guidance and continual support.

I would like to thank Assist. Prof. Dr. Erkan TEKİNARSLAN for his invaluable assistance and cooperation in this endeavor.

I am indebted to Assist. Prof. Dr. Kadir Vefa TEZEL for the comprehensive and continuous suggestions he has made on the methodology, research design, data analysis and interpretation, and format related issues in this thesis. His constructive criticisms and useful suggestions made this thesis possible. This research study could have never been completed without his contribution.

I would also like to thank my students in Akçakoca High School who willingly and enthusiastically participated in the units as experimental and control group. They took the units seriously and provided a great source of encouragement to me to complete this thesis. Finally, I also want to thank my colleague Selim Başar, who taught the control group, for his contributions to this research.

Finally, I must express my greatest debt to my parents, Şerife and İrfan Ayvacı who always made the life easier for me with their endless encouragement, support, love and care. There are no words to express my gratitude to my loving husband, Şeref Han Anaç who helped me stay focused and overcome problems in this endeavor.

Last, but not least, I would like to thank my little daughter, Nida Nur Anaç, who has kept me in good spirits.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

APPROVAL

ÖZET	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	xiv
CHAPTER I: Introduction.....	1
Section 1: Use of Technology in Language Teaching.....	1
1.1.1. Historical Framework.....	1
1.1.2 Teachers' Beliefs about Using Technology in EFL Classes	2
Section 2: Basic Concepts Used in Data-Driven Learning.....	5
1.2.1 Introduction	5
1.2.2 Corpora and Concordance	6
1.2.3 Types of Corpora	8
1.2.4 Concordance Software	9
1.2.5 Statement of Purpose.....	9
1.2.6 Research Questions	9
1.2.7 Significance of the Study	10
1.2.8 Limitations.....	10
1.2.9 Definition of the Terms	10
CHAPTER II: Therotical Perspectives: A Review of the Literature	12
Section 1: Introduction	12
2.1.1 Applications of Corpora in Language Learning and Teaching	12
2.1.2 Advantages of Using Corpora in Language Learning	14
2.1.3 Disadvantages of Using Corpora in Language Learning	16
2.1.4 Conclusion.....	17

Section 2: Theories that lend support to Data-Driven Learning	18
2.2.1 The Noticing Hypothesis.....	18
2.2.2 Grammatical Consciousness-Raising (CR).....	21
2.2.2.1 Rutherford's Version of CR	22
2.2.2.2 Ellis's Version of CR	23
2.2.2.3 Willis and Willis' CR.....	25
2.2.2.4 A Summary of C-R	27
2.2.2.5 Techniques Used in C-R	27
2.2.2.6 DDL as a CR Activity	27
2.2.3 The Constructivist Approach to Learning	28
2.2.3.1 History of Constructivism	29
2.2.3.2 General Characteristics of Constructivist Classroom	31
2.2.4 Lack of Research and Awareness of Corpus Linguistics.....	32
Section 3: Research Evaluating Concordancing	33
2.3.1 Introduction	33
2.3.2 Qualitative Evaluation of Concordancing	33
2.3.2.1 Blappert's Study	33
2.3.2.2 Gan, Low and Yaakub's study	34
2.3.2.3 Bernardini's Study	35
2.3.2.4 Turnbull and Burston's Study	35
2.3.2.5 Maneekhao's Study.....	36
2.3.2.6 Kennedy and Miceli's Study	37
2.3.3 Empirical Evaluation Based on Quantitative Data	39
2.3.3.1 Gan, Low and Yaakub's Study	39
2.3.3.2 Blappert's Study	41
2.3.3.3 Stevens' Study	42
2.3.3.4 Cobb's Study	44
CHAPTER III: Methodology.....	48
3.1 Introduction	48
3.2 Research Design	48

3.3	Participants	49
3.3.1	General Information.....	49
3.3.2	Language Proficiency and Exposure to English.....	49
3.3.3	Attitudes towards English in General	49
3.4	Data Collection Instruments	50
3.4.1	The test.....	50
3.4.1.1	Demographic Information Part.....	53
3.4.1.2	Part 1 of the Test.....	53
3.4.1.3	Part 2 of the Test.....	54
3.4.1.4	The Test Items Used in the Pre- and Post-Test	55
3.4.2	The Questionnaire.....	55
3.5	Data Collection Procedures	56
3.6	Data Analysis.....	57
3.6.1	T-test	57
3.6.2	Paired-Samples t-test.....	58
CHAPTER IV: DDL and non-DDL Materials		59
4.1	Introduction	59
4.2	DDL and non-DDL Materials: An Overview.....	59
4.2.1	DDL Materials	59
4.2.2	Non-DDL Materials	61
4.2.3	Differences between DDL and non-DDL Materials.....	62
4.2.3.1	Data and Examples	62
4.2.3.2	Comments and Explanations	63
4.2.3.3	Exercises and Activities	64
4.3	Conclusion.....	66
CHAPTER V: The Test Results and Discussion		67
5.1	Introduction	67
5.2	The Main Test Results	67
5.2.1	The Independent and Paired <i>t</i> -test Results for Part I	67
5.2.2	The Independent and Paired <i>t</i> -test Results for Part II.....	68

5.2.3	The Independent and Paired <i>t</i> -test Results for Total Scores	69
5.2.4	Relationship between Gender and Total Scores	71
5.3	Discussion of the Main Results	72
CHAPTER VI: Learners' Attitudes towards DDL Materials.....		73
6.1	Introduction	73
6.2	Evaluating DDL Materials	73
6.2.1	Concordance-based Materials in General and Concordance Citations.....	75
6.2.1.1	About Concordance-based Materials in General.....	75
6.2.1.2	About Concordance Lines in General.....	77
6.2.2	Types of Teaching Units	79
6.2.3	Usefulness (useful language features and useful skill practices).....	80
6.2.4	Suggestions for Materials Improvement	85
6.2.4.1	The Strengths of the Approach.....	85
6.2.4.2	The Weaknesses of the Approach.....	87
CHAPTER VII: Implications of the Study		90
7.1	Introduction	90
7.1.1	Implications for Corpus Use in Language Teaching	90
7.1.2	Practical Implications.....	91
CHAPTER VIII: Conclusion		93
8.1	Summary of the Main Results	93
8.1.1	The Learning Effect of DDL	93
8.1.2	Learners' Attitudes towards DDL materials	94
8.2	Suggestions for Future Research	94
8.2.1	Learning Strategies	94
8.2.2	Materials.....	94
8.2.3	Participants	95
8.2.4	Degree of Exposure.....	95
8.3	Final Remarks.....	96
REFERENCES.....		97
APPENDICES		104

Appendix A: The Pre- and Post-Test	104
Appendix B: The Agreement Scale Questionnaire	112
Appendix C: DDL Materials Unit 1-Unit 21.....	114-137
Appendix D: Non-DDL Materials Unit 1-Unit 21	138-158
CURRICULUM VITAE.....	159

LIST OF TABLES

Table

3.1 The Total Scores of Sripicharn's Pilot Study.....	50
3.2 Independent samples <i>t</i> -test for post-test scores (before the re-scoring).....	51
3.3 The distribution of test items used in pre- and post-test.....	55
5.1 Evaluation of Part I.....	67
5.2 Evaluation of Part II.....	68
5.3 Evaluation of the Total Scores.....	69
5.4 Evaluation of Gender and Total Scores.....	71
6.1 Results of the questionnaire.....	74
6.2 The Strengths of the Approach.....	85
6.3 The Weaknesses of the Approach.....	87

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure

1.1 Screenshot of concordance lines drawn from the Compleat Lexical Tutor's Online Concordancer.....	7
2.1 An example of a language analysis task (Ellis 1998: 48).....	25
3.1 Formulas for the Level of Difficulty (p) and the Power of Discrimination.....	52
3.2 Example of KWIC citations.....	54
4.1 DDL Unit 16 (Dead or not dead).....	60
4.2 Non-DDL Unit 4 (Personality).....	61
4.3 Extract from DDL Unit 6: 'English and other confusing languages'.....	62
4.4 Extract from non-DDL Unit 6: Lexical relations (1).....	63
4.5 Extract from DDL Unit 7: 'Are we proud or arrogant?'.....	64
4.6 Extract from non-DDL Unit 7: 'proud and arrogant'.....	64
4.7 Extract from DDL Unit 21: Why on earth do we learn English?.....	65
4.8 Extract from non-DDL Unit 21: On earth (1).....	66
5.1 Evaluation of Part 1.....	68
5.2 Evaluation of Part II.....	69
5.3 Evaluation of the Total Scores.....	70
5.4 Evaluation of Gender and Total Scores.....	70
6.1 Statement 1.....	75
6.2 Statement 4.....	75
6.3 Statement 5.....	76
6.4 Statement 6.....	76
6.5 Statement 7.....	77
6.6 Statement 18.....	77
6.7 Statement 19.....	78
6.8 Statement 20.....	78
6.9 Statement 2.....	79
6.10 Statement 3.....	79

6.11 Statement 8.....	80
6.12 Statement 9.....	80
6.13 Statement 10.....	81
6.14 Statement 11.....	81
6.15 Statement 12.....	82
6.16 Statement 13.....	82
6.17 Statement 14.....	83
6.18 Statement 15.....	83
6.19 Statement 16.....	84
6.20 Statement 17.....	84
6.21 The Strengths of the Approach.....	87
6.22 The Weaknesses of the Approach.....	88

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DDL	Data-Driven Learning
Non-DDL	Non-Data-Driven Learning
CR	Consciousness-raising
KWIC	Key word in Context
CALL	Computer Assisted Language Learning
RAM	Random Access Memory
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
FCL	The Fostering Communities of Learners
BNC	The British National Corpus
SGML	The Standard Generalized Markup Language
CWIC	The Contemporary Written Italian Corpus

CHAPTER I

Introduction

The aim of the thesis is to give a detailed account of an empirical study carried out to evaluate the Data-Driven Learning (DDL) approach used by a group of Turkish high school students. The first section of this introductory chapter will provide some information about the use of technology in language teaching within a historical framework and teachers' beliefs about using technology in language classes. The second section will supply brief information about the basic concepts used in DDL. It will continue with statement of purpose, research questions that formed the foci of this study, significance of the study, limitations, and lastly definition of terms.

Section 1: Use of Technology in Language Teaching

1.1.1. Historical Framework

Technology is the application of scientific knowledge for practical usage by organizations that involve people and machines such as schools, industries, and banks (Cross & McCormick, 1986). According to Black and Harrison (1994), technology is a disciplined process, resources of material, energy and natural phenomena to achieve human process.

For many years, the effects of technology on the classroom were marginal. However, in recent years, due to a combination of the developing information infrastructure and the development of curricula, the impact of technology is beginning to have a profound effect on schooling (Schwartz & Beichner, 1999). Therefore, in order to achieve maximum success, educators need to be aware of the different types of learners and how they can address their needs through the use of technology (Ktoridou, Zarpetea & Yiangov, 2002).

The recent change in technology is often compared to the 15th century introduction of the Guttenberg printing press. The parallel is based upon the belief that far-reaching change is the inevitable consequence of any groundbreaking technological breakthrough (Murray, 2000). Previously in an EFL environment, one

of the largest difficulties was providing one's students with access to authentic materials. The advent of the technology has changed all that beyond recognition. Dudeney (2000) states that more and more teachers have acknowledged that the technology is an infinite source of authentic materials and it supplies a vast encyclopedia of information on a variety of topics in order to engage students. Some may argue that the rapid profanation of the technology is merely a phenomenon centered in the developed world; hence, for the majority of the world's population, the information revolution and its study are over-emphasized.

The ever-expanding role of technology in EFL is providing teachers, learners and researchers with numerous opportunities. These opportunities will continue to increase in parallel with the technology. The findings suggest that students enjoy and recognize the value of technology in their English learning (Schoepp & Eroğlu, 2001). So, it is an undeniable fact that technology has become commonplace both in and out of EFL classes because of its numerous advantages. Johnson (1985) labelled her summary a useful benefit list. In her discussion, she suggests that motivation, individualization (of pace, level, language assignments), and the private nature of the interaction and judgemental feedback are features of technology that enhance language acquisition.

1.1.2 Teachers' Beliefs about Using Technology in EFL Classes

According to Schwartz and Beichner (ibid), teachers have been leaders in terms of bringing technology into the class. Many teachers who have been teaching for 15 or 20 years or more have taken the initiative to learn and to keep abreast of computer technology skills. Many other teachers have accepted the presence of technology but have been unable to see how it could dramatically change what goes on in the classroom. Still, others have actively resisted the arrival of technology in the classroom. All three types of teachers work side by side in today's schools.

Lumpe and Chambers (2001) state that teachers' beliefs about the usage of technology are significant predictors of teachers' reported use of technology related learning practices. Today's school technology reform efforts require the usage of technology in all classes, including EFL ones. At this point, Lumpe and Chambers

(ibid) state that teacher' beliefs gain importance because they are people who will be directly involved in the process. Teachers enter professional development programs with certain beliefs that will affect usage of technology and, in turn, future teacher beliefs and student learning.

Beliefs are the ideas people are committed to, sometimes called core values. Bandura (1997) and Pajares (1992) emphasize that people act on what they believe. Therefore, what people believe can easily influence their attitudes and behaviors. According to Lumpe and Chambers (ibid), it is undeniable that teachers have some beliefs about technology use, and that they form these beliefs mostly during the time they spend in the classroom either as teachers or students. Recently, a relationship between the beliefs of teachers and their use of technology has been found: it has been stated that there is a strong link between teachers' attitude towards technology and psychological factors such as interest, utility, confidence, and self-efficacy.

Moreover, there are some other factors which affect teachers' beliefs such as external factors or people who may influence their achievement of a particular goal. In the case of a school technology initiative, these factors may involve students, administrators, parents, teachers, buildings, equipment, and professional development. Enochs et al. (1993) suggests that teachers' beliefs about technology could be enhanced with instruction, peer coaching, site visits, and cooperative learning.

In addition, some teachers may not feel qualified because of lack of experience regarding using computers. Professional development for such teachers may be needed by providing computer access and support by means of pre-service or in-service programs. Besides, language teachers may, from time to time, be afraid of using technology and hesitate to integrate it into their EFL classes because of the belief that technology will substitute for them.

Why are the researchers so concerned about using technology in EFL classes? A probable explanation is that, because the technology is relatively new, using it presents a shift from traditional classroom instruction. That is, as opposed to traditional classroom instruction, technology-based classroom instruction focuses greater attention on diversity among learners and provides lots of variety for both visual and auditory learners in terms of developing their skills in L2. In addition,

technology also increases learner autonomy by giving responsibility not only to language teachers but also to L2 learners. In technology-based classroom instruction, the language teacher is more of a facilitator and fellow learner alongside the L2 students.

To sum up, nowadays it has become clear that when language teachers use technology in EFL classes effectively and efficiently, it creates a positive learning environment for both teachers and students. The use of technology advances learning because it makes learning easy through promotion and simplification. The technology of interaction offers students the chance to explore the available information freely, apply their own learning styles and use software as a resource to construct their own knowledge.

This idea also is supported by the Constructivist Learning Approach. According to this approach, if an English language teacher is a supporter of the Constructivist Learning Approach, s/he can use technology in order to create the appropriate educational environment, which facilitates students' construction of knowledge. In general, according to the Constructivist Learning Approach, language teachers take the role of coaches, facilitators or even partners with the learners in the learning process. In particular, a language teacher is expected to create the appropriate educational language environment and thus facilitate the individual construction of language knowledge.

The most recent up-to-date way of teaching and learning language by using technology is Data-Driven Learning (henceforth, DDL) which is also based on the fundamental aspects of the Constructivist Learning Approach. On the other hand, it is clear that learners will only get access to technology in EFL classes if language teachers themselves work with technology and make it available to their students. The only way to achieve this is to make language teachers become familiar with Data-Driven Learning and to inform them about the basic concepts used in DDL.

Section 2: Basic Concepts Used in Data-Driven Learning

1.2.1 Introduction

In fact, the term ‘Data-Driven Learning’ is not a specific term only valid for the Constructivist Approach but also for any teaching method because data are used in almost all teaching methods although they come in different forms and are manipulated differently from one teaching methodology to another. For instance, in audio-lingualism constructed dialogues and drills are used as data for the purpose of reinforcement of language behaviour whereas in communicative language teaching mainly authentic texts are used as data to create genuine communicative opportunities (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

Johns (1986, 1988, 1991a,b) advocates that the term Data-Driven Learning is used for a teaching approach which makes use of computer or text-based concordances to make students become aware of the regularities of patterning in the target language. Moreover, in this approach activities and exercises based on concordance output are used as follow-ups.

Lewis (2006) states that in the 21st century, everyday language use is so tied to technology that language learning through technology has become a fact of life with important implications for language teachers. Therefore, language teachers are becoming more willing to grasp the nature of the evolving multimedia-based tasks which involve learners more in their language learning process. Students can find activities such as numerous Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) exercises available both on and offline and can practise their reading and listening skills; develop their writing skills by means of the application of email and weblogs, and use some specific electronic tools such as online dictionaries and translators easily.

Moreover, Hadley (2002) draws attention to the need to establish a balance between fluency and grammar in language teaching. He states that Data-Driven Learning is basically a new form of grammatical consciousness raising, which aims at improving the processing part of language learning. The basic concepts involved

in this approach are corpora and concordance, types of corpora and concordance software.

1.2.2 Corpora and Concordance

In the literature, corpus and concordance are regularly described as the most promising current ideas. According to Li-yi (2000), corpora serve as an abundant source of the authentic target language being used in real life by native speakers in different situations which the majority of EFL textbooks have failed to deal with. Leech (1997) announces that at the turn of the century it seems evident that something like a 'corpus revolution' is changing dramatically the way that language is taught, even if the effects of these changes are felt gradually.

In this context, concordancing is the centrefold idea in a paradigm-shift within CALL from computer as "magister" to computer as "pedagogue" (Higgins, 1988), from a tutor-dominated, process-control model of language instruction, to an "information resource" model, where the learner is free to explore the language for himself, leaving the instructor in the role of providing tools and resources for doing so.

The first concordance was made in the late 12th or early 13th century as a means of marshalling evidence from the Bible for teaching and preaching; concordances for works of secular literature followed much later. A concordance derives its power for analysis from the fact that it allows us to see every place in a text where a particular word is used, and so to detect patterns of usage and, again, to marshal evidence for an argument. Since words express ideas, themes and motifs, a concordance is highly useful in detecting patterns of meaning as well. The concordance focuses on word-forms, not on what may be meant but what is actually said. It is an empirical tool of textual research (McCarty, 2002).

Until the advent of computers, concordances were made slowly and laboriously by hand. The physical restrictions of the printed book meant that the concordance tended to be very bulky; its form was fixed and numerous features had to be decided by the editor once for all time. Since the electronic concordance generator produces its output on demand, and within the limitations of the software,

can adapt this output to the needs of the moment, it tends to serve the purposes of research much better than its printed analogue. Gabrielatos (2005) points out that it was the publication of Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary which drew most English language teachers' attention to corpora; he defines corpora as any collection of recorded instances of spoken or written language.

Lewis (ibid) also points out that one electronic tool in particular which has seen considerable development over the past two decades is the *concordancer*. It enables users to access a *corpus* of texts (plural, *corpora*), that is, a database of texts held in electronic form on a computer or on the web in order to carry out acts of linguistic research. Most concordancing programs search the corpus and any instances of the selected word found are presented as a list of lines, known as *concordances*, often with the keyword in the middle, as shown in the screenshot below.

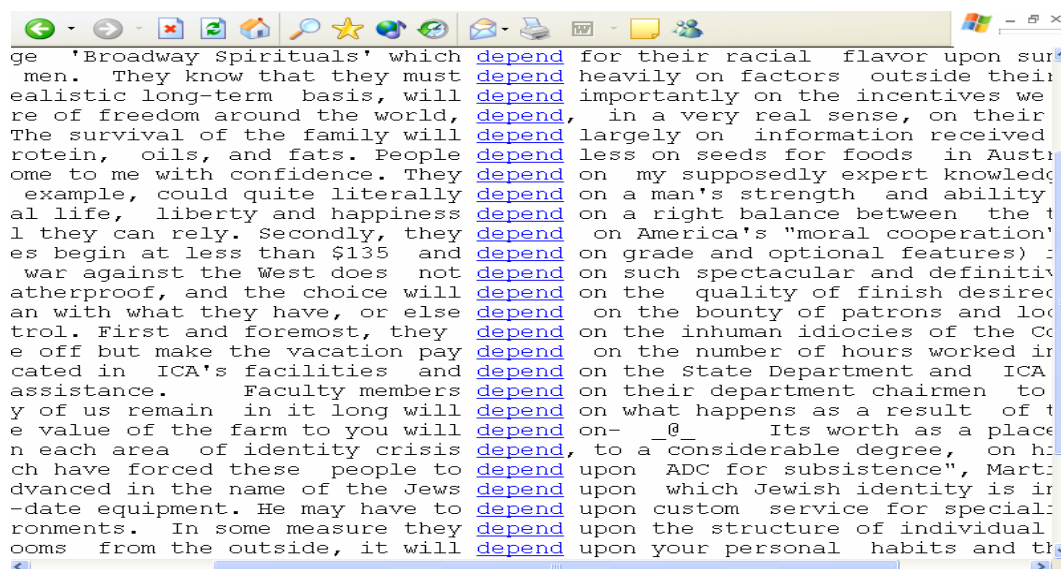


Fig. 1.1 Screenshot of concordance lines drawn from the Compleat Lexical Tutor's Online Concordancer

According to Lewis (ibid), in the early 1980s, with the advent of cheap microcomputers, language teachers, many of whom were already involved in the world of CALL, realised how concordancing could benefit language learners and began developing computer-assisted concordancer activities. It was argued, by

Higgins and Johns (1984) in particular, that such activities empowered the learner to investigate questions of vocabulary use and grammatical collocation on their own.

Data-Driven Learning is very much a "research-then-theory" method of studying grammar. Language learners start with a question, and then come to their conclusions after analyzing the corpora with a concordancer program. "What the concordancer does," according to Tribble (1990, p.11), "is make the invisible visible." Concordancers isolate frequent patterns in the target language. Using a format called keyword-in-context (KWIC), language learners can easily focus on the main item of study, which will be situated in the center of the page. Often during the process of study, learners will become aware of other language items that collocate with the item they are researching.

1.2.3 Types of Corpora

Li-yi (ibid) points out that there are two major corpora that were developed in the 1990s. They are the Bank of English and the British National Corpus. The Bank of English involves collection of over 200 million words, based on modern, written and spoken English texts (such as books, newspapers, brochures, leaflets, transcriptions of conversations, broadcasts, British English, American English, Australian English, etc.), and has an online internet service called COBUILDdirect, as well as a CD version. It is designed for the purpose of language study and how the words are used today by native speakers of English. One can easily retrieve dozens to thousands of concordance lines for one word, compound words, or phrases.

On the other hand, the British National Corpus has more than 100 million words of modern British English with respect to different kinds of texts (such as spoken and written), genres (such as books, fiction, newspapers, periodicals, journals, essays, letters, meetings, radio shows, call-ins, etc.), social factors (such as age, gender, social classes, region), etc. 90% of the corpus is the written texts. One can get access to its simple online internet service for free (Li-yi, ibid).

In addition to Li-yi (ibid), Gabriellatos (ibid) also states that corpora can be used in two ways: in the soft version, only the teacher has the access and the ability to use a corpus and relevant software. It is the teacher who prepares the tasks on

handouts. Learners work with this corpus derived materials. On the other hand, in the hard version learners have direct access to computer and the skills to use them.

1.2.4 Concordance Software

According to Lewis (ibid) and Flowerdew (1996), Longman Mini Concordancer was the best available software for language teaching activities. This concordancer was both user-friendly and very fast, with almost instantaneous presentation of concordances. Students could very quickly start to use the program themselves with limited instruction, and the concordances were presented almost instantaneously. However, it had limited sources- only a maximum of about 45,000 words of text.

Later, Oxford Micro Concordancer became more popular because it deals with much larger amounts of text and its corpus size is limited only by the size of the hard disk. On the other hand, in the Longman program corpus size is limited by the amount of working memory (RAM). Therefore, greater amount of text can be handled by the Oxford program.

1.2.5 Statement of Purpose

Since DDL is a new approach to learning, its effects on language learning in Türkiye are not clear yet. The present thesis is a small scale attempt at introducing this new approach to language learning and teaching. The main aim of the thesis is to try to discover whether or not DDL, which uses a concordancer as a means of studying grammar and vocabulary as opposed to a more conventional deductive presentation of grammar and vocabulary, has an impact on the language learning achievement of EFL high school students in Türkiye.

1.2.6 Research Questions

The experiments in this study were conducted with the purpose of answering the following research questions:

1. Does DDL have an effect on the language learning achievement of Turkish EFL high school students?

2. Does DDL have a transfer effect, i.e. can learners apply context observation skills to DDL tasks based on novel concordances and on similar language tasks?

1.2.7 Significance of the Study

The ultimate aim of teaching and learning is to assist learners in their need to develop strategies of knowledge processing. Over the past decade, language learning theory has seen a shift from a highly guided environment to a more open learning one, with constructivism as a new and very much learner-centred paradigm for learning. Learning is now perceived as a self-structured and self-motivated process of knowledge construction and the learner is regarded as a self-governed creator of knowledge.

Therefore, alternatives to the traditional transmission model of learning should be sought. One candidate in this regard is DDL which emphasizes information processing and knowledge construction as acts of learning. However, few teachers are clear about the nature or the effects of it on language learning in this country. It is hoped that this study will help clarify the nature of Data-Driven Learning in the minds of language teachers and the findings obtained from this study will shed light on the effects of DDL approach to language learning.

1.2.8 Limitations

1. The scope of this study is limited the data collected from the pre- and post-test results of Grade II students in Akçakoca High School in Düzce.
2. The study is limited to the answers given to the agreement scale questionnaire by Grade II students in Akçakoca High School in Düzce.

1.2.9 Definition of the Terms

The following are the definitions of the terms used in this research study.

Concordance	A list of occurrences of a word (or words) printed with a context. This context can be a single line of characters with the target word printed at the center, a sentence, or
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another context. One of the most common ways to print out information is the keyword-in-context (KWIC) concordance (Tribble, 1997, p. 253).

Concordancing software	A computer program that allows you to create concordances of words held in a corpus” (Tribble, 1997, p. 254).
Corpus (pl. corpora)	A collection of texts (from written or spoken sources); in this case, in a form that can be read by a computer” (Tribble, 1997, p. 254).
Data-Driven Learning	An approach to language learning in which learners are provided with direct access to the data, e.g., through the concordance output, and are encouraged to explore language by stimulating inductive learning strategies (Johns, 1994).

The remaining chapters of this thesis have been designed in the following order. Chapter 2 of this thesis will include a review of the prior literature on the topic. Chapter 3 will outline the methodological principles that formed the basis of this study. Chapter 4 will focus on the DDL and non-DDL materials used in the study. Chapter 5 will be devoted to the results of the data analysis. Chapter 6 will present the results of the agreement scale questionnaire and learners’ attitudes towards DDL materials. Chapter 7 will present the implications of the study. Chapter 8 will summarize and conclude the study.

CHAPTER II

Theoretical Perspectives: A Review of the Literature

This chapter is divided into three sections. Section 1 provides a general introduction to the use of corpora by mentioning the applications, advantages, and disadvantages of corpora in language learning and teaching. Section 2 describes the theories related to the features in Data-Driven Learning such as the Noticing Hypothesis, the Grammatical Consciousness Raising, and the Constructivist Approach. Section 2 also draws attention to the lack of research in the field of Data-Driven Learning. Section 3 summarizes research evaluating the effect of DDL on language learning as qualitative and empirical evaluation of concordancing.

Section 1: Introduction

2.1.1 Applications of Corpora in Language Learning and Teaching

Many researchers support the idea that corpus linguistics plays a crucial role in second language teaching and learning. According to Kennedy (1998), corpus linguistics focuses on describing and explaining the nature, structure and use of language and languages, emphasizing particular matters such as language acquisition, variation and change. Aijmer and Altenberg (1991) state that DDL gives an opportunity to students to investigate corpus data and reach their own conclusions regarding certain linguistic issues. Biber, Conrad and Reppen (1998) also propose a corpus-based approach in language teaching and learning.

Moreover, Li-yi (ibid) points out that the main foci of corpus linguistics are establishing linguistic corpora (both written and spoken), searching and analyzing the data in the corpora with respect to the structure and use of the language(s), lexicography, word frequency, collocations, genres and styles of different texts, language variations, diachronic change, second language teaching and learning, and the impact of corpora on different aspects of linguistic theories and practice.

Like Li-yi, McEnery, Baker and Hutchinson (1997) state that one of the fields of application in which corpora are beginning to be exploited is an educational one: that of language learning. Leech (1997) points out that a corpus gives an opportunity

to the learner/student to explore, to investigate, to generalize, and to test hypotheses. Aston (1997) also claims that a corpus provides teachers and learners an enormous range of material which might be used for language-learning purposes.

Moreover, Sripicharn (2002) states that a number of concordance-based materials have been designed for teaching English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Concordance data can be used for syllabus design in ESP. Flowerdew (*ibid*) demonstrates how concordances can be an instrument for course design, specifically for biology students. Concordance data from a biology corpus informs the materials writer that the connector 'then' in biology texts tends to appear more often between subject and verb than at the beginning of a clause.

Another area where classroom concordancing can be implemented is translation. Aston (1999) gives a general introduction to the use of different types of corpora in translation studies. In terms of classroom application, Pearson (1996) reported the use of concordance materials based on a monolingual, specialised corpus with postgraduate translation students. They were required to translate, into their target languages, specialised texts in economics, science, and technology. He asked the students to examine technical terms using specialised concordances to find useful information (such as definitions, hyponyms, collocation); and make a summary on a terminological sheet for future translation uses.

In addition, Lewis (*ibid*) points out that there are many implications for both language learners and teachers arising from corpus-based analysis of language. Not only the area of syllabus design but also classroom teaching and individual learner strategies have been affected by the increased availability of concordancing technology.

To sum up this section, concordance-based tasks can be introduced to students in general English lessons. The concordance materials can take the form of remedial grammar handouts that focus on general language points. Alternatively, the materials can be used as part of the learners' English syllabus; for example as supplementary teaching materials or as language focus activities in a communicative-based or a task-based approach. In ESP classes, concordance-based tasks can be used more specifically to provide authentic examples of subject- or genre-specific

vocabulary and structures. Concordancing can also be a useful and perhaps innovative tool for retrieving and analysing data in translation and literature classes although in such teaching contexts concordancing seems to be more effective in the analysis of individual words than in the examination of the whole piece of literary work or translation.

2.1.2 Advantages of Using Corpora in Language Learning

Corpus use contributes to language teaching in a number of ways (Aston, 2000). First, the analysis of learner language provides insights into learner needs in different contexts, which then inform learner dictionaries and grammars. Second, research on learner corpora contributes to our understanding of language learning processes (Granger et al., 2002). Third, corpora of language teaching coursebooks enable the examination of the language to which learners are exposed, and, when compared to L1 corpora, facilitate the development of more effective pedagogical materials. Fourth, learner corpora have the potential to contribute to the construction and evaluation of language tests in a multitude of ways (Alderson, 1996).

Another advantage of corpus use in language learning is the context it provides via authentic examples. A corpus-based approach gives authentic examples while providing students opportunities to be explorers. With authentic examples, learners will see the true use of language. In this way, corpus use can also enhance learner independence. Corpora create an environment in which inductive learning takes place. Koo (2006) states that Data-Driven Learning enables students to take the role of linguistic researchers who explore the data and create their own rules and conclusions; this changes the dynamics of teacher-student interactions.

In addition, Chujo, Utiyama, Nishigaki (2004) also emphasize that corpus-driven language learning lets learners acquire new vocabulary and understand patterns and usage in both languages such as the one-to-many relationships between languages and collocation patterns. One of the strengths of concordancing use is the discovery aspect. Students find language patterns by themselves (with guidance from handouts), and this kind of discovery can be both powerful and highly motivating. By looking at examples, learners can understand the context in which words should

be used. However, context can become an issue when learners' proficiency is too low to infer the meaning of words from context. In this case, using a parallel corpus could be a solution (St. John, 2001). In addition to this, incorporating bilingual concordancing lessons with appropriate CALL vocabulary teaching material can also provide a successful learning tool for these EFL students.

Along the same lines, the use of corpora enhances the use of the language lab and suggests a more flexible and learner-centred use for CALL materials (McEnery et al., 1997). This is not to say that the teacher's role has diminished; rather, it is enriched and diversified. The teacher becomes less a provider of input and facts about language and more a facilitator and consultant, or, at the learner-centred end, a co-researcher.

Krishnamurthy (2001) also points out that corpora allow students to see many examples of the word, phrase, or grammatical structure at the same time. They also notice patterns of usage and work out rules for themselves, and therefore remember them better. By using corpora in a second or foreign language class, students will be exposed to authentic examples instead of fixed or artificial examples which are not necessarily used in daily life. Use of fabricated examples may distort learners' views of actual language use (Flowerdew, *ibid*). Most sources of corpora are collected from newspapers, magazines, novels, actual conversations, and the like. Learners are provided with a wealth of examples taken from these sources.

Moreover, Lewis (*ibid*) states that a native speaker obviously knows about his/her language, but even the most experienced teacher can have difficulty explaining this knowledge, which is often felt as an intuitive assumption that a certain word is correct in a given context. Even a conventional dictionary only provides a few instances of a word in use. Corpora allow a non-native speaker to get a feel of how language items are actually used. Thus, a corpus can illustrate the reality of language use, and learners can test their own hypotheses against the corpus. A corpus can provide proof that a particular structure is not in fact used when the learner (or even the teacher) may be convinced otherwise.

2.1.3 Disadvantages of Using Corpora in Language Learning

Despite all the advantages mentioned above, a corpus will not give information about whether something is possible or not, but only about its relative frequency. Native speaker intuition ultimately has to answer doubts about acceptability. Even the largest corpus is still only a sample of a language as a whole, and results are only extrapolations. A corpus provides evidence of language patterns and collocations but does not actually give information about meaning. This still has to be worked out intuitively, which can prove difficult for learners of English, especially at low levels.

Moreover, concordance lines only provide the barest of contexts, and this absence of the wider textual context in which the word or phrase is originally placed may make it difficult for the learner to work out the meaning of a given item. This is especially true of spoken language when there is no information about paralinguistic features such as intonation and gesture (Lewis, *ibid*).

DDL has also some technical disadvantages. Teachers and learners may not be able to afford an access to corpus and concordancing software. Moreover, Sripicharn (*ibid*) emphasizes that the cost of obtaining one is too high for small classroom use. On the other hand, he also adds that the teacher can compile a corpus using texts available on the Internet or texts from the learners' syllabus (a pedagogic corpus), and use a free but effective concordancer such as MicroConcord to retrieve the data. Alternatively, concordance data are also available from web concordancing.

It is also important to be aware of what concordances cannot do. For instance, concordance lines cannot show examples of pro-drop or similar features such as dropped pronouns or other parts in sentences (Wang, 2000). Another limitation is that concordance citations allow meaning to be deduced but do not actually explain a word or expression. For example, as discussed in Hunston (2002), the comparison between concordances for 'come as a surprise' and concordances for 'come as something of a surprise' may confirm one's intuition that the phrase 'something of a' is used as a 'downtoner', in this case meaning 'a small surprise' (i.e. adjectives such as 'total', 'complete', and 'big' are used before 'surprise' but not in the phrase

‘something of a surprise’). However, apart from such intuitive interpretation of concordances, the concordance lines for the phrase ‘something of a surprise’ by themselves do not give real clues as to what the phrase ‘something of a’ means.

Moreover, as a teaching methodology, classroom concordancing is sometimes criticised as not being communicative enough. Concordance-based materials are merely used as a consciousness-raising task, and learners do not engage in genuine communication when puzzling out language problems in a concordance exercise. There are two solutions for this problem. The first solution is that concordance data can be used to analyse language points that learners have already processed for meaning in a communicative task (Willis, 1996). The other solution is the use of concordancing as a communicative task itself, which involves the autonomous browsing of a corpus and sharing of the results as an information gap activity (Bernardini, 1999).

Lastly, in terms of learners, classroom concordancing may be thought to suit only advanced and highly motivated learners. Learners with lower proficiency may not be able to make useful generalizations from concordance lines, and learners who prefer traditional spoon-fed lessons may not bother to do so in the first place. To tackle these problems, concordance materials can be graded in terms of task complexity and difficulty, from controlled exercises to discussion-based tasks, and from teacher-designed concordance-based exercises to autonomous concordancing.

2.1.4 Conclusion

This section has discussed applications of corpora in language learning and teaching. One general point raised in this section was that concordancing could be implemented in various ways in language learning and teaching, and it does not limit itself to teacher designed materials based on a general corpus but includes a wide range of DDL activities based on different types of corpus.

This section has also focused on the advantages of DDL in general and concordancing as a tool to promote learner-initiated learning. Studies in corpus linguistics suggest that concordance lines taken from a corpus can make language features more noticeable for learners.

Criticisms and possible answers concerning the use of concordancing were also discussed. Most criticisms were based on the ‘stereotype’ of classroom concordancing such as the unaffordability of the technology, the limitation of KWIC concordances, and the lack of communicative value of concordance-based exercises. However, it has been suggested in this section that the use of appropriate corpus data and type of activity would partly solve the problems. One question that is yet to be answered is whether the applications of concordancing in language learning and teaching discussed in the section will meet teachers’ and language learners’ expectations in real teaching situations. This is the issue of evaluation of the Data-Driven Learning, which will be addressed in Section 3. The following section will explore theoretical issues that lend support to the use of DDL in the language classroom.

Section 2: Theories that lend support to Data-Driven Learning

2.2.1 The Noticing Hypothesis

The noticing hypothesis claims that second language learners must consciously notice the grammatical form of their input. Schmidt’s (1990) ‘Noticing Hypothesis’ puts forward a strong argument that noticing is ‘the necessary and sufficient’ condition to allow ‘input’ to become ‘intake’. Learners are supposed to acquire the language forms that they have noticed in the language input however long the process takes. In one of Schmidt’s examples, a learner may notice the ‘-s’ in *‘It will take six weeks’*, without understanding the function of the plural morpheme immediately. If the learner notices the ‘-s’ in a number of other nouns over a period of time, s/he may finally understand the use of ‘-s’ (used as an indicator of plurality) through the process of induction and hypothesis testing

Learners’ noticing of linguistic input plays an important role in making unknown target language forms into known and used forms (Schmidt and Frota, 1986). The study by Sharwood-Smith (1993) reveals that calling learners’ attention to certain linguistic forms proves beneficial for language learning. This is because linguistic features of the target language, which are made more salient, will assist learners to comprehend semantic and syntactic aspects of the linguistic input.

Moreover, noticing enables learners to make a comparison between their observed input and typical output based on their existing interlanguage systems.

On the other hand, Schmidt and Frota (ibid) discuss two applications of noticing in language learning. First, learners should notice linguistic features in the input. To facilitate this, the target features should be highlighted, underlined, or coloured to draw learners' attention to such items. The second type of noticing is referred to as 'notice-the gap' in which the learners compare their interlanguage and the model target language. To facilitate this, the language teacher can make use of activities such as the 'reformulation task' in which the learners compare their own writing with the reformulated version prepared by the teacher; and the 'reconstruction task' in which the learners are asked to read a text, rewrite it in their own words, and finally compare their versions with the original one (Thornbury, 1997).

Research into the nature of attention and memory (Robinson, 1995), and research on information processing (Bowers, 1984) have partly supported the Noticing Hypothesis. These studies indicate that information that is attended to is likely to be processed into long term memory. Evidence is also found in the field of second language acquisition. According to Schmidt and Frota (ibid), there is empirical evidence for the role of noticing in learners' production. In their study, Schmidt analysed his own acquisition of Brazilian Portuguese and found that forms that never appeared in the input (reports of what he noticed when native speakers talked to him) did not appear in his L2 output, and those that were frequent in the input were more likely to appear in his speech.

On the other hand, from a theoretical perspective, Truscott (1998) argues against Schmidt's strong claim that noticing is necessary for the acquisition of the target language in general and suggests that noticing seems to be necessary only for the learning of 'metalinguistic knowledge' via a controlled exercise rather than for the acquisition of language competence or 'genuine knowledge' of the language. From a research point of view, some studies have reported evidence against the strong claim made by the hypothesis. Altman (1990) carried out a similar study to that of Schmidt and Frota using Hebrew as the target language. The results showed that only half of the Hebrew verbs that appeared in her oral output could be traced to

specific input. The other half could not be specified in her input which implied that it was possible that some of the words were acquired subconsciously.

In a more recent study, White (1998) tested the effect of typographical input enhancement (italics, bolding, enlargement, and underlining) on the learning of possessive determiners. The results showed that the 'unenhanced group' performed as well as the enhanced group in a delayed post-test. Considering both the evidence in support of and arguments against the hypothesis, it may be argued that noticing has a role in facilitating language learning although it may not be the 'necessary' and 'sufficient' condition for converting input into intake. There are also factors that may enhance the effect of noticing. For example, learners may have to attend to a lot of language data, and such data may have to be organised in such a way that language items are made salient to learners, which in turn facilitates the process of generalisation making.

In this respect, the use of DDL in the language classroom seems to be beneficial for language learners because concordancing can be used to help promote noticing, which in turn plays a facilitative role in converting input into intake. KWIC concordances in particular can increase saliency of the target language items by the layout and repetition of the key words. By placing key words in the middle of the lines and by giving several contexts of the same key words, the target linguistic features are more likely to be noticed by the learners. Concordancing can also help speed up the generalisation process as the learners can notice a number of citations of the same language feature in one activity. As for Schmidt and Frota's two types of noticing, it is safe to conclude that concordance-based materials can promote noticing of linguistic items and can also be used as 'notice-the gap' activities. For example, learners may be asked to compare concordances of a word taken from a learner corpus and concordances of the same word taken from a native speaker corpus (Granger & Tribble, 1998).

2.2.2 Grammatical Consciousness-Raising (CR)

By means of the Noticing Hypothesis, learners may learn particular grammatical items by paying conscious attention to such items. The difficult part is how to get learners to notice, practise, and use language items immediately. An approach to grammar teaching known as Grammatical Consciousness Raising (CR), defined by Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith (1988, p. 107) as ‘*the deliberate attempt to draw the learner’s attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language*’, seeks to tackle this problem by shifting the emphasis from the learning of grammar as ‘product’ to the learning of grammar as ‘process’. This way, the learners are encouraged to attend to and notice language forms-not to learn and produce the forms immediately, but to learn how to interpret and generalise the input as the learning process.

The problem of missed or concocted aspects of language from either teachers or text syllabuses may be overcome by this approach because it focuses on learning grammar through consciousness-raising (awareness of a grammar feature) rather than presentational teaching or practise. In other words, consciousness-raising embodies “*means to attainment of grammatical competence in another language (i.e. necessary but not sufficient, and the learner contributes)*”, whereas ‘grammar teaching’ typically represents an attempt to *instil* that competence directly (i.e. necessary and sufficient, and the learner is a *tabula rasa*)” (Rutherford, 1987, p. 24).

The benefit of consciousness-raising grammar activities is to provide learners the needed exposure to language to make generalisations about the language because “no one could ever learn English, for example, given a vocabulary list and sets of rules for syntax, morphology, phonology, etc., no matter how accurate or how comprehensive.” (Rutherford, 1987, p. 151). Also, as every learner will have different priorities as to the language learning opportunities in a given text, exposing learners to authentic texts enable them to focus on language details and internalize generalizations for themselves. Moreover, consciousness-raising may also enable learners to compensate for discrepancies they encounter in new data by cultivating and extending their prior knowledge of grammatical rules or language usage.

According to Willis (1990:69), the teachers in this method of teaching “no longer simply present language to the learner for the purposes of illustrating language form. Instead they encourage learners to examine their own experience of the language and make generalizations from it.”

Generalizations based on prior knowledge then become an important aspect of learning because learners do not simply assimilate the rules or patterns presented in coursebooks or by course-teachers; they become aware of them through exposure. In addition, rather than learning through patterns, structures, and repetition, consciousness-raising activities “seek to get a learner to understand a particular grammatical feature, how it works, and what it consists of.” (Ellis & Hedge, 1993, p. 5). This method enables learners then to proceed at their own pace in language development, and this reduces the number of learners that become unnoticed or left behind which happens in repetition, drilling, and structured classes.

Although the term CR was used in Rutherford (ibid) and Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith (ibid) with a specific meaning and in a specific context, CR seems to have been used recently as a general term to refer to tasks designed to draw learners’ attention to language features in the input. Different versions of CR have been proposed, and they differ slightly in terms of aspects of grammar to be attended to, types of CR activity, and contexts in which CR activities are used. Four versions of CR will be discussed in this part.

2.2.2.1 Rutherford’s Version of CR

Rutherford’s version of CR is largely based on the notion of interlanguage development or what he calls ‘grammaticization’ (Rutherford, 1987, p. 42). Grammaticization is an internal process in which learners pay attention to differences (i.e. lexical, grammatical, or discoursal differences) between their first language (L1) and the target language (L2), and such awareness in turn enables learners to produce more and more correct L2 features in their output. Rutherford argues that learners should pay attention to different features of the target language such as ‘word order’, ‘negation’, or ‘cohesion’ and attempt to generalise how these features operate differently (or similarly) in L1 and L2.

To facilitate the grammaticization process, Rutherford notes that language data should be made available for learners in ‘somewhat controlled and principled fashion’ (ibid, p. 18) so that learners can test hypotheses and form generalisations. By ‘controlled and principled fashion’, Rutherford means the manipulation of texts or statements to help learners notice various aspects of the target language. CR activities proposed by Rutherford can be classified into the observation group (e.g. spotting errors, identifying similarities and differences, noticing relationship in a discourse) and the production group (e.g. constructing sentences). Learners in the observation group are asked to choose an appropriate word among a group of items that have similarities in terms of meaning but are used in different grammatical context.

Although Rutherford’s CR is thorough and theoretically well-grounded (e.g. the interlanguage theory), this type of CR has some drawbacks as well. First, the means of consciousness-raising seems to be too subtle. Taking the propositional cluster exercise above as an example, few students would consciously think about the relationship between ‘agentive’ or ‘objective’ when writing two sentences. The second problem is that this version of CR seems to be too manipulative and too controlled. The students are expected to be aware of ‘carefully hidden’ grammar in the manipulated texts, and even in productive exercises such as the propositional cluster, the students are still expected to come up with particular answers. The third problem is concerned with exposure to language data. In most of Rutherford’s CR exercises, there seem to be limited examples of the language items under investigation, which may not be sufficient for the generalisation process. Also, texts presented in such exercises are not always authentic texts. Where invented texts are used, there may be a danger of exposing learners to textbook-like or rule-hidden language, which may not represent typical use of the target language.

2.2.2.2 Ellis’s Version of CR

Ellis’ (1993) version of CR, like Rutherford’s, aims at teaching grammar as process rather than teaching grammar as product. To explain this, Ellis distinguishes between the teaching of grammar through ‘practice’ and the teaching of grammar through ‘consciousness raising’. In practice-based activities, the learners are required

to produce sentences to illustrate targeted grammatical features. By contrast, in consciousness-raising activities, the students are not expected to learn and use the target structure immediately.

Ellis' CR tasks usually draw learners' attention to pedagogic grammar and grammatical features that the learners have problems with. CR tasks proposed by Ellis can be classified into the communicative task group and the language analysis group. CR tasks in the former group are 'information gap' or 'problem solving' activities. As mentioned above, the students are not expected to produce the language items immediately. By raising consciousness of the target structure, it is likely that the learners will notice such features in subsequent communicative tasks. In an example given in Fotos (1994), the learners are instructed to obtain 'genuine' information from their peers using given questions, and at the same time they are asked to notice the location of the underlined adverbs

In the language analysis group, CR is used as a language analysis activity. The teacher usually specifies the language items to be analysed, and the data presented to learners are carefully selected or manipulated so that they illustrate specific grammatical rules. The students are then asked to analyse the data in some way such as identifying differences between two grammatical structures or uses, or inducing rules from given examples. Ellis (1998, p. 48) gives an example of a CR task that draws learners' attention to 'at', 'in', and 'on' in adverbial time phrases. The text is carefully constructed so that it contains a few examples of each target item ('at', 'in', 'on'), and all examples can fit 'nicely' into categories (See Figure 2.1).

An Example of a Conscious-Raising Task

1. Underline the time expressions in this passage.

I made an appointment to see Mr. Bean at 3 o'clock on Tuesday the 11th of February to discuss my application for a job. Unfortunately, he was involved in a car accident in the morning and rang to cancel the appointment. I made another appointment to see him at 10 o'clock on Friday the 21st of February. However, when I got to his office, his secretary told me that his wife had died at 2 o'clock in the night and that he was not coming into the office that day. She suggested I reschedule for sometime in March. So I made a third appointment to see Mr. Bean at 1 o'clock on Monday the 10th of March. This time I actually got to see him. However, he informed me that they had now filled all the vacancies and suggested I contact him again in 1998. I assured him that he would not be seeing me in either this or the next century.

2. Write the time phrases into this table.

<i>at</i>	<i>in</i>	<i>on</i>
at 3 o'clock		

3. Make up a rule to explain when to use *at*, *in*, and *on* in time expressions.
-

Figure 2.1 An example of a language analysis task (Ellis, 1998, p. 48)

An advantage of Ellis' version of CR is that it can be integrated into the communicative syllabus as a language focus activity, or it can be used as a communicative task itself. Also, most of the target structure is pedagogic grammar such as 'prepositions' or 'adverbs', which seems to be less subtle and more relevant to the learner's lesson than Rutherford's notion of grammaticization.

The drawback of Ellis' CR is that some of the texts used as language input are manipulated so that they illustrate the language points the teacher expects the learners to 'discover'. Although authentic texts are sometimes used, this type of CR may be more successful in promoting noticing and conscious learning of target items, but less successful in developing learners' skills of grammar discovery, that is, the ability to generalise from less manipulated data outside the classroom.

2.2.2.3 Willis and Willis' CR

According to Willis and Willis (1996), CR is a general term for tasks or activities that invite learners to consciously observe samples of language and to draw their own conclusions about how the language operates. Like Rutherford and Ellis,

Willis and Willis state that CR does not aim at presenting language points to be learned and used immediately, but at increasing awareness of and sensitivity to language.

However, although Rutherford and Ellis select language items using findings of research on interlanguage and pedagogic grammar respectively, Willis and Willis argue that there is a need to draw learners' attention to language features that are largely overlooked in pedagogic grammar such as 'the grammar of class', that is, some nouns can be classified in terms of pattern such as 'Noun + *that* clause' as in 'the idea that...' or 'the impression that...'.

There are three distinctive features in Willis and Willis' notion of CR. First, the data presented to learners are authentic texts, not texts constructed to illustrate the target language structure. Second, according to Willis and Willis, language features brought to learners' attention should come in texts that learners have seen and processed for meaning in previous tasks (a 'pedagogic corpus'), although supplementary examples may be needed from a general corpus of authentic texts. Third, CR tasks proposed by Willis and Willis are usually used within the task-based framework as a language focus activity (Willis, *ibid*), rather than as a grammar exercise on its own. Other features that are worth pointing out to learners through CR tasks include lexical phrases (e.g. 'as a matter of fact') and collocation (e.g. the word 'hard' often occurs with words like 'work' or 'luck').

One advantage of Willis and Willis' CR is that learners work on authentic texts rather than manipulated texts or controlled exercises. Learners attend to language features and patterning such as collocation, which may not be adequately covered in traditional pedagogic grammar. In addition, the majority of such examples are taken from a pedagogic corpus. Therefore, learners are familiar with the target items and the contexts from which they are taken. In addition, learners pay attention to such items after having understood such items and worked on them in previous tasks. This can replicate normal communication outside the classroom where learners use the language for meaning and are also aware of language form.

2.2.2.4 A Summary of C-R

As it can be seen, C-R is difficult to define in concise terms. However, most writers appear to agree on a number of important points which are useful to summarise at this point:

1. C-R is an approach to teaching grammar.
2. Many techniques which focus on the relationship between form and function are available to raise the intended awareness in learners.
3. The use of a wide range of techniques is beneficial to the learner.
4. CR takes an organic view of learning, rejecting the linear view that once something has been taught it has been learned (Nunan, 1991).
5. Learners are encouraged to form hypotheses about the language linking language they have already acquired with the new.
6. Noticing and awareness are fundamental to acquisition.

2.2.2.5 Techniques Used in C-R

The variety of techniques that can be used in C-R is almost without end. Variety, as previously seen, is important if we, as teachers are to provide for all the learning styles of our students. Skehan (1998) provides an introductory list of possibilities: pre-task activities, text exploration activities, exposure to parallel tasks, and exposure to material with some aspects highlighted. Willis (ibid) also supplies a list of C-R activities; these include activities such as Identify/Consolidate, Classify, Hypothesis Build/Check, Cross Language Exploration, Recall and Reference Training. All of these techniques will raise students' consciousness and facilitate acquisition. The use of examples generated from corpora, such as Cobuild, can be very useful in classification and hypothesis building/checking activities.

2.2.2.6 DDL as a CR Activity

DDL tasks have typical characteristics of a CR task. For example, learners attend to the target structure presented in the concordance data. DDL aims at not only encouraging learners to notice how particular language items are used (grammar as product), but also developing inductive skills in general (grammar as process).

DDL uses various techniques of CR such as observing similarities and differences, classifying meaning and use, and forming and testing hypotheses. In terms of context of use, DDL can be a language focus or remedial exercise (Johns, 1991b) or can be used in the communicative teaching context (Bernardini, 1999).

However, DDL is different from general CR activities in three respects. First, learners study data taken from authentic texts, not from the ones constructed for the purpose of language teaching (with the exception of CR activities proposed by Willis and Willis). Moreover, in DDL, data are presented in concordance lines. In this respect, DDL can also be seen as a strong form of CR because in concordance lines learners can notice the different uses of the same word or phrase at one time, and the concordance data are organised in such a way that learners can easily notice patterning or collocation of the target item on its left and right contexts. Second, DDL differs from other CR activities in terms of language focus. In most CR tasks, the target structures under investigation such as active/passive construction (in Rutherford's CR) or adverbs and prepositions (in Ellis' CR) are parts of pedagogic grammar. Although concordance data can be used to raise awareness of pedagogic grammar, the actual strength of DDL materials is that the corpus data in the form of concordance lines enable learners to notice other language features such as language patterning and relationship between grammar and lexis such as the 'grammar of class' discussed in Willis and Willis or collocation and semantic prosody which are largely ignored or not fully covered in pedagogic grammar.

2.2.3 The Constructivist Approach to Learning

In the DDL classroom, learners are encouraged to 'construct' their own grammar, based on observations of concordance data. The construction of knowledge is a well-established concept in educational psychology, and termed as 'the constructivist' approach to learning. This part will first present a brief history of constructivism and then examine the characteristics of the constructivist classroom.

2.2.3.1 History of Constructivism

The psychological roots of Constructivism began with the developmental work of Jean Piaget (1896–1980), who developed the theory of genetic epistemology that analogized the development of the mind to evolutionary biological development and highlighted the adaptive function of cognition. Piaget proposed four stages in human development: the sensorimotor stage, the pre-operational stage, the concrete operational stage, and the formal operational stage. For Piaget, the development of human intellect proceeds through adaptation and organization. Adaptation is a process of assimilation and accommodation, where external events are assimilated into existing understanding, but unfamiliar events which do not fit in existing knowledge are accommodated into the mind, thereby changing its organization.

Countless studies have demonstrated or tried to discredit Piaget's developmental stages. For example, it has become clear as the result of such studies that most adults use formal operations in only a few domains where they have expertise. Nonetheless, Piaget's hypothesis which asserts that learning is a transformative rather than a cumulative process is still central. Children do not learn a bit at a time about some issue until it finally comes together as understanding. Instead, they make sense of whatever they know from the very beginning. This understanding is progressively reformed as new knowledge is acquired, especially new knowledge that is incompatible with their previous understanding. This transformative view of learning has been greatly extended by neo-Piagetian research.

The Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky's (1896–1934) works' relevance to constructivism derives from his theories about language, thought, and their mediation by society. Vygotsky held the position that the child gradually internalizes external and social activities, including communication, more competently than cognitive activities such as sorting, evaluating, and making judgements. Although social speech is internalized in adulthood - it becomes thinking, Vygotsky contended that it still preserves its intrinsic collaborative character.

In his experiments, Vygotsky studied the difference between the child's reasoning when working independently versus reasoning when working with a more competent person. He devised the notion of the *zone of proximal development* to

reflect on the potential of this difference. Vygotsky's findings suggested that learning environments should involve guided interactions that permit children to reflect on inconsistency and to change their conceptions through communication. Vygotsky's work has since been extended in the *situated approach* to learning.

Vygotsky and Piaget's theories are often contrasted with each other in terms of individual cognitive constructivism (Piaget) and social constructivism (Vygotsky). Some researchers have tried to develop a synthesis of these approaches, though some, such as Michael Cole and James Wertsch (1996), argue that the individual versus social orientation debate is over-emphasized. To them, the real difference rests on the contrast between the roles of cultural artifacts. For Vygotsky, such artifacts play a central role, but they do not appear in Piaget's theories.

For the American philosopher and educator John Dewey (1859–1952), education depended on action–knowledge and ideas emerge only from a situation in which learners have to draw out experiences that have meaning and importance to them. Dewey argued that human thought is practical problem-solving, which proceeds by testing rival hypotheses. These problem-solving experiences occur in a social context, such as a classroom, where students join together in manipulating materials and observing outcomes. Dewey invented the method of progressive education in North America. The Fostering Communities of Learners (FCL) program, devised by Ann Lesley Brown and Joseph Campione (1990), is a current attempt to put Dewey's progressive education theory to work in the classroom.

The FCL is a system of interacting activities which is designed to promote metacognitive activities including reflection and discourse. It is composed of three parts: 1) Research activities - reading, writing, listening, or viewing activities to select critical material on the chosen topic; 2) Sharing information (Jigsaw and Cross-talk) 3) Consequential task (bring the research cycle to an end, force students to share knowledge across groups and act as occasions for exhibition and reflection) (Brown & Campione, *ibid*).

In summary, Piaget contributed the idea of transformation in learning and development; Vygotsky's contribution was the idea that learning and development were integrally tied to communicative interactions with others; and Dewey

contributed the idea that schools had to bring real world problems into the school curriculum.

2.2.3.2 General Characteristics of Constructivist Classroom

A child teaches himself/herself by gathering information and experiencing the world around her. Such learning exemplifies constructivism which emphasizes the importance of the knowledge, beliefs, and skills an individual brings to the experience of learning. It recognizes the construction of new understanding as a combination of prior learning, new information, and readiness to learn. Individuals make choices about what new ideas to accept and how to fit them into their established views of the world.

In a constructivist classroom the teacher sets up problems and monitors student exploration, guides the direction of student inquiry, and promotes new patterns of thinking. Classes can take unexpected turns as students are given the autonomy to direct their own explorations. Constructivist teachers refer to raw data, primary sources, and interactive materials to provide experiences for their students rather than relying solely on another's set of data. For teachers who have used only one printed text, a shift to other sources may take some adjustment. For example, rather than reading about the census, students examine and interpret census data. Or better yet, they plan a mini-census, gather their own data, and interpret the results.

In a constructivist classroom student autonomy and initiative are accepted and encouraged. By respecting students' ideas and encouraging independent thinking, teachers help students attain their own intellectual identity. Students who frame questions and issues and then go about analyzing and answering them take responsibility for their own learning and become problem solvers.

Moreover, students engage in a dialogue with the teacher and with each other. Social discourse helps students change or reinforce their ideas. If they have the chance to present what they think and hear others' ideas, students can build a personal knowledge base that they understand. A meaningful classroom dialogue occurs only when they feel comfortable enough to express their ideas (Brooks & Brooks, 1993).

2.2.4 Lack of Research and Awareness of Corpus Linguistics

According to the results of the survey done by Mukherjee (2002) among English language teachers in German secondary schools, the practice of English language teaching in Germany is still largely unaffected by descriptive corpus-linguistic research into authentic language use and applied corpus-linguistic suggestions of using corpus resources and corpus-based methods for teaching purposes.

The results of the survey show quite clearly that the use of corpora, which may have become mainstream in English linguistics, is so far not at all central to the practice of English language teaching in Germany. With regard to corpus linguistics and English Language Teaching in Germany, only a few English language teachers actually know of the existence of corpus linguistics in the first place. Paradoxically, most of the teachers who took part in the survey admitted using corpus-based resources, especially corpus-based dictionaries. When they were asked which monolingual English dictionary they tended to use for reference purposes, 80% listed one of the following corpus-based dictionaries: *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary*, *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* and *Cambridge International Dictionary of English*. This finding indicates that, on the one hand, most teachers do use corpus-based dictionaries. On the other hand, they are not aware of the corpus-linguistic background of these products, that is the fact that these dictionaries are based on the quantitative analysis of large and representative samples of naturally occurring language.

The same holds true for corpus-based learner grammars such as Ungerer's (1999) *Englische Grammatik Heute*. This grammar is increasingly used by both teachers and learners alike in Germany, but the author's comments in the preface on the role of the British National Corpus as a major database of this grammar usually go unnoticed. Thus, we encounter a second gap between corpus-linguistic research and teaching practice. Without any doubt, corpus-based insights into actual language use have already exerted an enormous influence on dictionaries, grammars and modern textbooks that are used by teachers and learners. However, most teachers do

not know that many differences between these modern materials and older ones are caused by corpus data and their implications for language teaching (Mukherjee, *ibid*).

Section 3: Research Evaluating Concordancing

2.3.1 Introduction

Apart from the theoretical and practical aspects of concordancing, the evaluation of concordancing is also worth investigating. In this section, some research that aims to evaluate concordance-based tasks will be examined. Here empirical evaluation of concordancing on the basis of both qualitative and quantitative research will be mentioned. In this chapter general terms such as ‘concordance-based tasks’ or ‘concordancing’ rather than ‘DDL’ or ‘classroom concordancing’ are used to discuss the evaluation of various types of concordance activities since some concordance-based activities may not be part of the DDL methodology proposed in Johns (1988, 1991a,b).

2.3.2 Qualitative Evaluation of Concordancing

2.3.2.1 Blappert’s Study

In his study, Blappert (1998) made an evaluation of a teacher-produced DDL lesson. The subjects were low-level learners of English in a Korean university. In the qualitative part of the study, Blappert aimed to find out whether the DDL process of ‘Identify-Classify-Generalise’ (Johns, 1991a) would be successfully followed in the low level classroom.

According to Blappert, the three stages were successfully implemented. In the ‘Identify’ stage, the class identified the differences between ‘going to’, ‘will’, ‘plan to’, and ‘intend to’ by generating a question about the language points to be examined. In the ‘Classify’ stage, the teacher carefully selected citations for these words from the Bank of English corpus and designed a concordance-based teaching unit based on these concordances.

In the 'Generalise' stage, the students were asked to match the citations with the descriptions of usage that had already been prepared by the teacher. Blappert argues that despite providing pre-generalised classification, the learners' own generalisation did take place because the given descriptions were deliberately made vague and ambiguous in some aspects. As a result, some learners questioned the given generalization and classification. This authentic negotiation went on for the whole class (forty-five minutes) and the students finally agreed upon the matching after a class discussion and a closer examination of the concordances.

2.3.2.2 Gan, Low and Yaakub's study

Gan et al. (1996) carried out an experiment with 48 Malaysian undergraduate students to measure the effect of concordance-based materials in the teaching of vocabulary skills. The study was conducted in two phases. In the first phase, the experimental group worked on concordance-based tasks and the control group was taught with traditional materials. In the second phase, the experimental group became the control group and vice versa.

To elicit qualitative data, questionnaires were used. They were distributed to all students after the end of Phase Two when both groups had experienced both types of materials. The results revealed that 60.4% of all subjects preferred concordance tasks, saying that the tasks gave them freedom to choose the words studied and their number, and that working with a computer was different from other classroom exercises. Those who chose the traditional method said that they preferred to interact with peers and the teacher than with the computer, and that in the traditional class the teacher was available to answer their questions immediately. In response to another item in the questionnaire, 81.3% of the subjects stated that the most effective approach to improve vocabulary skills was a combination of both methods.

2.3.2.3 Bernardini's Study

Bernardini (1999) reports an autonomous, large-corpus concordancing project with six third-year Italian students of translation. The students took part in eight weekly seminars in which they used the British National Corpus (BNC) and its Standart Generalized Markup Language (SGML) Aware Retrieval Application to explore language points initiated by themselves or by the group without the teacher's involvement. After a week, the participants shared their learning experiences such as strategies and difficulties. At the end of the project, they were asked to report their findings to the rest of the group.

The class observations and students' meeting showed that the learners successfully adopted cognitive and linguistic strategies to interpret and generalise their findings, particularly in observing collocation and semantic prosodies of a search word. It was also reported that in most cases the learner's conclusions were correct and at times more subtle than those found in reference materials. Some problems were also observed such as frustration caused by getting too many or too few citations or the learners' failure to initiate and reflect on semantic relationships between the search word and others or failure to make observations beyond the sentence-level.

2.3.2.4 Turnbull and Burston's Study

Turnbull and Burston (1998) conducted a longitudinal case study of the concordancing strategies used for the investigation of self-selected examples of language use from the learners' own corrected assignments. The participants were two non-native English speaking postgraduate students at Monash University, Australia. The first student was a Japanese doing her MA in Applied Japanese Linguistics. The other student was an Indonesian undertaking a Master's degree in Public Policy and Management.

Over the period of 8 months, the students submitted four course-related essays for correction of their English. The researchers corrected all lexical, syntactic and stylistic errors in a short section of each essay. The short corrected texts were then returned to the writers. Then, the students performed three independent

investigations of their second, third, and fourth texts respectively. In each investigation, they first examined closely the corrections made, and then were asked to select some problematic language items and investigate them using a concordancer. That is, in the first stage the students examined the corrections within a traditional linear context, whereas in the second stage they examined KWIC concordances for the items selected. The students worked on separate corpora, each of which was made up of the students' own three returned texts (about 1,000 words accumulating to 2,000 words in the final investigation).

A questionnaire-interview and an unstructured conference session were conducted to collect data from individual students for each of the three investigations. The data included the observations the students made, questions triggered from the observations, and strategies the students used when examining their own writing using the concordancer. After the final interview, the students were also asked to submit a written report summing up their experience and evaluating the approach.

The analysis of the data suggested that learners were likely to gain a high amount of success with concordancing strategies. In this case study, the first student conducted a number of searches and made a lot of useful observations. She seemed to be able to use the inductive skill to identify, classify, and generalise various language points despite the limited size of the corpus, and also gave positive feedback on this type of concordance research. By contrast, the other student did very few searches, did not notice a lot from the concordances, and did not find this approach useful. One of the conclusions from the case study was that individual differences in the cognitive style and motivation seemed to play an important role in the success or failure of independent concordancing. They also found that learner cognitive style and previous learning experiences strongly influence the learner's readiness to adopt the inductive learning strategies required in concordance work.

2.3.2.5 Maneekhao's Study

Maneekhao (2001) focused her research on the issue of how concordances could be integrated into a task-based English course and be used to promote

autonomous learning. The course aimed to enhance language awareness and self-correction skills of Thai university students who participated in the study. The teacher selected misused words from the students' assignments. Then the learners were asked to build up their own concordances using an Internet browser and a word-processing program. Then the students were asked to induce at least three rules from each set of concordance lines, and make use of those rules and the Collins COBUILD Dictionary to make self-correction of their own errors.

Maneekhao also reported results of the task-based, autonomous concordancing method. She found that most of the students were able to induce simple rules and were successful in undertaking self-correction. She also noticed that most students showed the search results to the teacher to ask for approval and often double-checked with peers before making corrections.

Some limitations of the approach were also identified. It was found that a concordance was not very helpful if the learners lacked basic knowledge about types of words or if there were many mistakes in their original work. Some students even made new mistakes after inducing wrong rules. Teachers' lack of concordancing experience was another concern. Some inexperienced teachers chose unsuitable words or form of a word for learners to make concordances, thus making it difficult for the students to induce rules. A final constraint was that a concordance was not always helpful in every type of mistake. For example, collocational mistakes could more easily be corrected using concordance data than such errors as spelling or word choice.

2.3.2.6 Kennedy and Miceli's Study

Kennedy and Miceli (2001) report an evaluation of the effectiveness of learners' independent investigations of the Contemporary Written Italian Corpus (CWIC) at Griffith University in Australia. The evaluation focused on the learners' strategies for extracting information from the corpus in the absence of a teacher, and particularly aimed to identify the problems and difficulties that arose during the corpus investigation process.

Eight undergraduate students in the Italian programme participated in this evaluation. They were among 17 students who, during the semester, took part in an apprenticeship programme designed to train the learners of Italian to use the CWIC to revise their writing assignments. At the end of the semester, the eight students were paired and asked to conduct independent investigations of two texts using CWIC. The pair-work sessions were video-recorded and followed immediately by an interview aimed at extracting a retrospective account of the students' work.

In general, the students were capable of carrying out investigations that were partly successful. Owing to the lack of corpus investigation skills, the students faced some problems. The problems were experienced in four areas.

(a) Formulating the questions: Some of the questions the learners initiated were too general. The students seemed to ask too many 'yes/no' questions instead of 'open-ended' questions, and asked too many questions on grammar and too few on lexis.

(b) Devising a search strategy for a given question: Sometimes the students generated too many citations, some of which were not relevant to the questions.

(c) Observing the data and selecting examples: The students sometimes chose the wrong meaning of examples they needed to answer their questions. They were also attracted only to words or patterns that were frequent in the search although the words they were expecting appeared in a less frequent case. Another problem was that apart from what they were looking for, they did not easily notice other useful features in other parts of the citations.

(d) Drawing conclusions: The students tended to lack confidence in making a generalisation if they found only a few examples as evidence, although these were 'quality' examples. When they found no example, some of them made invalid conclusions such as 'the phenomenon does not exist' rather than 'There is no evidence for it in this corpus'.

2.3.3 Empirical Evaluation Based on Quantitative Data

2.3.3.1 Gan, Low and Yaakub's Study

Gan et al. (1996) compared the effectiveness of computer-based concordancing exercises and the conventional instructional approach in the teaching of vocabulary skills in a TESL pre-service teacher education program. The subjects were 48 Malaysian students enrolled in a bachelor of education course in TESL. The participants were randomly assigned to either the experimental or control groups. In a period of five weeks, the experimental group took part in five 2-hour-session computer-based concordancing exercises whereas the control group was presented with traditional vocabulary materials.

The students in the experimental group worked in pairs before the computer screen. They followed instructional objectives, which mainly focused on words in context such as prepositions in context or adjective-noun collocations. The instructions included 'Produce examples of prepositions that precede/follow specified words', or 'Specify 10 adjectives and for each locate (from the corpus) as many examples of noun collocates as possible'. Generally the students decided which words were to be examined, and used the 'Longman Mini Concordancer' to retrieve concordances from a corpus of authentic texts and passages from the learners' course books.

The control group followed the same instructional objectives. The focus included studying affixes, the meaning of words in context, strategies for handling reading comprehension exercises, passive-active transformation of sentences, use of prepositions, parts of speech, and word collocations. The difference was extensive multiple contexts. Concordances were not provided, and the instructions took the form of lectures, tutorials, and exercises, instead of exploring the corpus.

A pre-test and a post-test, each consisting of 22 items, were administered before and after the experiment. Although the actual words tested in the pre-test were different from those in the post-test, both tests contained the same instructions that were used to measure the subjects' understanding and use of words in context such as finding a missing word in a set of KWIC citations, identifying parts of speech of a

word in different contexts, or guessing meaning of difficult words from context. As the experimental group mainly performed independent searches whereas the control group was doing controlled exercises, it was assumed that the tests contained vocabulary that neither group had studied in their classes before.

In the pre-test, the difference between the two groups was not statistically significant. The post-test results showed a significant difference in favour of the experimental group at the 0.05 level (Experiment = 13.04, Control = 9.36). It was clear that the subjects who learned through the computer concordancing approach performed better than those who went through conventional classroom instruction.

Unlike Stevens, Gan et al. tested the learning effect of classroom concordancing using true experimental research design in which the subjects were randomly allocated to either control or experimental group. The pre-test was administered and the results confirmed equal proficiency between the two groups. Both groups were introduced to the notion of words in context. The only difference was the teaching method; the experimental group performed concordance searches following a task guideline while the control group was taught explicitly. Therefore, a significantly better performance in the post-test by the experimental group students was most likely to be the effect of the use of concordances as a teaching method. For example, the experimental group students may have come across many different prepositions in context or typical collocates of nouns and adjectives in the concordances they retrieved while the control group students were exposed to fewer examples of such features in the traditional lectures and drills.

Some limitations of the study were also found. The first problem was that the distinction between the concordance and traditional methods appeared to be less clear in classroom practice. It was obvious that the control group students were taught more explicitly and were not provided with concordances. However, it is unlikely that the notion of words in context can be taught without giving learners any context at all. So, it is assumed that even the control group students may have been given a certain amount of language data to learn the collocational patterns and prepositions.

Another problem concerned the learning and testing of vocabulary skills. The study did not compare the effectiveness of concordance-based and traditional

approaches in the learning of particular words or phrases since the two groups did not learn exactly the same vocabulary despite following the same instructional objectives: the concordance students had freedom to specify their own searches while the nonconcordance students learned specific vocabulary from lectures and drills. Instead the study aimed to find out whether the vocabulary skills, particularly awareness of words in contexts, would be more effectively developed through the concordance-based tasks.

Transfer effect was also measured as the pre- and post-tests tested different sets of vocabulary. Such skills or awareness are difficult to teach and measure, and the transfer effect is not likely to be found in such a short period of time (10 hours of exposure in total). This may be the reason why the experimental group students still had rather low post-test scores (13.04 out of 22) although they significantly outperformed the control group.

2.3.3.2 Blappert's Study

As part of his study, Blappert (1998) set up a small scale experiment to test the learning effect of concordance based materials focusing on the differences between 'going to', 'will', 'plan to', and 'intend to'. The subjects were eight Korean students of low proficiency. At the beginning of the lesson, a pre-test was administered, in which the students filled in the blanks in a dialogue with one of these four words.

During the lesson, the students were asked to match the citations for the four words with the rules or descriptions provided by the teacher. Then the class discussed the descriptions and raised more points that they observed from the data. A similar dialogue exercise was given as post-test one hour after the instruction had been completed. The average score of the eight students for the pretest was 60% while the post-test average was 87.5%. Blappert concluded that while the results were preliminary, they illustrated a marked increase in accuracy on the gap-filler dialogue tests.

According to the study, the DDL process of identifying, classifying, and generalising seems to have had a positive effect on the ability to deduce similarities

and differences between words with similar meanings, in this case, the four words showing intention. The results of this study also shed doubt on the argument that classroom concordancing works well with highly motivated and advanced learners only, and that it may well encourage DDL practitioners to introduce more concordance data to low proficiency students. However, the small scale of the experiment and a rather low number of subjects might be problematic regarding the generalisability of the results. The marked increase in the post-test score may have been due to the learning effect being tested only an hour after treatment. Also, since no control group was employed, it is difficult to argue that such increase stemmed only or mainly from the use of concordances. Nevertheless, the positive result was encouraging, and clearly more attempts should be made to experiment DDL with learners of low language level.

2.3.3.3 Stevens' Study

Stevens (1991) carried out an experiment to test the hypothesis that concordance-based vocabulary exercises could be more easily solved than traditional gap-filler exercises, particularly when words tested in the exercises were familiar to the learners. The subjects were two groups of first year male and female Arab university students enrolled in the English-for-Physics course at Sultan Qaboos University in Oman.

The experiment consisted of two sessions. The first session was conducted in a single scheduled class at an early stage of the English course. In the first half of the lesson, half of the subjects in both Group 1 and Group 2 were provided with gap-filler exercises and the other half with concordance-based exercises. The vocabulary items tested in both types of exercises were identical. In the second half of the lesson, the students who had done the traditional exercises were asked to do the concordance ones and vice versa. The vocabulary tested in the second half was also identical in both exercise types but belonged to a different set from that used in the first half. To sum up, two comparisons on learners' performance were made: (a) gap-filler based on teaching unit 4 against concordance exercise based on teaching unit 5; and (b)

concordance exercise based on teaching unit 4 against gap-filler based on teaching unit 5.

The second session took place in a later single scheduled class. All the treatment and process were repeated in both groups, with different sets of vocabulary from different teaching units. At this stage, two more comparisons of learners' performance were made: (c) gap-filler based on teaching unit 6a against concordance exercise based on teaching unit 6b; and (d) concordance exercise based on teaching unit 6a against gapfiller based on teaching unit 6b. The pair-matched *t*-test was used to compare scores the students received from the concordance exercises with scores the same students received from the traditional tasks.

In Session 1, the results were not conclusive: students in Group 1 performed better on the concordance-based type in both (a) and (b), but the difference was not statistically significant. Group 2 yielded a mixed result with students doing significantly better on the traditional exercise in (a) and vice versa in (b). In Session 2, both groups did significantly better on concordance-based exercises in (c) and (d). In general, the results showed that concordance-based vocabulary exercises are more easily solved than the gap-filler type.

Stevens' study was probably the first quantitative evaluation of classroom concordancing. The experiment was carefully designed and statistical tools were used to analyse the results. The findings suggested that, despite being an unfamiliar type of vocabulary test, concordance-based tests were less confusing than they first appeared to be, and the multiple contexts provided to the learners were effective in helping them recall the vocabulary they had already learned. The study thus provided support for the use of concordance-based vocabulary materials as an alternative to traditional gap-filler exercises.

However, some limitations of the study should be mentioned. First, the study offered little insight into the effect of concordances on vocabulary acquisition. As the students already knew the words tested, the test results in favour of the concordance exercise only suggested that the students recalled a learned word more easily when provided with multiple-context concordances of the word than when given only a single example of the same word. The study did not indicate whether the

concordance-based exercise, which was shown to be easier, was more effective in helping students learn new vocabulary.

Another problem concerned the way the two mean scores were compared. Using the 'pair-match' *t*-test, Stevens compared two means: the mean scores of a concordance task performed by half a class and the mean scores of a gap-filler task performed by 'the same' students. In other words, in a pairing, the same student worked on one concordance exercise and one gap-filler exercise, each testing different items (simply because one student was not supposed to work on the same set of vocabulary again when the task format was reversed). Therefore, the positive results meant that individual students performed better in concordance tasks testing one set of vocabulary, and performed worse in gap-filler exercises testing another set of vocabulary. So, it was possible that easier vocabulary in the concordance exercise and/or more difficult vocabulary in the gap-filler task led to better performance in the concordance format and vice versa.

If the independent *t*-test had been used, half of the class could have been treated as experimental students working on the concordance exercise, and the other half as control students working on the traditional exercise, each testing the same vocabulary. Comparing the two means this way, according to a crude calculation, still produced the results in favour of the concordance exercise. Therefore, the researcher strongly claimed that concordance-based materials were more easily solved than the other type of materials when testing the same set of vocabulary items.

2.3.3.4 Cobb's Study

Cobb (1997) carried on from Stevens' (1991) study. His experiment attempted to provide empirical evidence that concordancing has an advantage over traditional methods in helping students learn new vocabulary. The subjects were 100 first-year Arabic speaking university students taking an intensive English course at Sultan Qaboos University in Oman. The participants were asked to do two versions of CALL-type activities (called PET200) on the computer screen. The two versions, concordance and non-concordance, were run in the computer lab on alternate weeks for 12 weeks. Both versions of materials which were designed to introduce 240 new

words (based on the Cambridge Preliminary English Test or PET) to the learners involved five types of lexical activities: (a) choosing a definition; (b) finding words; (c) spelling words; (d) choosing words for new texts; and (e) suggesting words for new texts.

The only difference was that multiple-context concordance lines were used as clues in the concordance version while example sentences and definitions were used in place of concordances in the other version. The measurement was made in two ways. First, the subjects were pre-tested and post-tested with vocabulary level tests which were based on approximately 2000 words that were new to the students. Second, they were quizzed weekly on the words learned through the PET200 programs. The quizzes consisted of two tasks, a spelling task as a control measure, and a fill-in-the-gap in a novel text as an experimental task.

Among 100 students using both versions of PET200, 11 students were randomly chosen for the analysis. In the vocabulary level tests, the post-test score of the 11 subjects increased by 21.5% (pre-test = 33.5% [SD 6.5]; post-test = 55% [SD 10.5]). On the spelling quizzes, mean scores in the six weeks with concordancing and in the alternate weeks were not significantly different. However, on the novel-text task, the mean score in the six weeks without concordancing was 63.9% (SD 14.8), in the six weeks with concordancing, it was 75.9% (SD 14.8), about 12% higher ($t = 1.8$, $p < 0.05$). Cobb concluded that a small but consistent gain on the novel-text task appeared to have stemmed from the students' efforts to use concordances to work out the meanings of new words in context.

As Cobb notes, Stevens' (1991) finding that concordance-based vocabulary tasks were more easily solved than single-context gap-filler was replicated 'on-line', 'over time', and 'using new words'. In other words, Cobb's finding suggests that learners also performed better in the concordance task in the form of a CALL activity when tested repeatedly over a period of time and when new vocabulary was tested. This seems to be a more meaningful result for research on vocabulary acquisition since the study not only compared two types of exercises in terms of levels of difficulty, but also the effectiveness of the two exercises in helping learners acquire new words.

Another strength of Cobb's research design was that PET200 was very focused and was designed with a clear objective, that is, to help learners increase a certain amount of vocabulary so that they could pass an exam. The instruments in the form of hands-on CALL activities also appeared to provide extra motivation for the students.

It is also worth considering some of the study's limitations. Apart from a general limitation of experimental studies such as the low number of subjects (in this case, 11 students), another concern was that there seemed to be less control over the subjects' exposure to the two versions of material. Although the computer tracing system suggested that the subjects spent the same time on both versions of PET, there was no guarantee that the students paid equal attention.

Another limitation that Cobb himself pointed out was that the gain from the concordance version was not expected to be significant because the students could learn a great deal from either version of the program. One reason was that there were some overlapping features between the two versions; for example, some texts used in the non-concordance version were the same texts the concordance lines were taken from. So, even when working with the control version, the subjects were also presented with contextualised words in the single-sentence format.

Moreover, although the control version did not present the learners with concordances, a wide range of task types such as choosing definitions and spelling words, even with only single-context examples provided, may be effective in helping the students learn new words. Also, since the learners worked with both versions in alternate weeks, it was likely that both versions had a facilitating effect on the students' learning new words.

Considering all these factors, it may be too strong to suggest that concordancing was the only factor that contributed to higher scores on a novel-text task. Interpretation of the results can be also questioned. The weekly quiz results suggested that concordancing led to higher scores on the novel-text task. However, there was doubt as to whether such higher scores were the effect of concordancing alone. Although the students performed much better in the vocabulary level post-test, which saw an increase by 21.5% (or about 430 new words learned), the marked

improvement was likely to be a result of the students working on both versions of PET rather than on the concordance version alone.

Moreover, the students were presented with different vocabulary each week, so it cannot be claimed that the concordance version was more effective than the non-concordance version for the learning of the same vocabulary. Therefore, it might be misleading to conclude from the study that concordancing had an effect on acquisition of new vocabulary. To interpret Cobb's finding more carefully, it seems that the 'multiple-context' format of concordancing partly facilitated the learning of new vocabulary, and it was most likely to be effective in helping the learners solve contextualised vocabulary exercises.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The aim of the study was to evaluate the impact of DDL on the achievement of EFL high school students. The evaluation was based on two aspects: (a) the learning effects of DDL, and (b) the learners' attitudes towards DDL materials. Pre- and post-tests were administered to both groups to test the learning effect of DDL. Agreement scale questionnaire was used to elicit learners' attitudes towards DDL materials. The two aspects of evaluation will be reported and discussed in Chapters 5 and 6.

This chapter will describe the research methodology and data collection instruments used in the main study that took place in Türkiye from March 2007 to May 2007. It will provide information about the research design, participants, techniques to obtain the data, the data collection procedures, and the data analysis strategies.

3.2 Research Design

The learning effect of DDL was measured using experimental research design with pre- and post tests. It should be noted that 'true experimental design' was not employed in this study. Hatch and Farhady (1982) outline three basic characteristics of 'true experimental designs':

- (1) A control group (or groups) is present.
- (2) The subjects are randomly selected and assigned to the groups.
- (3) A pre-test is administered to capture the initial differences between the groups.

In the Turkish educational system, lycee students are placed into a department by the school management after their first year according to their general grade point average and preferences. Therefore, as the subjects in this study were pre-allocated by the school management into two groups without undergoing a random selection process, the study was not a true experiment as it failed to meet the second criterion.

Instead, it corresponded to what Hatch and Farhady (ibid.) term ‘pre-experimental design’ or more specifically ‘intact group design’, which replicates the true experimental method except that the subjects are not randomly distributed into groups.

3.3 Participants

The study was conducted using two groups of high school Grade 2 students at a state school in Türkiye. Students in one group formed the experimental group while the students in the other group were treated as the control group. The demographic information on both groups showed that the groups seemed to be comparable in many respects, as seen below:

3.3.1 General Information

The experimental group consisted of 22 students, 15 female and 7 male. The control group included 21 students, 14 female and 7 male. The participants in both groups were second-year students in a four-year high school system, including a one-year prep class. The average age of participants is 16,6.

3.3.2 Language Proficiency and Exposure to English

All subjects had studied English as a foreign language. Both groups were at an intermediate level of English proficiency because according to the results of the demographic information part, the majority of subjects in both groups had been studying English four hours a week for 6 to 8 years. In general, their reading and writing skills were more developed than their listening and speaking skills.

3.3.3 Attitudes towards English in General

A part of the test was designed to elicit information about the participant’s motivation towards English learning. In particular, the subjects were asked to identify the reasons why they were learning English. The results showed that students in both groups had similar reasons for taking up English courses. Among the most-chosen reasons were ‘English is widely spoken in the world today’, ‘English

helps me get a good and well-paid job'; and 'English helps me to learn about other cultures'.

The least chosen reasons were also similar between the groups, which were, 'I like the language', and 'English is fashionable'. This suggested that students in both groups seemed to have the same level of motivation and have similar aims of learning the English.

3.4 Data Collection Instruments

Two data collection instruments were used in this study: a test and an agreement scale questionnaire.

3.4.1 The test

In order to answer the research questions that formed the gist of this research, Sripicharn's (2002) pre- and post-test were used. The pre- and the post-test are hereafter referred to as the test (see Appendix A) since they have the same content. Regarding validity and reliability, Sripicharn carried out a pilot study to try out DDL materials, to evaluate them, and to try out the pre- and post-test to be used in the main study. The participants were second-year undergraduate students. The results of this pilot study are presented Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 The Total Scores of Sripicharn's Pilot Study

	Pre-test scores Part 1 and Part 2 (50 points)	Post-test scores Part 1 and Part 2 (50 points)
Experimental Group (15 students)	Mean 34.93 SD 5.75	Mean 35.67 (+0.74) SD 6.20
Control Group (18 students)	Mean 32.33 SD 5.67	Mean 31.94 (-0.39) SD 6.02

This table showed that before the experiment took place, the students in the experimental group performed better than their counterparts in the control group. After the pilot study, the experimental group still outperformed the control group, and the difference in the post-test between the two groups was slightly higher than

that in the pre-test. However, the *t*-test at the 0.05 level in the preliminary test results (Table 3.2) did not indicate a significant difference.

Table 3.2: Independent samples *t*-test for post-test scores (before the re-scoring)

		Mean	S.D.	Independent <i>t</i> -test (2-tailed) $df = 38$; $p < 0.05$
Part 1 and Part 2 (50 points)	Control group (N=18)	35.72	6.53	$t = 0.364$ ($t\alpha = 2.021$) $p = 0.718$
	Experimental group (N=22)	36.36	4.58	
Part 1 (25 points)	Control group (N=18)	18.67	3.12	$t = 0.419$ ($t\alpha = 2.021$) $p = 0.677$
	Experimental group (N=22)	19.05	2.59	
Part 2 (25 points)	Control group (N=18)	17.06	4.09	$t = 0.237$ ($t\alpha = 2.021$) $p = 0.814$
	Experimental group (N=22)	17.32	2.92	

The preliminary test results suggested that the DDL approach did not have any marked positive effect on either the ability to learn vocabulary or language points highlighted in the materials or the transferability of DDL skills on novel texts. After this negative consequence in the preliminary test results, Sripicharn decided to conduct item analysis on the test items.

The item analysis attempts to calculate two values of an individual test item: Level of Difficulty and Power of Discrimination. To conduct the item analysis in this study, the pre-test papers of both control and experimental groups were put together, which made a total of 40 papers. The papers were then put into order according to the scores. Thirty percent of high-scoring papers (13 papers) and thirty percent of low-scoring papers (13 papers) were selected. The Level of Difficulty (*p*) of the test items

(50 items) was then calculated using Johnson's (1967) formula. The Power of Discrimination (r) was calculated using Findley's (1967) formula.

Both formulas are presented in Figure 3.1 below.

Figure 3.1 Formulas for the Level of Difficulty (p) and the Power of Discrimination (r)

$$p = (R_U + R_L) / 2f \quad r = (R_U - R_L) / f$$

[R_U or R_L = numbers of correct answers from selected high-scoring and low-scoring papers;
 f = total number of each selected group of papers]

After the item analysis, Sripicharn eliminated 14 items from the test and the statistical calculations of the results were made on the 36 items instead of the 50 original test items. However, the main test results after the re-scoring did not show any statistical difference from the initial results.

This test, together with its 50 original items, generated the scope of this study because it was the most suitable test answering the research questions of this thesis. The researcher used this test because it involved all types of test items (see table 3.2) that would be useful to measure the effects of DDL on language learning. By comparison of the results between the two tests, conclusions could be drawn about whether there was indeed any identifiable effect of DDL units on the language achievement of Turkish EFL learners.

The test has two main parts. The reasons for this test having two parts are that Part 1 of the test measures the learning of vocabulary and language points presented in the materials and Part 2 tests the transfer effect of DDL, particularly on the students' ability to apply context observation skills to DDL tasks with novel citations or to other similar language tasks. The results obtained from Part 1 answer the first research question of this study. The test types used in Part 2 (such as cloze test) are the most effective in measuring the transfer effect of DDL and the results of this part aim at answering the second research question of the study. All citations used to construct the test items were retrieved from the Bank of English corpus.

3.4.1.1 Demographic Information Part

This part of the test seeks to elicit general information about the participants in both groups, as well as information about English learning. Data collected from this part of the test was mainly used to show that the control and the experimental groups were comparable in many respects. Information about experience and attitudes towards language learning was also taken into consideration in the interpretation of the test results.

This part consists of five items. The first four items ask about personal information such as names, age, gender and years the participants have been learning English. On the other hand, item five is a question which surveys the learner's motivation to learn English. The students are given some reasons for taking up English, and are asked to choose one or more reasons. These reasons reveal the attitudes of the students towards English.

3.4.1.2 Part 1 of the Test

(a) Section 1 and Section 2

Section 1 (Items 1-5) includes the form of 'two-choice' item. Each of the items in this section aims to test the use of a confusable pair or a pair with opposite meanings, such as 'a shame' and 'ashamed', or 'likely' and 'unlikely'. It was difficult to create two other effective distractors. Therefore, four choice items were not used in this section. Section 2 (6-15) of the test contains multiple-choice items.

(b) Section 3

Section 3 (Items 16-25) consists of 'one item, multiple-context' gap filling based on concordance data. In each test item, four concordance lines are given and the students are instructed to choose one word from the four choices that fits all the blanks in the four citations. Items 16-20 are KWIC (Key Word in Context) citations, since the focus is on measuring students' awareness of immediate collocates after the node word. Items 21-25 are full-sentence citations, as a wider context may be needed to get the correct answers. Since this test format was presumably unknown by the students, an example was given before the actual test items.

Example

difficult job of attempting to look _____beyond our present problems, to
called it a major victory and to look _____to the next round. Pres. BILL
various individuals to look _____to the future. Tucked away among
generation. And do not look back, look _____. Keep your eye on the sparrow,
a) out b) into
c) back d) ahead

The answer is **(d)** because the word 'ahead' is the best choice for **all the blanks**, that is:
difficult job of attempting to look ahead beyond our present problems, to called it a major victory and to
look ahead to the next round. Pres. BILL various individuals to look ahead to the future. Tucked away
among generation. And do not look back, look ahead. Keep your eye on the sparrow,

Figure 3.2 Example of KWIC citations

3.4.1.3 Part 2 of the Test

The second main part of the test is designed to measure how much the learners, after being taught using DDL-based materials for an extended period of time, can transfer the skills of data observation and meaning deduction. In other words, the students come across a kind of language test that they have not seen in the materials. Therefore, in this part of the test they have to puzzle out the problems or deduce meanings, using context clues. This part of the test is divided into four sections; (1) choosing between different meanings of common words; (2) guessing meanings of unfamiliar words; (3) choosing words to fill in a textbased cloze; and (4) choosing words to fill in multiple-concordance cloze.

Since the aim of this part of the test is to measure an ability to observe the context rather than to test vocabulary or phrasal verbs, all the words given as choices are taken from the materials, and thus the students are thought to become familiar with them. However, in order to test the transfer skill, the context clues or collocates used in the test are different from those in the materials. To find out if the learner can make a link between what is taught in class and what is seen in the test, especially parallel clues and collocates in terms of patterns and meanings are presented in this part.

3.4.1.4 The Test Items Used in the Pre- and Post-Test

As was mentioned, the pre- and post- tests were administered to both the control and experimental groups at the beginning and at the end of the study respectively. The same test items (a total of 50) were used in both the pre- and post-test. Table 3.2 gives the distribution of test items in the pre- and post-test.

Table 3.3 The distribution of test items used in pre- and post-test

Part/Section	No. of items	Type/Format	Measurement
Section 1/1	5	Single-context full-sentence citations (two choices)	Vocabulary and language points taught through the DDL and non-DDL materials
Section 1/2	10	Single-context full-sentence citations (four choices)	
Section 1/3	10	Multiple-context KWIC citations (four choices)	
Part 1 in total = 25			
Section 2/1	6	Choosing between different meanings of common words	Data/context observation skills on novel test types and novel texts
Section 2/2	4	Identifying meaning of unfamiliar words	
Section 2/3	5	Gap-filling (text-based cloze)	
Section 2/4	10	Gap-filling (one item, multiple concordance, Gap filling)	
Part 1 in total = 25			

3.4.2 The Questionnaire

Surveys represent one of the most common types of quantitative, social science research, and they can be divided into two broad categories: the questionnaire and the interview. Questionnaires are usually paper-and-pencil instruments that the respondent completes. In this study, an agreement scale questionnaire was used.

This questionnaire (see Appendix B) was also developed by Sripicharn (2002). The questionnaire consisted of 22 questions and asked the students in the experimental group to evaluate the DDL materials. Except for the last two questions, the questionnaire took the form of an agreement scale. The questionnaire used a 3 point Likert scale and provided the respondents with 3 possible answers: ‘agree’, ‘neutral’, ‘disagree’.

The students in the experimental group were asked to evaluate the DDL in terms of format and presentation, and usefulness of language focus. In other words,

the participants specified how much they agreed that the teaching units or parts of the units were interesting. They also voiced their agreement or disagreement as to whether the teaching units helped them improve in various areas such as reading, writing, and vocabulary, or learn certain linguistic features such as collocation or connotation, or acquire inductive skills such as guessing the meanings of difficult words from context. There were also some additional questions concerning concordance lines.

The last two open-ended questions aimed to give the learners an opportunity to comment on some details of the DDL units they had been taught. The questions asked about the main strength and weakness of this approach. Reports and discussions of this questionnaire will be presented in Chapter 6.

3.5 Data Collection Procedures

The experimental group was given a series of DDL-based tasks as special treatment while the control group was introduced to non-concordance teaching units, which, where appropriate, highlighted the same language features as in concordance-based teaching units. The researcher taught the experimental group whereas the control group was taught by another EFL teacher. He is a graduate of Gazi University Foreign Language Education Department, and he has been teaching English for 23 years. He was informed of the details of the research and the aim of Data-Driven Learning.

Twenty one DDL teaching units were used in the experimental class and twenty one non-DDL sets of materials were introduced to the control group. Twenty one units were used in this study because they were suitable for the participants' language level, the time constraint, and the curriculum. The concordance lines or citations in the DDL units were selected from the Bank of English corpus using the Lookup software by Sripicharn (ibid). The DDL materials corresponded to the non-DDL teaching units in terms of language focus. For example, DDL Unit 8 and non-DDL Unit 8 highlighted the same phrasal verbs. Despite raising similar language points, DDL and non-DDL materials were different in two respects.

First, DDL teaching units were made up of concordance data taken from a corpus, whereas the non-DDL teaching units did not provide any authentic examples or citations. Second, the DDL exercises were designed to promote inductive skills and discovery learning, that is, concordance data were presented, and the students were asked to observe the given data and made generalisations or answered the questions. By contrast, the non-DDL tasks were essentially teacher-centred and deduction-oriented, in which explicit rules or explanations were given.

As the construction and implementation of DDL materials are central to the DDL approach, it is useful to discuss the presentation of the DDL teaching units designed for the main study in some detail. Detailed description of non-DDL materials and the differences between DDL and non-DDL materials are also necessary. Chapter 4 will present an in-depth discussion and analysis of both the DDL and non-DDL materials used in the main study.

3.6 Data Analysis

For the data analysis part of the study, two types of test were used: *t*-test and paired-samples *t*-test.

3.6.1 T-test

In the main study, the *t*-test was used in order to detect the differences between mean scores of the two groups. The 0.05 level was taken as the significance level. Significance levels show the probability of the results' being correct. The most common level is .95 to tell that the data are good enough to support a conclusion with 95% confidence. This means that the finding has a 95% chance of being true. However, this value is also used in a misleading way. No statistical package shows "95%" or ".95" to indicate this level. Instead, it shows ".05" meaning that the finding has a five percent (.05) chance of not being true, which is the converse of a 95% chance of being true.

In each table presenting the test results, the following statistical information is presented: (1) the mean and the standard deviation (SD); (2) the type of *t*-test (independent or paired); (3) the level of significance; and (4) the two-tailed

significant value (p). The symbol * indicates significant results at the 0.05 significance level.

3.6.2 Paired-Samples t -test

An alternative statistical test known as ‘matched t -test’ or ‘paired-samples t -test’ was also applied. As Hatch and Farhady (1982, p. 115) note, the matched t -test can be used in the analysis process in research situations where a random selection of subjects is not possible. Using the paired-samples t -test, the subjects in both control and experimental groups can be matched on the basis of some particular variable such as language proficiency. In other words, the paired-samples t -test is the appropriate statistical test to determine whether or not there was a significant change in the scores of language proficiency after the post-test compared to pre-test.

In some experiments, including this particular study, the form of the pre-test and the post test remain identical. In such cases, the effect of a special treatment can also be observed in the comparison of pre- and post-test scores of the experimental group. If there is a significant difference between the two identical tests over the period of the experiment, it may be possible to claim a positive result

CHAPTER IV

DDL and non-DDL Materials

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes DDL and non-DDL materials used in the main experiment. Twenty one DDL and twenty-one non-DDL teaching units were introduced respectively to the students in the DDL and non-DDL groups in the first 10-15 minutes of each English lesson. Both sets of materials, with the exception of Unit 2, correspond unit by unit in terms of language focus, drawing learners' attention to the same language items.

Section 4.2 provides an overview of DDL and non-DDL teaching units and discusses differences between the two sets of materials.

4.2 DDL and non-DDL Materials: An Overview

4.2.1 DDL Materials

The DDL materials aimed at drawing the learners' attention to certain vocabulary and linguistic features by providing the students with concordance data and guiding them to make a generalisation. The two main types of DDL materials designed for the main study are discussion-based and exercise-based teaching units. The discussion-based teaching units consist of three main components, which can be in different positions in different units. These are (a) the introductory part; (b) the presentation of citations; (c) discussion questions or guiding questions. Some discussion-based materials also contain an additional exercise part. The exercise-based teaching units have two main components: the instructions and the concordance-based exercises. Figure 4.1 shows a sample DDL handout.

Unit 16

Title

'dead' or 'not dead'

The introductory part

The phrase '**to death**' normally means 'coming to the end of life'. However, sometimes the phrase '**to death**' means 'a lot' or 'very'.

Look at the concordance lines for '**to death**' in Set A and Set B. In which set does '**to death**' mean 'coming to the end of life'? In which set does '**to death**' mean 'very' or 'a lot'? Underline words or phrases that give you some clues.

The presentation of citations

Discussion/guiding questions

Set A

victim, aged 19, was kicked and beaten **to death** outside his home on Wednesday evening. deaths occur because victims bleed **to death** internally before reaching medical Homeless John Murphy, 54, freezes **to death** on the streets of Bathgate. One replica guns. Youth `was knifed **to death** in fist fight on Monday night. One civilian was burnt **to death** after being trapped in his hut.

Set B

Really. Yeah I'm bored **to death** really. Just watch telly or make haven't told him. They're frightened **to death** of him 'cos he's a monster and in the Frozen. Your husband worked himself **to death** the weekend did he? I know. He's food to spare? And here I am starving **to death**. I will set out and go back to my dad Last year I was absolutely terrified **to death** about the war. You know I thought we

Exercise

Look at the following concordance lines. At the end of each line, write 'A' if you think it belongs to Set A above, or write 'B' if you think it belongs to Set B above. The first line has been done for you.

1. Bosley, who is believed to have choked **to death** on tissue paper. (A)
2. wife concerned? Is your wife worried **to death** about the state of the marriage?
3. of a railway brakeman who was crushed **to death** in a train crash. She was the last
4. have to swing me out ooh and I'm scared **to death** I say Oh I'm scared
5. fault oh I'm really sick **to death** of the whole issue.
6. Oh my goodness me we're going to starve **to death**. Ooh. You haven't eaten your cereal
7. was alleged to have been stabbed **to death** during a burglary at his home in
8. a million children under five starved **to death** in Brazil last year." Which also s

Figure 4.1 DDL Unit 16 (Dead or not dead)

Grading the DDL materials is one of the initial considerations in deciding on the sequence of the teaching units. The first two units provide an introduction to concordance lines. The other units are graded and put into order from easy to difficult units, based on the complexity of task types and of linguistic concepts (see Appendix C for the 21 DDL teaching units).

4.2.2 Non-DDL Materials

The non-DDL materials focus on the same vocabulary and language features as their corresponding DDL units. However, they do not contain any data-driven elements. In other words, instead of aiming towards improving learners' self-discovery and data observation skills, the non-DDL teaching units overtly present definitions or meanings of vocabulary in question, as well as explicit comments or explanations of particular language points.

There is a wide range of non-DDL task types such as grammar drills, translation, games, or editing practices. There are two main components in the non-DDL teaching units: (a) definitions, comments, or explanations; and (b) activities, drills or exercises. The sequence of non-DDL materials is the same as that of DDL teaching units (see Appendix D for the 21 non-DDL teaching units). Figure 4.2 below presents a sample non-DDL teaching unit.

Unit 4

Title 'What is your personality?'

Explicit explanations or rules

Activity

1. Try to guess the word in each item. A dictionary definition provided in each item would give you some clues.

Item 1 a _ _ _ a _ _ _ e
If you find someone _____, especially someone of the opposite sex, you think that they are pleasant to look at or sexually desirable.

Item 2 _ _ _ a _ _ _ s
If someone is _____, they feel angry or bitter because they think that another person is trying to take a lover or friend, or a possession, away from them.

Item 3 c _ _ _ a _ _ _ v _ _
A _____ person has the ability to invent and develop original ideas, especially in the arts.

Item 4 a _ _ _ r _ _ _ s _ _ _ e
An _____ person has a quality of anger and determination that makes them ready to attack.

Item 5 d _ _ _ r _ _ _ e d
If you are _____, you are sad and feel that you cannot enjoy anything, because your situation is so difficult and unpleasant.

Activity or exercise

2. Try to think of other adjectives that can be used to describe a person's personality. Then describe some of your friends using those adjectives. For example, 'This is my friend, John. He is a clever and hard-working student'.

Figure 4.2 Non-DDL Unit 4 (Personality)

4.2.3 Differences between DDL and non-DDL Materials

Although they have a similar language focus, the DDL and non-DDL materials are different in three aspects: data and examples, comments and explanations, and exercise and activities.

4.2.3.1 Data and Examples

In all the DDL materials, authentic data or examples are presented in the form of Key Word in Context (KWIC) concordance lines and/or full-sentence citations both in the discussion-based and exercise-based activities. These concordances have been retrieved and selected from the Bank of English Corpus.

By contrast, all the non-DDL teaching units are ‘concordance-free.’ That is, explanations or language comments are explicitly given with no support in the form of concordances. In some non-DDL teaching units, a small amount of examples is provided to clarify or explain language points. However, those examples are essentially artificial or invented rather than authentic or corpus-based.

DDL teaching unit 6 (Figure 4.3) and its corresponding non-DDL teaching unit (Figure 4.4) illustrate the difference in terms of data and examples. In DDL Unit 6, corpus-based citations of ‘and other’ are presented, while in non-DDL Unit 6, explicit comments on the relation between superordinate and hyponyms signalled by the phrase ‘and other’ are given with a single invented example, *‘This product has been sold in Thailand, Japan, England, America, and other countries.’*

Look at the following concordance lines. What is the relationship in meaning between ‘noun group’ in front of the word ‘and’ (**bolded words**) and ‘noun group’ after the word ‘other’ (underlined words)? For example, in the first line, what is the relationship in meaning between **‘Sweden, England’** and ‘countries’?

been studies in **Sweden, England** and other countries which have come up with their **blood pressure, heart rate** and other bodily processes during meditation. 40 samples of **gold, silver, lead** and other materials were melted away in tiny in cancers of the **breast, bladder** and other organs. The gene is the second of years of exposing **mice, rabbits**, and other animals to direct inhalation, **restaurants, financial services** and other businesses. I don't mind that there relief associations for **pensions** and other social benefits are included. Longanimals and the victims of **cancer** and other illnesses – but to reject within days of joining **the Queen** and other members of the Royal Family on

Figure 4.3 Extract from DDL Unit 6: ‘English and other confusing languages’

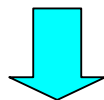
In this unit, we focus on a lexical relation between '**super-ordinate**' and '**hyponyms**'. A super-ordinate is a generic or general noun, or a noun that refers to the whole type of things. 'Hyponyms' are a list of nouns that are examples of a super-ordinate. For example, 'Thailand', 'Japan', 'England', and 'America' are hyponyms of the super-ordinate 'country'. The phrase '**and other**' can be used to signal this kind of lexical relation. For example, we can say 'This product has been sold in Thailand, Japan, England, America, and other countries.'

Figure 4.4 Extract from non-DDL Unit 6: Lexical relations (1)

4.2.3.2 Comments and Explanations

Both DDL and non-DDL materials contain a certain amount of commentary explanations of particular language points although such explanations are given for different purposes. Commentary explanations in DDL materials are mainly written as an introduction to a concordance-based discussion or activity, rather than a presentation of comprehensive grammar rules. Such explanations give some idea of language features the students are invited to explore by themselves via the subsequent presentation of concordance data.

For example, in DDL Unit 7 (Figure 4.5), the first paragraph of the unit draws attention to the words 'proud' and 'arrogant', both having similar meanings but different connotations. This introductory comment, followed by guiding questions, prepares the learners to observe the differences in connotation between the pairs from the following sets of concordance lines, rather than directly suggesting the differences.



Comments

In this unit, we will focus on the words '**proud**' and '**arrogant**'. Both words can be used to describe the feeling of self-respect or a good feeling about yourself or something you achieve. However, there is one big difference between the two words. What is the difference? First, look at the concordance lines for '**proud**', and try to answer the question.

from my life and theirs. I am **proud** of my country and the service I forefathers suffered racism, can be **proud** of being products of a successful and wider French society. Helias was **proud** of his role as mediator. Perhaps this is up to the very end and we're very **proud** of their quality? Perhaps this is up to the very end and we're very **proud** that he died for his country, even

Does the word '**proud**' have a positive or negative meaning? Underline words or phrases that you may use as clues to the answer. Now, look at the concordance lines for '**arrogant**', and try to answer the question.

said in summing-up, 'rude, **arrogant** and self-opinionated". McGown while enemies condemn him as **arrogant** and ruthless - 'a man in a hurry was 'humiliating, undignified, **arrogant** and unjust". The government's been aware of Government as remote, **arrogant** and unresponsive, immovable by the for sending its employees an '**arrogant** and insensitive" memo about last

Does the word '**arrogant**' have a positive or negative meaning? Underline words or phrases that you may use as clues to the answer.

Figure 4.5 Extract from DDL Unit 7: 'Are we proud or arrogant?'

In its corresponding non-DDL teaching unit (Figure 4.6), the comments on the different connotations of the two adjectives are explicit and comprehensive. Far from encouraging self-discovery of rules, the first part of the units provides a 'spoon-feeding' summary of usage, outlining differences between the pairs in terms of connotation and co-text.

In this unit, we will focus on the words '**proud**' and '**arrogant**'. Both words can be used to describe the feeling of self-respect or a good feeling about yourself or something you achieve. However, there are some observations about the differences between the two words.

1. The word '**proud**' carries a positive meaning, while the word '**arrogant**' has a negative meaning.
2. We can normally see why people feel proud or what they are proud of. For example, if someone says, 'I'm proud of my son', we clearly see that 'the son' is what he or she is proud of. By contrast, we cannot clearly see what or why people are feeling arrogant. For example, if we say, 'That man is rude and arrogant', it is clear that we are criticizing him but the reason why he is arrogant is not obvious.
3. The word '**proud**' is commonly used with the pronoun '**I**' or '**we**' and the other pronouns, while '**arrogant**' is not often used with the pronoun '**I**' or '**we**'. This suggests that we are normally proud of something or of ourselves, but we do not want or are reluctant to say that we are arrogant!!!

Figure 4.6 Extract from non-DDL Unit 7: 'proud and arrogant'

4.2.3.3 Exercises and Activities

The DDL activities were designed to develop the learners' inductive strategies and encourage learner's self-discovery of language patterning and use. All DDL materials provide the students with authentic language data so that the learners can observe the given data and come up with some generalisations with an aid of guiding questions. DDL activities also require an ability to deduce meanings from

context, or puzzle out some language problems. The typical DDL task types are inductively oriented, which include observations of similarities and differences; gap-filling and concordance-based cloze; concordance reconstruction and categorisation; and hypothesis testing.

The non-DDL teaching units, on the other hand, essentially adopt deductive-learning strategies. As a result, exercises and activities in non-DDL materials are not data-driven. Instead, more emphasis was placed on traditional, grammar-translation task types, which include presentations of language rules, dictionary definitions, language patterns and usage, grammar drills, sentence completion and construction, editing and error correction, and translation. To complete the tasks, the students are encouraged to rely heavily on the teacher, dictionaries, and other references. The use of language games, which is less deductive, can be found in some non-DDL activities, but the purpose is to illustrate or explain language rules rather than to improve communicative skills.

DDL Unit 21 (Figure 4.7) and non-DDL Unit 21 (Figure 4.8) illustrate the differences in terms of task type and activity. Taking an inductive approach, the two main tasks in the DDL unit are to observe similarities between the underlined words in the KWIC concordances, and to generalise the pragmatic use of the phrase 'on earth' from the given citations. However, in the non-DDL version, the common features between 'how', 'what', or 'where' are clearly stated, and the students are asked to invent or complete sentences beginning with 'Question word + *on earth*', instead of deducing the function of 'on earth' from context.

Unit 21 'Why on earth do we learn English?'

Now, let's have a look at ' **on earth**' in complete sentences. What do you think is the function of the phrase '**on earth**' in conversation?

- How on earth do you expect me to love you after five minutes?
- I wonder how on earth a man both so crude and so stupid as Michelle had ever become President.
- What on earth is wrong with liking someone who is as honest, generous, courageous, loyal, trustworthy, loving and sexy as Darcy?
- Debbie! My God! What on earth brings you here? I haven't seen you for ages.
- The vehicle that will not fold in an accident is an army tank. Who on earth would want to drive round in an army tank?
- Why on earth should I make the effort to eat something which I'm told is not digested?
- Damned crowded this train. Where on earth do they all come from I've simply no idea.

Figure 4.7 Extract from DDL Unit 21: Why on earth do we learn English?

Unit 21

On earth (1)

In this unit, we focus on the phrase '**on earth**'. We use '**on earth**' for emphasis in questions that begin with words such as 'how', 'what', or 'where'. For example,

Why on earth do we have to get up early just to spend hours in traffic jams?

Note: The use of '**on earth**' in questions often suggests that the speaker is being very angry, surprised, curious, or sarcastic.

Activity

Complete the following sentences. Remember that each sentence should emphasize that the speaker is being angry, surprised, curious, or sarcastic.

- a) How on earth _____?
- b) Why on earth _____?
- c) When on earth _____?
- d) Who on earth _____?
- e) What on earth _____?

Figure 4.8 Extract from non-DDL Unit 21: On earth

4.3 Conclusion

This chapter has described the two sets of materials used in the DDL and non-DDL classes. Almost all the DDL and non-DDL teaching units focus on the same language items but differ in terms of design principle and task strategy. The DDL materials provide the learners with corpus-based concordance citations and aim to encourage the students to deduce meanings or make generalisations based on the given data. Central to the DDL materials is the implementation of inductive-learning activities such as observing similarities and differences or making generalisations. By contrast, the non-DDL teaching units present explicit explanations of language points and make use of more deductive learning task strategies such as grammar drills, error correction, sentence invention, or translation.

CHAPTER V

The Test Results and Discussion

5.1 Introduction

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the main study was designed to evaluate DDL in terms of learning effect and learners' attitudes towards DDL materials. The first section of this chapter gives information about the main test results of Part 1, Part 2, and total scores. It also describes the relationship between gender and total scores. The next section reports the discussion of the main results.

5.2 The Main Test Results

5.2.1 The Independent and Paired *t*-test Results for Part I

Table 5.1 Evaluation of Part I

PART I	Experimental Group (N=22)	Control Group (N=21)	<i>p</i>
	Mean±SD	Mean±SD	
●Pre-test	10,68±2,64	9,19±2,18	0,050*
●Post-test	12,54±3,30	9,71±2,28	0,002**
■Pre-Post <i>p</i>	0,007**	0,353	

● Independent *t*-test

■ Paired Samples *t*-test

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

As shown in Table 5.2, the DDL group scored higher than the non-DDL group (10.68 to 9.19) in the pre-test Part one ($p < 0.05$).

In addition to that, the DDL group scores were very highly significant than that of the non-DDL group (12.54 to 9.71) in the post-test Part one ($p < 0.01$).

Moreover, the increase observed in the scores of the DDL group in the post-test were very highly significant compared with the scores in the pre-test ($p < 0.01$).

The p-value of 0.007 showed that there was a significant difference between the pre- and post-test scores of DDL group.

However, the scores of non-DDL group in the post-test, compared with the ones in the pre-test, did not reach statistical significance ($p > 0.05$).

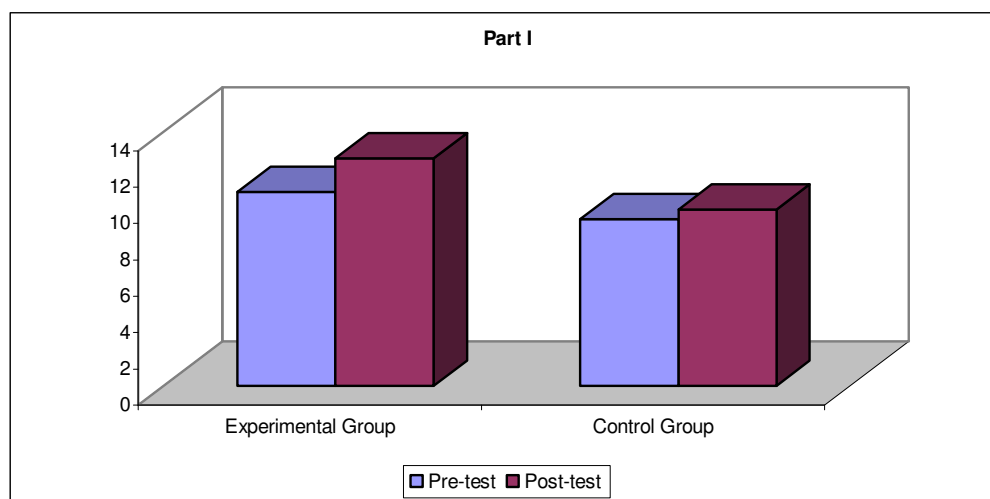


Figure 5.1 Evaluation of Part I

5.2.2 The Independent and Paired *t*-test Results for Part II

Table 5.2 Evaluation of Part II

PART II	Experimental Group(N=22)	Control Group (N=21)	<i>P</i>
	Mean±SD	Mean±SD	
●Pre-test	7,32±2,73	7,48±2,16	0,835
●Post-test	8,45±2,40	7,76±2,28	0,338
■Pre-Post <i>p</i>	0,145	0,653	

● Independent *t*-test

■ Paired Samples *t*-test

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

The test results for Part II showed very little difference. As shown in Table 5.3, the DDL group scored slightly higher than the non-DDL group (8.45 to 7.76) in the post-test. Moreover, due to the scores between pre- and post-test, the independent

and paired t-test results did not have statistical significance when both groups were examined.

To sum up, there was no significant difference between the control and experimental groups in the Part 2 of the test when they were matched for the pre-test and post-test performance ($p>0.05$). This result suggested that concordance-based, inductive materials did not have any difference from non-concordance, deductive materials in terms of helping students transfer context observation skills to similar tasks on novel texts. It can be concluded that DDL materials did not seem to have a transfer effect on the learning of targeted items and context observation tasks on novel texts.

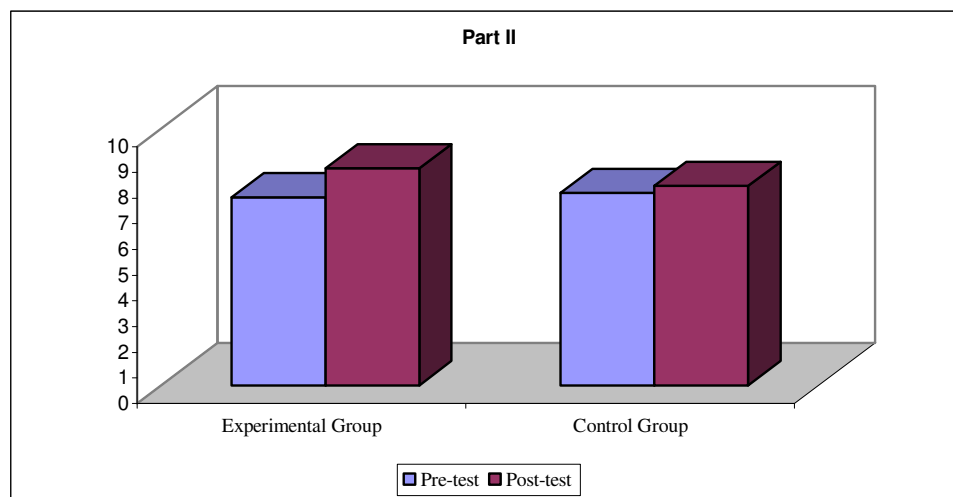


Figure 5.2 Evaluation of Part II

5.2.3 The Independent and Paired *t*-test Results for Total Scores

Table 5.3 Evaluation of the Total Scores

Total Scores	Experimental Group(N=22)	Control Group (N=21)	<i>P</i>
	Mean±SD	Mean±SD	
●Pre-test	18,00±4,37	16,67±3,58	0,282
●Post-test	21,00±4,55	17,48±3,80	0,009**
■Pre-Post <i>p</i>	0,001**	0,334	

● Independent *t*-test

■ Paired Samples *t*-test

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

The scores of non-DDL group in the pre-test total scores, compared with the ones of the DDL group in pre-test total scores, did not reach statistical significance ($p>0.05$). There was no significant difference between these two scores (18.00 to 16.67).

On the other hand, as shown in Figure 5.3, the post test total scores of the DDL group were very highly significant compared with the post-test total scores of the non-DDL group ($p<0.01$).

Similarly, the increase observed in the post test total scores of the DDL group, as opposed to the pre-test total scores, was very highly significant ($p<0.01$).

However, no statistically significant difference was observed between the post-test total scores and pre-test total scores of the non-DDL group ($p>0.05$). This result indicated that conventional deductive way of language teaching is not as effective as the DDL approach on the language learning achievement of Turkish EFL students.

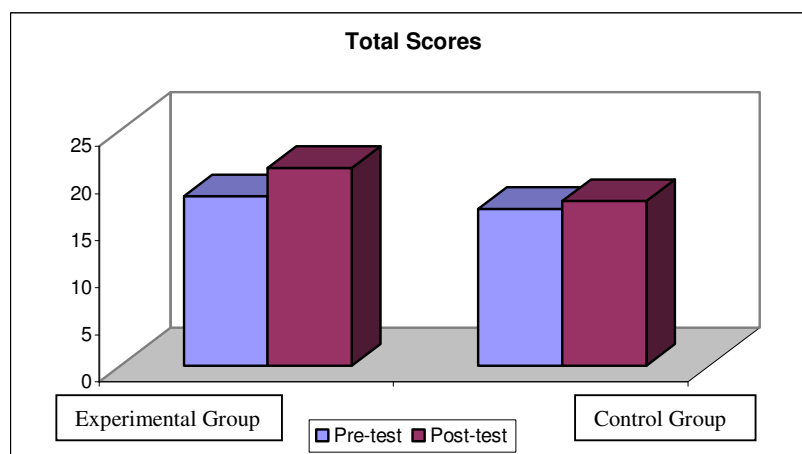


Figure 5.3 Evaluation of the Total

In general, the DDL students performed better in the post-test when total scores were taken into consideration, which was also statistically significant to a great extent. On the other hand, the mean score in Part 1 was higher in the post-test while the average class score in Part 2 was apparently lower (12.54 to 8.45). These results confirmed the main findings that the DDL approach seemed to have an effect especially in Part 1 of the test. However, it did not have a transfer effect on the

language learning process of Turkish EFL students. In other words, the results showed that the students were not able to apply context observation skills to DDL tasks based on novel concordances.

5.2.4 Relationship between Gender and Total Scores

Table 5.4 Evaluation of Gender and Total Scores

Total Scores	Gender		<i>p</i>
	Female	Male	
	Mean±SD	Mean±SD	
●Pre-test	18,93±4,74	16,00±2,77	<i>0,147</i>
●Post-test	21,73±4,71	19,43±4,03	<i>0,279</i>
■Pre-Post <i>p</i>	<i>0,018*</i>	<i>0,045*</i>	

● Independent *t*-test

■ Paired Samples *t*-test

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

No statistically significant difference was observed between the pre-test total scores of female and male students in the DDL group ($p > 0.05$). Similarly, there was no statistically significant difference between the post-test scores of female and male students in the DDL group ($p > 0.05$).

On the other hand, as shown in Figure 5.4, compared with the pre-test total scores, the post-test scores of female students in the DDL group was highly significant ($p < 0.05$). In addition, the post-test scores of male students in the DDL group was highly significant than the pre-test scores of male students in the same group ($p < 0.05$).

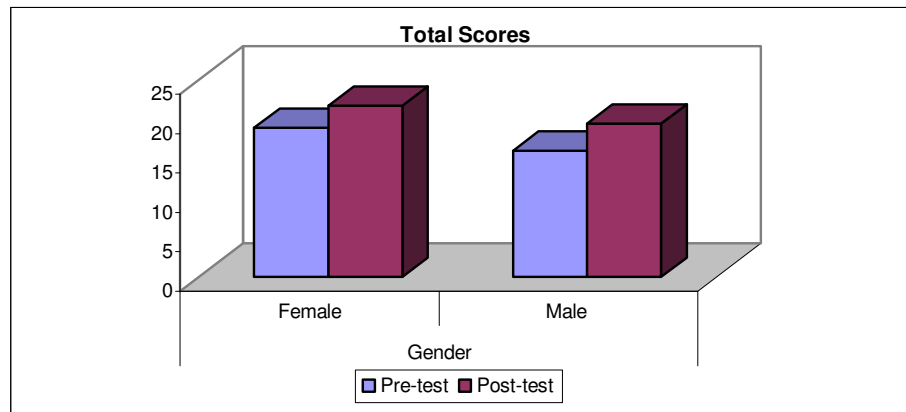


Figure 5.4 Evaluation of Gender and Total Scores

5.3 Discussion of the Main Results

The results suggested that DDL seemed to have a measurable ‘learning’ effect (in response to the first question) or but not a ‘transfer’ effect (in response to the second question) on the learners. The experimental (DDL) group received higher scores than the control (non-DDL) group did, and the difference was statistically significant.

The comparison between the pre- and post- tests administered to the DDL group also yielded similar results. The DDL learners improved to a great extent in the total score; however, the scores did not show any significant increase in the second part of the tests. These results indicated that after a two-month study, the special treatment (DDL-based tasks) given to the DDL group seemed to suggest learning effect of DDL, not transfer effect.

The results were consistent with findings reported in other empirical research carried out to test the effect of the DDL approach. Similar findings were also reported in Stevens’ (1991) and Cobb’s (1999a) previous studies. On the other hand, as opposed to the results taken in this study, in Sripicharn’s study (*ibid*) the results showed that the DDL did not have any marked positive effect on either the ability to learn vocabulary or language points highlighted in the materials or the transferability of DDL skills on novel texts.

Moreover, the language proficiency of the learners is also an important factor. In most of the successful studies, the subjects used were at a low level in terms of English proficiency. In Blappert (1998), for example, the participants were low-level learners of English in a Korean university. Although language ability of the subjects in Stevens’ (*ibid*) and Cobb’s (1997) studies is not clearly identified, the vocabulary in the materials suggests that the students were at an intermediate or lower-intermediate level.

The following chapter will present the results of the agreement scale questionnaire. It will also discuss the learners’ attitudes towards DDL materials and provide information for the future applications of DDL materials in the EFL classes.

CHAPTER VI

Learners' Attitudes towards DDL Materials

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the second aspect of DDL evaluation, which is concerned with the learners' attitudes towards DDL materials. As mentioned in the methodology chapter (Chapter 3), a questionnaire developed and validated by Sripicharn (ibid) was used as the main data collection instrument to find out learners' attitudes towards DDL materials. Towards the end of the study, the DDL students were asked to complete the questionnaire (see Appendix B), which asked them to evaluate the DDL teaching units they had been working on throughout the period of the experiment. The researcher also asked learners to write their comments about the DDL materials after the lessons from time to time. The aim of this practice was to elicit more detailed comments on the DDL materials that could be used to support the results of the questionnaires.

This chapter will report the evaluation of the DDL materials based on the questionnaire. Discussion will be made under the following headings: (a) concordance-based materials in general; (b): about concordance lines in general; (c) types of teaching units; (d) usefulness.

6.2 Evaluating DDL Materials

The questionnaire that was used to identify attitudes towards DDL materials (see Appendix B) consisted of two sections. The first part took the form of an agreement scale on statements about the teaching units. It should be noted that three ranks were used in the questionnaire (3 = agree; 2 = neutral; 1 = disagree). The second part consisted of some open-ended questions designed to elicit extended comments or suggestions.

In this section, the results of the questionnaire (22 respondents) will be presented and discussed together under the following topics: (a) concordance-based materials in general and concordance citations; (b) types of teaching units; and (c)

usefulness. After presenting the questionnaire results, the chapter will be followed by responses to the last two open ended questions in the questionnaire.

Table 6.1 Results of the questionnaire¹

	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. The units are interesting.	13	59,1	7	31,8	2	8,1
2. The discussion-based part of the units is interesting.	15	68,2	4	18,2	3	13,6
3. The exercise-based part of the units is interesting.	13	59,1	5	22,7	4	18,2
4. The format or presentation of the units is good.	20	90,9	2	9,1	-	-
5. The units are not too long and can be done in 10-15 minutes.	19	86,4	3	13,6	-	-
6. The units are not difficult to complete.	14	63,6	8	36,4	-	-
7. The instructions are easy to follow.	13	59,1	8	36,4	1	4,5
8. The units help you improve your language learning.	22	100,0	-	-	-	-
9. The units should be used in every English lesson.	11	50,0	6	27,3	5	22,7
10. The units help you improve your reading skills.	16	72,7	3	13,6	3	13,6
11. The units help you learn new vocabulary, idioms, or expressions.	21	95,5	1	4,5	-	-
12. The units help you learn vocabulary and its usage.	21	95,5	1	4,5	-	-
13. The units help you learn grammar or structure.	19	86,4	3	13,6	-	-
14. The units help you learn meanings of words (e.g. literal/metaphorical, or connotation).	16	72,7	5	22,7	1	4,5
15. The units help you learn words and context (collocation).	19	86,4	2	9,1	1	4,5
16. The units help you learn to guess meanings of words or guess missing words from context.	19	86,4	2	9,1	1	4,5
17. The language points selected are useful.	15	68,2	6	27,3	1	4,5
18. The concordance lines are not too difficult to read.	15	68,2	5	22,7	2	9,1
19. The concordance lines are well chosen.	12	54,5	8	36,4	2	9,1
20. Observing concordance lines is an interesting way of learning English.	18	81,8	3	13,6	1	4,5

The results presented above showed that the students' overall reactions were positive towards the DDL units. For instance, they totally agreed that the units helped

¹ Taken from: Sripicharn, P. Evaluating Data-Driven Learning: The use of classroom concordancing by Thai learners of English. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, the University of Birmingham, UK, 2002

them improve their language learning. Moreover, they stated that the units helped them learn new vocabulary or expressions. These results indicated in Table 6.1 will be categorized and discussed in detail below.

6.2.1 Concordance-based Materials in General and Concordance Citations

6.2.1.1 About Concordance-based Materials in General

Statement 1: The units are interesting.

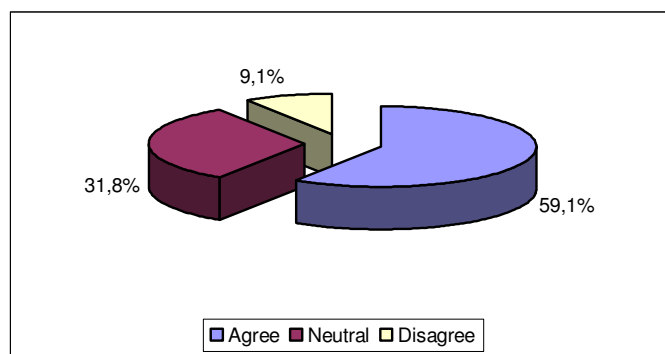


Figure 6.1 The units are interesting

The agreement scores regarding the statement 1 above showed that most of the students (59,1 %) perceived that the DDL teaching units were interesting.

Statement 4: The format or presentation of the units is good.

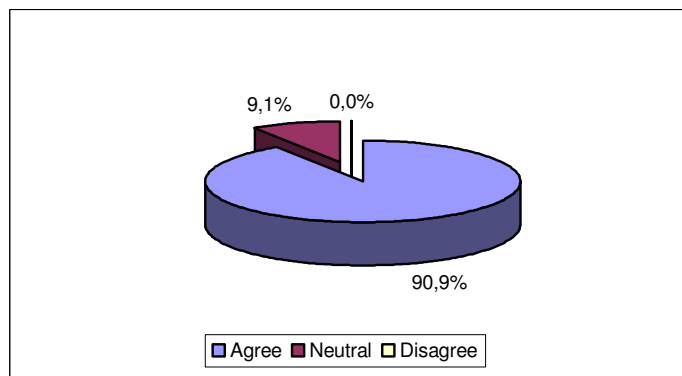


Figure 6.2 The format or presentation of the units is good

The DDL materials were rated as good in terms of format and presentation. This was an encouraging result for the effectiveness of the materials.

Statement 5: The units are not too long and can be done in 10-15 minutes.

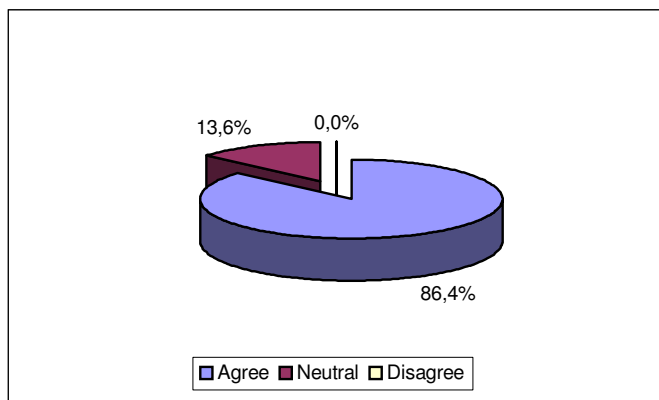


Figure 6.3 The units are not too long

Most of the students (86,4%) thought that size and length of the teaching units were appropriate. That is why, most probably, they did manage quite well for they were reading the DDL units with no complaint at all.

Statement 6: The units are not difficult to complete.

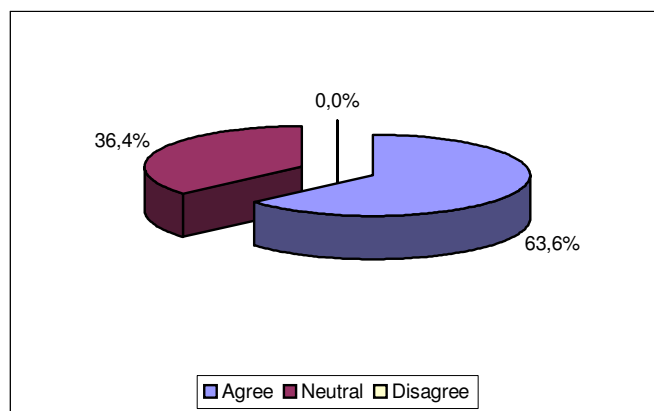


Figure 6.4 The units are not difficult to complete

The percentages here reveal quite clearly that the DDL materials were considered as not too difficult and could be manageable within the assigned time. This is also a satisfactory result for the application and effectiveness of the DDL materials.

Statement 7: The instructions are easy to follow.

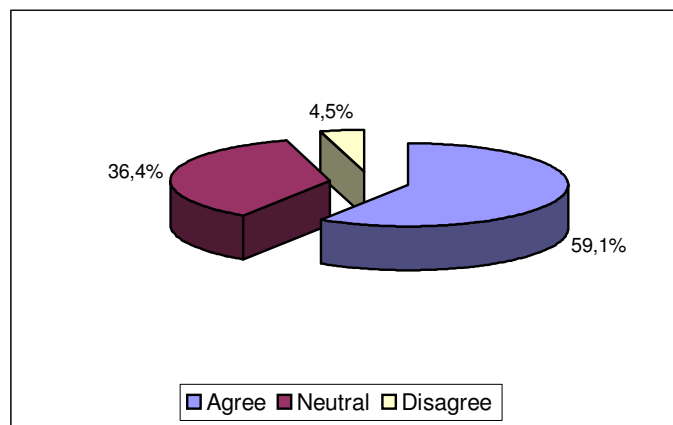


Figure 6.5 The instructions are easy to follow

The agreement scores given to the statement 7 indicated that the instructions given in each unit were not too difficult to follow. Since all of the students were introduced to concordance materials for the first time, it was expected that the students would find it very difficult to deal with DDL materials. However, the results reported above suggested positive feedback. One possible explanation for these encouraging results is that the units were suitable for the English level of the students, and therefore the students were getting used to concordance materials in a short period of time.

6.2.1.2 About Concordance Lines in General

Statement 18: The concordance lines are not too difficult to read.

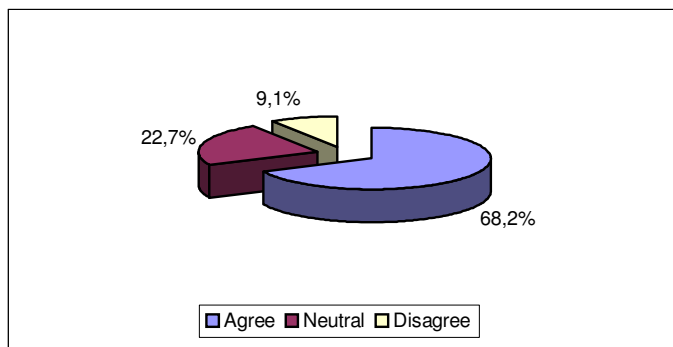


Figure 6.6 The concordance lines are not too difficult to read

Statement 19: The concordance lines are well chosen.

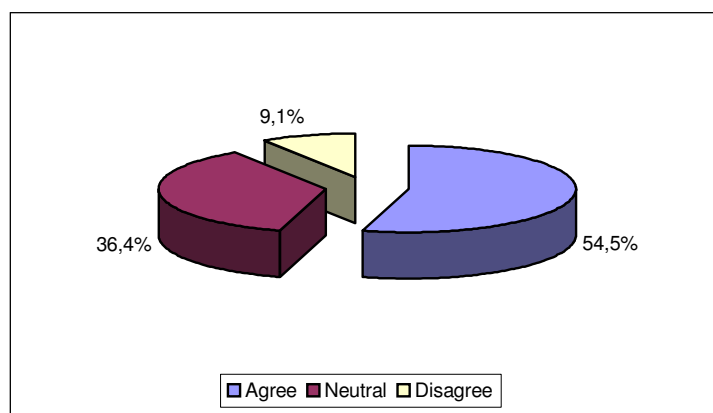


Figure 6.7 The concordance lines are well chosen

According to the agreement scores given to statements 18 (68.2 %) and 19 (54.5 %), it can be concluded that most of the DDL students thought the concordance lines presented in the teaching units were well chosen and were not too difficult to read.

Statement 20: Observing concordance lines is an interesting way of learning English.

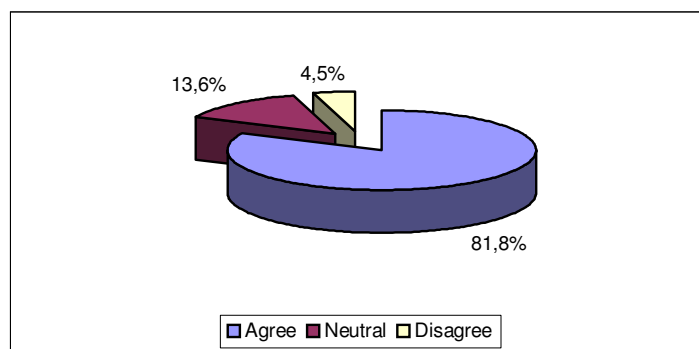


Figure 6.8 Observing concordance lines is an interesting way of learning English

The percentages in Figure 6.8 point to the fact that the majority of the students agreed that observing concordance lines was an interesting way of learning the target language. The rest of the students reported that dealing with concordances and in particular the KWIC citations was rather difficult the first time. However, they also stated that they got familiar with reading the citations after going through a few DDL lessons.

6.2.2 Types of Teaching Units

Statement 2: The discussion-based part of the units is interesting

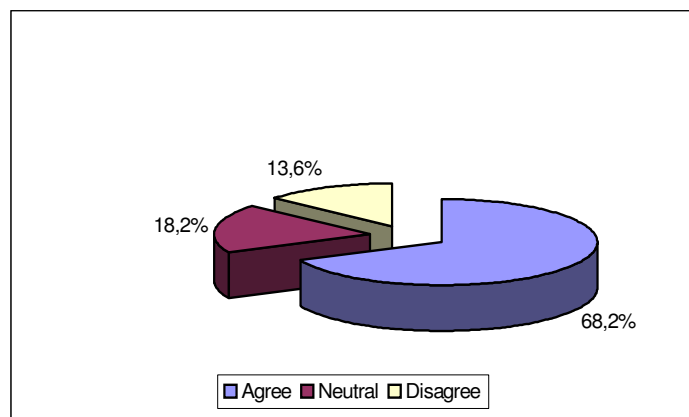


Figure 6.9 The discussion-based part of the units is interesting

Statement 3: The exercise-based part of the units is interesting.

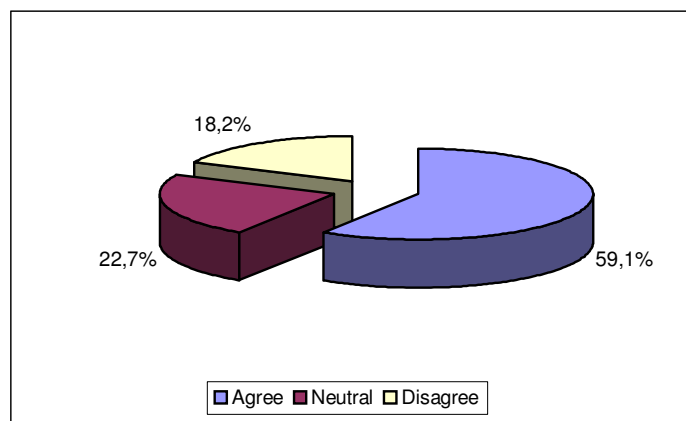


Figure 6.10 The exercise-based part of the units is interesting

The discussion-based DDL materials (or the discussion based part of the teaching units) presented learners with discussion questions that required the students to observe similarities and differences between concordances or to observe patterns and use of the key words. The exercise-based materials were controlled concordance-based tasks such as matching or gap filling. The results of the questionnaires (Statement 2 and Statement 3) indicated that the students had different opinions about the types of DDL activity. This difference between the preferences about the

types of DDL activity may depend on the different learning styles and strategies of the students or the language focus of the DDL unit. Of those different opinions, the ones who produced positive opinions are in majority (59.1 %).

6.2.3 Usefulness (useful language features and useful skill practices)

Statement 8: The units help you improve your language learning.

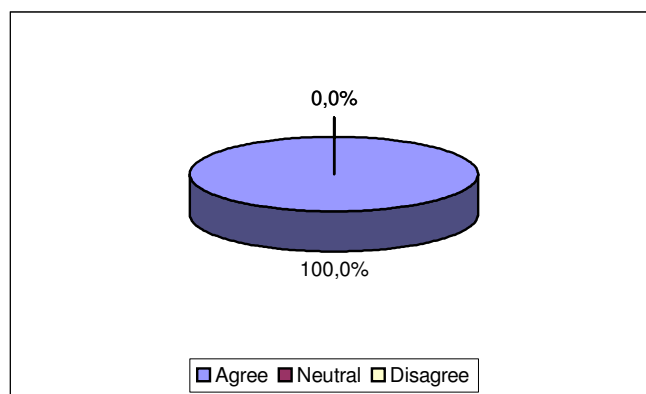


Figure 6.11 The units help you improve your language learning.

In the 'usefulness' group, the students were asked if they agreed that the materials helped to improve their English in terms of reading skills, words in context, and grammar. The figure above showed that all the students agreed that the units helped them improve their language learning.

Statement 9: The units should be used in every English lesson.

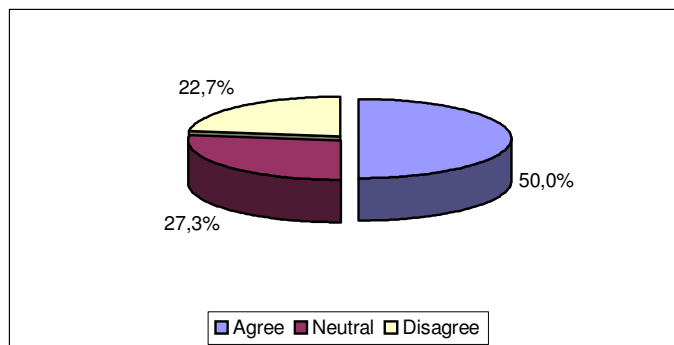


Figure 6.12 The units should be used in every English lesson.

Half of the students stated that the units should be used in every English lesson (Statement 9). The researcher asked the other students why they chose neutral and disagree scale. They explained that the units would be useful in every English lesson provided some modifications be made according to the level and age of the learners.

Statement 10: The units help you improve your reading skills.

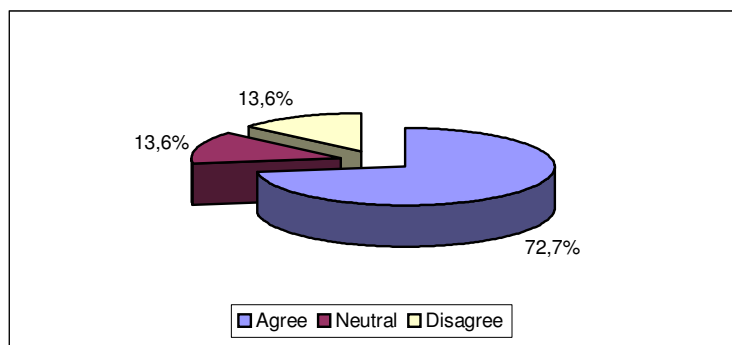


Figure 6.13 The units help you improve your reading skills.

The scores of the statement above indicated that the majority of the students thought that the DDL units were useful for improving reading skills.

Statement 11: The units help you learn new vocabulary, idioms, or expressions.

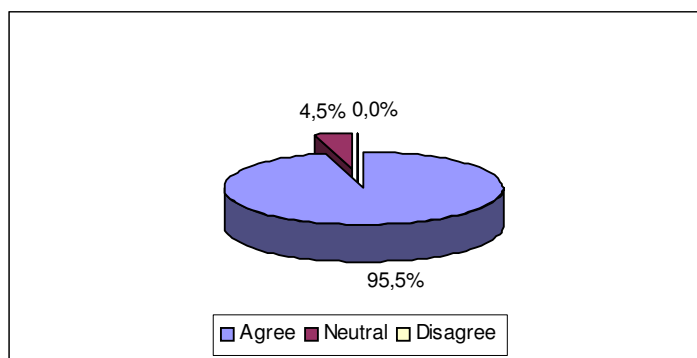


Figure 6.14 The units help you learn new vocabulary, idioms, or expressions

The figure above suggested that the DDL students perceived the DDL materials as an effective way of drawing attention to the notion of lexis in context.

The whole class agreed that the teaching units helped them learn new vocabulary and idioms.

Statement 12: The units help you learn vocabulary and its usage.

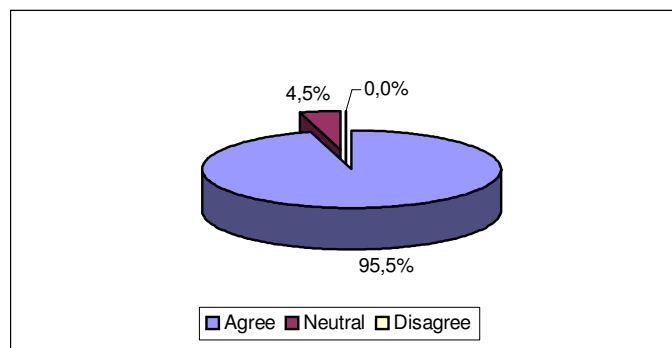


Figure 6.15 The units help you learn vocabulary and its usage.

The majority of the class agreed that the teaching units helped them learn vocabulary, vocabulary patterns, and their use. This is a motivating and encouraging result for the future applications of the DDL materials.

Statement 13: The units help you learn grammar or structure.

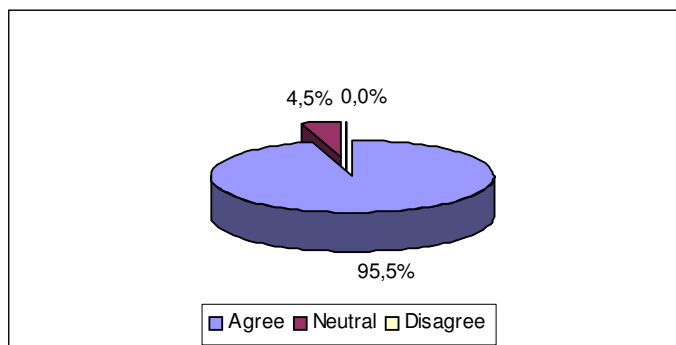


Figure 6.16 The units help you learn grammar or structure.

The results of the statement 13 showed that the students were also aware of the positive effect of the DDL units on learning grammar or structure.

Statement 14: The units help you learn meanings of words

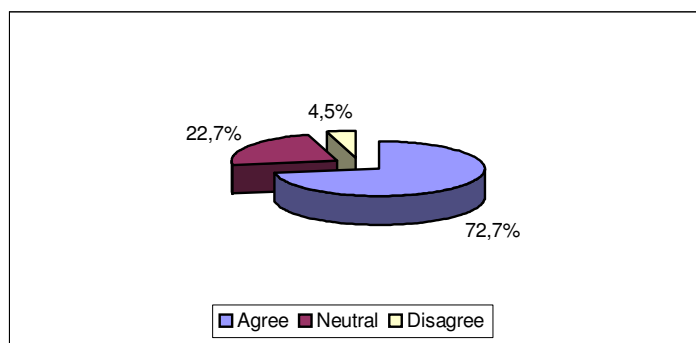


Figure 6.17 The units help you learn meanings of words

The majority of the students also agreed that the teaching units helped them learn meanings of words (e.g. literal/metaphorical meanings and connotation).

Statement 15: The units help you learn about words and context (collocation)

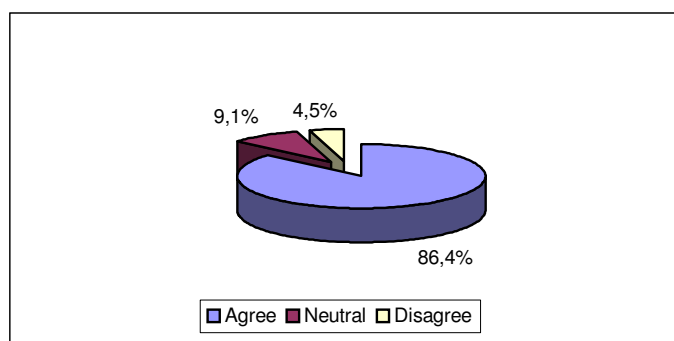


Figure 6.18 The units help you learn about words and context (collocation)

The Figure 6.18 revealed that the majority of the students thought that they learned more about collocation. Since the DDL units teach words in context, language learning becomes easier and more meaningful for the students.

Statement 16: The units help you learn to guess meanings of words or guess missing words from context.

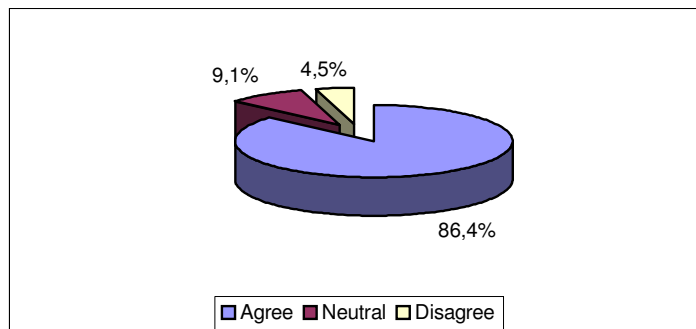


Figure 6.19 The units help you learn to guess meanings of words or guess missing words from context.

The results of statement 16 indicated that working on DDL materials helped the students improve the skills of meaning deduction such as guessing meanings of words or guessing missing words from context.

Statement 17: The language points selected are useful

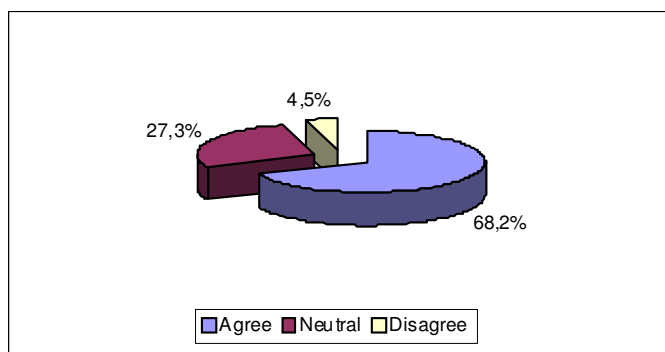


Figure 6.20 The language points selected are useful

When asked what they thought they had learned from the materials (in an open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire), most students reported that they learned how words were used in different contexts and how they could guess unknown words by looking at the context. The results showed that the DDL students were aware of the strength of concordance-based materials, i.e. the KWIC format made it easy to notice phraseology of words and how words were used in context.

6.2.4 Suggestions for Materials Improvement

In sections 6.2.1- 6.2.3, the questionnaire results showed what the students thought about the DDL materials used in the study. This section summarises the thoughts of the students about the strengths of the approach and suggestions the learners made as to how to improve the DDL materials or how to design DDL materials for future use. The data were gathered from the questionnaires (the open-ended questions) and will be presented under the headings of (a) the strengths of the approach and (b) the weaknesses of the approach.

6.2.4.1 The Strengths of the Approach

Table 6.2 The Strengths of the Approach

	Experimental Group	
	N	%
Improving vocabulary learning and guessing skills	11	50,0
Being durable in mind	7	31,8
Facilitating grammar learning and improving vocabulary knowledge	3	13,6
Providing many samples	1	4,5

According to the results, 50 % of the students stated that the main strength of the DDL approach was its improving vocabulary and guessing skills. Here are some of their responses:

“I think the most useful point of this approach is that we can guess the meaning of the words from the context even though we do not know their exact meaning.” (Student K)

“The main strength is that this approach is very useful for vocabulary teaching. It also facilitates guessing the meaning of unknown words.” (Student V)

“The vocabulary used in the units is the frequently used ones in language learning.” (Student M)

“To me, the most useful point of it is that it definitely helps learning new structures and the different usages and meanings of the words.” (Student P)

In addition to this, 31.8 % of the students reported that concordances made language points more durable in mind, which was stated as the most important strength of this approach. Here are some of their comments:

“The words we learn in these units are difficult to forget because this teaching technique is very successful.” (Student I)

“Learning English this way is both very enjoyable and easy. We are learning the meanings of words by deducing their meanings from the context. This way they become more durable.” (Student J)

“The useful point of this technique is that it makes language learning more memorable. We remember the meaning of the words when we look at the concordance lines again.” (Student G)

“This technique uses a better way of teaching vocabulary as opposed to the English course books because in this approach you focus on only one word or phrase and learn lots of words and phrases related to it. It makes the words we learn more durable.” (Student F)

13.6 % of the students pointed out that this approach facilitated grammar learning. The comments include:

“This approach has a great facilitating influence on our grammar learning.” (Student Y)

“It focuses on the usage and meaning of one word in many samples and this helps us to see what kind of grammar structures might be used before and after that specific word.” (Student H)

“In this way we learn the details of some specific grammatical structures and this can improve our speaking ability in English.” (Student R)

As the main strength of this approach, 1 student (4.5%) stated that it provided many samples which allowed students to make generalisations and to understand the meaning of a specific word easily.

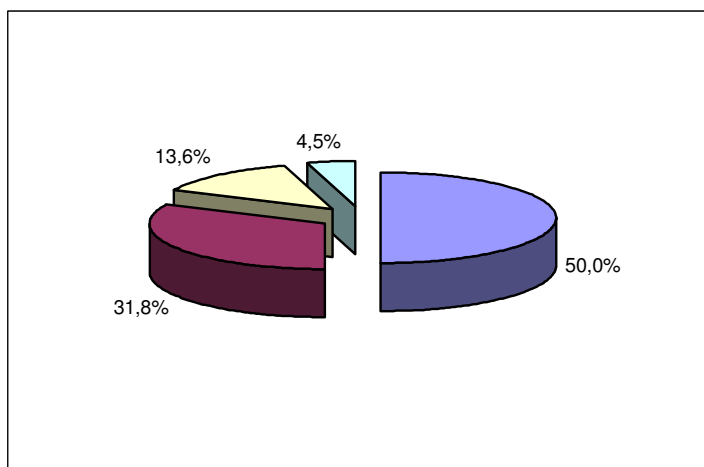


Figure 6.21 The Strengths of the Approach

6.2.4.2 The Weaknesses of the Approach

Table 6.3 The Weaknesses of the Approach

	Experimental Group	
	n	%
No weaknesses	6	27,3
Inadequate samples	7	31,8
Boringness of the units	4	18,2
Difficult exercises	4	18,2
Not improving writing skills	1	4,5

The results showed that 27.3 % of the students in the DDL group pointed out that this approach did not have any weakness. On the other hand, 31.8 % of the DDL students stated that these DDL units did not have enough samples. Their responses are as following:

“The main weakness of this approach is that the units are too short and do not provide sufficient exercises.” (Student O)

“I think the units should have more exercises about phrasal verbs because they are difficult to understand with few samples.” (Student I)

“There should be more exercises in the units which include phrasal verbs.” (Student C)

“The main weakness is the insufficient samples. We should see more samples so that we can make generalizations and understand the meaning of words more easily.” (Student R)

18.2 % of the students indicated the boringness of the units as the main weakness of this approach. Here are their comments:

“When we do not know the meaning of the other words in the context, it becomes really boring to understand the meaning of the key word.” (Student M)

“Some units are boring. They do not get our attention but the teaching method used is very beneficial to us.” (Student D)

Similarly, 18.2 % of the students reported the difficulty of the exercise in the units as the main weakness of the approach.

“The words in the context in some exercises are very difficult to understand.” (Student B)

“I had great difficulty in understanding some words. I think this is the main weakness of this approach.” (Student U)

“The technique used in each exercise is the same. There should be some different types of exercises.” (Student G)

Lastly, 1 student (Student V) commented that this approach did not have any influence on improving writing skills or any other skills required in English. The general results about the weaknesses of Data-Driven Learning can also be seen in the Figure 6.22 below.

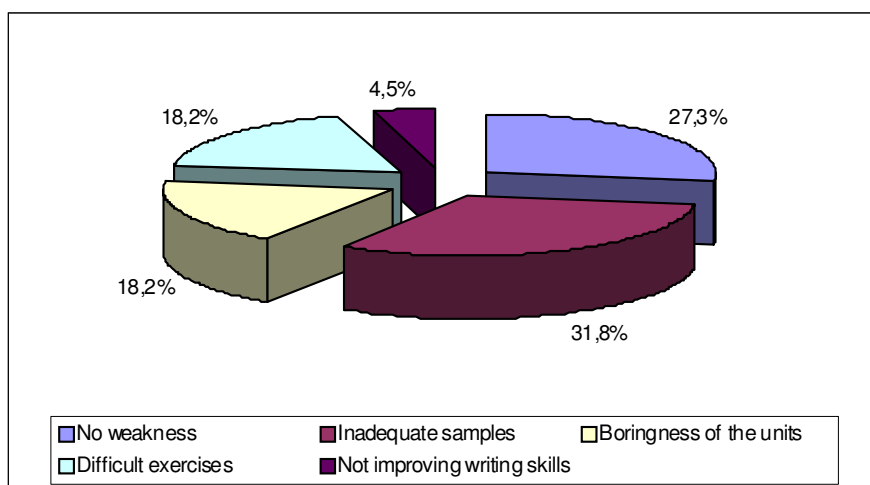


Figure 6.22 The Weaknesses of the Approach

The Figure 6.22 revealed that the main weakness of the DDL approach is that it does not have sufficient samples for the students. Therefore, most of the students complain about not making generalizations with few samples. This weakness also affects the difficulty level of the exercises. Therefore, 18.2 % of the students found the exercises in the units as difficult. Moreover, in terms of boringness and not improving writing skills, the scores in the Figure 6.22 indicated that some games and follow-up activities can be included within the DDL units in order to eliminate these weaknesses.

CHAPTER VII

Implications of the Study

7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the implications of the results of the study reported in Chapters 5 and 6. It also deals with the implications for corpus use in language learning and discusses the practical implications and suggestions based on the results of the study.

7.1.1 Implications for Corpus Use in Language Teaching

Corpora and concordancing programs can be motivating and rewarding for language learners and teachers. Corpora provide contextualized examples that learners can use for hard-to-answer lexical questions. The convenience of having authentic language or 'native-like language', at learners' fingertips can dramatically alter the learning experience both in and out of the classroom. By using DDL units, language learners can benefit from learning inductively and taking responsibility for their own learning. However, concordancing programs have not been and presently are not widely used by language learners and teachers because they have not been predisposed to these ideas. Teachers and students may choose traditional instructional methods because they are more comfortable with them. Students in this study were using data-driven units for the first time. Although it had never been a part of their language learning, they quickly realized that it could be very valuable.

There are two basic assumptions underlying a corpus-based approach to language teaching. First, corpus-based investigations show patterns and complexities that are normally overlooked in traditional intuition-based analyses. During this study, the subjects discovered subtle differences in meaning when words, especially verbs, were combined with a variety of collocates. This discovery then helped the subjects produce more accurate sentences. Secondly, students are encouraged to use contextual examples in authentic texts rather than referring to or depending on isolated examples in language textbooks. The subjects discovered that some words or

phrases could be used with different collocates, depending on the context. Also depending on the context, some words may or may not be used. For example, the words “proud” and “arrogant” have a similar meaning but are used within different contexts. The nature of language structure and use are demonstrated in corpus-based studies.

In summary, Data-Driven Learning supports setting up environments where language learners have opportunities to interact with authentic texts to see how language is used in both general and particular settings. With Data-Driven Learning, classes can be more learner-centered and inductive. While native-speaker intuition and introspective data in linguistics are the traditional resources used by native-speaking language teachers, corpus-based data has even more to offer: information on frequency, objectivity, a large quantity of data, ease of accessibility for non-native speakers, details on style and register, absence of hesitation in giving a response or fatigue experienced by human informants, the availability of diachronic information, and the authenticity of the data.

7.1.2 Practical Implications

Since preparing DDL materials may take time, teachers can make use of a retrieving tool with the corpus. For immediate uses, teachers can use the Micro-concordance software, which is more than capable of producing DDL materials with its facilities such as sorting words on the left and right contexts of the key words or blanking the key words. Web concordancing can also be an immediate solution although the data available are rather limited. In all cases, the most important thing is to give the teacher some workshop training because some concordancing tools can be difficult to operate. For teachers who do not want to learn to use concordancing tools, ready-made DDL materials should be made available e.g. in the teacher’s resource centre.

Moreover, DDL materials should focus on the language points learners need to learn and should be relevant to English courses to which the materials are supplemented. One way to achieve this is to keep a balance between drawing attention to less familiar language features such as collocation and semantic prosody

(an ideal use of concordance data), and to more familiar pedagogic grammar such as prepositions, verb tenses, conditional clauses and so on (a possible use of concordance data). A needs analysis may be useful, and DDL materials can be also based on common language errors made by Turkish students or on specific errors identified from assignments.

Although the DDL methodology is very much in line with current trends in education such as the constructivist approach and also with the learner-centred approach promoted by the Ministry of Education, not all students would want to learn independently. DDL is likely to be taken seriously by learners with self-regulated learning styles, but not by learners who are less motivated and also more relaxed with the traditional ‘pass-on-the-knowledge’ teaching methods.

In addition to the concerns of learner proficiency level, learner morale should be taken into consideration when using a corpus in a language classroom. Students can feel quite unmotivated when frequent words in concordances become too lengthy and meaningless possibly because the amount of information they face is overwhelming. If this is the case, items should be reevaluated for their appropriateness in a concordancing program. It is better to work with a corpus that is small and specialized. In this way, learners can discover the characteristics of a particular area of language use and utilize a small and specialized corpus as a training tool for larger ones.

Finally, the gap between the rapid development of applied corpus linguistics and its influence on modern classroom resources on the one hand and the average English teacher’s knowledge on the other can only be bridged if many more English language teachers are systematically familiarized with the basic foundations, implications and applications of corpus linguistics.

CHAPTER VIII

Conclusion

8.1 Summary of the Main Results

It would be better to emphasize once again that this thesis was applied to intermediate level students within a short period of time using only text-based materials rather than a concordancing program and it did not take learning strategies into consideration. The thesis has reported and discussed the evaluation of DDL used by Turkish students in two respects: (a) the learning effect of DDL and (b) the learners' attitudes towards DDL materials. The results can be summarised as follows:

8.1.1 The Learning Effect of DDL

The learning effect of DDL was measured using pre- and post-tests administered to the experimental group (working on DDL materials) and the control group (working on non-DDL materials). The main test results suggested that DDL has a marked effect on the learning of language items presented in the materials but not to the learners' ability to transfer context observation skills to DDL tasks with novel concordances or on similar language tasks that involve deduction of meaning from context.

Insignificant results were obtained in the second part of the test which measured the transfer effect of DDL. A possible reason for the insignificant results was that context observation and hypothesis testing skills were not likely to be fully developed and therefore significant improvement could not be measured when the learners had worked on DDL teaching units for only two months as part of the course rather than the whole course being taught using the DDL approach. The transfer effect of DDL could have been more noticeable if learners had worked intensively on DDL materials for a longer period of time.

8.1.2 Learners' Attitudes towards DDL materials

To elicit learners' attitudes towards DDL materials, the DDL students were given a questionnaire and asked to rate the DDL materials in terms of general presentation, timing and difficulty, usefulness as a language focus activity, and relevance to the learner's main syllabus. In general, the DDL materials were rated highly in all areas. Most of the DDL students thought that concordancing is an interesting way of learning English and that concordance-based materials helped them learn more about words in context.

8.2 Suggestions for Future Research

Based on the findings and discussions about the related literature, some suggestions and recommendations for future research will be made in this section on four points: learning strategies, materials, participants, and degree of exposure to DDL.

8.2.1 Learning Strategies

In terms of learning method, although the DDL materials were designed to develop inductive learning while the non-DDL teaching units used deductive techniques, it was difficult to control the learners' strategy use or cognitive processes. For example, some DDL students adopted deductive strategies by asking the teacher to give the answers before making generalisations by themselves, or used a dictionary to get meanings of words instead of inducing the meanings from given contexts. Therefore, researchers should consider the role of learning strategies before doing such a research or they may also examine the relationship between learning styles and strategies and DDL for future research.

8.2.2 Materials

This study used only text-based DDL units, not a concordancing program on a web site because of technical insufficiencies. The concordance lines or citations were selected from the Bank of English corpus using the Lookup software. It would

be helpful to know what the differences will be in terms of the effects and the application of a concordancing program and text- based DDL units.

8.2.3 Participants

This research has only investigated intermediate EFL learners. In the future, it may be useful to know how DDL units effect other levels of foreign language learners. In order to accommodate the different levels of proficiency, future research can address the use of a parallel corpus. Because a parallel corpus shows examples in both the learners' L1 and the L2, learners may develop different strategies, depending on which language they are using. An advantage of using a parallel corpus is that learners can use search terms in either language, which may alter the way they use dictionaries and thesauri in conjunction with a concordancing program. By comparing examples in both languages that have the same meaning, learners can compare linguistic differences in those two languages. This helps them understand the context of the search word in the target language.

8.2.4 Degree of Exposure

Lastly, degree of exposure to the treatment may also have affected the research findings. This research was carried out over a short period of time. The subjects, in particular the DDL students, worked on the materials for only ten or fifteen minutes in each lesson. So the learners' exposure to the DDL materials was rather limited and the results did not show an improvement in the transfer effect of Data-Driven Learning on language learning. This suggests that conducting a longitudinal study of foreign language learners may indicate the transfer effect of DDL units. A longitudinal study could reveal whether Data-Driven Learning has any effect on students' ability to apply context observation skills to DDL tasks based on novel concordances and on similar language tasks.

8.3 Final Remarks

The DDL approach has great potential for language teaching. First, using a concordancing program can have a large impact on the process of language learning. It stimulates students' inquiries and speculations on the target language. They are able to see patterns and form generalizations of those patterns. Second, the DDL approach affects the role of the teacher, who becomes the director and coordinator of student initiated research. The third major effect of the DDL approach is that re-evaluates how language is learned and taught. Rutherford (1987) contends that the DDL approach makes a new style of "grammatical consciousness-raising" possible.

Although it may be argued that DDL has become a well-established teaching approach, development is still needed in all aspects of DDL. Effective, affordable and learner-friendly concordancing software that will be used by Turkish learners should be designed. More possibilities and options of DDL materials and DDL tasks should be suggested and shared between DDL practitioners so that learners can work on a wide range of DDL tasks and choose to focus on the task format that best suits them. Perhaps most importantly, for DDL to be widely adopted, particularly among those sceptical of the approach, more evidence is needed from empirical research for the argument that DDL has positive learning effects in different teaching contexts and different learning cultures. The present study is an early attempt to achieve the purpose, and hopefully there are still more to come.

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APPENDIX A

PRE- AND POST-TEST

Dear Students,

The data collected from the following questionnaire will be used as a basis for a thesis entitled “Effects of Data-Driven Learning on Language Learning: A Study of Turkish Learners of English as a Foreign Language”.

Thanks indeed for your invaluable contribution.

1. Name: _____

2. Age: _____

3. MALE _____ FEMALE _____

4. Years of English: _____

5. Why are you learning English?

- a) English helps me communicate with foreigners
- b) English is widely spoken in the world today
- c) English helps me get a good and well-paid job
- d) I like the language
- e) English helps me learn about other cultures
- f) English is fashionable

PART I

Section 1: Mark the correct alternative given in the parenthesis.

1. A hospital is a place (where/ which) people are given medical care.
2. If you don't study for your exam, it is (likely / unlikely) that you are going to fail in it.
3. It is (a shame / ashamed) one can't simply move a house to an environment one likes.
4. All the schools in the area were closed (thanks to / owing to) an outbreak of measles.
5. The nice people had gone, and the newcomers were hard men, cruel, (arrogant / proud), dirty, drunken, and foolish.

Section 2: Choose the correct alternative.

6. The first man on the Moon, _____ in the Moon, was an American astronaut Neil Armstrong who took his giant leap for mankind; in July 1969.
 a) and other b) opposite
 c) as opposed to d) despite
7. When John was a child, his dad forced him _____ barbecued snake.
 a) eat b) to eat
 c) eating d) ate
8. She was a much older woman _____ a cheerful face.
 a) with b) in
 c) for d) on
9. It takes a while for new staff to _____ at this level and gain the necessary confidence.
 a) keep their feet on the ground b) put their feet up
 c) find their feet d) have cold feet
10. Every week I have court cases which involve juveniles suspected of rape, torture, and _____ -you name it.
 a) accident b) failure
 c) danger d) murder
11. After we _____ for approximately one hour, we were beginning to wonder whether we had been lost.
 a) walked b) had walked
 c) were walking d) would walk
12. "At a meeting on Dec. 4 in Dublin United Kingdom Prime Minister John Major and his Irish **counterpart** Charles Haughey agreed to meet every six months, alternately in Dublin and London." What does the word "**counterpart**" here refer to?
 a) the Irish ambassador b) the Irish Prime Minister
 c) the American ambassador d) the American Prime Minister
13. I _____ I am not very good at persuading people to stop smoking.
 a) must admit b) might admit
 c) will admit d) would admit
14. He was a _____ man who went out of his way to help homeless people, especially children.
 a) aggressive b) generous
 c) creative d) horrific
15. The government has also made studies on diabetes, high blood pressure, pneumonia, _____ diseases to make sure all treatments are worth paying for.
 a) and other b) such as
 c) as opposed to d) due to

Section 3: Choose the alternative that suits for all the lines. These are incomplete sentences and not related to each other. Take each line on its own.

16. Angela Davis's defense team had _____ a survey of black sentiment in says. The poll of 1,060 voters was _____ after the publication of the That is the finding of a new study _____ in America which looks at food This chapter draws on research _____ at the Centre for Communication
 a) committed b) conducted
 c) experimented d) performed
17. that an inspector had been appointed to _____ the case. He will take statements send a mission of inquiry to Jerusalem to _____ the killings on Monday. The South recently set up a special task force to _____ the matter, but opposition to send his own mission of enquiry to _____ the incident and recommend ways
 a) look after b) look out
 c) look for d) look into
18. we are ever going to _____ a solution that will satisfy everybody. Committee do plan to _____ an alternative to Mr. Clinton's proposal by been desperately trying to _____ a plan to save their company. They thought they the Vienna meeting will _____ recommendations suggesting to the UN Secretary
 a) come up with b) put up with
 c) bring about d) call off
19. used by humans when working with _____ materials. The arm is controlled failing to protect workers from _____ chemicals, allowing injuries to Smog is broadly made up of two _____ substances: oxides of nitrogen, of the fact that evidence linking _____ waste with harm to human health
 a) hectic b) tedious
 c) horrific d) hazardous
20. and saw he was beaten. There was no way _____ he was going to beat me. This was to realize," he warned, "that no power _____ can protect him from being bombed. are obliged to ask each other what _____ has happened to our babies? How come it Then it will all seem different. Why _____ has the world suddenly collapsed?"
 a) to death b) at death
 c) on earth d) in earth
- 21.
- It was revealed that too much homework left children little time to do any thing else, caused their physical health to deteriorate and make them _____ .
 - Are you frequently anxious, fearful, and _____ ?
 - This syndrome can occur in certain _____ patients and is associated with personality disorders, including a willingness to commit suicide.
 - Sedatives are used to combat overactivity, anxiety, and insomnia; antidepressants to help raise the mood of severely _____ people.
 a) emotional b) bored
 c) depressed d) nervous

22.

- It is _____ that you should review possible factors in your health which are hindering optimum health.
- It was _____ that Liz should become a UN ambassador.
- It was _____ that he plant a variety of test trees.
- It is _____ that a state of emergency be declared in the country from 1 January 1991.

- | | |
|--------------|---------------|
| a) suggested | b) understood |
| c) predicted | d) concluded |

23.

- He has not lost his _____ for bad behaviour.
- Joseph Ettors and developed a _____ for being frank, fearless, and competent.
- Foley has gained a _____ as a cautious politician.
- The legendary Oriental in Bangkok has a _____ as one of the best hotels in the world.

- | | |
|----------------|---------------|
| a) aggression | b) reputation |
| c) personality | d) confidence |

24.

- Summerbee Company is determined to _____ for lost time.
- America is the country where government employees now _____ 15.5 of the total.
- They got into the habit of stopping to calculate whether to _____ a story to cover their mistakes.
- She would pin her hair up carefully and _____ her face before marching down to Richard's room.

- | | |
|-------------|-------------|
| a) build up | b) catch up |
| c) clear up | d) make up |

25.

- It is a mistake to believe that it is only the hard-driving, strongly competitive, _____ person who gets things done.
- The referee called me in afterwards and said I was being reported for kicking the ball in an _____ manner.
- It is said that _____ behaviour threatens, punishes, or puts down other people.
- Many of the _____ acts were physical in nature and quite violent, but most of the friendly acts consists of mild expressions of friendliness.

- | | |
|------------------|--------------|
| a) aggressive | b) active |
| c) inappropriate | d) ambitious |

PART II

Section 1: Circle the alternative which gives the correct meaning of the word in bold according to the sentence.

1. If you change your mind, you then **break** the contract and must pay your deposit.
 - a) to separate something into two or more pieces
 - b) to give up something
 - c) to do something you should not do according to a rule, promise, or agreement
 - d) to make a machine longer work or damaged

2. He accused her of **breaking** the stereo after he let her use it for a few nights.
 - a) to make a machine no longer work or damaged
 - b) to do something you should not do according to a rule, promise, or agreement
 - c) to separate something into two or more pieces
 - d) to give up something
3. "Is there anything wrong?" He shouted after failing twice to **catch** what he was being told.
 - a) to hold someone or something
 - b) to manage to contact or meet someone before they go somewhere
 - c) to see or find someone doing something wrong
 - d) to manage to hear what someone says
4. If you **catch** your child stealing, don't probe for reasons or make her feel worthless, but do make her return what she's taken, in person.
 - a) to manage to hear what someone says
 - b) to see or find someone doing something wrong
 - c) to hold someone or something
 - d) to manage to contact or meet someone before they go somewhere
5. As we get ready to take our place in the globalisation process, we have to work out who we are and where we **stand**.
 - a) to put yourself in an upright position
 - b) to have an attitude towards a particular issue
 - c) to be able to bear or tolerate something
 - d) to stay in the same condition
6. I don't go to parties where there are too many people, and I can't **stand** discos either.
 - a) to be able to bear or tolerate something
 - b) to put yourself in an upright position
 - c) to stay in the same condition
 - d) to have an attitude towards a particular issue
7. Mr. Robinson has denied any wrongdoing and promise to **vigorously** defend himself against the legal actions.

a) strongly	b) hardly
c) actively	d) lawfully
8. This most **profligate** of industries allows hundreds of millions of gallons of water to leak away daily, unused.

a) resourceful	b) powerful
c) harmful	d) wasteful
9. There have also been **ructions** at the Asian Development Bank where its members are arguing about whether its lending should have conditions attached.

a) discussions	b) quarrels
c) revisions	d) protests

10. Even though no medicine available actually cures a cold, you can do some things to *alleviate* your discomfort and speed your recovery.

- | | |
|-----------|-------------|
| a) ignore | b) increase |
| c) ease | d) destroy |

Choose the correct alternative for each blank given in the text below.

Kinder to teeth

Brush your teeth too 11 and you can end up with bleeding gums, damaged teeth, or both. So Unilever has designed a toothbrush that tells aggressive 'brushers' 12 to ease off. A cavity runs along the inside of the handle of the otherwise ordinary nylon brush, 13 is filled with a material which changes colour after a few seconds of 14 pressure. Having given its visible warning, the handle gradually reverts to its original 15.

- | | | |
|-----|--------------|---------------|
| 11. | a) often | b) hard |
| | c) long | d) fast |
| 12. | a) how | b) where |
| | c) why | d) when |
| 13. | a) and | b) nor |
| | c) but | d) or |
| 14. | a) changing | b) normal |
| | c) excessive | d) decreasing |
| 15. | a) material | b) size |
| | c) colour | d) position |

16. my lips. So, are you looking _____ the tour? Yeah, definitely.
the result of the scan and look _____ welcoming your baby, be it a
WC2. In the Rotunda room. We look _____ meeting new members. TV
from around the world. I am looking _____ hearing from you

- | | |
|----------|---------------|
| a) ahead | b) forward to |
| c) for | d) into |

17. 071-276 2035. The commissioner can't look _____ complaints about a doctor's
told President Gorbachev that he will look _____ the problems at the Soviet
opposition as well as a commission to look _____ alleged abuses of human
rights.
Labour Party has called for the UN to look _____ all deaths in southern
Somalia.

- | | |
|---------|----------|
| a) into | b) out |
| c) down | d) after |

18. _____ have been trying to _____ a choice for a new minister you SHOOT readers. All you have to do is _____ the answer to the question to founder if the Community fails to _____ proposals which satisfy the Now a group of doctors in England seem to _____ a new method of producing a

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------|
| a) put up with | b) come up with |
| c) bring about | d) call off |

19. _____ any translation which has _____ a transmitting function cannot such as Thailand and Singapore have _____ their economic miracles. But it criminals, verified a passport or _____ other tasks that involve tedious cultural centre. Plays are often _____ at the Theatre Royal before

- | | |
|--------------|-------------|
| a) performed | b) caused |
| c) conducted | d) acquired |

20. _____ Russian leader Boris Yeltsin _____ an official visit to Norway yesterday. the deadline was met, it had already _____ its talks with the government. Senior week boycott of sugar cane harvest and _____ a general strike planned for next on the field minutes after play was _____ for the day because of bad light.

- | | |
|------------------|---------------|
| a) looked into | b) looked for |
| c) brought about | d) called off |

Section 2: Choose the correct alternative which suits for all the lines.

21. • Brian Laudrup yells out in delight after grabbing the second goal in a sensational World Cup _____ over Nigeria.

- Player power helped Nigeria clinch a stunning 3-2 _____ over Spain.
- A thrilling three-wicket _____ over Australia in Melbourne earned the Sri Lankans a place in the finals.
- Clinton won the presidency yesterday with a landslide _____ over president Bush.

- | | |
|---------------|------------|
| a) excitement | b) fight |
| c) defeat | d) victory |

22. • The findings suggested poor relationships were often characterised by husbands' attempts to exercise undue _____ over their wives.

- Speaking immediately after his election, Mr. Savisaar said his priority would be to ensure Estonia gained full _____ over its own territory.
- There was broad consensus on the need for strict _____ over the sale of Iraqi oil and tight monitoring of the aid which it purchases.
- Government, through its control over all forms of mass media, exerted virtually complete _____ over the lives and actions of all citizens.

- | | |
|-------------|-------------|
| a) argument | b) control |
| c) lead | d) decision |

23. • The re-unification of Germany remains on course after yesterday's talks in Bonn, although the _____ over whether the new German should be a member of NATO is still to be resolved.

- Envoys from Iraq and Kuwait have begun talks in Saudi Arabia to try to resolve their _____ over oil production and their border.
- The two sides have also finally settled a long-running _____ over fishing and mineral rights along the maritime boundary between Alaska and the Soviet Union.
- Tokyo and Moscow have been locked in a bitter territorial _____ over a set of islands north of Japan.

a) confusion
c) dispute

b) discussion
d) debate

24.

- There is profound public _____ over the effect of radiation pollution.
- It is China's worst air disaster and comes amid mounting _____ over safety after several crashes.
- The US, South Korea and Japan yesterday voiced strong _____ over North Korea's plan to quit the UN watchdog.
- The president has said he has a deep and growing _____ over the situation in Kuwait and the plight of foreigners there.

a) concern
c) worry

b) protest
d) right

25.

- Soviet officials argue that NATO is trying to gain a military _____ over the East from arms control talks.
- Lufthansa has a clear _____ over BA in its service to Peking and Shanghai, thanks to Germany's political connections with China.
- Stock markets have one big _____ over banks: it is harder for governments to affect the way that they allocate capital.
- If the information went to only one or a few American corporations, they would gain an unfair _____ over other American firms.

a) victory
c) disagreement

b) control
d) advantage

APPENDIX B

THE AGREEMENT SCALE QUESTIONNAIRE

Male Female

Please mark the appropriate one which satisfies you. Each item requires one choice only. Thanks for your participation.

1. The units are interesting.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

2. The discussion-based part of the units is interesting.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

3. The exercise-based part of the units is interesting.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

4. The format or presentation of the units is good.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

5. The units are not too long and can be done in 10-15 minutes.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

6. The units are not difficult to complete.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

7. The instructions are easy to follow.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

8. The units help you improve your language learning.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

9. The units should be used in every English lesson.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

10. The units help you improve your reading skills.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

11. The units help you learn new vocabulary, idioms, or expressions.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

12. The units help you learn vocabulary and its usage.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

13. The units help you learn grammar or structure.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

14. The units help you learn meanings of words (e.g. literal/metaphorical, or connotation).

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

15. The units help you learn about words and context (collocation).

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

16. The units help you learn to guess meanings of words or guess missing words from context.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

17. The language points selected are useful.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

18. The concordance lines are not too difficult to read.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

19. The concordance lines are well chosen.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

20. Observing concordance lines is an interesting way of learning English.

3 = agree 2 = neutral 1 = disagree

21. What do you think is the main strength of this approach?

.....

22. What do you think is the main weakness of this approach?

.....

(Taken from: Sripicharn, P. Evaluating Data-Driven Learning: The use of classroom concordancing by Thai learners of English. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, the University of Birmingham, UK, 2002)

APPENDIX C

DDL MATERIALS

Unit 1: An introduction to concordances (1)

What are concordances?

Concordances or concordance lines are examples of a word or a phrase with some context on its left and right sides. There are two main types of concordances. The first type is called ‘**Key Word In Context**’ or ‘**KWIC**’. In this format, the key word is placed in the middle of each line. Here are examples of KWIC concordance for the word ‘**commit**’.

for divorce, yet we know that men **commit** adultery more often, which suggests
 their blackness that has made them **commit** crime, but we cannot ignore the
 not accept the charge that he might **commit** fraud against Simex by failing to
 fat German know that I will **commit** hara-kiri with my Eurosceptics
 the jury to decide if he intended to **commit** murder and grievous bodily harm.
 kidnapping and conspiracy to **commit** rape. Police photographs taken
 CHILDREN aged 10 to 13 who **commit** robbery, rape, assault, burglary
 conspiracy to defraud, conspiracy to **commit** theft, false accounting, and VAT
 fitted his theory. He wanted to **commit** suicide, leaving orders

The second type is called ‘**full-sentence**’ concordance. In this format, the key word is presented in a full /complete sentence. Here are examples of full- sentence concordance for the word ‘**escape**’.

Some Jews in other situations did manage to **escape** from the Nazis.
 He never learnt how to love his father, but he learnt how to **escape** from him.
 Nor can we **escape** from the monster.

What can you observe from concordance lines? Now, let have a look again at the concordance lines for ‘**commit**’, and answer the questions.

1. for divorce, yet we know that men **commit** adultery more often, which suggests
2. their blackness that has made them **commit** crime, but we cannot ignore the
3. accept the charge that he might **commit** fraud against Simex by failing to
4. jury to decide if he intended to **commit** murder and grievous bodily harm.
5. kidnapping and conspiracy to **commit** rape. Police photographs taken
6. CHILDREN aged 10 to 13 who **commit** robbery, rape, assault, burglary
7. to defraud, conspiracy to **commit** theft, false accounting, and VAT
8. fitted his theory. He wanted to **commit** suicide, leaving orders
9. fat German know that I will **commit** hara-kiri with my Eurosceptics

1. What do all the underlined words have in common? What do people normally ‘**commit**’?
2. How are the actions in line 8 and line 9 different from the others?

Unit 2

An introduction to concordances (2)

Where are concordance lines taken from?

Concordance lines for a word or a phrase are normally taken from different texts. Look at the following concordance lines for '**victory**'. Can you find out the kind of sports reported in each line? Try to match the lines with the names of sports given below. Underline words or phrases that help you find the answers. The first line has been done for you.

1. sealed a good week for Italian cycling with **victory** in the Hofbrau Cup in Germany, his first victory as a pro (Cycling)
2. in narrow defeat and the Australians in a long- awaited **victory** that All Blacks are no different from any other rugby players (_____)
3. women's race, spoiling Grete Waitz's attempt at a 10th **victory**. It was Wakiuhuri's first marathon in the United (_____)
4. Last week,Bayern rounded off a thunderous 7-2 aggregate **victory** over Benfica in the Uefa Cup (_____)
5. one game of the American NBA finals with a 108-106 **victory** over the Indiana Pacers. (_____)
6. Head clay court before recording a 7-6 (7-1), 3-6, 6-3 **victory** advance to the quarter-finals. (_____)
7. for the last 40 laps of the 105-lap race to power to **victory** in his Penske Mercedes-Benz. (_____)
8. occasion and Akinwande thus looks booked for a points **victory** in this 10-round bout. (_____)
9. returned a final round of 70 and secured his maiden **victory** with a 16-under-par total of 272. (_____)
10. of the overall World Cup standings after his slalom **victory** at Sestriere. (_____)

skiing	basketball	football	rugby	car-racing
marathon	golf	cycling	boxing	tenis

Unit 3

People and their body parts

What is the missing word in each set of the concordance lines? To give you a clue, all the missing words are parts of your body!!

Set A The missing word is _____

a very attractive girl with lovely _____ and skin". The pretty girl Neil
its next to a tall man with big _____, a grey beard and a Powerbook:
a tall, dignified old man with sad _____. May I speak with you in
a quiet woman with bright shining _____, does not believe all the stories
a wedge. A young woman with bright _____ and short hair peered out at him
very attractive woman with large blue _____ and jet-black hair that she kept to

Set B The missing word is _____

a wonderful woman, with her handsome _____ like a Roman emperor's and hearty
judge, a middle-aged man with a red _____, was sitting behind a squat wooden
been." A tall, gangly man with a kind _____, he says quietly that he can't feel
on `every old woman with a wrinkled _____, a furred brow, a hairy lip, a
an old couple, a woman with an oval _____ that must once have been handsome.
was a small, compact man with a baby _____. Ross took Harry by the arm. `Harry

Set C The missing word is _____

was a fascinating man, with wonderful _____ and a distinctive style of
a middle-aged man with strange long _____ who looked like the Earl of
tall, powerfully built man with short _____ and a well-trimmed moustache, he
had a premonition of a girl with dark _____, in dark jeans, walking along near a
a middle-aged woman with dyed ginger _____, came in with their coffee. She
for an American girl with big blonde _____, long legs, big teeth. It smells

Set D The missing word is _____

those of a certain girl with a big _____. How I walked the twenty-five steps
as a short, pudgy man with a red _____ approached them. Hi," he said. `You
rough-tongued man with a long _____, heavy jaw, sharp mind and highly a
small, thin woman with a flattened _____ also gazed at the stage. Their box
life. This little man, with his sharp _____, has worked his
My role is a girl with a runny _____. She's a slight eccentric. It's a

Activity

As you may notice, all the above concordance lines share the pattern "**adj. + person + with + adj. + body part**". In groups of three or four, try to describe your friends and their body parts using that pattern. For example, "**The person sitting next to me is a nice, attractive woman with big eyes**". The concordance lines above may give you some ideas.

Unit 4

Guessing game!

Rules

1. Students work in groups of three or four.
2. Each set of citations will be written on an OHT.
3. When the first set is played, the teacher gives the clue and reveals the first citation. If a group or groups can give the right answer from this first citation, they will get 10 points, and the next set is played.
4. If no one gets the right answer, the other citations will be shown, one at a time, until a group or groups get the right answer and the next set is played. The right answer from the second citation is worth 8 points, and 6 points from the third citation, 4 points from the fourth citation, and 2 points from the fifth citation.
5. If all the citations are shown and no one gets the answer, the teacher gives more letters in the clue, and points out some words or phrases in context which would help the students to get the right word. The right answer at this stage is worth 1 point.
6. The winner is the group with the highest points.

Set 1. Clue = a _ _ _ _ _ e

- She's a middle-class, educated, young, _____ woman.
- An _____ woman, tall and blonde, she went to college and studied media.
- He knew her as a vibrant, _____ girl, fun-loving, and flirtatious.
- She was a vivacious and _____ woman who became the centre of attention in any room she entered.
- Louise is the most _____ girl in the class but her sister is even more beautiful.

Set 2. Clue = j _ _ _ _ s

- A _____ person maybe possessive and demanding, dictating the other person's actions.
- What baffles the man is that the _____ woman responds as if he had actually been sexually unfaithful.
- The _____ person is angry at his woman being taken by another man.
- Being a _____ man, I didn't want to share her with anyone.
- Jealousy causes distress and painful emotions until something happens to make the _____ person feel better.

Set 3. Clue = c _ _ _ _ e

- Like most _____ people, Michael is a mixture of high intellect and brilliant intuition.
- _____ people are good at exploiting ideas and are good at finding out and incorporating ideas that went before them.
- Research suggests that productive thinkers and _____ people have a keen sense of imperfection and that this sense is one of the sources of their achievement.
- It is aimed to encourage the establishment of consortia between producers, distributors, and multimedia _____ people.
- _____ people work as part of teams and those teams have to know how to foster creativity rather than exploit it.

Set 4. Clue = a _ _ _ _ _ e

- The document discussed the need for security guards in handling _ _ _ _ _ people at the most dangerous offices.
- _ _ _ _ _ people often stand too close to others, stand when other sits, point or wag their finger, and use loud tones of voice.
- Jo was nearly knocked out by the _ _ _ _ _ man after being assaulted by his friend.
- A large _ _ _ _ _ man had questioned him, threatened him and accused him of treachery at knife-point.
- Elda has been known as a very _ _ _ _ _ person but now she directs most of her aggression into her successful career in computer sales.

Set 5. Clue = d _ _ _ _ _ e d

- A _ _ _ _ _ person may or may not seek help depending on his or her perception of emotional illness.
- Lonely, _ _ _ _ _ people always fear that if they disappeared, no one would care or even notice.
- _ _ _ _ _ people often express feelings of deep unworthiness and guilt.
- _ _ _ _ _ people may well be considering suicide before they even begin medication.
- A _ _ _ _ _ person suffers from lowering of mood, reduction of energy and decrease in activity and the capacity for enjoyment, interest and concentration are impaired.

Unit 5
‘A good student who never skips classes’

“We offer advice, training, and finance assistance for _____ people **who want to become selfemployed.**”

What is the best word to fill in the blank? Underline words or phrases in the above sentence that give you the clues to the answer.

- a) unusual b) uneducated c) unemployed d) unhealthy

You may notice that the context in **‘who’-clause** helps you find the correct adjective used before the word **‘people’**.

Try to match the first half of each sentence with the second half. The first match is ‘a-8’. Try to find the others. Underline words or phrases that give you some clues.

First half	Second half
a) After-work cookbook is the recipe book for busy people	1. who are about to leave or who have recently left schools and other institutions of further education.
b) Type-talk is a crucial and confidential service for deaf people	2. who took shelter there on a continuing basis.
c) They may cancel the Seattle’s homecoming parade for military people	3. who are trying to survive amidst a devastated economy.
d) The scheme is also the vehicle which helps to subsidise the costs for old people	4. who have to diet rigorously to lose weight.
e) The amount of brown body fat is another consideration for overweight people	5. who cannot use an ordinary phone.
f) You can help make the difference between ‘life’ and ‘death’ for poor people	6. who participated in Operation Desert Storm.
g) A private club will be open in Beverly Hills next month for rich people	7. who go into nursing homes.
h) Vocational guidance is provided by Careers Services for young people	8. who can’t spend a whole evening in the kitchen but want to eat well.
i) Four fires occurred at the apartments which for two and a half years had sat vacant except for homeless people	9. who smoke expensive cigars.

Unit 6

‘English and other confusing languages’

Look at the following concordance lines. What is the relationship in meaning between ‘noun group’ in front of the word ‘and’ (**bolded words**) and ‘noun group’ after the word ‘other’ (underlined words)?

For example, in the first line, what is the relationship in meaning between ‘**Sweden, England**’ and ‘countries’?

been studies in **Sweden, England** and other countries which have come up with their **blood pressure, heart rate** and other bodily processes during meditation.

40 samples of **gold, silver, lead** and other materials were melted away in tiny in cancers of the **breast, bladder** and other organs. The gene is the second of years of exposing **mice, rabbits**, and other animals to direct inhalation, **restaurants, financial services** and other businesses. I don't mind that there relief associations for **pensions** and other social benefits are included. Longanimals and the victims of **cancer** and other illnesses - but to reject within days of joining **the Queen** and other members of the Royal Family on

Exercise

In the following lines, the contexts after the word ‘**other**’ are in the wrong order. For example, in the first line, “measles, polio and other non-renewable forms of energy” does not make any sense. Try to put them back in order so that the first part of each context matches the second part. The first match is ‘a – 7’ (which reads “measles, polio and other childhood diseases”). Find the other matches.

- a) a plan to combat measles, polio **and other** non-renewable forms of energy(1)
- b) tax on oil, coal, natural gas **and other** infections. This may sound (2)
- c) proteins of humans, chimpanzees, **and other** household services through (3)
- d) crutches, canes, walking sticks, **and other** financial institutions. (4)
- e) copying Japan, Korea **and other** support for vulnerable women (5)
- f) mutual funds, commercial banks, **and other** aids to locomotion. The trial (6)
- g) meetings, film shows, exhibitions **and other** childhood diseases and AIDS (7)
- h) shelters, legal aid, medical care **and other** mammals, Wilson was able to (8)
- i) insurance, electricity, telephone **and other** events are invited for (9)
- j) more vulnerable to coughs, colds, **and other** Pacific Rim countries, or to (10)

Unit 7

‘Are we proud or arrogant?’

In this unit, we will focus on the words ‘**proud**’ and ‘**arrogant**’. Both words can be used to describe the feeling of self-respect or a good feeling about yourself or something you achieve. However, there is one big difference between the two words. What is the difference?

First, look at the concordance lines for ‘**proud**’, and try to answer the question.

from my life and theirs. I am **proud** of my country and the service I forefathers suffered racism, can be **proud** of being products of a successful and wider French society. Helias was **proud** of his role as mediator. Per might have hoped they would be more **proud** of their quality? Perhaps this is up to the very end and we're very **proud** that he died for his country, even a major institution and I would be **proud** to be a member of this parliament."

Does the word ‘**proud**’ have a positive or negative meaning? Underline words or phrases that you may use as clues to the answer.

Now, look at the concordance lines for ‘**arrogant**’, and try to answer the question.

said in summing-up, ‘rude, **arrogant** and self-opinionated’. McGown while enemies condemn him as **arrogant** and ruthless - ‘a man in a hurry was ‘humiliating, undignified, **arrogant** and unjust’. The government's been aware of Government as remote, **arrogant** and unresponsive, immovable by the for sending its employees an ‘**arrogant** and insensitive’ memo about last presented as a nasty, cold, **arrogant**, cynical manipulator," he tells me comments may sound outrageously **arrogant**, yet they're delivered with a

Does the word ‘**arrogant**’ have a positive or negative meaning? Underline words or phrases that you may use as clues to the answer.

Exercise: Fill in the blanks with either ‘**proud**’ or ‘**arrogant**’.

1. Service director-general, was _____ and incompetent: ‘No fish and
2. the contrary, they are all extremely _____ of her talent, and roar her on.
3. flannels it is unwise, naive and _____ to expect any long-term plans
4. that there are bad experiments and _____ scientists, agree that the law
5. would be a thriving diverse region, _____ of its rich history, independent
6. also irrational, despotic, vain, _____, cruel and paranoid. She also
7. plants. He was particularly _____ that BOC had won the order for

Unit 8

Phrasal verbs (1)

Study the dictionary definitions of these phrasal verbs, and find the missing word in each set of concordance lines.

look after	If you look after someone or something, you do what is necessary to keep them healthy, safe, or in good condition.
look ahead	If you look ahead, you think about what is going to happen in the future and perhaps make plans for the future.
look for	If you look for something that you have lost, or for something that you want or need, you try to find it.
look forward to	If you look forward to something that is going to happen, you want it to happen because you think you will enjoy it.
look into	If a person or organisation looks into something, they examine the facts relating to it before deciding what to do.

Set A The missing word is _____
 start said Janet, who was looking _____ a week's holiday in Portugal
 this year. He was so looking _____ achieving his ambitions,' said
 Prime Minister said he looks _____ visiting China in June this
 on Tuesday 12th October. They look _____ seeing you any time between 11.

Set B The missing word is _____
 tells us it's our responsibility to look _____ our own belongings. Our
 teeth, it's still important to look _____ your teeth properly. Caring
 mothers always take time off to look _____ their sick children. If a
 Historically, young children were looked _____ mainly by older children or

Set C The missing word is _____
 difficult job of attempting to look _____ beyond our present problems, to
 the ground. I'm trying to look _____ at what might happen and be ready
 various individuals to look _____ to the future. Tucked away among
 generation. Do not look back, look _____. Keep your eye on the sparrow,

Set D The missing word is _____
 Criminal Justice Review Body would look _____ cases referred to it from
 The detective promised to look _____ the matter but wasn't too
 appointed by Prime Minister to look _____ the bloody incident is headed
 General to send a mission to look _____ the killings and to recommend

Set E The missing word is _____
 insurance company that is currently looking _____ opportunities to acquire UK
 battle fatigue is best relieved by looking _____ solutions to what brought
 Chelmsford CM1 4DB. When you are looking _____ a job, do not forget that
 supplication. 'Where were you? I was looking _____ you all the time, I nearly

Unit 9

“What can you do with your feet?”

In this unit, we focus on five idioms, all to do with your ‘feet’. Try to match the idioms (column A) with their meanings (column B).

Column A: Idioms	Column B: Meanings
1. If you stand on your (two) feet, 2. If you put your feet up, 3. If you keep your feet on the ground, 4. If you are finding your feet, 5. If you have/get cold feet,	a. you continue to act sensibly even when you become successful or powerful b. you are worried about something and are not sure about what you are going to do c. you are very sick d. you are not being polite e. you do not need anyone to help you f. you are becoming more confident g. you are looking for something that is very important h. you have a rest from your work

Now, look at the data given below and see if those examples confirm your guesses or make you change your original answers. Underline words or phrases that would give you some clues to the answers. Then compare your final answers with those of your friends.

Idiom 1: ‘to stand on one’s (two) feet’

- This gave him a sense of freedom and made him *stand on his feet* at an early age.
- You are an intelligent and independent girl who is more than capable, emotionally and financially to *stand on your own two feet*.
- This industry has always *stood on its own feet* and never been a burden to its investors.
- The residents can *stand on their own two feet* rather than depend on Australian taxpayers’ money.

Idiom 2: ‘to put one’s feet up’

- At 40, he had enough in the bank to retire and headed for the sun to *put his feet up*.
- It was a time when the mother *put her feet up* and relaxed.
- Now I watch my health, *put my feet up* when I want to and enjoy myself more.
- My house is where I can *put my feet up* and do what I want to.

Idiom 3: ‘one’s feet on the ground’

- I want to stay with *my feet on the ground*, knowing who I am.
- Despite her wealth, she had *her feet on the ground*.
- He is shaping up to be a really good player as long as he keeps *his feet on the ground* and doesn’t believe all that people already telling him how great he is.

Idiom 4: ‘to find one’s feet’

- You can’t just walk in and do it. It’s hard work. It takes a while to *find your feet*.
- He took a while to *find his feet*, but he’s won a few small opens over the winter.
- The new England team will take time to *find their feet*.
- During my first year in prison I was still *finding my feet*. I was learning the routines and conventions and who was who.

Idiom 5: ‘to have/get cold feet’

- I feel your boyfriend *got cold feet* about being in a committed relationship.
- The Soviet Parliament seemed to *get cold feet* over the plans, fearing the amount of power it would give the president.
- Investors are beginning to *get cold feet*; some have already moved their money to the US, where there is less hostility towards genetic engineering.
- Wedding insurance does not pay out if one of the partners *gets cold feet* and decides not to go through with the ceremony.

Unit 10

‘Get them to love you and make them cry’

Look at the concordance lines in Set A and Set B and answer the questions.

Set A

the sudden, unexpected movement may cause him to cry. But try to remember .

His career in finance and computing caused him to leave the East Yorkshire not working with me. So I had to force them to change their minds. I was afterward, in January 1990, Robinson forced him to resign and a brewing capital near it, and it was no easy task to get him to quit it. Flaubert longed you spend all your time trying to get them to love you instead of just

Set B

made you go into the studio, no one made you sign a recording contract and I reason I turned it down. What made him change his mind was the wise She makes the audience laugh and she makes them cry, effortlessly changing the to get the feel of the guitar. Don't let them bully you out of the shop. It's They just thought, he's playing well, let him play. Trilok's mother Shobha think they can market it. And I say, Let them try." Kurt turns the key in the two visits. Go once with a guide and have him point out the main sights, then I like to walk to work and I'm not having them move it to Milton Keynes just

Questions

1. In terms of meanings, what do the underlined phrases in Set A and the underlined phrases in Set B have in common?
2. In terms of verb pattern, what are the differences between the underlined phrases in Set A and the underlined phrases in Set B?

Exercise: Underline the correct verb form in each sentence.

1. However, inconvenient developments force you (assess / to assess) your situation.
2. His career in finance and computing caused him (leave / to leave) the East Yorkshire.
3. I got them (bring / to bring) me the photos.
4. His co-workers forge a telegram to make him (believe / to believe) he's won the lottery.
5. The sudden, unexpected movement may cause him (cry / to cry).
6. Let her (see / to see) her reflection in a mirror.
7. I asked him why he hadn't let us (know / to know) where he was.
8. His jealousy makes you (feel / to feel) guilty and ashamed.

Unit 11

‘...a place which...’ and ‘...a place where...’

Both **‘which’** and **‘where’** can be used to begin a clause after the words ‘place’ or ‘places’.

For example, “ Joanna and I used to go out to places **which** had been bombed and places **where** people had to be pulled out of the ruins.”

Look at the two sets of data below, and try to think of a rule that help you decide whether you should use **‘which’** or **‘where’** to begin a clause after the words ‘place’ or ‘places’.

Set A ‘place’ or ‘places’ + where

One **place where** you can find reasonable music seven nights a week is the grungy Sandringham hotel.

We went to shopping centers, amusement parks, **places where** there were many children.

We are still candidates for future work with MAF if there is a **place where** the climate is more suitable.

It is a **place where** financial information is exchanged, deals are reported and standard terms are devised.

They'd kill us if we went within two miles of the **place where** the meeting was being held.

Set B ‘place’ or ‘places’ + which

It is still a **place which** attracts scholars and pilgrims.

It was a **place which** may never have existed.

It's the wild, romantic **places which** are threatened most by development.

Ray bought a house at Nerang, a **place which** they believe has ample facilities and is close to the airport.

He has a map and was trying to find a **place which** no one seemed to know anything about.

Exercise: Fill in the blanks with either **‘which’** or **‘where’**

1. He would have to find a place _____ food and drink were available.
2. Here are some other places _____ might have useful information.
3. You will need a place _____ is warm and has a bath and a bed or beds.
4. It's a place _____ dreams are realised, movies are made, and fantasy is seen.
5. She took me to a warm, dry and pleasant place _____ we had coffee and buns and wine.
6. We got lost in Miami and went into a hamburger place _____ was being robbed.
7. They both met my criteria and in addition also seemed to be places _____ important events were taking place.

Unit 12

‘you name it’

People normally say ‘**you name it**’ after (or before) a list to emphasise that they are talking about a very wide range of things. Look at the following examples of ‘**you name it**’. Underline the list in each sentence and think of a noun that refers to the whole type of the items listed. The first sentence has been done for you.

1. So they get really attached to animals they mind. We look after dogs, cats, horses, geese, **you name it**. (animals)
2. They have been gathered together from all four points of the globe: the British Isles, The United States, Italy, India, France, **you name it**. ()
3. There were scatter-cushions in red and yellow and orange and blue and **you name it**. ()
4. And there they are - pickled cucumbers, jam, pickled berries, tomatoes; **you name it**, they've got it. ()
5. The state must do less. Pensions, healthcare, welfare insurance **you name it**, they would privatise it. ()

Fill in the blanks with the words provided in the table below.

rockets	hospital	oil	literature	jazz	graphics	cinemas
accident	heart-surgeons					

1. The Sixties were great years for music of all kinds, rock'n'roll, pop, country and western, _____, **you name it**.
2. Birmingham's theatres, _____, night-clubs, restaurants, **you name it**, are far superior to those in the metropolis.
3. Today, her Rolodex is packed with names of medical experts-virologists, geneticists, _____, **you name it**.
4. Our opponents, especially Senator Gore, have targeted virtually the entire American energy industry for massive tax hikes. Gas, coal, _____, **you name it**.
5. During the preceding 12 years the United States government had sent billions of dollars' worth of guns, ammunition, _____, grenades--**you name it**--to this foreign dictator.
6. A computer makes possible from genealogy, spread sheets, _____, letters, Christmas cards, data bases, writing stories and novels. **You name it**, all with ease.

Unit 13

‘What is your reputation?’

Look at the following concordance lines for ‘**reputation**’. In each line, try to find out whether it is a ‘**good**’ or ‘**bad**’ reputation. The context may not be very helpful but just make a guess!

1. it's hardly surprising that the British have a **reputation** for (good / bad)
2. worth £900 each to be won. Apple has a **reputation** for (good / bad)
3. Red-haired persons have for centuries had the **reputation** of (good / bad)
4. on road safety will address Australia's **reputation** as (good / bad)
5. blocks the route. Irwin has always had the **reputation** for (good / bad)
6. all the lights for Christmas. Birmingham has a **reputation** for (good / bad)

Now, look at the same concordance lines with longer context. In each line, try to identify whether the reputation is good or bad. How many correct guesses did you make?

1. outfit, it's hardly surprising that the British have a **reputation** for being badly dressed. Now, however, nonstandard (good / bad)
2. worth £900 each to be won. Apple has a **reputation** for easy-to-use computers which avoid confusing or (good / bad)
3. Red-haired persons have for centuries had the **reputation** of being angry and hot-tempered, unreliable and (good / bad)
4. conference on road safety will address Australia's **reputation** as one of the world's worst areas for road accidents (good / bad)
5. copse blocks the route. Irwin has always had the **reputation** for being steady and reliable rather than playing the (good / bad)
6. with all the lights for Christmas. Birmingham has a **reputation** for having a drugs problem, that is why I came. (good / bad)

Below is another set of concordance lines for ‘**reputation**’. In each line, try to find out whether it is a ‘**good**’ or ‘**bad**’ reputation. This time, the context will possibly help you more with your guesses. Underline words or phrases that give you some clues.

1. and discipline has been appalling: the school has a **reputation** for (good / bad)
2. with two girls and ended up with 11. She gained a **reputation** for (good / bad)
3. achievements, manufacturers have yet to shake off a **reputation** for (good / bad)
4. many officials partly blame the media for Miami's **reputation** for (good / bad)
5. had shown little inclination to shrug off his **reputation** as (good / bad)
6. in new markets, and that they can maintain their **reputation** for (good / bad)

Now, look at the same concordance lines with longer context. In each line, try to find out whether the reputation is good or bad. How many correct guesses did you make this time?

1. and discipline has been appalling: the school has a **reputation** for gangs. In short, Hackney Downs is a declining (good / bad)
2. with two girls and ended up with 11. She gained a **reputation** for innovative promotion and marketing. (good / bad)
3. achievements, manufacturers have yet to shake off a **reputation** for unreliable goods (good / bad)
4. now, many officials partly blame the media for Miami's **reputation** for crime against tourists, (good / bad)
5. latter had shown little inclination to shrug off his **reputation** as a nonscoring goalscorer. (good / bad)
6. work in new markets, and that they can maintain their **reputation** for quality, low prices, or service. (good / bad)

Unit 14

‘Thanks to’ and ‘Owing to’

Here are full-sentence concordance lines for ‘**thanks to**’. In each sentence, try to find out the part that suggests the ‘cause’ of the event and the part that suggests the ‘effect’ of the event. The first line has been done for you.

- | | |
|---------------|--------------|
| <i>effect</i> | <i>cause</i> |
|---------------|--------------|
1. Tahiti may have higher living standards than its neighbours **thanks to** its ties with France.
 2. **Thanks to** film, future generations will know the 20th century more intimately than any other period in history.
 3. They won 2-1, **thanks to** an 89th minute penalty.
 4. Most people are environmentally aware, **thanks to** the work of people like the Greens.
 5. **Thanks to** recent research, effective treatments are available for even the most pugnacious of headaches.
 6. Incidents of violence were relatively few, partly **thanks to** a massive police presence and a ban on the sale of alcoholic drinks on the day of a match.

Here are full-sentence concordance lines for ‘**owing to**’. In each sentence, try to find out the part that suggests the ‘cause’ of the event and the part that suggests the ‘effect’ of the event. The first line has been done for you.

- | | |
|---------------|--------------|
| <i>effect</i> | <i>cause</i> |
|---------------|--------------|
1. The England No.1 will miss the Dutch Open, **owing to** a heel injury.
 2. **Owing to** bad weather, the race had already been delayed for a considerable time.
 3. The metabolism of most Americans is lower than it should be **owing to** an inadequate amount of regular physical exercise.
 4. **Owing to** errors in medical procedure, her son was defective at birth.
 5. The bill stands little chance of becoming law **owing to** lack of parliamentary time.
 6. The company was facing bankruptcy **owing to** its inability to repay 500,000 pounds loan.

Discussion

According to the data above, which phrase (‘thanks to’ or ‘owing to’) is used to suggest negative cause/effect? Which phrase is used to suggest positive cause/effect? Underline words or phrases that give you the clues.

Unit 15 'make up'

In this unit, we focus on the phrasal verb '**make up**', which has different meanings. Study the four meanings of '**make up**' taken from the COBUILD Learner's Dictionary. Then look at the data below and find out the meaning of '**make up**' in each line. The first two lines have been done for you.

- (A) The people or things that **make up** something are the members or parts that form that thing.
- (B) If you **make up** something, you invent it, sometimes in order to deceive people.
- (C) If you **make** yourself **up**, or if someone else **makes** you **up**, make-up is put on your face.
- (D) If you **make up** for something that is lost, missing or damaged, you replace it or compensate for it.

1. There were few Muslims. Catholics **made up** 5-10 % of Vietnam's population. (**A**)
2. It will reduce fat and calorie intakes, or simply encourage people to eat more to **make up** for what they are missing. (**D**)
3. I put on my sexiest red dress and black stockings, and spent hours **making up** my face. ()
4. So she **makes up** this story about being visited by aliens, and has all the press running round. ()
5. The company is determined to **make up** for lost time. ()
6. My mother was always there before putting us to bed, as she bathed and **made** herself **up** to go out. ()
7. I can politely decline without feeling guilty. I don't have to **make up** excuses. ()
8. Ntampak will have the chance to **make up** for last year's false start. ()
9. She was to undress to her slip, sit at the dressing-table and **make** herself **up** in the mirror. ()
10. Self-employed Australians at that time **made up** 11 percent of the workforce. ()
11. My mother is old, but she doesn't **make up** stories that aren't true. ()
12. The Hopkins Gallery might be small but what it lacks in size it **makes up** for in quality. ()

Unit 16

‘dead or not dead’

The phrase ‘**to death**’ normally means ‘coming to the end of life’. However, sometimes the phrase ‘**to death**’ means ‘a lot’ or ‘very’. Look at the concordance lines for ‘**to death**’ in Set A and Set B. In which set does ‘**to death**’ mean ‘coming to the end of life’? In which set does ‘**to death**’ mean ‘very’ or ‘a lot’? Underline words or phrases that give you some clues.

Set A

victim, aged 19, was kicked and beaten **to death** outside his home on Wednesday evening.

deaths occur because victims bleed **to death** internally before reaching medical
Homeless John Murphy, 54, freezes **to death** on the streets of Bathgate. One
replica guns. Youth `was knifed **to death** in fist fight
on Monday night. One civilian was burnt **to death** after being trapped in his hut.

Set B

Really. Yeah I'm bored **to death** really. Just watch telly or make
haven't told him. They're frightened **to death** of him 'cos he's a monster and in the
Frozen. Your husband worked himself **to death** the weekend did he? I know. He's
food to spare? And here I am starving **to death**. I will set out and go back to my dad
Last year I was absolutely terrified **to death** about the war. You know I thought we

Look at the following concordance lines. At the end of each line, write ‘A’ if you think it belongs to Set A above, or write ‘B’ if you think it belongs to Set B above. The first line has been done for you.

1. Bosley, who is believed to have choked **to death** on tissue paper. (A)
2. wife concerned? Is your wife worried **to death** about the state of the marriage?
3. of a railway brakeman who was crushed **to death** in a train crash. She was the last
4. have to swing me out ooh and I'm scared **to death** I say Oh I'm scared
5. fault oh I'm really sick **to death** of the whole issue.
6. Oh my goodness me we're going to starve **to death**. Ooh. You haven't eaten your cereal
7. was alleged to have been stabbed **to death** during a burglary at his home in
8. a million children under five starved **to death** in Brazil last year." Which also s

Unit 17

‘It’s a shame you’re ashamed of yourself’

Both ‘**ashamed**’ and ‘**a shame**’ look similar to each other and both have negative meanings. Try to explain the differences between the two. To give you some clues, look at the data for ‘**ashamed**’ and ‘**a shame**’ given below, and answer the questions.

‘ashamed’

1. The president should be *ashamed* of himself.
2. She was *ashamed* of her Greek heritage.
3. My father was *ashamed* of his lack of formal education.
4. You're *ashamed* to be seen with me.
5. I'm *ashamed* that I knew so little before.

‘a shame’

1. It was truly a great event and a perfect showcase for manufacturers to test what they build. What *a shame* it didn't receive more daily coverage in the media.
2. It's such *a shame*. It's a brilliant film in every way but it's too long.
3. It's *a real shame* you won't be able to use what you've learned.
4. It was *a crying shame* that such a great tournament should be settled by a penalty shoot-out.
5. It was *a great shame* that a small minority let violence get in the way tonight.

Questions

1. Which one, ‘**ashamed**’ or ‘**a shame**’ is used as a noun? Which one is used as an adjective?
2. Which one, ‘**ashamed**’ or ‘**a shame**’ is normally used to talk about a person feeling embarrassed or guilty?
3. Which one, ‘**ashamed**’ or ‘**a shame**’ is normally used to suggest the speaker's disappointment about a fact or an event?

Exercise: Fill in the blanks with either “**a shame**” or “**ashamed**”

1. I was secretly _____ of my ignorance.
2. It would be _____ if he was undermined by jealousy.
3. He met one of his sisters and felt _____ to see the shock in her eyes.
4. It's just _____ they can't work together.
5. He admitted to being deeply _____ over the killing in Cyprus.
6. It's _____ the angry Muslims can't see that.
7. But it would be _____ to lose our old friends.
8. Illness was seen as _____ in families in those days.

Unit 18
‘good students as opposed to bad students’

Look at the following data. What is the **relationship in meaning** between the two underlined words in each sentence? For example, in the first sentence, what is the relationship in meaning between ‘real’ and ‘imaginary’?

1. All opportunities for real **as opposed to** imaginary product improvements have been made.
2. The ramps that lead up to other levels are being made of rough concrete **as opposed to** smooth concrete.
3. In the 1930s, the communist hold was in the smaller factories **rather than** in the bigger.
4. We may make the words ‘Christian’ and ‘spiritual’ flesh in a new way that unites **rather than** divides our community.
5. The group members were, and still are, government-appointed **rather than** elected.

Exercise: Fill in the blanks with appropriate words.

1. There must be a lot of money in the defense that they could cut as opposed to _____ taxes.
2. Whether you will have a high income as opposed to a _____ income, class of origin is still of paramount importance.
3. The housing minister announced that councils will no longer have to give the homeless priority for permanent as opposed to _____ housing.
4. I am boring but right as opposed to romantic but _____.
5. Doesn’t that risk if you are playing not to lose as opposed to to _____?
6. The challenge is to devise methods of using present farmland, which reduce rather than _____ productions.
7. Canada better represents a weak rather than a _____ connection between television consumption and political identity and citizenship.
8. You can learn the value of what you can give rather than what you can _____.

Unit 19
‘cause’ and ‘acquire’

Some verbs obviously have positive and negative meanings. Look at the following verbs and decide whether they have positive or negative meanings. (Put + or – after the words)

appoint	condemn	succeed	cheat	fail	praise	accuse	survive
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However, for some verbs, it is difficult to see whether they have positive or negative meanings. For example, do you think the verbs ‘**cause**’ and ‘**acquire**’ have positive or negative meanings?

You may check your answer against the data provided below. (To give you some clues, try to see what the underlined words or phrases in each set have in common)

Set A: Concordance lines for ‘**cause**’ and ‘**caused**’

leaking out of the two tankers could **cause** an ecological disaster in the
that natural arsenic in water could **cause** cancer. The task force also
lorry drivers and owners which has **caused** chaos in Spain and at frontiers
industrial countries will continue to **cause** concern in the third world.
hundred years but its extraction **causes** considerable environmental problems.
21 June Unexpected obstacles could **cause** frustrating delays to your plans in
would be superfluous and would only **cause** further confusion, so we did not
related turnover of staff has **caused** trouble for individual companies,
natural catastrophes and losses were **caused** by human error worldwide made 1994
They had denied that his stress was **caused** by the disaster, in which thirtyin
sales. Much of the damage was **caused** by customers holding back because
this promotion where such failure is **caused** by any supervening circumstances.

Set B: Concordance lines for ‘**acquire**’ and ‘**acquired**’

It has even, through advertising, **acquired** a kind of hi-tech, sexy glamour
robots. A similar technique - **acquire** technology abroad, then go
that Iraq had been attempting to **acquire** nuclear capabilities for over a
skis. If he goes ahead, he will also **acquire** knowledge that will be useful for
to fill in the paperwork and not to **acquire** worthwhile skills. The GNVQ
subsidy. In the Fifties, Lever **acquired** a considerable fortune, became a`
authority uses it illegally to **acquire** money, goods, prestige, or to
a thriving workshop business and **acquired** an international reputation as a
steam. Building societies will also **acquire** broader powers over financial
effect today, making it harder to **acquire** control of French companies on the
dollar; 229.5 million, offer to be **acquired** by Nortek Inc. Eljer, a Plano,
said it signed an agreement to be **acquired** by Maruwa Koyo for $ 28.50

Unit 20

Phrasal verbs (2)

The followings are four sets of concordance lines for four phrasal verbs. Study the context of the concordance lines carefully and try to find the closest meaning of the phrasal verb in each set.

Set A

Bob Edwards. The United Nations has **called off** plans to send relief convoys to three party in Algeria, the FLN, has **called off** a big demonstration it had planned to Residents went back to work and **called off** the boycott of white businesses.

But the talks in Washington were **called off** because of a dispute over the timing of Louis Vuitton challenger races were **called off** because of a lack of wind, but a trial of

The closest meaning of '**call off**' would be _____
a) suggest b) increase c) cancel d) change

Set B

his area. Another change that has been **brought about** by central government is an for Mr James Baker's latest attempt to **bring about** agreement on Middle East peace Keating, has now been given the job of **bringing about** economic recovery. In his first

NICK LEESON, the rogue trader who **brought about** the collapse of Barings Bank, is or cultural conflict has been said to **bring about** criminal behavior, not only

The closest meaning of '**bring about**' would be _____
a) result from b) search for c) deal with d) lead to

Set C

I don't understand how Mr. Dambar can **put up with** him." Mrs. Dambar was talking said: 'Commuters in London have had to **put up with** continual delays. With ageing fun, for short period-I'm not sure I could **put up with** the discomfort on a daily basis. just headaches, but why should you have to **put up with** headaches for three or four If you had no friends, you didn't have to **put up with** the pain they caused: she'd

The closest meaning of '**put up with**' would be _____
a) reduce b) expect c) avoid d) tolerate

Set D

1990, the researchers turned to McEwan to **come up with** an alternative. McEwan's Clive Gunton Urban Designs, Spring Hill, **came up with** an effective solution to suit two years to hear all the evidence and **come up with** recommendations. They have shareholders four months to try to **come up with** a new plan for failed bank. at the operating level are expected to **come up with** ideas for new strategies, write

The closest meaning of '**come up with**' would be _____
a) suggest b) reject c) answer d) attempt

Unit 21

‘Why on earth do we learn English?’

Look at the following concordance lines for ‘**on earth**’, and try to answer the questions.

I bet she hasn't got her vest on how **on earth** will she manage in the real winter? She wrong with you." Remarkable, how **on earth** did you work that out?" they'd all say dear boy. Quite amazing. What **on earth** are you doing here?" Looking for a Fancy." Things? What things? What **on earth** are you talking about?" Her mind race Uncle Willoughby and you. When **on earth** did that happen?" It was just before Bracquemond in late March 1880: When **on earth** will they stop the headlines? Mlle it did look like ostrich. But where **on earth** had she ever seen an ostrich? The a forceful spin. I looked up. Where **on earth** do these questions come from? What is like a nightmare," she sobbed. Who **on earth** would want to hurt my daughter?" I those late-night calls and wonder who **on earth** those people are. Great contrived slapstick. Don't know why **on earth** they offer it to me. Saturday, 1 if you follow me?" Nonsense. Why **on earth** should I wish to corrupt you? I

1. What sort of word normally comes before ‘**on earth**’?
2. Underline words or phrases which suggest that the speakers are somehow surprised or puzzled.

Now, let's have a look at ‘**on earth**’ in complete sentences. What do you think is the function of the phrase ‘**on earth**’ in conversation?

- How on earth do you expect me to love you after five minutes?
- I wonder how on earth a man both so crude and so stupid as Michelle had ever become President.
- What on earth is wrong with liking someone who is as honest, generous, courageous, loyal, trustworthy, loving and sexy as Darcy?
- Debbie! My God! What on earth brings you here? I haven't seen you for ages.
- The vehicle that will not fold in an accident is an army tank. Who on earth would want to drive round in an army tank?
- Why on earth should I make the effort to eat something which I'm told is not digested?
- Damned crowded this train. Where on earth do they all come from I've simply no idea.

APPENDIX D

DDL MATERIALS

Unit 1

‘They just committed marriage’

Activity

1. According to the COBUILD Learner’s Dictionary, if someone commits a crime or a sin, they do something illegal or bad. Look at the following table and circle the actions or activities that you think people would commit. (You may use a dictionary if you don’t know some of the words)

business	murder	experiment	party	rape	suicide
robbery	concert	fraud	examination	divorce	crime
adultery	survey	assault	theft	accident	

2. How do you translate the word ‘**commit**’ into Turkish? Are there different translations for the word ‘**commit**’ when used with different actions or activities?

3. How would you rewrite the sentence ‘They just committed marriage’?

Unit 2

Editing Practice (1)

[From Thungsuk B and C Chalermmpatarakul, Structure and Writing in English, EG 212 Course-book, Thammasat University, Chapter 2]

Editing Practice

Correct **the underlined errors** and add the correct words in place of .

If you drive along the Chiangmai Lampoon Super Highway until you approach the 78th kilometre marking, you will see a sign **tells** you to turn left to a small road cut across the field. Only 900 metres from the highway is Garden Palm Resort, a resort **where** covers an area of about 80 rai a scenic lake the middle.

The resort is in a lush natural setting with orchards longan, lychee and mangoes yield fruits all year round. The resort accommodates 17 houses **which built** apart. Each overlooks a different scenic landscape. If you want to have a closer touch with the earth, you can put up a tent anywhere you like, in the middle the paddy field, or the lake.

For the young couples **wanted** to have a touch of nature and a world of their own, water cycling the lake will be a memorable experience for them.

The Garden Palm Resort restaurant offers you a countryside atmosphere. You can try mullet **cooking** with spicy ingredients or tender duck which cooked with many

Kinds of vegetables. The restaurant welcomes both guests **who spending** the night at the resort and those only make a short visit from late in the morning dinnertime in the evening.

Unit 3 'Describing a person'

[From Thungsuk B., and C. Chalermpatarakul, Structure and Writing in English, EG 212 Course-book, Thammasat University, Chapter 1]

There are many ways or patterns to describe a person.

1. Put the descriptive words in front of the noun

He is a smart, middle-aged lady.

He is a 13-year-old boy.

2. Use a clause to modify a noun

He is a tall man	who has a slim figure. who has an average build.
------------------	---

3. Use a prepositional phrase 'with/of/in + noun group'

He is a tall man	with a slim figure. with an average build. of 20 years. in a T-shirt and faded jeans
------------------	---

Activity

Combine the following short, simple sentences into one sentence, using the above patterns.

1. a. My uncle is a businessman b. He is 40 years old. c. He has a moustache. d. His moustache is black and thick.	
---	------------------

2. a. Marisa is a secretary. b. She is attractive. c. She has a slender figure. d. She has shoulder-length hair. e. She has a dimple on her left cheek.	
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Unit 4

‘What is your personality?’

Activity

1. Try to guess the word in each item. A dictionary definition provided in each item would give you some clues.

Item 1 a _ _ _ a _ _ _ e

If you find someone _____, especially someone of the opposite sex, you think that they are pleasant to look at or sexually desirable.

Item 2 _ _ _ a _ _ _ s

If someone is _____, they feel angry or bitter because they think that another person is trying to take a lover or friend, or a possession, away from them.

Item 3 c _ _ _ a _ _ _ v _ _

A _____ person has the ability to invent and develop original ideas, especially in the arts.

Item 4 a _ _ _ r _ _ _ s _ _ _ e

An _____ person has a quality of anger and determination that makes them ready to attack.

Item 5 d _ _ _ r _ _ _ e d

If you are _____, you are sad and feel that you cannot enjoy anything, because your situation is so difficult and unpleasant.

2. Try to think of other adjectives that can be used to describe a person's personality. Then describe some of your friends using those adjectives. For example, 'This is my friend, John. He is a clever and hard-working student'.

Unit 5

Identity Game

In this unit, we will practice the use of **‘who’** or **‘which’** to give more information to a noun. The word **‘who’** is used to begin a clause that modifies a noun referring to people. For example, ‘Is this the boy who won the prize last night?’

The word **‘which’** is used to begin a clause that modifies a noun referring to things, animals, or places. For example, ‘I don’t like food which is too hot and spicy’.

Identity Game

[Adapted from Pennington C (ed) (1995), New Ways in Teaching Grammar, TESOL Inc., p. 34]

1. The teacher thinks of well-known people or things, and writes them down on a piece of paper.
2. Divide the students into two teams, let say ‘Team A’ and ‘Team B’.
3. To start the game, a member from Team A comes to the front and asks the teacher a yes/no question containing a ‘who’- or ‘which’- clause, such as, ‘Is this someone who...?’, or ‘Is this something which...?’.
4. Then someone from Team B comes to the front and asks the teacher the same type of questions.
5. Alternate turns from team to team. In stead of asking a question when it’s his or her turn, a student may try to guess the answer. If correct, his or her team is awarded three points. If not correct, the team loses a point.
6. When the first ‘person’ or ‘thing’ has been identified, the two teams take turns coming to the front and repeat the same process to guess the other identities.
7. When all the words are identified, the team with the most points wins.

Unit 6

Lexical relations (1)

In this unit, we focus on a lexical relation between **‘super-ordinate’** and **‘hyponyms’**. A super-ordinate is a generic or general noun, or a noun that refers to the whole type of things. ‘Hyponyms’ are a list of nouns that are examples of a super-ordinate. For example, *‘Thailand’*, *‘Japan’*, *‘England’*, and *‘America’* are hyponyms of the super-ordinate ‘country’.

The phrase **‘and other’** can be used to signal this kind of lexical relation. For example, we can say *‘This product has been sold in Thailand, Japan, England, America, and other countries.’*

Activity

Try to find a super-ordinate in each set of hyponyms.

1. ‘...birds, dogs, cats, and other _____.’
2. ‘...eyes, nose, fingers, feet, and other _____.’
3. ‘...Arts, Accountancy, Law, Political Science, and other _____.’
4. ‘...robbery, rape, assault, murder, and other _____.’
5. ‘...cancer, AIDS, diabetics, polio, and other _____.’
6. ‘...oil, coal, natural gas, and other _____.’
7. ‘...gold, silver, lead, and other _____.’
8. ‘...flood, famine, earthquakes, and other _____.’

Unit 7

‘proud’ and ‘arrogant’

In this unit, we will focus on the words ‘**proud**’ and ‘**arrogant**’. Both words can be used to describe the feeling of self-respect or a good feeling about yourself or something you achieve. However, there are some observations about the differences between the two words.

1. The word ‘**proud**’ carries a positive meaning, while the word ‘**arrogant**’ has a negative meaning.
2. We can normally see why people feel proud or what they are proud of. For example, if someone says, ‘*I’m proud of my son*’, we clearly see that ‘the son’ is what he or she is proud of. By contrast, we cannot clearly see what or why people are feeling arrogant. For example, if we say, ‘*That man is rude and arrogant*’, it is clear that we are criticizing him but the reason why he is arrogant is not obvious.
3. The word ‘**proud**’ is commonly used with the pronoun ‘**I**’ or ‘**we**’ and the other pronouns, while ‘**arrogant**’ is not often used with the pronoun ‘**I**’ or ‘**we**’. This suggests that we are normally proud of something or of ourselves, but we do not want or are reluctant to say that we are arrogant!!!

Activity

1. One of the common patterns of the word ‘**proud**’ is ‘to be proud of + **noun**’. Discuss with your partners and try to think of other patterns of the word. You may consult a dictionary or a grammar book.
2. Find some adjectives that are normally used together with ‘arrogant’ to describe a person. For example, ‘He is so arrogant, _____, and _____.’
3. Do you translate ‘**proud**’ and ‘**arrogant**’ into the same word in Turkish? If not, how are the two words translated differently into Turkish?

Unit 8

Phrasal verb (1)

In this unit, we focus on some phrasal verbs beginning with **‘look’**.

Activity

1. The followings are dictionary definitions of some phrasal verbs beginning with **‘look’**. Fill in the blanks with appropriate phrasal verbs provided below.

1. If you _____ someone or something, you do what is necessary to keep them healthy, safe, or in good condition.
2. If you _____, you think about what is going to happen in the future and perhaps make plans for the future.
3. If you _____ something that you have lost, or for something that you want or need, you try to find it.
4. If you _____ something that is going to happen, you want it to happen because you think you will enjoy it.
5. If a person or organisation looks _____ something, they examine the facts relating to it before deciding what to do.

look for	look into	look up	look ahead
look after	look down on	look forward to	look over
look on	look out		

2. Check the answers with the teacher.

3. In the above exercise, some phrasal verbs were not defined. Make a list of the phrasal verbs that are left out, and look up their meanings from the dictionary.

Unit 9
'feet' 'feet' and 'feet'

In this unit, we focus on five idioms, all to do with your **'feet'**.

Activity

1. Try to match the idioms (column A) with their meanings (column B). Then check the answers with the teacher.

Column A : Idioms	Column B : Meanings
1. If you <u>stand on your (two) feet</u> , 2. If you <u>put your feet up</u> , 3. If you <u>keep your feet on the ground</u> , 4. If you are <u>finding your feet</u> , 5. If you <u>have cold feet</u> ,	a. you continue to act sensibly even when you become successful or powerful b. you are worried about something and are not sure about what you are going to do c. you are very sick d. you are not being polite e. you do not need anyone to help you f. you are becoming more confident in a new situation or environment g. you are looking for something that is very important h. you have a rest from your work

2. In a whole-class discussion, suggest how we can translate these five idioms into Turkish. Are there any idioms in Turkish with similar meanings to the English idioms above?

Unit 10
‘make me cry’ or ‘make me to cry’?

Some verbs have similar meanings but have different verb patterns. For example, the verbs **‘cause’**, **‘force’**, **‘get’**, **‘make’**, **‘let’**, and **‘have’**, have similar meanings, that is, they all have something to do with allowing people to do something, or making people do something they do not want to.

However, these verbs have different verb patterns.

cause		make	
force	+ to-infinitive	let	+ infinitive (without ‘to’)
get		have	

Activity

Choose the correct verb form in each sentence.

1. However, inconvenient developments force you (assess / to assess) your situation.
2. His career in finance and computing caused him (leave / to leave) the East Yorkshire.
3. I got them (bring / to bring) me the photos.
4. His co-workers forge a telegram to make him (believe / to believe) he's won the lottery.
5. The sudden, unexpected movement may cause him (cry / to cry).
6. Let her (see / to see) her reflection in a mirror.
7. I asked him why he hadn't let us (know / to know) where he was.
8. His jealousy makes you (feel / to feel) guilty and ashamed.

Unit 11

‘which’ and ‘where’

[From Thungsuk B., and C. Chalermpatarakul, Structure and Writing in English, EG 212 Course-book, Thammasat University, Chapter 2]

Both ‘**which**’ and ‘**where**’ can be used to begin a clause that describes a place. However, the two words may cause some problems and confusion.

Activity

Look at the following sentences. The underlined parts in the three sentences are all clauses describing places but only one of them is correctly used. Which is it? Check the answer with your teacher.

- a) The room where we rent had poor acoustics.
- b) The room where has poor acoustics should not be used as a conference room.
- c) The room where the conference was held had poor acoustics.

Comments

The word ‘**where**’ can be used only if it replaces an adverb of place. The word ‘**which**’ must be used if the replaced word is a subject or object. For example,

adv.

- a) The room had poor acoustics. The conference was held **in the room**

adv.

The room **where** the conference was held had poor acoustics,

obj.

- b) The room had poor acoustics. We rented **the room**.

obj.

The room **which** we rented had poor acoustics.

sub

- c) **The room** should not be used as a conference room. The room has poor acoustics.

sub.

The room **which** has poor acoustics should not be used as a conference room.

Unit 12

‘you name it’

People normally say ‘**you name it**’ after (or before) a list to emphasise that they are talking about a very wide range of things. For example,

*We sell all kind of music- pop, classical, rap, R&B, country, hip-hop, jazz, **you name it**.*

Note: The phrase ‘**you name it**’ signals a lexical relation between ‘**super-ordinate**’ and ‘**hyponyms**’, that is, a relation between a generic or general noun (superordinate) and examples of such general noun (hyponyms). For example, in the above sentence, we can see the lexical relation between the super-ordinate ‘**music**’ and its hyponyms, which are ‘**pop, classical, rap, R&B, country, hip hop, jazz**’.

However sometimes the super-ordinate is implied rather than actually mentioned in the sentence. For example, in the following sentence, the super-ordinate ‘**music**’ is implied, rather than mentioned in the sentence.

*What do you want? Pop, classical, rap, R&B, country, hip-hop, jazz, **you name it**, we’ve got it all.*

Activity

In each of the following sentences, fill in the blanks with appropriate hyponyms of the given super-ordinate (in brackets). The first sentence has been done for you.

1. They have been gathered together from all four points of the globe: the British Isles, The United States, Italy, India, France, you name it. (**countries**)

2. Even in this small town, you can find places like _____, _____, _____, _____ -you name it. (**fast-food restaurants**)

3. This resort provides you with _____, _____, _____, _____ - you name it. (**facilities**)

4. The government has spent billions of dollars on _____, _____, _____ - you name it. (**weapons**)

5. The state must do less. _____, _____, _____, _____ - you name it, they would privatise it. (**social benefits**)

Unit 13 'reputation'

To have a reputation for something means to be known or remembered for it.
The two common patterns are;

- (a) to have + a reputation + for + noun group / V-ing
- (b) to have + a reputation + as + noun group

If you say 'someone has a reputation for / as ...', it can be either good or bad reputation, depending on the context.

Note: Instead of using the verb 'to have', you can use some other verbs with the noun 'reputation', such as;

to earn	a reputation	for
to acquire		as
to enhance		
to gain		
to develop		
to build		
to maintain		

Activity

1. The students write down the name of a person in a piece of paper. (This can be a classmate, a singer, a movie star, or even the teacher) Then the teacher collects the papers.
2. The teacher asks a student to come to the front and picks one of the papers. Then, the teacher tosses a coin. If the head faces upwards, the student has to make a sentence suggesting that the person (whose name is written down on the paper) has a **'good'** reputation. If the tail faces upwards, the student has to make a sentence suggesting that the person has a **'bad'** reputation. (The patterns and the verbs above may be helpful, and the sentence does not necessarily contain the word 'good' or 'bad')
3. The teacher asks some more students to come to the front, one at a time, and repeat (2).

Unit 14

‘thanks to’ and ‘owing to’

Comments

1. Both ‘**thanks to**’ and ‘**owing to**’ are prepositional phrases. They are often followed by a noun group and can be used at the beginning or at the end of a sentence.

Thanks to, + noun + clause.	<i>Thanks to</i> the new teaching method, students now can learn maths with fun.
Clause + thanks to + noun	Students now can learn maths with fun <i>thanks to</i> the new teaching method.
Owing to, + noun + clause	<i>Owing to</i> the flood, the school is now closed for a week.
Clause + owing to + noun	The school is now closed for a week <i>owing to</i> the flood.

2. Both ‘**thanks to**’ and ‘**owing to**’ can be used to suggest or signal the **cause/effect** relation in a sentence. For example,

cause *effect*

Thanks to the new teaching method, students now can learn maths with fun.

effect *cause*

The school is now closed for a week *owing to* the flood.

Note: You normally use ‘**thanks to**’ to signal a positive or neutral ‘cause’, and as a result, the ‘effect’ seems to be positive or neutral. You more often use ‘**owing to**’ to signal a negative ‘cause’, and thus the ‘effect’ seems to be negative.

Activity

Discuss with your friends and try to fill in the blanks with appropriate information.

- Owing to the economic crisis last year, _____.
- The traffic congestion in Bangkok is getting better thanks to _____.
- Thanks to the Internet, _____.
- Most female students seem to gain some weight owing to _____.
- Thanks to _____, students have more chance to practise listening in English nowadays.

Unit 15

'make up'

In this unit, we focus on the phrasal verb '**make up**', which has different meanings.

Activity

1. Divide the students into four groups, let's say, Group A, B, C, and D.
2. Study the four meanings of '**make up**' taken from the COBUILD Learner's Dictionary.

- (A) The people or things that **make up** something are the members or parts that form that thing.
- (B) If you **make up** something, you invent it, sometimes in order to deceive people.
- (C) If you **make yourself up**, or if someone else **makes you up**, make-up is put on your face.
- (D) If you **make up** for something that is lost, missing or damaged, you replace it or compensate for it.

3. Students in Group A think of three or four examples of '**make up**' used in meaning (A). Students in Group B, C, D do the same with meanings (B), (C), and (D), respectively. Then report these examples to the class.

Unit 16

‘to death’

In this unit, we focus on the literal meaning and the pragmatic use of the phrase **‘to death’**. The literal or the basic meaning of **‘to death’** is **‘to come to the end of life’**. For example, *The victim was stabbed to death in front of his own house. (The victim was actually dead)*

Activity 1

How can people be killed? In groups or in pairs, make a list of verbs (in the past participle (V3) form) that can be filled in the second column of the table.

The victim	was stabbed	to death	in front of his own house

The pragmatic use of a word or a phrase means the way the speaker uses a particular word or phrase to **‘do’** things such as to express likes or dislikes, and to criticize or emphasize something. In this case, people use **‘to death’** after an adjective or a verb to emphasize their feelings or emotions, which are more often negative. So the phrase **‘to death’** here means **‘very’** or **‘a lot’**. For example, *‘He suddenly appeared at the door and I was scared to death.’ (I was very scared, but still alive)*

Activity 2

In the middle column of this table, circle the adjectives that normally come before the phrase **‘to death’**. Check the answers with the teacher.

I was sad	surprised	to death
	bored	
	happy	
	sleepy	
	proud	
	frightened	
	amused	
	worried	
	terrified	

Unit 17

‘a shame’ and ‘ashamed’

One of the confusing pair of words for Turkish students is ‘**a shame**’ and ‘**ashamed**’. This is partly because they look similar to each other and both have negative meanings. However, there are some observations that may help you to see the differences between the two items and use them correctly.

About ‘a shame’

1. The word ‘a’ and the word ‘shame’ is always written separately because the word ‘shame’ itself is a noun, which in this pattern comes after the article ‘a’.
2. If you say that something is a shame, you are expressing your regret about it and indicating that you wish it had happened differently. For example, if you say ‘It’s a shame you have to leave soon’, you are suggesting that you are disappointed that the person is going to leave soon and you wish he or she could stay longer.
3. The phrase ‘**a shame**’ is used in different expressions with similar meanings, such as ‘*this is a shame*’, ‘*it’s a shame*’, ‘*it’s a crying shame*’, ‘*it’s a terrible shame*’, or ‘*it’s a great shame*’.

About ‘ashamed’

1. The word ‘**ashamed**’ is an adjective. If someone is ashamed, they feel embarrassed or guilty because of something they do or have done, or because of their appearance. For example, if you say ‘I’m ashamed of my funny accent’, you feel embarrassed because you speak a language with such a funny accent.
2. The word ‘**ashamed**’ is normally used in three patterns: (a) *to be/to feel + ashamed*, (b) *to be/to feel ashamed of + noun*, and (c) *to be / to feel ashamed that + clause*.

Activity

Fill in the blanks with either ‘**a shame**’ or ‘**ashamed**’

1. I was secretly _____ of my ignorance.
2. It would be _____ if he was undermined by jealousy.
3. He met one of his sisters and felt _____ to see the shock in her eyes.
4. It's just _____ they can't work together.
5. He admitted to being deeply _____ over the killing in Cyprus.
6. It's _____ the angry Muslims can't see that.
7. But it would be _____ to lose our old friends.
8. Illness was seen as _____ in families in those days.

Unit 18

Lexical Relations (2)

In this unit, we will focus on a lexical relation between a word and its **'antonym'** (a word which means the opposite). For example, the antonym of 'rich' is 'poor'. Phrases such as **'rather than'** and **'as opposed to'** can be used to signal this kind of lexical relation. For example,

Our project should aim at helping the poor rather than the rich.

Activity

Fill in the blanks with appropriate words.

1. There must be a lot of money in the defense that they could cut as opposed to _____ taxes.
2. Whether you will have a high income as opposed to a _____ income, class of origin is still of paramount importance.
3. The housing minister announced that councils will no longer have to give the homeless priority for permanent as opposed to _____ housing.
4. I am boring but right as opposed to romantic but _____.
5. Doesn't that risk if you are playing not to lose as opposed to to _____?
6. The challenge is to devise methods of using present farmland, which reduce rather than _____ productions.
7. Canada better represents a weak rather than a _____ connection between television consumption and political identity and citizenship.
8. You can learn the value of what you can give rather than what you can _____.

Unit 19

‘cause’ and ‘acquire’

Some words obviously have positive or negative meanings, or what we call ‘**connotation**’.

Activity 1

Look at the following verbs and decide whether they have positive or negative meanings (Insert + or – after the words)

condemn	succeed	cheat	fail	praise	accuse
survive					

For some other words, however, it is difficult to clearly tell from the words themselves whether they carry positive or negative meanings.

Activity 2

1. To cause something means to make it happen. Do you think the verb ‘**cause**’ has positive or negative meanings?
2. To acquire something means to obtain or to get it. Do you think the verb ‘**acquire**’ has positive or negative meanings?

Comments

If we consider the nouns that normally come after ‘**to cause**’ and ‘**to acquire**’, we will find the answers to the above two questions.

The verb ‘**cause**’ seems to have a negative meaning because it is normally followed by nouns that carry negative meanings, such as, ‘disaster’, ‘damage’ or ‘trouble’.

The verb ‘**acquire**’ seems to have a positive meaning because it is normally followed by nouns that carry positive meanings, such as, ‘technology’, ‘knowledge’ or ‘skills’.

Unit 20
Phrasal verbs (2)

It is rather difficult to find a synonym of a phrasal verb. A dictionary definition of a phrasal verb may help you find a word or a phrase that has close meaning to it.

Activity

Study the dictionary definitions of the phrasal verbs below and try to find the word or phrase with the closest meaning to each phrasal verb.

1. If you call off an event that has been planned, you decide not to make it happen.

a) suggest b) increase c) cancel d) change

2. To bring something about, or to bring about something, means to cause it to happen.

a) result from b) search for c) deal with d) lead to

3. If you come up with an idea or something new, you are able to produce it or provide it.

a) suggest b) reject c) answer d) attempt

4. If you put up with something, you tolerate it or do not give up, even though you find it unpleasant or unsatisfactory.

a) insist b) accept c) challenge d) maintain

Unit 21
On earth (1)

In this unit, we focus on the phrase **‘on earth’**. We use **‘on earth’** for emphasis in questions that begin with words such as ‘how’, ‘what’, or ‘where’. For example,

Why on earth do we have to get up early just to spend hours in traffic jams?

Note: The use of **‘on earth’** in questions often suggests that the speaker is being very angry, surprised, curious, or sarcastic.

Activity

Complete the following sentences. Remember that each sentence should emphasize that the speaker is being angry, surprised, curious, or sarcastic.

- a) **How on earth** _____ ?
- b) **Why on earth** _____ ?
- c) **When on earth** _____ ?
- d) **Who on earth** _____ ?
- e) **What on earth** _____ ?

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