

S. O. N. O. W. I. L.

THE COMMUNICATIVE CURRICULUM  
OF THE TURKISH LANGUAGE  
PROGRAM AT TOMER

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BILKENT UNIVERSITY  
INSTITUTE OF ECONOMICS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES  
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The examining committee appointed by the  
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major project examination of the MA TEFL student

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has read the project of the student.  
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Project Title: THE COMMUNICATIVE CURRICULUM OF THE TURKISH  
LANGUAGE PROGRAM AT TOMER

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THE COMMUNICATIVE CURRICULUM OF THE TURKISH  
LANGUAGE PROGRAM AT TÖMER

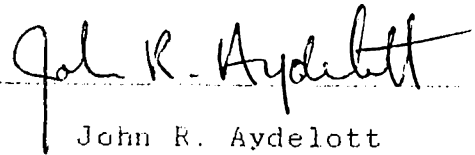
A MAJOR PROJECT  
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FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTERS OF ARTS IN  
THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

BY

SİBEL SONGUL

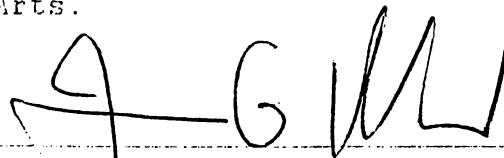
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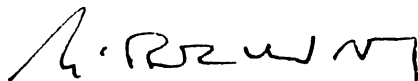
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# THE COMMUNICATIVE CURRICULUM OF THE TURKISH LANGUAGE PROGRAM AT TOMER

## INTRODUCTION

### Description of TOMER

TOMER, Turkce Ogretim Merkezi (Turkish Teaching Centre), is an institution which teaches Turkish to both foreigners and Turkish people who have a limited knowledge of Turkish because of being brought up abroad. TOMER, established in 1983 by Ankara University, has six branches: one in Ankara, one in Izmir and one in Istanbul; the institution has recently opened branches in Koln, Berlin, and Frankfurt.

The teachers of TOMER are graduates of Turkish language and literature departments of various universities. Most of the teachers do not know a foreign language; thus, only Turkish is used in class. Each class has from 8 to 14 students who work in embassies or are taking undergraduate courses or are Turkish workers' children who have lived in Germany. Classes are conducted with videos, audio cassettes, language laboratories, and with other methods of instruction.

As a result of a placement exam, applicants are placed in one of six levels (beginning 1, 2; intermediate 1, 2; advanced 1, 2). At the end of the beginning level, students learn mostly everyday speech of about 2000 words. At the intermediate level besides everyday speech, 3000 new words are taught by using some passages and articles from Turkish newspapers. At the advanced

level some samples from Turkish literature, articles from newspapers and periodicals, subjects introducing Turkish culture and Turkey, and proverbs and expressions are dealt with. At the end of each level a certificate is given to successful students and at the end of the level of advanced 2 they receive a diploma which is accepted by all Turkish universities as evidence of their adequate knowledge of Turkish which is necessary for required courses (Turkish and Turkish History) even in English-medium universities such as Middle East Technical University.

TOMER also provides teachers for the students who want to be taught individually. For this type of course, goals, subjects, and the number of class hours are determined by assessing each student's needs. During weekends and holidays touristic visits are organized to introduce students to Turkey and the Turkish people. TOMER also helps students to solve visa and accomodation problems.

#### **Statement of the topic**

This study intends to find out student views of the TOMER curriculum to see whether TOMER has a communicative curriculum or not. As Candlin (1983) claims, "the primary purpose of a second language program should be to provide the learners with the information, practice and a lot of experience in communication needed to meet their communication needs in the second language." Communicative curriculum characteristics are taken as a criteria to compare with the curriculum of TOMER, which is a second language program in its branches in Turkey. Candlin (1983)



states the aims of a communicative curriculum to be the following:

A communicative curriculum aims at giving grammatical competence (for example, the levels of grammatical accuracy required in different situations), sociolinguistic competence (for example, the settings, topics and communicative functions to be handled most frequently), discourse competence (for example, the types of text to be dealt with) and strategic competence (for example, verbal compensatory strategies for paraphrasing lexical items that have not been mastered sufficiently).

### **Purpose**

Second language teaching institutions are placed in countries where the target language is the native language. Some foreign language teaching programs which are placed in countries where the target language is a foreign language have learners who will go to countries where the target language is the native language. As a consequence of this research, characteristics of a communicative curriculum will be revealed thus both second and foreign language programs will benefit from the research. The two types of programs have one common goal: to meet learners' communicative needs. On the condition that communicative curriculum is accepted as the ideal the purpose is to present the collected data and its interpretation to the head of TOMER who is in Ankara; thus he will see the strengths and weaknesses of TOMER's branches in Turkey and hopefully he will do his best to improve the program.

### **Method**

This study includes a review of professional literature

about communicative curricula. In the literature review the definitions of terminology precede the explanations of origins and characteristics of communicative teaching. This original research is constructive as it determines to what degree TOMER is communicative. The program is described through qualitative data collected through a questionnaire and the primary focus is on the communicative quality of the program. Based on the characteristics of a communicative curriculum, a questionnaire for the students was prepared. Copies of the questionnaire were given to advanced level students as they have been acquainted with the program most compared to other levels. The purpose and content of each item in the questionnaire were explained before having the students answer the questionnaire.

### **Limitations**

Both the quantity and quality of the communicative characteristics are limited. Because the questionnaire has a restricted number of items and the questionnaire is given to a limited number (10) of students. In addition the quality of the items depend on my personal choice among many characteristics experts put forward. If adequate attention and time are not given to answering questionnaires, the findings may be inaccurate. Still another limitation arises from the project's involving only one institution, TOMER. As students' needs change from one language teaching institution to another, what is an appropriate curriculum for TOMER may not be so for another one.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This section aims at the identification and explanation of the opinions which form the basis for the preparation and interpretation of the data. The section has two parts reflecting the theoretical and practical aspects of the communicative curriculum. To avoid misunderstandings the definitions of the terminology used in the study are presented. The information on teaching theories aims at giving a critical point of view for the evaluation of the communicative approach. There is a section on second language acquisition as it relates to second language teaching. Then the bases for curriculum construction are explained. Communicative curriculum characteristics are discussed before providing samples of communicative activities.

### A. Review of theoretical concerns

#### 1. Glossary

In language teaching resulting from the differences in the experts' views, certain terminology have various definitions. To clarify the meanings of the terminology used in this study the definitions to specific selected terms are given.

**Curriculum and syllabus:** In *Course Design* Dubin and Olshtain (1986) define curriculum as follows: "a broad description of general goals by indicating an overall educational-cultural philosophy which applies across subjects together with a theoretical orientation to language and language learning with respect to the subject matter at hand." In comparison to curriculum, Dubin and Olshtain (1986) describe syllabus: "a more detailed and operational statement of

teaching and learning elements which translates the philosophy of the curriculum into a series of planned steps leading towards more narrowly defined objectives at each level."

**Approach, method, and technique:** In Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching, Richards and Rodgers (1986) refer to a scheme proposed by Edward Antony in 1963 which is called "approach, method and technique." Edward Antony states "the organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach." Then he defines the terms: he describes an approach as a group of correlative assumptions about the nature of language teaching and learning; a method as a general plan to present the language material; a technique as what is implemented in the classroom.

**Educational aims:** Dubin and Olshtain (1986) identifies educational aims as statements of policy: "a viewpoint on the nature of language, a viewpoint on the nature of language learning, and an educational cultural philosophy."

**Educational objectives:** Garcia (Wilson, 1976) reflects that "educational objectives are statements of what learnings a student must attain at a given level of education and, possibly, in a given subject and in a local school or community."

**Instructional objectives:** Garcia (Wilson, 1976) says that "instructional objectives are statements of learning which a highly identifiable student, that is, known in terms of his needs and interests, school class membership and community, must achieve as a result of being in an educational programme."



**Communication:** In Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice, Savignon (1983) defines communication as: "continuous process of expression, interpretation and negotiation." In Canale's article (Candlin, 1983) called "From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy" characteristics of communication are listed:

- (a) is a form of social interaction, and is therefore normally acquired and used in social interaction;
- (b) involves a high degree of unpredictability and creativity in form and message;
- (c) takes place in discourse and sociocultural contexts which provide constraints on appropriate language use and also clues as to correct interpretations of utterances;
- (d) is carried out under limiting psychological and other conditions such as memory constraints, fatigue and distractions;
- (e) always has a purpose (for example, to establish social relations, to persuade or to promise)
- (f) involves authentic, as opposed to textbook-contrived language; and
- (g) is judged as successful or not on the basis of actual outcomes (For example, communication could be judged successful in the case of a non-native English speaker who was trying to find the train station in Toronto, uttered 'How to go train to a passer-by, and was given directions to the train station.)

**Communicative competence:** In "Designing programs for foreign languages," Gunterman (1987) says that in 1972 Hymes coined "communicative competence" to mean "one's ability to control social and cultural conventions as well as purely linguistic elements in creating utterances for communicative interaction."

**Communicative teaching:** In Language and Literature Teaching: From Practice to Principle, Brumfit (1985) defines

"communicative teaching" by giving its characteristics:

1. Learners' needs analysis is done.
2. The syllabus is specified in terms of the necessary notions and functions of language.
3. In the development of organized materials the varieties of language are considered.
4. Teachers know to use pair and group work.
5. Materials and techniques are in line with individual learning strategies.
6. Language teaching appeals to learners' feelings and interests.
7. When students experiment with language, they are allowed to make mistakes.

## **2. Development of language teaching theories**

To be able to understand why Candlin (1983) advocates the communicative approach in second language teaching, one has to see the characteristics of alternative methods which do not meet students' needs.

In Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching, Richards and Rodgers (1986) have a section on the history of language teaching where the following information is taken. The questions raised by Richards and Rodgers for the purpose of prompting innovation are the following:

1. What should the goals of language teaching be?  
Should a language course try to teach conversational proficiency, reading, translation, or some other skill?
2. What is the basic nature of language, and how will this affect teaching method?

3. What are the principles for the selection of language content in language teaching?
4. What principles of organization, sequencing, and presentation best facilitate learning?
5. What should the role of native language be?
6. What processes do learners use in mastering a language, and can these be incorporated into a method?
7. What teaching techniques and activities work best and under what circumstances?

As the kind of proficiency learners need changes, language teaching methods have changed throughout the history of language teaching. Five hundred years ago, Latin was the language of education, commerce, religion, and government in Europe. In the sixteenth century, resulting from the political changes in Europe, "modern" languages (French, English, Italian) gained importance. In the eighteenth century in European schools, "modern" languages were taught through the same procedures used for teaching Latin. Richards and Rodgers (1986) state that in these schools "Textbooks consisted of statements of abstract grammar rules, lists of vocabulary and sentences for translation."

In the mid-nineteenth century when grammar-translation was used, a typical textbook had sections organized on grammar points. Richards and Rodgers refer to Stern's Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching (1983) and to Howatt's A History of English Language Teaching (1984) while listing main characteristics of the grammar-translation method:

1. The purpose of foreign language study is to learn its literature.
2. Language teaching focuses on reading and writing.
3. Vocabulary is taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study and memorization.

4. There is focus on the sentence to make learning easier.
5. Accuracy is important.
6. Deductive teaching is used.
7. Students native language is the medium of instruction.

In the mid-nineteenth century communication among Europeans created the need for oral proficiency in language teaching. Marcel (1793-1896) took child language learning as a guide to language teaching and emphasized meaning in learning. He suggested reading to be taught before other skills. Prendergast (1806-1886) observed that children use contextual and situational cues to understand utterances and proposed the first "structural syllabus". Gouin (1831-1896) supported that language teaching must be based on children's use of language. He said "language learning was facilitated through using language to accomplish events consisting of a sequence of related actions" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Thus his method for teaching English used the following series in the first language lesson:

I walk toward the door.	I walk.
I draw near to the door.	I draw near.
I draw nearer to the door.	I draw nearer.
I get to the door.	I get to.

Marcel, Prendergast and Gouin are famous reformers of language teaching in the mid-nineteenth century.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) say that "Henry Sweet, Wilhelm Viëtor and Paul Passy began to provide the intellectual leadership needed to give reformist ideas greater credibility and acceptance." After phonetics was established, these linguists



emphasized the priority of speech over written language.

The International Phonetic Association, which was founded in 1886, aims at improvement in teaching modern languages.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) give the areas of focus supported by the association:

1. the study of the spoken language;
2. phonetic training in order to establish good pronunciation habits;
3. the use of conversation texts and dialogues to introduce conversational phrases and idioms;
4. an inductive approach to the teaching of grammar;
5. teaching new meanings through establishing associations within the target language rather than by establishing associations with the mother tongue.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) refer to Henry Sweet's The Practical Study of Languages (1899) in which Sweet presented the principles for the development of teaching method. These principles are as follows:

1. careful selection of what is to be taught;
2. imposing limits on what is to be taught;
3. arranging what is to be taught in terms of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing;
4. grading materials from simple to complex.

Sauveur (1826-1907) was in favor of having intensive oral interaction in the target language using questions as a means of presenting and eliciting language. Richards and Rodgers (1986) say that Sauveur's method is referred to as the Natural Method. They present the characteristics of the Natural Method as follows:

1. The language of instruction is the target language.

2. Everyday speech is taught.
3. Oral communication is emphasized.
4. In grammar inductive teaching is used.
5. New teaching points are presented orally.
6. In the teaching of concrete vocabulary objects and pictures are used.
7. Both speaking and listening are important.
8. Accurate pronunciation and grammar are focused on.

The Direct Method was the most known of the natural methods advocated by Sauvcur and Berlitz. The method gained importance through its use in commercial language schools. By the 1920s, the Direct Method lost its importance. Because the impracticality of the goal of teaching conversation skills in view of the limited skills of teachers, the change in students' needs and the restricted time available for language teaching in schools was realized.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) refer to Noam Chomsky's Syntactic Structures (1957) in which Chomsky stated his stand against structural linguistic theory as this theory is incapable of presenting a major characteristic of language, "the creativity and uniqueness of individual sentences." In 1972, Wilkins tried to present the systems of meanings which lay behind the communicative uses of language. Richards and Rodgers (1986) give Wilkin's opinion on two types of meanings: "notional categories (concepts such as time, sequence, quantity, location, frequency) and categories of communicative function (requests, denials, offers, complaints)."

Richards and Rodgers claim that the writings of Wilkins,

Widdowson, Brumfit, Johnson and some other linguists clarified the following principles of the Communicative Approach:

1. Meaning is important.
2. Dialogues, if used, focus on communicative functions.
3. Contextualization is required.
4. Language learning is learning to communicate in the target language.
5. Effective communication is necessary.
6. Drilling is not of primary importance.
7. Comprehensible pronunciation is desired.
8. Learners' interests are considered.
9. Even at the elementary level students are encouraged to communicate.
10. Judicious use of native language is accepted.
11. When it is necessary translation is used.
12. If needed, reading and writing can start from the first day.
13. The best way of learning is to pass through the struggle to communicate.
14. Communicative competence is the purpose.
15. Varieties of language are emphasized.
16. The criteria for sequencing is the maintenance of interest.
17. Teacher helps to motivate students.
18. In learning making mistakes is natural.
19. Fluency is significant.
20. Students' interaction with other people is provided.

### 3. Second language acquisition

As this study deals with second language learning and teaching, the influence of second language acquisition on the subject is inevitable.

Yalden (1985) states that research in second language acquisition and learning has two areas: one includes studies in language acquisition in children and the other in adolescents and adults. As the students in TOMER are either adolescents or adults, in this section the emphasis will be on the studies in those age groups.

Yalden (1985) refers to Krashen's (1981) Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning in which Krashen claims that it is still not proved that there is a biological barrier for adult acquisition and it is reasonable to advocate that adults can "acquire language naturally" if they learn a second language through communicative teaching.

Krashen points out that without formal instruction one can not master the target language. However, if the formal instruction is through grammar-translation method, one's production will be limited and will lack speed and spontaneity. Supporting Krashen's opinion Yalden (1985) quotes from Hymes' (1972) "On communicative competence": "There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless."

In "What is what in communicative language teaching," Savignon (1987) states that at the present researchers emphasize the functions and features of discourse rather than content.



Then Savignon provides the reader with the definition of "discourse analysis": "the analysis of connected speech and writing that extends beyond a single sentence or utterance. It is a study of pragmatic functions of language." For the sake of clarity of the meaning of "pragmatic," the definition of "pragmatics" in "Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary" (Sinclair, 1987) is "the study of the way language is used in particular situations, and is therefore concerned with the functions of words as opposed to their forms. It deals with the intentions of the speakers and the way in which the hearer interprets what is said."

#### 4. Decisions and variables in curriculum construction

In an educational program, prior to deciding on a particular type of curriculum the authorities are supposed to know the answers to the following questions: What should be taught? How should the subject be taught? How should the program be evaluated? (Wilson, 1976). To answer these questions one must know the social environment, the nature of the learner, the process of learning and the nature of knowledge. This section intends to guide curriculum developers in making their basic decisions.

Johnson (1967) considers only what is planned as constituting a curriculum; thus he defines curriculum as "a structural series of intended learning outcomes." Phenix (1958) and Krug (1957) view curriculum as "specific activities (what) and methods to implement those activities (how). Garcia (Wilson, 1976) defines curriculum as: "the sum total of organized learnings stated as

educational ends, activities, school subjects and/or topics decided upon and provided within an educational institution for the attainment of the students." Garcia's definition is in line with Dubin and Olshtain's (1986) definition of curriculum: a broad description of general goals by indicating an overall educational-cultural philosophy which applies across subjects together with a theoretical orientation to language and language learning with respect to the subject matter at hand."

#### I. Decisions in curriculum construction:

Garcia (Wilson, 1976) describes curriculum construction as decision-making processes involving what to teach the students, and how to teach in an educational institution. Garcia states that "decisions on the educational ends, that is on what to teach, guide decisions on the educational means, that is on how to teach." This ends-means approach is valid in everyday activities. For example an individual's purpose plays an important part in deciding which book to buy. Curriculum development involves three main curricular elements:

1. decisions on what to teach which are educational ends generated at three levels of specificity and immediacy to the learner;
2. decisions on how to teach, concerned strategies in terms of selecting and organizing learning opportunities and
3. decisions concerning the extent to which educational ends are being attained through the strategies or means provided.

Sharing the same view, Beauchamp (1982) mentions the purposes of a curriculum system: the development of a curriculum (what), the organized implementation of that curriculum (how), and the organized evaluation of that curriculum.

1. Decisions on what to teach:

Among curricular elements educational ends, decisions on what to teach, have primary importance in curriculum design. Garcia refers to Goodlad while claiming that educational ends are stated at various levels of specificity and immediacy to the learner. At the societal level, community leaders are consulted as they shape educational aims consisted of statements for the preservation and the advancement of the social group.

An example of an educational aim is as follows:

The aim of Anadolu secondary schools, where most courses are given in a foreign language, is to enable students: to learn a foreign language; to make use of the foreign language in their high education either in Turkey or abroad; and to attain a nationalistic and civilized perspective (Bilgen, 1984).

At the institutional level leaders in education such as administrators and supervisors of the Department or Ministry of Education and of educational institutions, state educational objectives in compliance with educational aims. Garcia (Wilson, 1976) defines educational objectives as "statements of what learnings a student must attain at a given level of education and, possibly, in a given subject and in a local school or community. Garcia states that educational objectives deal

with "the development and dissemination of knowledge systems like physics, economics and linguistics, their processes and discoveries." Examples of educational objectives are as follows:

The objectives of English course in Anadolu secondary schools (Bilgen, 1984):

1. To be able to understand English when it is spoken at a normal speed.
2. To be capable of speaking English clearly.
3. To comprehend a reading passage in English.
4. To express one's feelings and thoughts while writing in English.
5. To know the cultures of the countries where English is the native language.
6. To be willing to communicate in English.
7. To have a positive attitude towards the foreign culture.
8. To be determined to learn English both during and after the secondary education.

At the instructional level, the teacher provides the students who have identified needs and interests with instructional objectives. Garcia says that "instructional objectives are statements of learning which a highly identifiable student, that is, known in terms of his needs and interests, school class membership and community, must achieve as a result of being in an educational programme." Sample instructional objectives in a reading lesson are as follows:

The student will:

- 1) Underline all new words in the reading material.
- 2) Define those new words in one or two sentences.
- 3) Select useful sentences in the reading material.
- 4) Copy those useful sentences in order to increase retention.
- 5) Answer at least five questions about the reading material.



## 2. Decisions on how to teach:

After deciding on the educational ends the point of discussion is how to teach. And the question of what learning opportunities should be given to achieve educational ends arises. Garcia defines a learning opportunity as a stimulus planned in an educational programme to attain an educational end. The process and content of a learning opportunity derive from educational and instructional objectives. For example, in the instructional objective, "the student will underline new words in the reading material as a learning opportunity." To reach an objective usually more than one learning opportunity is necessary. If a student is to learn the meaning of honesty, learning opportunities may be collecting articles from newspapers concerning honesty, dramatizing instances of honesty and praising honesty in school. These learning opportunities should not be given simultaneously. Garcia refers to Tyler who presents three criteria in order to organize learning opportunities:

- a) continuity or the repetition of curricular elements over time;
- b) sequence, the repetition of these elements in increasing breadth and depth; and
- c) integration, the simultaneous repetition of these elements so that they may reinforce each other.

Continuity is a normal procedure in developing learning. Yet Garcia sees sequence more problematic and refers to Gagne's task analysis, Bloom's Taxonomy of Objectives and Hanna's "Expanding Communities of Man." The common point in these references is that they advocate a simple-to-complex scheme.

Supporting the view Garcia quotes from Bruner:

... that the basic ideas that lie at the heart of all science and mathematics and the basic themes that give form to life and literature are as simple as they are powerful. To be in command of these basic ideas, to use them effectively requires a continual deepening of one's understanding of them that comes from learning to use them in progressively more complex forms.

Another question is whether to organize the curriculum from the psychological to the logical or from the logical to the psychological perspectives. The psychological perspective deals with the abilities and needs of the learner; the logical perspective deals with the organization of a field of knowledge. Garcia mentions the progressive education movement which held that "the worth of a discipline depends on its manifest and usefulness to the learner."

After defining ~~integration~~ as "the structure which gives insight into whole fields of knowledge" Garcia lists the advantages of integration:

1. Integration reduces otherwise numerous isolated experiences into a smaller group of experiences. Since studies in psychology indicate that the individual has a limited capacity for storing information, grouping experiences and thereby reducing the number of items to be dealt with should promote retention.
2. Disjointed experiences become more meaningful through organization. A complete or whole framework is more comprehensible than several disconnected parts.
3. Organization makes life more predictable. It lessens the number of unknowns in the life of the individual by serving as an index to future events and experiences.
4. Organization enables the individual to examine and think about experiences from different perspectives. The structure gives new insight

into old experiences and gives specific meaning to new experiences.

### 3. Determining the extent of educational ends:

Garcia presents the benefits of constructing evaluation devices: learning outcomes; the value of educational goals; the efficiency of teaching procedures and materials; the participation of the learners; capacity of curriculum planners; the harmony between goals and means; and the advantages to the individual and the society. Garcia asserts that "evaluation or judgement or merit or value is useful in making decisions about retaining, rejecting, or improving-perhaps reassigning to a more suitable task-a student, a teacher, a principal, a curriculum, or a book." In the discussion there is a reference to Gronlund's steps in evaluating curriculum:

1. Identify the instructional objectives, i.e. the exact learning outcomes expected.
2. If necessary, state these objectives operationally, i.e. specify the process and content elements. This step may be omitted if the instructional objectives are precisely stated.
3. Select or design instruments for measuring or describing learning outcomes desired.
4. Administer the instruments and analyze the results to determine the extent to which the desired learning outcomes have been attained.

Evaluation requires both quantitative and qualitative descriptions about the educational program. Then the process of evaluation continues as data collection, data analysis and interpretation.

### II. Variables in curriculum construction:

In curriculum construction, the bases for decision-making

cover understanding of a) the social environment, b) the nature of the learner, c) the process of learning, and d) the nature of knowledge. Garcia says that "education must be in harmony with social, economic, and political realities of the changing present, of the relevant and enduring past, on which a community establishes its identity, as well as of the projected future with which man and society must cope." Beauchamp (1982) asserts that "ideas about curriculum content generated through national projects, textbooks, state laws, or the work of scholarly groups may be treated as influences upon, or inputs to, curriculum systems located in local school districts." The curriculum developer needs to know the answers to the following questions: What can the student learn? When can the student learn it? How can the student learn it? Another duty of the curriculum developers is to identify which curriculum model suits a particular group of students and to direct investigations on the applicability of that curriculum model. For enhancement in student learning Garcia mentions concepts presented by different experts:

1. Identification The student needs good models to imitate. These may include parents, teachers, siblings and peers. These references not only provide cues concerning what is to be learned but also zeal for learning (Kagan, 1965)
2. Resources for learning Learning is enhanced where the environment is rich with materials that promote exploration, manipulation, and experimentation, i.e. opportunities for learning (Bloom, 1968)

3. Culture potential Studies in anthropology direct attention to the fact that different cultural milieus cultivate different qualities and capacities. Learning success is increased where learning opportunities capitalize on the cultural capacities of individuals and groups (Benedict, 1934)
4. Learning needs Learning should not end with the acquisition of new materials. Each learning situation must be designed to meet the need to extend, broaden or deepen acquired learning (Bruner, 1960)
5. Knowledge about learners The student learns more where the teacher knows him as an individual (Glaser, 1973)
6. Attitudes and learning New information which agrees with one's attitudes is remembered longer than contradicting information (Festinger and Macoby, 1965)

#### Summary

In curriculum construction there are three components: decisions on what to teach; decisions on how to teach; determining the extent of achievement of educational ends. Decisions on what to teach rely on what educational aims, educational objectives and instructional objectives are. Decisions on how to teach involve the continuity, sequence and integration of learning opportunities. Then the significance of evaluation in curriculum development is emphasized. Before determining which type of curriculum is suitable for an educational program a curriculum developer must know the social environment, the nature of the learner, the process of learning and the kind of knowledge.

#### 4. Communicative curriculum characteristics

This section is concerned with what teacher's roles are in a communicative curriculum and what experts think a communicative curriculum should contain.

In "The role of the teacher in today's language classroom," Lopez (1989) draws attention to the need for today's teacher to have sound knowledge of language, psychology and sociology; organizing and utilizing all this knowledge in teaching. In other words Lopez asserts that a good language teacher should know the following: linguistics; students' social environment which has influence on their learning; various pedagogical techniques; social and cultural properties of the target language; and techniques for identifying psychological characteristics of students. A good language teacher should also know how to organize and utilize all this knowledge in teaching.

Recently it has been realized that "each learner is an individual, with distinct needs, learning styles, mental schemata and attitudes" (Lopez, 1989). Lopez (1989) thinks that to be able to guide student and create a positive classroom atmosphere teacher must know three types of information about students: psychological factors, personal needs and social factors. Among psychological factors, schemata, cognitive style and affective factors are particularly important. Teachers must learn students' experience in the subject to be studied. Thus teachers will determine the average level of the students and organize their classes accordingly. Teachers must also learn students' personal backgrounds which influence their psychology.

Lopez (1986) suggests for teachers to take different learning styles into consideration either by individualizing instruction or by teaching toward the style of the majority in the class, with special tasks for the students with different learning styles. Brumfit (1985) says that "experienced teachers will know the time lag between teaching and genuine use will vary enormously from student to student and from language item to language item."

According to Lopez (1989) students' needs and social factors are sources of information for the teacher. When teachers ask students what their needs are, students will state their concrete goals to work towards. As a result teachers will decide on how to select and present the material. Social environment is another factor which affects students' learning in two levels: society as a whole and the people closest to each student such as family and friends. Students' values and goals often reflect those of the groups to which they belong.

In Canale's opinion (Candlin, 1983), the main goal of a communicative curriculum is to prepare and encourage learners to use their communicative competence in the second language in order to participate in actual communication situations. Compatible with Canale's view, Richards and Rodgers (1986) present the purpose of communicative language teaching as the development of what Hymes called "communicative competence." Gunterman (1987) defines Hymes' term as "one's ability to control social and cultural conventions as well as purely linguistic elements in creating utterances for communicative interaction." In contrast to Hymes' definition Richards and Rodgers refer to

Chomsky's theory of competence in the following quotation from Chomsky:

Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogenous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitation, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance.

Hymes (Richards and Rodgers, 1986) thinks that a person with communicative competence has both knowledge and ability in language use in relation to:

1. whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;
2. whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. whether (and to what extent) something is in fact done, actually performed, and its doing entails.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) assert that Halliday's functional account of language use is advocated in communicative language teaching. They quote from Halliday: "Linguistics ... is concerned ... with the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning, brought into focus."

Supporters of communicative language teaching point out the similarity between learning a second and a first language. Halliday (Richards and Rodgers, 1986) states seven functions that



language has for children learning their first language:

1. the instrumental function: using language to get things;
2. the regulatory function: using language to control the behavior of others;
3. the interactional function: using language to create interaction with others;
4. the personal function: using language to express personal feelings and meanings;
5. the heuristic function: using language to learn and to discover;
6. the imaginative function: using language to create a world of the imagination
7. the representational function: using language to communicate information.

Johnson and Littlewood (Richards and Rodgers, 1986) have a learning theory that is in compliance with communicative language teaching-a skill-learning model of learning. This theory sees the acquisition of communicative competence in a language as an example of skill development. The following quotation from Littlewood presents the cognitive and behavioral aspects of the theory:

The cognitive aspect involves the internalisation of plans for creating appropriate behaviour. For language use, these plans derive mainly from the language system-they include grammatical rules, procedures for selecting vocabulary, and social conventions governing speech. The behavioural aspect involves the automation of these plans so that they can be converted into fluent performance in real time. This occurs mainly through practice in converting plans into performance.

In Language and Communication (Canlin, 1983) in the article on communicative competence, Canale discusses the theory of communicative competence proposed by Canale and Swain. Canale and Swain consider communicative competence as "the underlying

systems of knowledge and skill required for communication (e.g. knowledge of vocabulary and skills in using the sociolinguistic conventions for a given language)." They claim that there are four components of communicative competence: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence.

Grammatical competence: This component includes the mastery of the language code (verbal or nonverbal). The emphasis is on the necessary knowledge and skill to understand and express accurately the literal meaning of utterances.

Sociolinguistic competence: This type of competence encompasses sociolinguistic appropriateness of utterances both in meaning and form. Appropriateness of meaning deals with communicative functions (e.g. commanding, complaining and inviting), attitudes (including politeness and formality) and ideas suitable in a particular situation. Appropriateness of form includes the representation of a given meaning in a verbal and non-verbal form which is proper in certain sociolinguistic context. Terrell (Candlin, 1983) thinks that second language programs tend to pay attention to grammatical competence rather than sociolinguistic competence. Terrell stresses that the tendency ignores the cruciality of sociolinguistic competence in the interpretation of utterances.

Discourse competence: Canale (Candlin, 1983) says that "this type of competence concerns mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text." Cohesion in form and coherence in meaning provide the unity of a text. Cohesion involves the structural link between

utterances. Coherence addresses "the relationships among the different meanings in a text." Widdowson (1978) clarifies the definitions of coherent and cohesive with the example below. The sample discourse is both cohesive and coherent when the implications within the parenthesis are considered.

A: That's the telephone. (Can you answer it, please)

B: (No, I can't answer it because) I'm in the bath.

C: O.K. (I'll answer it).

Strategic competence: This competence involves the mastery of communication strategies which are required:

(a) to make up for communication break-down

(b) to enable the effectiveness of communication

(e.g. intentionally slow or soft speech for rhetorical effect).

For example learners can say "the place for trains" when they do not know "train station." Learners know the strategy of paraphrase in their first language; however, what should be taught is how to use the strategy in the second language (e.g. "power vocabulary" items such as 'place', 'person' and 'thing' should be presented).

## **B. Review of practical concerns**

### **Communicative activities**

In *Communicative Language Teaching*, Littlewood (1985) starts the discussion on communicative activities by presenting their benefits to language learning. He claims that communicative activities provide learners with whole-task practice. Littlewood clarifies the benefit by pointing out the similarity between

learning to swim and learning to communicate in the target language. Learning to swim requires "not only separate practice of individual movements (part-skills) but also actual attempts to swim short distances (whole-task practice)." Learners consider language as a way of communication rather than a structural system. Besides learners' major aim is to participate in communication with others. Communicative activities fulfill learners' expectations and purposes; thus the activities motivate them. Language learning cannot be achieved unless a person uses the language for communication; so communicative activity has a major role in the learning process. Communicative activities enable positive personal relationships to develop among learners and between learners and teacher.

In Facilitating Language Learning, Dubin and Olshtain (1977) mention teachers' hesitation to use communicative activities as teachers feel that "they are not performing their responsibility." Because in their opinion instead of devoting most of their time to studying language structures teachers play games. However, communicative activities require anticipation and preparation on the part of the teacher who works as a facilitator. Littlewood (1985) also comments on the teacher's role in communicative activities. In spite of taking a direct role in the activity the teacher should be a 'co-communicator'. The teacher can be a guide without becoming dominant. For instance if learners have troubles in coping with a situation, the teacher can advise or give necessary language items. If there is disagreement among students, the teacher can resolve the problem. So the teacher

acts as a helper. When students are performing, the teacher can observe their weaknesses and strengths. To avoid interruption at the time of the activity the teacher may discuss the observations after the activity. Sometimes the teacher may decide on the immediate correction of the mistakes for effective warning.

Littlewood (1985) divides communicative activities into two main categories: functional communication activities and social interaction activities. What is intended to achieve in functional communication activities is that while using the language learners should get their meanings across as much as possible. To what extent learners meet their communicative needs for the immediate situation determines their success.

As a second category "social interaction activities" intend not only to convey meanings effectively but also use the language which is appropriate to the social context. Examples of social interaction activities which Littlewood (1985) suggests are the following:

After discussing why children fail at school the teacher and/or learners may write a dialogue like this one:

Edith: Where's Elizabeth these days? I haven't  
seen her for ages.  
Molly: Elizabeth? She's left school.  
Edith: Not intelligent enough, eh?  
Molly: Kubbish! She's as intelligent as you and  
me.  
Edith: It serves her right. She never did her  
homework, did she? I always do mine.  
Molly: You needn't boast. Your mother keeps you at  
it. And your father helps you with maths.  
Edith: What's that got to do with it?

This dialogue may lead to role-plays and composing of connected dialogues.

Another activity requires pair work in which one learner is given detailed cues and another has information that enables the learner to respond as necessary.

Student A: You arrive at a small hotel one evening. In the foyer, you meet the manager(ess) and:  
Ask if there is a room vacant.  
Ask the price, including breakfast.  
Say how many nights you would like to stay.  
Say what time you would like to have breakfast.

Student B: You are the manager(ess) of a small hotel that prides itself on its friendly, homely atmosphere. You have a single and a double room vacant for tonight. The prices are: 8.50 pounds for the single room, 15 pounds for the double room. Breakfast is 1.50 pounds per person. In the street behind the hotel, there is a free car park. Guests can have tea in bed in the morning, for 50 pence.

In the interaction A and B are allowed to make some variations.

The next activity has a greater emphasis on the social context. Littlewood (1985) informs that this activity is taken from Approaches written by Johnson and Morrow.

Student A: You are staying in London. Its the weekend and you are fed up with the Tower, Buckingham Palace and picture postcards. But there's more to see in Britain than just London, and you decide to explore the outside world. You might go to: The Berkshire Game Park; the Boating Regatta; the Railway Exhibition; the Horse Show. Choose one of these. Your partner works at the station information desk. Find out from him:  
Which town to go to: .....  
How frequent trains are: .....  
How long the journey takes: .....  
Train departure times (from London): .....  
Train arrival times (at your destination): .....  
Whether you have to change: .....

Student B: Pretend that you work in the information office at Paddington Station in London. Give your partner the information he asks for using the time table.

In Facilitating Language Learning, Dubin and Olshtain (1977) mention that communicative activities help students increase fluency by encouraging free and spontaneous talk. Dubin and Olshtain (1977) present a framework for communicative activities: activities for reacting, interacting, sharing and discussing, improvising.

In activities for reacting the teacher and the whole class work together. In activities for interacting the teacher acts as a model and then becomes an observer by giving the role of leader to a student. Activities for sharing and discussing involve working in small groups where each individual has a part in the joint effort. In activities for improvising small groups perform before the whole class.

Activities for reacting: Party games, group games, fireside games are included in this type of activities which require attentive listeners.

Guessing activities: In the game called "Twenty Questions" one student goes out of the classroom and the others decide on an object in the room or on a famous person. The student tries to find out the thing by asking either 20 yes/no or 20 wh-questions. Another activity is "questions and answers" in which the teacher writes questions and answers on slips of paper. One half of the class has questions while the other half has answers. Students with questions ask in turns and sometimes they receive more than one answer which makes the activity enjoyable.

Semantic set games: The teacher lists five items containing an item which is unlike others. Students listen and respond with

a certain word or predetermined gesture when they hear the different item.

Add-an item games: As an example for this type of activity the teacher asks "if I am going to take a trip to "Bermuda" what should I take along?" The answer should begin with letter 'b' which is the first letter of the place so the response may be "bananas" or "books."

In a "chaining" activity if the selected item is an adjective, in turns pairs of students talk with each other such as: A: "I have a guitar." B: "What kind of guitar?" A: "It's a mellow guitar." Each member asks another person a given question. Then the answerer questions someone else. The teacher directs the line of questioning.

Command games: The leader performs a body, hand, facial or head movement with a verbal command of either "Do what I am doing" or "Don't do what I am doing."

Alertness games: The leader says that when counting one by one students must say "Buzz" instead of a certain number and all of its common multiples. For instance if the selected number is five, the counting will be "1, 2, 3, 4, Buzz, 6, 7, 8, 9, Buzz, 11, 12, 13 ..."

Stimulus aids: An activity named "Rumor" requires three students to go out of the classroom while others see a slide or a picture. The first person who enters the classroom and asks each person one detail in the slide or picture. Then the second person receives the information which the first person has.

Magazine advertisements: Teachers may show the pictures of



adds and ask students what the add is trying to sell.

Choices based on real-life problems: Teachers may collect items from "Dear Abby" type of columns in newspapers. Students are asked to give advice for people with problems.

Mini-situations: Dubin and Olshtain (1977) give samples of mini-situations for role-playing: "(1) An angry customer argues with a shopkeeper. (2) Two drivers argue with each other after their cars collide in an accident."

Activities for interacting interviews: At the beginning of a course the teacher writes questions to learn students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Each student asks these questions to the next person; then they introduce each other to the whole class.

Scrambles: In "Who am I?" at the back of each student there is a name tag which has a famous person's name. The student asks another about the characteristics of the person on the name tag and tries to guess.

In "Communicative Teaching" Juric (1989) suggests a game called "Mental Hide-and-seek" in which students work in pairs: in imagination one hides oneself anywhere in the room and the other tries to find out the place by asking questions such as: "Are you in something small?", "Are you in front of me?" This activity is useful for practice with prepositions.

Chain talking: Students are divided into two teams. The teacher gives each team a subject to talk about. Each team member talks as much as possible continuing the previous person's speech. The team which talks more wins.

Activities for sharing and discussing: Dubin and Olshtain (1977) claim that "strategies for sharing and discussing have an important place in a program for advanced second language learners because they depend more crucially on everyone being able to proceed on one's own." There is a list of universal topics for talking assignments which everyone will have something to say, for example: "men and women; the individual and the family; employers and employees." In general "share and discuss" activities focus on content. Certain news, opinions based on one's own reading, personal experiences can be used as themes for talks and discussions. As each person takes the role of specialist on a subject, students need some out-of-class preparation.

Activities for improvising: Dubin and Olshtain (1977) state that:

With improvisational activities learners come nearer to using new language in lifelike communicative events. The classroom atmosphere needs to be open and easy-going; this is not the time for attention to the details of the correct language structure or correct pronunciation. A prevailing tone of "anything goes"--as long as the objective of communication takes place--is the only sensible way to conduct impromptu language activities.

Littlewood (1985) says that improvisation type of role-playing activity is the least controlled. Learners have a stimulus-situation which they can develop in whatever way they like. For example, groups of six act out this situation:

You are travelling on an underground train (subway). Suddenly it stops between two stations. At first you take no notice, but soon you all begin to wonder what is happening. It gets warmer and warmer. You become more and more nervous. After ten minutes, to your relief, the train begins to move again.

## PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

In determining to what extent TOMER has a communicative curriculum students' opinions were taken. Compared to other techniques of data collection, through a questionnaire it is possible to involve more people in the study in less time; so this technique was used. Advanced level students were asked to answer the questionnaire as they have been acquainted with the program more than the students of other levels.

The reason for using each item in the questionnaire is explained with reference to experts' views. And the percentages of students' responses are provided preceding the interpretation of the data.

The reason for giving the questionnaire was to obtain student opinion on TOMER's curriculum. The design of the questionnaire (see Appendix) was based on the communicative curriculum characteristics. When the questionnaire was given, in TOMER's Ankara branch the total number of students was 100. As the common language of the students is English, the questionnaire was given in that language. The study took place with the participation of advanced level students learning Turkish as a second language in the intensive courses.

The questionnaire consists of eleven items, ten of which

require a response of either YES or NO. Item eleven asks for students' comments on the program in general. The analysis of the data is dependent on frequency counts of the responses.

The first item aims at learning whether classroom activities reflect those communicative activities that learners are most likely to engage in. The responses to the item indicated that 100% of the students thought that they had communicative activities which served their purposes.

Littlewood (1985) presents the aim of functional communicative activities is getting the meanings across as effectively as possible. So there is item 2 which involves activities which emphasize the ability to understand and convey information. The functional role of the activities were confirmed by 90% of the students.

Freeman (1986) thinks that "whenever possible, 'authentic language'-language as it is used in a real context-should be introduced." That is why item 3 refers to the material's being realistic. There is 100% agreement among pupils who asserted the material was unrealistic. This fact points out the need for materials development and evaluation in TOMER when communicative curriculum characteristics are taken as standard.

Candlin (1983) states that one of the aims of a communicative curriculum is that grammatical competence should be attained. This view constitutes the reason for item 4 in which 100% of the students said that they studied grammar in language classes at TOMER.

As Candlin (1983), Littlewood (1985) and Freeman (1986) take the social context of the communicative event as essential in

giving meaning to the utterance, there is item 5 on this point. The responses showed that 70% of the students thought that explanations on the social context such as the roles of the participants and the function of the information were provided.

Both in Freeman's (1986) list on the principles of communicative teaching and in Canale's (Candlin, 1983) statement on discourse competence, the mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to get unity in written and oral language is emphasized. Thus item 6 on the achievement of discourse competence exists. In the responses, 70% of the students stated that they acquired the necessary skills to recognize the theme or topic of a paragraph, chapter or book and the gist of a telephone conversation.

Canale and Swain (Candlin, 1983) involve strategic competence as a part of communicative competence. They require the teaching of communication strategies like paraphrase as these strategies make up for communication break-down and enable the effectiveness of communication. Resulting from the discussion of Canale and Swain, the questionnaire includes an item that aims at learning whether students are taught communication strategies. In the responses to item 7, 90% of the students said that they knew the answers to questions such as "What do you do when you cannot think of a word? What are the ways of keeping channels of communication open while you pause to collect your thoughts?"

Brumfit (1985) sees meeting learners' needs as one of the communicative curriculum characteristics. So item 8 on the necessary consideration of the students' purposes is included.

In the response 90% of the students asserted that their purposes in studying the language were not taken into consideration by the teachers. This point reflects an important weakness in the program.

Dubin and Olshtain (1977), Littlewood (1985), Freeman (1986) and Juric (1989) advocate the need for pair or group work in communicative activities. Thus there is an item on students' interaction with classmates through pair or group work. The responses of 70% of the students indicated that they did not have pair or group work.

Dubin and Olshtain (1977), Littlewood (1985) and Freeman (1986) point out the teacher's role as a facilitator in communicative teaching. Thus item 10 on the teacher's being a guide rather than an authority is presented. In the responses 70% of the students stated that they saw their teacher as a guide.

Ten students answered ten YES/NO items and as a result there are 55 "YES" and 45 "NO" responses. Based on the responses of YES/NO items the general tendency is towards the existence of communicative curriculum characteristics.

The last item, item 11, asks for students' comments on the program in general. The program's being incapable of assessing students' needs was mentioned in 90% of the responses. The students wanted to be classified depending on their needs as it is impossible for a teacher to appeal to students with totally different aims. Stating that they wanted to study in Turkish universities, 80% of the respondents drew attention to their wish to learn Turkish for specific purposes. In the comments, 20% were unsatisfied with the vocabulary which was not related to

their subject of education. These ten students had only one month to finish the courses and get a diploma; however, 70% of them complained about the inadequacy of their knowledge. Only 10% of the respondents praised TOMER with these words: "What is taught provides us a good basis. I find the written exercises useful and effective." Yet 90% of the students' responses consisted of complaints. The situation calls for improvement in TOMER.

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT AT TOMER

In this section, possible solutions to the problems in Turkish courses at TOMER will be discussed. The analysis of the data points out three main weaknesses in the program: students' have unmet needs; the materials are unrealistic; pair or group work is not used. The three weaknesses are interrelated as the use of realistic materials and of pair or group work will partly solve the problem of unmet needs.

Dubin and Olshtain (1986) state that though individual needs and wants should be considered in both EFL and ESL settings, they are more important in the ESL one in which learners have come to a new environment in which the target language plays a crucial role. They add that ESL courses must establish goals to fit individual needs and wants with respect to social objectives as well as academic, professional or occupational ones. At TOMER students complain that their academic and professional needs are not taken into consideration. To eliminate this main weakness the students' academic needs might be defined in terms of both language and general learning skills such as understanding

lectures in the target language, taking notes and reading textbooks. For instance, in a course for 'management Turkish', the objectives might be to have the following abilities: (a) to negotiate with clients, (b) to correspond with companies, (c) to have business meetings in Turkish, (d) to develop a richer business vocabulary, (e) to communicate over the telephone. In such a course, in group-work students may role-play real-life situations which they meet in their professions.

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study starts with the description of TOMER to give an overall idea about the second language institution in Turkey. The answers to the following are given: Where are TOMER's branches? Who are the students and the teachers? What are the goals of the courses?

In "the statement of the topic" there is a reference to Candlin's (1983) opinion, a second language program should have a communicative curriculum. Based on Candlin's opinion the study plans to find out whether TOMER as a second language teaching program has a communicative curriculum or not. The project aims at giving a criteria for communicative curricula.

The review of literature begins with a glossary to clarify the professional vocabulary which is used in the study. Then a brief history of language teaching intends to help the formation of a comparison of communicative approach with other teaching methodologies. The next section is called "second language acquisition" which is concerned with the assumption that adults can acquire a second language if they attend a language program



with a communicative curriculum. To describe how to organize a program a section on the bases of curriculum construction is inserted. After that there is a discussion on communicative curriculum characteristics including teacher's roles.

In the presentation and analysis of the data, the basis for the items in the questionnaire is explained followed by the interpretation of the data. Depending on the data conclusions are drawn.

Providing criteria, ideally the study contributes to language teaching programs with communicative goals. The criteria are the first ten items in the questionnaire which represent communicative curriculum characteristics:

1. Classroom activities reflect those activities that students are most likely to engage in.
2. Activities emphasize the ability to understand and convey information.
3. The material (textbook and supplementary material) is realistic.
4. Students study the structural elements of language.
5. Teachers explain the social context in which language is used: the roles of participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction.
6. Students will be able to recognize the theme or topic of a paragraph, chapter, or book and the gist of a telephone conversation, poem, television commercial, office memo, recipe or legal document.
7. Students learn the answers to the following questions:  
What do you do when you cannot think of a word? What

are the ways of keeping channels while you pause to collect your thoughts? How do you let your interlocuter (the person with whom you are having a conversation) know you did not understand a particular word? or that he was speaking too fast? How do you, in turn, adapt when your message is misunderstood?

8. Students' purposes in studying the language are taken into consideration by the teachers.
9. Students interact with their classmates through pair or group work.
10. Teachers are guides rather than authorities.

The criteria aim at measuring the existence of students' grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. Language teaching programs can use the criteria on a wider extent than the one applied in TOMER. For researchers who want to study the communicative curriculum of a language teaching program there is a suggestion. If administrators, teachers and a greater percent of the students respond to the questionnaire; if there are interviews with the people involved; if observations in the classroom are done; and if materials are analyzed, the study will be more worthwhile. Such a study may lead to improvement in various aspects of the program. In spite of the limited data TOMER can benefit from this study. The analysis of the data draws attention to the urgent need for considering students' purposes to learn Turkish.

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# APPENDIX

Date: 16.8.1989

## QUESTIONNAIRE FOR COMMUNICATIVE CURRICULUM CHARACTERISTICS IN TOMER

INSTRUCTIONS: For each of the first 10 items below, circle either "YES" or "NO" in the right column. Your answers should reflect your opinion about the characteristics of TOMER's curriculum.

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|--|-----|----|
| 1. Classroom activities reflect those communicative activities that you are most likely to engage in.  | YES | NO |
| 2. Activities emphasize the ability to understand and convey information.  | YES | NO |
| 3. The material (textbook and supplementary material) is realistic.  | YES | NO |
| 4. You study the structural elements of language.  | YES | NO |
| 5. Your teachers explain the social context in which language is used: the roles of participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction.   | YES | NO |
| 6. You think as a result of your studies in TOMER, you will be able to recognize the theme or topic of a paragraph, chapter, or book and the gist of a telephone conversation, poem, television commercial, office memo, recipe or legal document. | YES | NO |



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|-----|---|-----|----|
| 7.  | You learn the answers to the following questions: What do you do when you cannot think of a word? What are the ways of keeping the channels of communication open while you pause to collect your thoughts? How do you let your interlocutor (the person with whom you are having a conversation) know you did not understand a particular word? or that he was speaking too fast? How do you, in turn, adapt when your message is misunderstood? | YES | NO |
| 8.  | Your purposes in studying the language are taken into consideration by the teachers.  | YES | NO |
| 9.  | You interact with your classmates through pair or group work.   | YES | NO |
| 10. | Your teacher is a guide rather than an authority.   | YES | NO |
| 11. | In one or two sentences comment on the program in general.  |     |    |

## CURRICULUM VITA

I was born in 1968 in Iskenderun. I attended Ankara College for my primary and secondary education. In 1986, I enrolled in the English Language and Literature Department of Ankara University and graduated in 1987. Soon after my graduation, I took the English proficiency exam for a teaching position with Ankara University and I scored the highest. Then I began my work as an English instructor with TOMER in Ankara.