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EXPLORING THE EFFECT OF
TALKING PICTURE BOOKS ON THE ATTITUDES OF
YOUNG EFL LEARNERS

Hazırlayan:

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ÖZ

Samsun İlkadım İlyasköy Türk-iş İlköğretim Okulu'nda yapılan bu deneysel çalışma, konuşan resimli hikaye kitaplarının çocukların tutumları üzerinde olan etkisini ölçmeyi amaçlamıştır. Sırasıyla 35 ve 32 öğrenciden oluşmuş olan iki altıncı sınıf rastgele olarak deney ve kontrol gruplarına atanmıştır. 8 hafta, 16 saatlik bir süreç boyunca, deney grubundaki öğrenciler konuşan resimli hikaye kitaplarını işlerken kontrol grubundaki öğrenciler ise aynı hikayelerin çıktılarını işlemişlerdir. Veriler, bir tutum anketi ve öğrenci gözlem formları aracılığı ile toplanmıştır. Veri analizleri, konuşan resimli hikaye kitaplarının çocukların İngilizceye yönelik sevgilerini, ilgi ve meraklarını, istek ve beklentilerini artırarak ve kaygı seviyelerini düşürerek anlamlı bir tutum artışı yarattığını göstermiştir. Ayrıca, son test sonuçları, resimli hikaye kitaplarını işledikten sonra kızlar ve erkeklerin skorları arasında anlamlı bir fark oluşmuş olmamasına rağmen, erkeklerin kızlara göre bu kitaplardan daha fazla faydalandıklarını göstermiştir. Çünkü erkeklerin ortalamasındaki artış kızlarınkinden daha fazla olmuştur. Diğer bir analiz ise deney ve kontrol gruplarındaki erkekler ve kızların skorlarının kendi içlerinde kıyaslanması sureti ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Sonuçlar, bir kere daha, iki gruptaki kızların son test sonuçları arasındaki farkın da anlamlı olduğunu ancak, resimli hikayelerle ders işleminin erkekler için daha yararlı olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu sonuçlar çerçevesinde, konuşan resimli hikaye kitaplarının öğrenciler, özellikle de erkek öğrenciler arasında olumlu tutumlar yarattığı ve bu durumun öğrencilerin İngilizceye yönelik motivasyon ve başarılarını olumlu yönde etkileyebileceği belirtilmiştir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Konuşan resimli hikaye kitapları, çocuklar, tutum, motivasyon

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ABSTRACT

Conducted at Samsun İlyasköy Türk-iş Primary School, this experimental study aimed to explore the effect of talking picture books on the attitudes of young EFL learners. Two sixth grade classrooms were assigned randomly to the experimental and control groups of which the former group was composed of 35 students while the latter one included 32 students. The students in the experimental group were exposed to the talking picture books as the ones in the control group studied the print versions of the same stories in an integrative way for an 8-week, 16-hour period. Data were collected through and attitude questionnaire and student logs. The data analyses indicated that the talking picture books created a significant attitude increase by increasing the students' love of English, interest in learning English, desire for and expectations from English and decreasing their level of language anxiety. Moreover, the post-test scores indicated that although there was not a significant difference between the girls' and boys' scores ensuing the exposure to talking picture books, boys benefited more from these books since the increase in the mean scores was greater for boys compared to the girls. A further analysis was done by comparing the scores of the boys and girls in themselves in both groups. The findings, once more, indicated that boys benefited more from studying talking picture books even though the difference between the post-test scores of the girls in both groups was significant, as well. Within the scope of these findings it was concluded that talking picture books can generate positive attitudes among young learners, especially among boys, which in turn contribute to their motivation and achievement in learning English, respectively.

Keywords: Talking picture books, attitude, motivation, young learners.

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Dilek YAZICI DEMİRCİ

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ABBREVIATIONS

AMTB: Attitude/Motivation Test Battery

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

FLL: Foreign Language Learning

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

Ss: Students

T: Teacher

TEYL: Teaching English to Young Learners

TL: Target Language

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter is concerned with presenting the problem situation, research question and sub-questions, the aim, hypotheses, assumptions, definitions and limitations of the study. In other words, it explicates why this research has been conducted, how the findings will contribute to the literature and for which questions answers have been sought.

1.1. PROBLEM

As the technological developments have brought people over the world closer and the world turned to, so to speak, a village where the need of communication with people from different nations displayed a marked increase so as to keep in touch with and keep up with the rest of the world, the necessity of a common communication system has occurred. This need of speaking one common language has led English to be considered as the lingua franca all over the world. Meanwhile, linguists busy with trying to find out the best-ever method and conditions to learn/acquire a foreign/ second language have asserted that the younger the learners are the better they are in the language learning/acquisition process. As a result of the conception that the youngsters learn languages better than the adults or adolescents and the need to learn a common language or the lingua franca, English has been included in the curricula of young learners (YL, hereafter). Besides the scholars, parents have been quite considerate and they would like their children learn English in order for better occupations, living standards, in short, for a better future. In line with these developments, Turkey has lowered the compulsory education of English as a foreign language to fourth grade (Tebliğler Dergisi, 1997). However, lowering the age of exposure to the foreign language does not guarantee success since there are several factors to be taken into account as YLs display quite different age-level characteristics from the adults.

If the aim is to teach languages to YLs, it is indispensible that their teachers should be competent in and knowledgeable about both theory and practice. Yet, it was not until

1998 that the pre-service teacher programs of foreign language education departments had courses specifically dealing with teaching languages to YLs (Şeker, 2007). This means that when the compulsory exposure to English was lowered to fourth grade in 1997, there were no teachers who had taken a course about teaching languages to YLs back at the university. However, having taken such courses in the university may not mean being successful teachers since the courses taken in the university may not be effective enough.

YLs have different characteristics from adults (Cameron, 2001; Halliwell, 1992; Harmer, 2007; Moon, 2000; Phillips, 1993). Firstly, they are holistic learners and they have difficulty in learning languages in an analytic way. Secondly, they have short attention spans and unless they enjoy what they are doing, they cannot concentrate on it. Thirdly, they are active and they would like to dissipate their energy through hands-on activities and tasks. Last but not the least, they need concrete, interesting and attractive materials to comprehend the tasks they do in language classrooms. However, although there are numerous researches and publications about what characteristics YLs have and how they learn languages better, the studies conducted in Turkey have revealed quite a lot of deficiencies blocking the success in teaching languages to YLs.

Duygu İşpınar (2005) conducted a study on teachers' awareness of teaching English to YLs in 37 primary schools in Adana with 70 English teachers. She found out that the majority of the teachers in her sample were not knowledgeable about teaching YLs since they had not taken related courses back at the university and hence, most of them had become aware of the characteristics of YLs through observations and their first-hand experiences with YLs. However, the findings of the study yielded that discovering basic characteristics of YLs does not guarantee being a successful teacher. What is necessary is the knowledge of how to device lessons according to these characteristics or what are the implications of them in YL classrooms which requires special training. Furthermore, the study revealed that teachers had complaints about the overloaded curricula, insufficient course hours, crowded classrooms, lack of materials and the books chosen by the Turkish Ministry of Education and they claimed that they had no leeway in adapting their lessons. The study displayed, as well, that majority of the

teachers did not employ role plays, drawings, body language, songs, games, pictures or flashcards. In other words, it was observed that except for the course books and the board, most of the teachers did not tend to use multiple materials to enrich their lessons and teaching. Likewise, in her study Gülden Mersinligil (2002) found out that teachers barely made use of role plays, pair or group works, games, songs or tasks requiring active participation of the students. Furthermore, her study revealed that lessons were not enriched with visuals, and the course books do not provide enough audio-visual support for YLs. Similarly, Gül Aküzel (2006) states that even though teachers have faith in the efficacy of the visuals in language classrooms, they rarely employ visuals in their lessons.

The lack of audio-visual support can be illustrated by a simple comparison between *Time for English 4,* the book chosen by the Turkish Ministry of Education for fourth graders and *Incredible English,* an Oxford publication. Of these books, the former provides only the audio files for listening sections which teachers should download from the official website of the Ministry of Education as they do not come in CDs together with the book. The latter book on the other hand, provides visual support since it comes with a teacher's resource pack containing a kit box, poster, puppet, photocopy masters book, story frames book, flashcards and text cards apart from the audio CDs and test CDs. This means that in Turkey, apart from dealing with crowded classrooms, curricular burdens, the level determination exam (SBS), insufficient tools, accommodations or physical conditions, teachers should try to prepare all the materials with their limited knowledge of two courses they took back at the university years, i.e. Teaching Young Learners I and II.

The above referred studies reveal that providing and supporting the YLs with suitable language learning/teaching materials in the classrooms is one of the serious problems faced in Turkey and it may be the leading cause of other problems by creating a chain-like effect. In other words, YLs who are not supported with suitable teaching materials during the lessons may develop negative attitudes towards learning the target language and start finding the lessons boring, then, they may create classroom management problems due to the involvement in off-task activities and hence end up with being an

unsuccessful learner. Thus, teachers should continuously check if their students enjoy what they are doing or not. Susan Halliwell (1992: 10) asserts that language programs should include not only the content goals but also the attitude goals. That is, apart from aiming to teach the target structures, functions, topics or situations, lessons should be devised to generate positive attitudes towards learning the target language so that learners can experience the pleasure and confidence in exploring the target language. Robert Gardner (1985) regards attitudes as an important component of language learning process, as well, since for him attitudes are the subcomponents of motivation and there is a reciprocal relationship between attitudes and motivation. He further draws a causal link between attitudes, motivation and achievement stating that positive attitudes will create motivation which in turn makes learners successful in learning the target language. As is clear, enriching the lessons with suitable materials for YLs is highly important since it not only contributes to the success of the learners but also serves as a precautionary measure against above mentioned problems.

In line with these conceptions and bearing the prominence and effectiveness of the use of appropriate materials in YL classrooms, this experimental study aims to explore the role of talking picture books on the attitude of YLs during an 8-week, 16-hour period.

1.2. RESEARCH QUESTION
Is there a significant attitude difference between the students who are exposed to the talking picture books and who studied the print versions of these books?

1.3. SUB-QUESTIONS
1. Is there a significant difference between the post-test scores of the experimental and control groups?

2. Is there a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of their "Love of English" following the implementation?

3. Is there a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of their "Interest in Learning Languages" ensuing the implementation?

4. Is there a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of their "Desire for and Expectations from English after the implementation?

5. Is there a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of their level of language "Anxiety" subsequent to the implementation?

6. Is there a significant difference between the pre and post-test scores of the experimental group?

7. Is there a significant attitude difference between the boys and girls in the experimental group compared to the ones in the control group?

1.4. AIM OF THE STUDY

Research shows that YLs display different characteristics from adults or adolescents and hence, the teaching materials, conditions, techniques or activities for them should be in compliance with these characteristics, as well (Cameron, 2001; Halliwell, 1992; Harmer, 2007; Moon, 2000; Phillips, 1993; Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). Furthermore, it has been claimed that having positive attitudes towards learning languages increases the motivation of the learners which in turn leads to achievement in language learning process (Gardner, 1985). In line with these conceptions, this study aims to explore the role of talking picture books on the attitude of YLs through an experimental research design in which the experimental group will be exposed to the talking picture books while the control group will study the print versions of the same stories.

Another aim of this study is to test out whether the attitude increase following the exposure to talking picture books will be greater for boys compared to girls. Studies such as Burstall, 1975; Gagnon, 1974; Gardner and Smythe, 1975a; Jones 1970a; 1970b (cited in Gardner, 1985) revealed that girls have more positive attitudes towards learning languages. There are other studies indicating that boys display more keen interest in using computers compared to the girls (Kay, 2006; He and Freeman, 2009). Taking these findings in the literature into account, current study intends to find out if

boys will display greater attitude increases towards learning the target language than girls. Furthermore, the pre and post-test scores of the girls in both groups will be compared in order to find out if the talking picture books have created any changes on the attitudes of girls, as well.

Finally, besides the researchers, the study aims to address the teachers of YLs shedding lights on the benefits of using multi sensory materials and revealing the importance and the role of positive attitudes in language learning.

1.5. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Language learning/ teaching techniques, activities and materials play an invaluable role in language classrooms since by means of them teachers try to realize the objectives of the course, and attract and keep the attention of their students. However, in order to create the desired effect, there should be a congruity between the demands of the techniques, activities or materials used and the characteristics and the capabilities of the target group. In other words, if the target group is composed of YLs, teachers should make use of the activities that give YLs the chance of dissipate their energy, should devise tasks within their cognitive capabilities, adopt an integrated skills approach as YLs have difficulty in focusing on the bits and pieces of the language, implement materials that are attractive enough for them and so on. Teachers of YLs should further bear in mind that YLs act as they feel and emotional experiences affect their preferences. Hence, creating a classroom atmosphere which generates favorable attitudes towards learning the target language and decrease the affective filter of the learners can arouse motivation among learners as a result of which YLs make more effort to participate in the lessons and hence, be more successful in the language learning. As Halliwell (1992) puts it, a language learning program should include attitude goals as well as the content goals. Here, the ever-developing technology comes to teachers' rescue offering them many opportunities to attract the attention of the YLs and make lessons more enjoyable. However, it is not possible to find a language laboratory/class at each school in Turkey and teachers may feel themselves restricted to their course books. Furthermore, that the books chosen and studied in the state primary schools do not come with extra audio, visual or audio-visual materials increases the

burden of the language teachers forcing them to prepare their own materials. Yet, as is stated above, many language teachers avoid this as they take limited courses during their university education. Within this framework, this study is significant in that it aims to explore and clarify the role of an audio-visual material, the talking picture books on the attitude of the YLs and offer their use in language classrooms as they can be used to release teachers from the burden of finding out audio-visual materials to address different learning styles, preparing their own materials or generating positive attitudes among the students.

1.6. HYPOTHESES

1. There will be a significant attitude difference between the students who are exposed to the talking picture books and who studied the print versions of these books.

2. There will be a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of their "Love of English" following the implementation.

3. There will be a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of their "Interest in Learning Languages" ensuing the implementation.

4. There will be a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of their "Desire for and Expectations from English after the implementation.

5. There will be a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of their level of language "Anxiety" subsequent to the implementation.

6. There will be a significant difference between the pre and post-test scores of the experimental group.

7. There will be a significant attitude difference between the boys and girls in the experimental group compared to the ones in the control group.

8. There will be a significant increase in the attitudes of boys and girls who are exposed to the talking picture books and who studied the print versions of these stories.

1.7. ASSUMPTIONS

1. The English proficiency level of both the control and the experimental groups are assumed to be equal.

2. Subjects are assumed to participate in the activities and tasks with their full concentration.

3. Subjects are assumed to answer the attitude questionnaire sincerely.

1.8. DEFINITIONS

Young learners: "Young learners" mean "children from the first year of formal schooling (five or six years old) to eleven or twelve years of age." (Philips, 1993: 5). The subjects in this study were at the age of 11-12, as well.

Scaffolding: Scaffolding means the "talk that supports a child in carrying out an activity" (Cameron, 2001: 8).

Talking Picture Books: Talking picture books refer to electronic or digital picture books that can be accessed through both CD-ROMs and the Internet and that present stories by combining animation, pictures and the text that can be read by the learner or is listened to while a native speaker of the target language is reading it.

Attitude: "A mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related" Allport (1935 cited in Allport, 1966: 20).

1.9. LIMITATIONS

1. The data obtained from two sixth grade classes studying at İlyasköy Türk-iş Primary School during 2010- 2011 academic year.

2. Current study is limited to an 8-week, 16-hour instruction.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter is basically concerned with giving a definition of who "Young Learners" are, summarizing their unique characteristics and clarifying the way they think and learn by referring to the works of several prominent psychologists as well as dealing with how to develop language skills of young learners. Furthermore, it provides a brief and comprehensive discussion of the importance of attitudes and motivation in language learning recapitulating the outstanding studies conducted and theories put forward in the field.

2.1. Who are "Young Learners"?

The target group chosen for this study is composed of "Young Learners". Therefore, it will be useful to elucidate who "Young Learners" (YLs, hereafter) are at the very beginning of the study. "Young learners" mean "children from the first year of formal schooling (five or six years old) to eleven or twelve years of age." (Phillips, 1993: 5). For Jeremy Harmer (2007), on the other hand, YLs are the ones up to the age of nine or ten and the learners above this age range are adolescents until they become adults. As for Annamaria Pinter (2006), the term YLs can be applicable to the ones from five to fourteen years of age. Similarly, Christopher Brumfit (1995: v) defines YLs as "the children in the early stages of their schooling, up to the age of 13 or 14. The inconsistency seen in the age ranges concerning who YLs are stems from the differences in primary education in different parts of the world. In some countries, primary education starts at five and continues until the age of eleven while in others, primary education does not start until the age of five or six and carries on till the age of fourteen, though in this case it is divided into two as lower and upper primary sections. Hence, as Pinter (2006: 1-2) puts it "rigid age brackets such as four- to six-year-olds, seven- to nine-year-olds, ten- to 11-year-olds, or 12- to 14-year-olds would not work" since age ranges change from one culture and geography to another . What is more, one can claim that even learners at the same age may show different characteristics and each learner is unique in this sense. Yet, although there are different opinions concerning

who young learners are in terms of the age range, scholars and teachers agree that they certainly have different characteristics from adolescents and adults, which is the interest of the next section.

2.2. Characteristics of YLs and Their Implications for Teaching

It is easy to detect that young learners behave, think and act differently from the adolescents and the adults. Yet, what is needed is not a sole recognition. In order to be successful and reach the desired goals, one should also be knowledgeable about in what ways YLs differ from the adults or adolescents as well as the implications of these differences for the teaching-learning processes.

A very distinct characteristic of young learners is that they learn indirectly rather than directly (Cameron, 2001; Halliwell, 1992; Harmer, 2007; Moon, 2000). Indirect learning, which is compatible with Krashen's (1988) theory of acquisition, is an unconscious process and learners progress unconsciously without focusing overtly on the structures but paying attention to the meaning. It can be resembled to the way children get their first languages. In other words, indirect learning help "children see the foreign language from inside and try to find meaning in how the language is used in action, in interaction and with intention rather than 'from the outside', as system and form" (Cameron, 2003: 107). Direct learning, on the other hand, is a conscious process in which learners overtly pay attention to structures. This ability to learn indirectly of YLs implies that children can understand meaningful messages but have not developed the ability of analyzing language, yet. Hence, introducing language forms and structures overtly would not facilitate YLs' language since they "are not able to understand grammatical rules and explanations about language" (Slatterly and Willis, 2001: 4). There are several reasons for this. One of them can be related to Piaget's concrete operational period (Piaget, 1971) which suggests that children have not developed abstract thinking, yet. Hence, introducing abstract concepts or structures would not make the jobs of YLs easier. Another reason can be the inexistency of metalanguage, that is, the knowledge of language used to describe and talk about language, implying that introducing rules of structures would confuse, not clarify the issue. This can be observed when YLs do not know or understand the term modal verbs,

but can use one of them while working in groups to find out classroom rules for their course (Peck, 2001) In order to foster indirect learning Susan Halliwell (1992) advocates the use of real tasks:

> "Real tasks, that is to say worthwhile and interesting things to do which are not just language *exercises* provide the children with an occasion for real language use, and let their subconscious mind work on the processing of the language use while their conscious mind is focused on the task." (p. 6)

She suggests as well that games should not be dismissed as a waste of time or considered as fun extras since they foster indirect learning since the learners involved in the games learn without even realizing it.

YLs' tendency to learn indirectly is closely related to another characteristic that is worth mentioning: YLs have a holistic approach to language (Pinter, 2006). This means that they do not perceive language as a compilation of dissectible parts but as a whole while they are acquiring their mother tongue or any other languages. David Vale and Anne Feunteun (1995) recapitulate the issue as follows:

> "Children do not normally learn language one structure or six new words at a time. They are able to learn language whole, as part of a whole learning experience. It is the responsibility of teachers to provide this whole learning/ whole language experience. Therefore, rather than impose a language-based course of study on young learners, where children are exposed only to small and pre-determined chunks of language, it would seem to be of far more value to encourage children to acquire language through an activity-based curriculum." (p. 28)

Whole language education comprises integrated skills teaching, the use of authentic language, devising meaningful and purposeful activities and a contextualized teaching (Brown, 2007). Therefore, teachers are highly advised to focus on the interrelationship of four skills/modes (listening, speaking, reading and writing). In other words, instead of dedicating an activity to only a skill, they should try to include the use of as many skills as possible since it is the way we use these skills in real life. People listen and sing their favorite songs simultaneously, read and talk about a piece of text, and for all these

to happen there should be an authentic context in which YLs will feel the need of using the language meaningfully and purposefully.

The need for physical movement is another characteristic of young learners (Brumfit, 1995; Moon, 2000). It is nearly impossible for YLs to stand still and keep listening to their instructors in that way during the class. They are in need of dissipating their energy and language teachers can easily turn this characteristic into an advantage. That is, by including art and craft or hands-on activities, using dramas, songs, games, Total Physical Response (TPR) and so on, teachers can create a fruitful environment for language learning, keep the learners on-task and motivate them towards language. Ignoring the need of physical movement may put the teachers in a difficult situation since learners full of energy and the desire to be active start creating management problems for them. In other words, "When children are allowed to be themselves, they will be active. They are irrepressible doers, since it is by doing that they learn" (Holderness, 1995: 19). By actively participating in the activities that require physical movement YLs use their energy in the desired way, and in this way learning is camouflaged and turned into fun. Enjoying the lesson is of paramount importance since "Young learners love to play and learn best when they are enjoying themselves" (Scott and Ytreberg 1990: 3). It seems that there is a joint effect: Through the activities requiring active participation, YLs meet their needs of action and physical movement which in turn, help them use or practice the language unconsciously.

Another common feature shared by YLs is the short attention span (Cameron, 2001; Harmer, 2007; Scott and Ytreberg, 1990; Slatterly and Willis, 2001). They can quickly lose their interest and start doing other things since it is difficult for them to keep themselves motivated on tasks. (Cameron, 2001). However, if they enjoy what they are doing, they are usually absorbed and have a surprisingly long lasting concentration. One can witness this while YLs are watching the cartoons they like. The children who find it difficult to contemplate on a task for a quarter of an hour, can easily spend hours watching their favorite cartoons without hearing or seeing what is going on in their immediate environment. It seems that "short attention span do come into play when children have to deal with material that to them is boring, useless or too difficult"

(Brown, 2007: 102). The implication of the short attention span on the teaching learning environment is to provide variety in the classroom. As Wendy A. Scott and Lisbeth H. Ytreberg (1990) state variety is indispensible in YLs' classrooms and teachers should make sure that they use variety of activities, variety of pace, variety of organization and variety of voices. In addition to the lack of variety, the lack of support or "scaffolding" can lead to distraction for YLs. In other words, "we have to recognize that when we ask children to pay attention and to concentrate on tasks that we have set and which provide little by way of concrete, perceptual support, they may find it impossible to comply with our demands" (Wood, 1998: 70). Here, the importance of lesson planning comes into the picture. Teachers should plan lessons that include different activities requiring learners move, sit, speak up or be silent. Furthermore, they should also have extra activities in their minds in case the ones in the plan do not work in the desired way since it is quite common that no matter how carefully a lesson is planned, the causes stemming from the internal or external factors may block the lesson go on in the planned way which necessitates out of plan activities.

The next characteristic to be dealt with is the YLs' ability to benefit from the contextual clues in order to grasp the meaning (Moon, 2000, Scott and Ytreberg, 1990, Slattery and Willis, 1990). Halliwell (1992) summarizes the issue as follows:

> "We know from experience that very young children are able to understand what is being said to them even before they understand the individual words. Intonations, gestures, facial expressions, actions and circumstances all help to tell them what the unknown words and phrases probably mean. By understanding the message in this way they start to understand the language. In later life we all maintain this first source of understanding alongside our knowledge of the language itself. It remains a fundamental part of human communication." (p. 3)

This ability of going on for meaning is significant in YLs' classrooms since it helps them to understand what is going on in a story, a conversation or a video (Moon, 2000). Keeping this characteristic of YLs into account, teachers should try to use as many non-verbal clues as possible. While speaking in the target language; using facial expressions, gestures or body language facilitates the understanding of the YLs. While reading a text, on the other hand, teachers may benefit from visuals such as pictures, charts, realia or

graphs in order to improve the YL's understandings. In short, it seems that words are not the only clues for the YLs since they make full use of the context and their surroundings as well as the non-verbal clues to grasp the meaning. What is left the teachers is to provide these clues to foster understanding.

A further characteristic of YLs is their ability to mimic the sounds or the adults they hear and hence, have better pronunciation skills compared to adults (Slatterly and Willis, 2001). There are different rationales concerning the issue in the literature (Gleason, 2005). While Lenneberg (1967) asserts that YLs have the ability of imitating the sounds they hear and better pronunciation skills since they have not passed the critical age period, the nativists such as Chomsky claim that YLs have access to Universal Grammar (UG) and this is what makes their pronunciations superior to the adults , still psycholinguists point out that the fact that the brain of YLs have not lost their plasticity, yet and YLs are more capable of using their vocal apparatus flexibly is the reason behind their better pronunciation skills.

YLs love repetitive and rhythmic language more than adults do. In order to exploit this feature, teachers can use songs, chants, rhymes, storytelling and other listening activities. Scott and Ytreberg (1990: 5) suggest that children should be allowed to play with the language. "Let them talk nonsense, experiment with words and sound: 'Let's go – pets go.' 'Blue eyes – blue pies". Especially the teachers who are non-native speakers of the target language are advised to include such activities and authentic listening texts as much as possible in their lessons in order to foster this ability of YLs and not to be the only source of listening input for their learners.

Children love talking as well (Brumfit et al., 1995; Cameron, 2001; Halliwell, 1992, Harmer, 2007). They do not feel embarrassed or inhibited while talking in front of their peers. They are risk takers since even though they do not have the necessary structures or the lexis they try to explain themselves. They focus on the functional purposes of the language rather than structural bits and pieces. Then, one can assert that YLs should be exposed to the activities where they are expected to produce language via group works, pair works, act outs so as not to waste this asset of them. However, in

order to take risks, enjoy their learning and have a good pronunciation, they should first be provided with a friendly and anxiety free atmosphere.

Enjoying fantasy and imagination can be counted still another characteristic of YLs (Halliwell, 1992; Slatterly and Willis, 2001; Pinter, 2006) since they read or listen to stories about imaginary characters, write or talk about their imaginary world, friend, room and so on with great delight. In other words, "The act of fantasizing, of imagining, is very much an authentic part of being a child" (Halliwell, 1992: 7). This ability of fantasy and imagination should be considered more than a matter of enjoyment since it is one of the ways YLs learn. Teachers can make use different materials and activities so as to exploit this characteristic. Stories and tales, for example, are invaluable tools in this sense as they can be the source for numerous types of activities. They can offer the YLs a world they enjoy to participate in and grasp language items unconsciously with fun without effort.

That the YLs are enthusiastic or emotionally excitable is another characteristic that deserves consideration (Cameron, 2001; Brumfit et al., 1995). It is common to see YLs hand up eagerly although they do not know what to say for sure. In order to please their teachers, "They will have a go at an activity even when they do not quite understand why or how" (Cameron, 2001: 1). However, this is not a guarantee since they can lose their interest as fast as they are aroused emotionally. Hence, teachers should try to keep them motivated towards the course by exploiting a variety of activities and catering for as many senses as possible. They should also encourage positive attitudes towards learning, language and classroom environment on one hand, and try to eliminate the negative ones if there are any on the other.

In short, YLs are different from the adolescents and adults in various ways such as the tendency to learn indirectly, being holistic learners, the need for physical movement, short attention span, the inclination for imagination and fantasy, the ability of imitating the sounds they hear and the intuition to go for meaning. Listing out all these characteristics is not to show how divergent the young learners are from the rest of the population but to find out what kind of implications they suggest and in what way

teachers should adjust themselves, their materials and techniques in order to create a better teaching-learning environment for YLs.

2.3. How YLs Think and Learn

YLs experience constant physical, cognitive and emotional changes and all these affect the way they reflect on or learn a piece of information, turn it into knowledge and store it for later uses. In search for working out how YLs think and learn psychologists, educators and philosophers have developed several theories. The main concern of this section is to provide an overview of three prominent theories by Jean Piaget, Lev Vygotsky and Jerome Bruner respectively which have a considerable influence on the contemporary education.

Jean Piaget, the Swiss psychologist, is considered to have revolutionized the study of child language and thought (Vygotsky, 1962: 9) since "he was the first to investigate child perception and logic systematically". In his theory of cognitive development, Piaget (1971) asserts that children are active constructors of the knowledge since they are in a continuous interaction with the world busy with solving the problems they encounter and it is through this way that learning takes place. In other words, he believes that children's cognitive development derives from actions.

Piaget claims that children's cognition develops gradually passing through a series of universal stages in order to construct the ability of logical thinking. He divides the cognitive development of children into four periods as sensori-motor stage (from birth to 18 months approximately), pre- operational stage (from two to seven years of age), concrete operational stage (from seven to eleven years of age) and formal operational stage (from eleven to fifteen years of age) (Piaget, 1971). He asserts that all children pass through these stages in the same order but the pace may vary from child to child. He believes as well that development unfolds following the biological growth and the improvement of children's brain.

Since the participants of this study are 6th grade students (11/12 year-old learners), it is essential to mention the basic cognitive features of the children at the third and the forth

stages. In Piaget's theory, it is in the third and the longest stage that children's ability of reasoning starts to develop, though it is constrained to the immediate context. Concerning the issue, Brown (2007) reminds that children at this period still cannot grasp abstract talk or metalanguage and teachers are advised to be cautious about using them. As for the fourth stage, children develop the ability of abstract thinking, carrying out logical operations and thinking beyond the immediate context (Piaget, 1971). The notion of passing through a series of stages in Piaget's theory brought about the issue of readiness. The idea that there are some stages to follow and one cannot skip any of them to move on the next stage implies that trying to teach things beyond the children's actual stage is bound to fail since the learners have not reached that stage and are not ready to grasp them, yet. This can be resembled to Stephan Krashen's (1988) input hypothesis which claims that children cannot learn the input which is way beyond their current level of understanding. Likewise, in Piaget's theory, unless children get the ability to perceive abstract concepts, no matter how hard one tries to teach them, it would be useless.

Event tough Piaget is criticized for underestimating the children, neglecting the social dimension of children and dividing development into discrete stages (Russell, 2009); his theory of cognitive development contributed to the field of education by creating a child-centered perspective and highlighting the importance of a learning environment that encourage the child being active and constructing his/her knowledge (Brewster, 1995; Cameron, 2001; Pinter, 2006). In other words, he believed that children should be active in the learning process.

Another prominent figure that was influential in the field of education with his theory of social development is the Russian psychologist Vygotsky. Like Piaget, Vygostky believes that children actively construct knowledge but unlike him, he highlights the importance of language and people in the children's development. To put it another way, "Whereas for Piaget the children is an active learner alone in a world of objects, for Vygotsky the child is an active learner in a world full of other people" (Cameron, 2001: 6). Vygostky asserts that adults help children learn to do things and to think. He uses the term *Zone of Proximal Development* (ZPD) so as to illustrate the prominence of

the people in the children's world. He defines the ZPD as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem-solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978: 84). That is to say, adults play a mediator role by making the world accessible for children and guiding them during the tasks they cannot manage alone. He differs from Piaget in his claim that development is not a matter of four stages but a continuous, never ending process (Russell, 2009). In short, Vygotsky disagrees with Piaget about the role of adults on the development of children and the incremental nature of development.

Vygotsky (1962) strongly highlights the importance of language development on cognitive growth. He believes that language precedes thinking and fosters intellectual development of children. Piaget and Vygotsky disagree on the nature of language, as well. For Piaget, language does not have a formative effect on cognitive growth or thinking and mental development grows out of actions, active participation and by being a sense-maker of the world, not out of talk. Vygotsky, on the other hand, asserts that speech which in the beginning serves as a means of communication starts to function as a tool helping the way learning and understanding take place. "Thus speech comes to form what Vygotsky referred to as the higher mental processes, including the ability to plan, evaluate, memorize or reason" (Brewster, 1995: 3). His theory has affected the language classrooms by highlighting the importance of collaboration and teachers' role as guides or mediators in assisting children's understanding.

Jerome Bruner is another prominent figure that contributed to our understanding of cognitive growth. Like Piaget and Vygotsky, he perceives children as active agents in their learning and environment. As for the effect of society on the intellectual development of children, he strongly agrees with Vygotsky, and opposes Piaget who pays no heed to the role of people on the intellectual growth of children (Bruner, 1983; Piaget, 1971; Vygotsky, 1962). Bruner (1983) places a great emphasis on the interaction or talk between adults and children, and asserts that adults mediate the world for children and support them through the tasks. Bruner names this support as "scaffolding". Put it another way, scaffolding is the "talk that supports a child in

carrying out an activity" (Cameron, 2001: 8). It can be considered as the support that helps a child to reach his/her ZPD, as well. He asserts that scaffolding is realized when adults simplify a task or idea, motivate and encourage children, break the learning into stages, highlight the important elements, provide models and so on.

Bruner talks about the notions of *formats* and *routines*, which are the "features of events that allow scaffolding to take place, and combine the security of the familiar with the excitement of the new" (Cameron: 2001: 9). He uses the example of parents reading stories to their kids to clarify how formats and routines make scaffolding easier. Parents start reading bedtime stories to their children every night and this turns out to be a routine. However, the interaction between the parents and their children changes as time passes. Children who, in the beginning, attend only pointing to the pictures or turning the pages of the book display verbal involvement after learning to talk. Likewise, parents doing all the talk in the very beginning start leaving the ground to the children and encouraging them to talk about a story they have read several times before. Through such kind of routines and formats, children can improve their involvement in the interaction although the tasks they perform change, and parents decrease the scaffolding they provide along the time.

In brief, among others Piaget, Vygotsky and Bruner are the ones that became prominent and influential in the field of teaching education with their works on the way children learn and think. This section has provided a summary of how Piaget divided the development of children's intellectual development into stages but failed to grasp the importance of people in their cognitive growth and how Vygotsky and Bruner emphasized the role of language and adults in children's development through their notions of ZPD and scaffolding, respectively.

2.4. Developing Language Skills of YLs

With the emergence of communicative approaches to language teaching and learning, meaning has taken precedence over form and developing the four skills that is, listening, speaking, reading and writing has started to be considered as important as the presentation of the language structures which were once the sole objective of teaching.

What is more, instead of segregating the skills and trying to teach them separately, an integrative approach seeking to foster all four skills together is taken since it is believed that integration of the skills is the case in real life situations. In other words, people use different skills at the same time in their real life and language of the classrooms should be a reflection of this.

Before moving any further, it is better to clarify several concepts frequently used in the literature while talking about four skills. One of them is the distinction between receptive and productive skills. As the names suggest, receptive skills are the ones where learners are expected to extract meaning while the productive ones require learners produce language in some way. Accordingly, listening and reading are regarded as receptive skills while speaking and writing are classified as productive skills. However, these skills should not be considered in isolation since "Receptive skills and productive skills feed off each other in a number of ways. What we say or write is heavily influenced by what we hear and see" (Harmer, 2007: 265). Another distinction is made between bottom-up processing and top-down processing. In bottom-up processing, meaning is extracted from a focus on sounds, letters, grammatical structures, intonation. On the other hand, top-down processing requires learners to use their background knowledge or schemata in order to build up a meaning (Nuttall, 2005; Brown, 2007). Likewise the interaction between receptive and productive skills, bottom-up and top-down processings should not be considered as separate since learners continually shift from using one to another while using language.

Accordingly, this section is dedicated to give a brief summary of how to improve four skills of young learners but for the sake of simplicity and clarity, each skill is going to be considered separately which should not be considered as a rejection of integrated skills approach since, in the end, YLs are already holistic learners and have difficulty in learning languages analytically.

2.4.1. Listening

Listening is claimed to be the skill that paves the way for speaking (Phillips, 1993; Pinter, 2006; Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). Just like kids learning their mother tongue

undergo a silent period during which they are exposed to lots of input and can comprehend language but are not ready for production, it is believed that YLs experience the same silent period when they are exposed to a foreign/second language and hence, they should be provided with lots of listening input in order to start speaking. Therefore, teachers are advised to use the activities that require non-verbal responses from YLs until they feel ready to speak up.

When YLs start learning a language, the main source of language is what they hear in their environment which is generally narrowed down to what they hear in the classroom in a foreign language context like Turkey. That listening is quite important for learners to build up their language system implies that teachers should try to include as many listening activities as possible and try not to be the only voice in the classroom by using extra materials especially the ones vocalized by native speakers.

Teachers can use listening for different purposes. They may wish to create a general listening attitude through listening for enjoyment, foster aspects of language such as pronunciation, intonation, reinforce conceptual development of children such as size, cause and effect or foster interaction through working with other students (Ellis and Brewster, 1991). Whatever the purpose is, teachers should make sure that the listening text is of interest to YLs, the language, the theme or topic is within the scope of students' understanding and cognitive skills and students know what they are expected to do while listening the task as well as having necessary strategies to cope with the problems that may stem from unknown words. Hence, supporting YLs with gestures, postures, mimics or body language as well as visuals is quite important so as to help learners understand what they hear. Scaffolding learners in this way is very important since listening is not a passive skill. On the contrary, it requires active mental participation of learners in order to decode the messages conveyed by the interlocutor(s).

Among the listening activities that are suggested to use with YLs, the ones that require non-verbal responses take the precedence especially in the very beginning of exposure to the target language. Listen and do/ identify/ color/ draw/ label/ sequence/ repeat and

Total Physical Response (TPR) are among the most popular activities in YL classrooms. Apart from easing the burden of learners by not demanding a verbal response and giving YLs the chance of dissipating their energy through actions; these activities provide immediate feedback for teachers in detecting who do not understand the instructions in a particular activity. For instance, upon hearing an instruction like "Turn left", if a learner turns right; the teacher can instantly spot the mistake and work on it.

In short, listening has a prominent role in language development of YLs and teachers should bear in mind that they create a comfortable, relaxed and stress-free environment for their learners so that YLs can get the utmost benefit.

2.4.2. Speaking

Languages are to be spoken and YLs come into the classroom with this instinct. From the very first lesson, they would like to show their friends and families that they can speak the target language (TL, hereafter) using the phrases, chunks or words they learnt first (Ellis and Brewster, 1991). However, teachers should bear in mind the fact that "children are not necessarily competent communicators even in their mother tongue" (Ellis and Brewster, 1991: 56). They may not know how to cope with communication break downs since they cannot use several strategies such as asking for clarifications, repetitions, circumlocutions etc. Therefore, teachers should be knowledgeable about what their students can and cannot do before determining any objectives.

Teaching speaking is generally considered to be rather difficult since in order to be able to speak, learners should master vocabulary, structures, functions or pronunciation to some extent in the TL (Phillips, 1993). Hence, teachers are recommended to start with presenting formulaic language, prefabricated chunks or set phrases (Cameron, 2001; Ellis and Brewster, 1991; Phillips, 1993; Pinter, 2006). Simple greetings, routines, classroom language or language used in controlled activities such as asking the time by using "What time is it?" are examples of formulaic language. The use of formulaic language structures serves in several ways. Firstly, YLs are holistic learners and they would find it easy to learn such chunks instead of analyzing the structures of them. Secondly, formulaic language helps learners communicate with their friends and

teachers, though with a minimum linguistic competence, and this creates a sense of achievement and fuels their motivation towards learning the language. As learners progress in the TL, teachers should try to device guided activities which in turn paves the way for freer activities demanding creative and generally spontaneous language use by the learners while talking about their own feelings, emotions, ideas and so on.

Reading aloud, dramatization, role-plays, dialogues, rhymes, chants, songs, guessing games, retelling of stories, information gap activities, questionnaires and surveys are suggested to use in order to develop speaking skills of YLs. Scott and Ytreberg (1990) highlight the use of dialogues through role plays claiming that they give YLs the chance to ask as well as answer, have natural chat, practice language beyond the word level and contribute to the use of voice, stress, intonation and facial expressions. Speaking activities can be exploited for different goals such as fine-tuning the pronunciation, stress or intonation; fostering communication skills or the use of functions; promoting interaction or the use of cohesive devices or reinforcing several structures. Yet, in order to attain the goals and reach the desired objectives, the activities should be purposeful and create a need for communication. Otherwise, YLs would feel reluctant to participate in conversation or express themselves. In addition to providing a purpose to talk, teachers are also responsible for creating a stress-free and comfortable environment in line with Krashen's (1988) affective filter hypothesis since "children will speak up and contribute to the lesson if they fell happy and secure" (Pinter, 2006: 60). Lastly, exploiting pair works and group works is advised to foster the speaking skills of YLs.

Briefly, although teaching speaking is regarded as a difficult task, teachers can overcome the difficulties by starting from controlled activities and formulaic sentences, then, devising guided activities which can be a vehicle to move on to freer activities requiring genuine talk. Nevertheless, they may not be successful unless YLs are provided with an environment where they feel free and encouraged to express themselves with a purpose.

2.4.3. Reading

As learners make progress in the foreign language and get ready to be exposed to print, reading becomes an invaluable source expediting the language development both in and out of the classroom environment. Starting from word level reading and moving to sentence level reading which is then followed by reading of longer stretches of texts, learners gradually improve themselves and get more competent in the TL.

In foreign language classrooms, teachers can use different approaches in order to introduce reading to YLs. They can resort to the phonics approach which aims to teach letters of the alphabet, sounds and their combination first. They may use look and say approach which starts with word or phrase level and aims to encourage learners' rapid recognition of words or phrases written on flashcards. They may employ whole sentence reading approach training learners to recognize sentences or whole phrases that have meaning in themselves or make use of language experience approach which starts from sentence level and uses learners' own experiences as the content of the texts (Cameron, 2001; Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). In Turkey, children start learning English at the fourth grade and children at this age are already literate in their first language and can transfer their knowledge of sounds and letters into English lessons. Hence, teachers of English do not try to teach reading to their learners in their mother tongue but they try to ensure that their already literate students learn how to read in the TL of which letter sound correspondence and orthography may be different from the mother tongue.

Teachers can use a wide range of activities and texts for the reading classes. Reading cards, home-made books, picture dictionaries, even flashcards can easily be used for the early beginners. They may have whole class reading or reading aloud session during the lessons. Learners may be asked to read or follow familiar nursery rhymes and songs. Using chants, songs and nursery rhymes can be remarkably helpful since children generally know them by heart and they love repeating them over and over again. Reading them or following the text while listening to them help learners reinforce letter-sound relationship and fine-tune their pronunciation. Teachers can also use stories and tales as well in order to foster reading skills of YLs. Stories can be counted as one of the most suitable materials for YLs for several reasons. Firstly, YLs love reading or

listening to them in their first language and teachers can exploit this characteristic in TL. Secondly, they present the language in a contextualized and meaningful way helping learners make inferences and educated guesses concerning the meaning of the unknown words. They evoke curiosity, and learners feel motivated to continue reading till the end, too. They can be the source of numerous activities and can easily be used in order to foster other skills than reading and hence have an integrated skill lesson. Garvie (1990) summarizes the rationale behind using stories as follows:

> "Children need experience to acquire and develop language: children need language to cope with new experience. The skill of teacher lies in helping to keep the balance, not too much new language without meaningful experience and not too much experience without adequate language. The teacher should also be able to select the appropriate kind of experience capable of carrying issues of language and including the broad areas highlighted so far. Story seems an admirable vehicle for this purpose." (pp. 31- 32)

Furthermore, having YLs read authentic stories creates a sense of achievement on behalf of the learners since when they see that they can understand the texts written for native speakers, they feel a sense of success and this fuels their motivation.

However, although stories can serve many purposes, inappropriate choices may yield no language benefits. Hence, teachers should pay attention to the stylistic and linguistic levels of the texts as well as the background, age and interests of the learners while choosing any stories. In other words, the texts should not include figurative language use or be filled with unfamiliar vocabulary items or language structures, the topics should be of interest to YLs and be comprehensible at their age-level. Teachers should scaffold YLs with pictures or pre-reading activities that activate/ create the schemata necessary for the understanding of the upcoming text.

In short, learning how to read in TL gives YLs a chance to study language outside the classroom, as well, via extensive reading activities or homework. Through a wide range of activities and carefully chosen texts teachers can both improve all language skills besides reading and motivate learners toward TL and hence, kill two birds with one stone.

2.4.4. Writing

Writing as a skill is relatively late to develop and can be difficult for YLs for several reasons. Firstly, children cannot use their body language, postures or gestures helping them convey their messages while speaking in their writings. Secondly, the subject of writing tasks is not always concerned with the immediate environment or here and now and YLs may find it hard to come up with ideas let alone the necessary word or structures for a task.

Teachers should proceed gradually to develop YLs' writing abilities. That is, they are advised to start from controlled activities and move on to freer ones as the students feel more confident and competent in the TL. Ellis and Brewster (1991) divide writing activities into two as those encouraging copying and those supporting creativity. Copying activities can include straight copying of words or sentences, matching pictures with words or sentences and so on. In such kinds of controlled and guided activities, the focus is generally on the language such as checking out YLs' spelling. Free activities, on the other hand, aim to give learners a chance to express themselves as well as directing the concentration on meaning. Scott and Ytreberg (1990) state that there are two things to bear in mind, especially with free activities: providing learners with a purpose and making writing contextualized. Teachers are suggested to specify a context and audience to write for so that YLs can feel motivated and encouraged to write. Writing out of blue topics for an unknown audience may discourage and bore them. Another issue that is worth mentioning is to prepare students to write. YLs may not know what they are expected to write and they may not feel clear about what they are going to write about. In other words, asking to write about a specific topic may not be expressive enough for YLs. Hence, teachers are strongly advised to use pre-writing activities that will provide ideas and encouragement for YLs as well as vocabulary items or structures necessary to perform the task. Teachers can also make use of pair works or group works in order to ease the burden of YLs. Pinter (2006) referring to the research in the literature states that learners working in pairs perform better in writing activities compared to the ones working on their own.

As for the common writing purposes that YLs can practice, teachers may use descriptions or comparisons of people, animals or places; answering questions; writing about past or present actions and describing cause and effect through several activities such as matching, unscrambling the words or sentences, dictation, fill-in exercises, writing shopping lists, diaries, speech bubbles, advertisements, invitations, descriptions, letters, e-mails (Ellis and Brewster, 1991; Pinter 2006; Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). As is seen, there is a wide range of activities that can be exploited to foster both language and creativity of children.

In writing activities, teachers should be careful about using corrections. Spotting out each and every mistake in a free writing activity will direct YLs' attention from content to form and prevent learners from developing their creativity or expressing what they feel or think. Likewise, an obsession with controlled activities would eliminate the chance of expressing meaning and creativity in TL through longer stretches of writings. Furthermore, teachers should not be the only source to give correction. They can encourage peer checks or peer correction activities so as to increase cooperation and decrease the dependence on teachers.

In brief, though it is a difficult and time demanding skill to develop, teachers can improve YLs' writing skills by exposing them to activities starting from controlled ones that necessitate word or sentence level writing to freer ones requiring creativity and the knowledge of discourse. Moreover, having students work in pairs or groups and check each other's products would increase the cooperation between learners, dismiss the ideas concerning teachers as the only language authority in the class as well as easing the burden YLs experience during writing activities.

2.5. Activities and Materials for YLs

Teaching English to young learners (TEYL, hereafter) necessitates a careful choice of activities and materials since YLs have a limited attention span and their interests flag if they find the lessons boring or dull. Furthermore, as they are generally intrinsically motivated compared to adults who can have extrinsic factors to keep motivated, YLs can easily give up participating in activities unless they enjoy lessons. In line with these

conceptions, this section is devoted to a brief discussion concerning the nature of activities and materials appropriate for YLs.

Activities can be classified differently according to their features. Holderness (1995) makes a distinction between open-ended activities and closed activities. The open-ended activities for which there is not a known answer lead learners to problem-solving and investigation and require them to think creatively. These kinds of activities are claimed to be less threatening for learners since they may feel more confident to express themselves without inhibitions instead of striving to find a specific answer. The closed activities, on the other hand, have known answers and students are supposed to remember not to think creatively in order to answer them. Games, group tasks, experiments and problem-solving activities can be told as the examples of the former kind while matching, putting pictures into the correct sequence and describing a person or picture are examples to the latter. When it comes to the application, teachers are suggested to combine and use both types of activities in their lessons.

Another classification comes from Halliwell (1992) who makes a distinction between stirring activities and settling activities. In a positive sense, the stirring activities such as oral work, competitions, plays wake learners up and stimulate them whereas settling activities such as coloring, copying, listening without doing anything calm the learners down. She further indicates a difference between the activities that demand mental engagement and the ones that require actual occupation concerning the type of involvement they necessitate. An activity for which learners are supposed to listen to and follow the directions on a map to find out where somebody goes to requires learners to be mentally active but one that asks learners to copy out a list of words does not demand mental engagement on the part of learners though they should be physically involved and actually occupied with writing. As for the choice or order of activities, Halliwell (1992: 24) claims that "No activity or particular sequence of activities is good if it is in the wrong place in terms of human reactions to lesson". In other words, claiming that lessons should always start with stirring learners would be erroneous since the mood of the learners can affect the choice. For instance, teachers may sometimes find learners rather active or noisy after another lesson and this may create the need for

a settling activity. Similarly, a stirring activity may work well and enliven learners when they are passive and reluctant to participate in the lesson. Therefore, teachers should be knowledgeable about which types of activities serves for which purposes in order not to stuck in dullness or cause learners get out of hand due to excitement.

No matter what type of activity is chosen, there are several issues teachers should be cautious about. Firstly, there should be a match between the demands of the activities and the learners' developmental level. Though challenge is appreciated, it should be manageable by learners in order to sustain motivation. Secondly, learners should be provided with a clear purpose, meaningful context and need to use the target language so as not to feel lost during the activities. Furthermore, YLs' language proficiency, the objective(s) of the lesson, the size of the classrooms and the materials or accommodations available should be taken into consideration while choosing an activity. Moreover, teachers are advised to use variety of activities, cater for different language skills and resort to individual/ group/ pair / whole-class works in order to break the monotony and satisfy the needs of the YLs. Williams (cited in Brumfit et al., 1995: 209) lists the following activities that can be used in TEYL:

- Doing puzzles and solving problems
- Writing and solving riddles
- Using maps
- Measuring and weighing things
- Conducting surveys (e.g. food, birthdays, traffic survey)
- Growing plants
- Following and writing recipes
- Interviewing people (e.g. parents, people in the neighborhood, different occupations)
- Making things (e.g. masks, aeroplanes, puppets)
- Pretend play and drama (e.g. witches, spacemen, stranded on an island)
- Inventing and designing things (my ideal… , a machine to… fashions)
- Planning things (e.g. an outing, a party)
- Inventing games (e.g. board games, writing the instructions)
- Choosing (e.g. films, clothes)
- Writing letters (for real purposes)
- Reading and designing brochures
- Designing and recording a TV programme

- Finding out (e.g. what things are made of, what materials are used for, how things grow, whether objects float or sink)
- Filling in forms
- Studying the local environment (e.g. plants, birds, buildings)
- Making charts and graphs
- Using songs
- Listening to stories (a particularly motivating form of language input, and recommended as a daily activity)
- Painting, drawing and talking about what we are doing

Teachers can make the list even longer by adding activities such as TPR, tongue-twisters, reading and writing simple poems, questionnaires, jig-saws, information gaps and so on.

Materials which can be defined as anything helping teaching-learning process, be it human or any other source (Moon, 2000; Pakkan, 1997; Tomlinson, 1998) constitute another component having an impact on the success in TEYL. They can be authentic or pedagogic. Authentic language materials refer to the resources that are not prepared to be used in language classrooms for pedagogical purposes. Photographs, videos, newspapers, realia can be examples of this category. Pedagogical materials which can as well be named as created materials (Richards and Rodgers, 2001) are the ones developed with the intention of instructional purposes, i.e. to teach language.

Gülsev Pakkan (1997) categorizes language teaching materials under three titles as (1) course book, (2) supplementary materials such as teacher's book or workbook and (3) supporting materials which are further divided into three as audio, visual and audio-visual materials. Materials serve many purposes in language teaching classrooms: for instance, using visuals such as pictures, puppets, real objects contributes to the comprehension of the learners and make the lessons more memorable. Furthermore, as Doff (1988: 82) puts it "having something to look at keeps the students' attention and makes the classroom more interesting". Materials can also provide a context and make learning more purposeful and enjoyable. Creating a small green grocery in one of the corners of the classroom in order to teach the names of fruit and vegetables as well as practicing the language items and functions necessary to do shopping contextualizes

learning and reinforces purposeful real-life like language use. Materials such as flannel boards, charts, and flashcards on the walls of the language classrooms can also foster peripheral learning, i.e. learning without consciousness. Furthermore, materials bring variety into the language classrooms freeing teachers from being the only source of language input. For example, hearing native speaker(s) of the target language through the use of auditory materials present learners with many voices other than their teacher's. Providing different learning channels for the comprehension and the retention of the language is another function of the materials. Using audio-visuals can be shown as an example since they present the information through auditory and visual channels.

A wide range of materials are available for the teachers of YLs. They can make use of audio materials such as songs, nursery rhymes, (authentic) listening texts or stories, sounds of animals; visual materials like pictures, diagrams, charts, flannel boards, puppets, toys, realia, OHP (over head projector), flashcards, slides and audio-visuals such as films, videos, television, computer, talking picture books or CD-ROM books.

Although they are highly influential in language teaching, using any material would not guarantee success or attaining the objectives of language learning. Teachers should be careful when they are adapting, adopting or creating materials for their students. The materials chosen for YLs should be compatible with their language proficiency, emotional and cognitive maturity, needs and background. Hence, choosing a story book just because it has beautiful and lively illustrations may not make sense unless the text is comprehensible for YLs, and the topic is interesting and motivating for them. In other words, mismatches between learners and materials are doomed to failure.

In sum, activities and materials are fundamental to realizing the objectives of the lessons. Teachers can make their lessons more motivating, comprehensible, contextualized, memorable and fruitful through a wide range of activities and materials available for YLs. Compared to their colleagues having lived a century ago with limited resources available for them to use while teaching, teachers of today are luckier since they can make use of more materials owing to the ever-developing technology. The

interest of the next section is to discuss a kind of material among the others, i.e. talking picture books, brought about by the developments in the field of computer technology.

2.6. What is a "Talking Picture Book"?

The ever-improving technology has been manifesting itself on many aspects, if not all aspects, of our lives and the field of education has as well got its share. As a result, the image of teachers with a chalk in one hand and the course book in the other has changed considerably over the years. Nowadays, teachers have been armed with numerous materials be it non-computer based such as audiotapes, videotapes, OHPs or computer-based. However, in spite of the remarkable contributions of the non-computer based technology to the teaching-learning procedures/process, it is the computers that have had a revolutionary effect. Hence, it is better to clarify several concepts coined in order to satisfy the need for new lexicon as a result of the developments in computer technology before defining what a talking picture book is since it would contribute to the understanding of the readers concerning its definition.

The first term to define is media. Media when used in language teaching comprises of all mechanical and non-mechanical aids assisting teaching (Brinton, 2001) unlike the common connotation of the term referring to the organizations like television, radio, newspaper and so on providing information for the public. Collins et al. (1997: 4) define the next term, multimedia as "a way of presenting material (often learning material) which involves three or more of the following media within a computer environment": (1) speech or sound, (2) drawings or diagrams, (3) animated drawings or diagrams, (4) still photographs or other images, (5) video clips and (6) text (printed word). It is called interactive multimedia when users have the chance of controlling the elements which is then named as hypermedia if the users are given a structure of linked elements for navigation (Vaughan, 2008). Electronic book, also called e-book or digital book is yet another concept introduced by the new technology. An electronic book is a book that is produced on, published by and readable on computers. In other words, it is the digital version of a print book. Two terms left to be defined: These are the picture books and the talking books. "Picture books are those books in which the text and illustration work in concert to create meaning" (Glazer and Giorgis, 2005: 6). Talking books, which were

developed by the American Foundation of the Blind in 1932 (Cookson et al. 1998), are "an analog representation of a print publication" (Christensen, 2004: 546). However, although they have been developed for the blind in the first place, nowadays, talking books address anybody since they include various multimedia features. Actually there are many terms referring to this new format of talking books such as electronic talking books (Cohen and Cowen, 2008), digital talking books (Christensen, 2004), interactive CD-ROM story books (Matthew, 1997), CD-ROM talking books or Living Books (DeJean, Miller and Olson, 1997). Now, it is time to give a definition of talking picture books. Talking picture books, which may be considered as a mixture of picture books and talking books, are electronic picture books that have features such as animation, sound, music, narration, voice (mostly human voice) and that can be read or listened to on the computers. One can access them either through CD-ROMs, web-based programs or via internet. Although the new versions of talking books/ CD-ROM talking books /interactive CD-ROM story books enhanced with the addition of multimedia features have the same characteristics, in order to distinguish between the talking books prepared for the blind and the ones enriched with multimedia features, this study adopts the term of "talking picture books". That some of stories used in this study are available on CD-ROMs and the rest is on the internet is another reason not to prefer CD-ROM talking books as a title. Hence, throughout this study, talking picture books refer to electronic or digital picture books that can be accessed through both CD-ROMs and the Internet and that present stories by combining animation, pictures and the text that can be read by the learner or is listened to while a native speaker of the target language is reading it.

Briefly, thanks to the technological developments, it is now possible to present the language with different materials in different modalities to learners. Hence, teachers have more options to break the monotony of the lessons, address as many learning styles as possible, render the activities more meaningful and attract the attention of the learners. Having given the definition of a talking picture book, a material we owe to technology, the next section is going to provide a brief discussion of the rationale behind the use of talking picture books. Yet, while doing this the benefits of using the short-stories/fairy tales in language classrooms will also be provided since talking

picture books are already short-stories/fairy tales presented in multimedia environments. Neglecting this discussion would do injustice and cast a shadow of the benefits of talking picture books by not providing a complete picture of the issue.

2.7. The Rationale for the use of Talking Picture Books and Short-Stories/Fairy Tales

> "Once or twice she had peeped into the book of her sister was reading, but it had no pictures or conversations in it "and what is the use of a book" thought Alice, 'without pictures or conversations?"
>
> *Alice's Adventures in the Wonderland* by Lewis Caroll (1920: 1-2)

A brief look at the history of EFL/ESL indicates how the pendulum swung from form-focused instruction and methods such as audio-lingual method to the ones such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) favoring meaning, context and the use of language in real life (like) situations (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). This has, in turn, paved the way for more purposeful, meaningful and contextualized tasks or activities reinforcing the use of language for communication instead of drilling/ practice of specific language structures. In this changing view concerning the nature of the language, short-stories/fairy tales have attracted considerable attention since they can facilitate the teaching-learning processes in many ways pointed out below.

Firstly, short-stories/fairy tales help contextualize language instruction (Ellis and Brewster: 1991; Cameron, 2001; Garvie: 1990; Lazar, 1993). Contrary to the texts written for pedagogical purposes that aim to teach or practice the language items in the curriculum and that generally lack coherence, discourse and a context; short-stories/fairy tales provide a meaningful, purposeful and interrelated series of events as the plot unfolds. Garvie (1990: 31) summarizes the issue stating that "the advantage of story as a stimulus over topics introduced through chart, poster, picture, model etc. or simply discussion is that it is structured. It is going somewhere and the learner wants to reach the end of the journey." In other words, the existence of a context provides the learner with a purpose to pursue after the meaning. Furthermore, the plot structures of the short-stories/fairy tales having a rising action that leads to the climax creating a

sense of suspense and then ending with the resolution can also be accepted as an attribute that justifies the use of short-stories/fairy tales in language classrooms.

Secondly, as is stated above, YLs are holistic learners and have a tendency to go for meaning and short-stories/fairy tales fit like a glove for this purpose. Instead of directing the attention to the structures in isolated, disconnected and context lacking sentences, teachers can implement short-stories/fairy tales through which YLs acquire/learn language without even realizing. As Garvie (1990: 25) points out "All the world loves a story and wants to know how it ends. Before they know where they are they have learnt a lot of other things besides". In other words, short-stories/fairy tales can reinforce peripheral and unconscious learning of the language structures. They also foster incidental vocabulary learning since the context helps learners make guesses concerning what the meaning of an unknown word can be (Hulstijn, Hollander and Greidanus: 1996; Naggy, Herman and Anderson: 1985; Robbins and Ehri: 1994; Pigada and Schmitt: 2006; Shu, Anderson and Zhang: 1995; Webb: 2008). Furthermore, many short-stories/fairy tales resort to the repetition of key vocabulary items and language structures (for example *The Great Big Enormous Turnip,* a Russian folk tale keeps repeating "They pulled and pulled and pulled- but they couldn't pull it up") and Ellis and Brewster (1991) state that

"This helps children to remember every detail, so they can gradually learn to anticipate what is about to happen next in the story. Repetition also encourages participation in the narrative, thereby providing a type of pattern practice in meaningful context. Following meaning and predicting language are important skills in language learning." (pp. 1-2)

Another reason behind the use of short-stories/fairy tales is that children are already familiar with them and they love listening to or read stories over and over again with great delight without any signs of boredom. Teachers can easily take advantage of this by bringing short-stories/fairy tales in the classrooms thereby fueling YLs' motivation and developing positive attitudes towards both learning and the target language. Having such a classroom environment also help lower the affective filter which, in turn, fosters language acquisition/ learning (Krashen, 1988). In other words, an anxiety-free classroom environment facilitates teaching-learning processes.

Furthermore, short-stories/fairy tales can be a basis for numerous types of activities and tasks giving learners the chance of practicing all four language skills together. For example, brainstorming or guessing what the text is about from the title, reading different parts of the short-story in different groups and trying to order it, creating a picture strip story after/before reading it, writing a beginning or an end and so on are just a few among the many fun, productive and motivating activities that can be done with the short-stories/fairy tales. Moreover, if YLs' short attention span and their need for dissipating their energy are taken into account, it is clear that short-stories/fairy tales can be invaluable tools in order to provide YLs with the variety of activities and pace they need.

As is aforementioned, YLs enjoy imagining and fantasizing and short-stories/fairy tales can give them this chance. By identifying themselves with the characters, YLs try to understand the narrative on the one hand and "test out their versions of the world through fantasy and confirm how the world actually is by imagining how it might be different" (Halliwell: 1992: 7) on the other. This tendency of children for imagining and fantasizing can be exploited for the creative language use. That is, asking children to imagine what is going to happen in the story next or what would happen if something were different, teachers not only stimulate language use but they urge YLs use their creativity, as well. Furthermore, contemplating over the events, guessing the rest or trying to infer the meaning of an unknown word from the context contributes to learners' interpretive skills and their ability to make inferences and assumptions. What is more, this ability can transcend the walls of the classroom and be helpful in real life situations. That is, the short-stories/fairy tales when used with creativity or contemplation demanding activities or tasks can contribute to the cognition and thought processes of YLs. "…teachers should be able to offer the kind of experience within the school situation which will stimulate thought and feeling as well as train the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Story can be that kind of an experience" (Garvie 1990: 30). Briefly, YLs' delight in imagination and fantasy can be exploited to foster their imagination which in turn stimulate their thinking skills and emotions.

Creating a common social experience, is yet another benefit of using the short-stories/fairy tales. That is to say; as they are studying on a short-story/fairy tale, learners share their laughter, sadness, excitement which help them develop both socially and emotionally and build up confidence (Ellis and Brewster, 1991). That is, learners share social experiences as they are reading a story together in a class.

Briefly, short-stories/fairy tales can be highly of service in language teaching/learning processes and procedures. Garvie (1990) recapitulates the issue as follows:

> "In sum, then, I see story as being helpful in all varieties of the EFL situations. It helps to contextualize the items of the syllabus/ course, offering a field of learning which is meaningful, interesting and motivating while at the same time it covers the English work that has to be done. It can also give cohesion to the work. Above all, it brings a more informal, lively and communicative component to what at times can be highly structured and often tedious programme. The structure would still be there but so would the other side of the language equation, giving the balance of eclectic approach." (p. 26)

Nevertheless, what should be kept in mind is that no matter how much useful are the stories, they are not magic wands and may not be a panacea unless there is a match between the interests, proficiency levels, cognitive abilities and so on of the children and stories.

As it clear from the above discussion short-stories/fairy tales have many advantages. Talking picture books, on the other hand, can be asserted to be more advantageous to use since their effectiveness is coupled with the addition of multimedia features such as sound, animation, voice to the short-stories/fairy tales. Then, it is better to discuss in what ways these features facilitate the comprehension of learners and the teaching-learning processes and render them different from and more facilitative than the print versions of short-stories/fairy tales.

Firstly, unlike print books with still pictures, talking picture books generally make use of animations. "By broadest sense of the word, anything non-static, involving either physical changes (in position, shape, size…) or status changes (such as color, lightness,

font…) over time may be regarded as a form of animation" (Xiaho and Jones, 1995: 362). The use of animations in the lessons can be motivating and interesting for YL since they are already keen on watching cartoons and may easily lose themselves in the talking picture books without even realizing that they are learning/acquiring a language. Besides fueling their motivation to keep on task or continue reading, animations can help the comprehension of learners. In their study Huifen Lin and Francis M. Dwyer (2010: 155) investigated the effectiveness of the static and animated visualizations on learning the information about the human heart. "The results suggest that animation is more effective than static visuals for improving learning across all levels of learning". Likewise, while reading or listening to a story on the computers, animations can help learners to come up with or guess the meanings of unfamiliar vocabulary items which in turn facilitate their comprehension. Norman Higgins and Patricia Cox (1998: 7) have conducted a study to see the effect of animations in electronic books on the vocabulary learning with fifteen third grade children. They concluded that "when children are required to attend to the animated clues, the clues facilitated learning for most of the children" and except for one child all children made gains from the pre-test to the post-test. Weinstock (cited in Xiao and Jones, 1995: 363) asserts that "picture- especially moving picture- can be the sugar coating that makes information enjoyable, interesting and better retained". Thereby, it is clear that animation used in the talking picture books can be a useful tool in order to generate interest among YLs well-known with their limited attention spans.

Another feature that differentiates talking picture books from the print books is the availability of digitized speech, the voice of a native speaker of the TL reading the story. This is of value especially for the learners in a foreign language setting since they do not have a chance to be exposed to the TL beyond the walls of their classrooms in their daily lives. By listening to the stories, YLs can pick up the correct pronunciation, stress and the other suprasegmental features. "Digitized speech, often available in electronic texts, quickly and easily gives students word pronunciations…" (Matthew, 1997: 5). In other words, as YLs have an ability to mimic the sounds they hear and this is one of the things that make their pronunciation better than adults, talking picture books can be a means of exploiting and improving this ability of them to have a better

pronunciation. Besides, talking picture books can help the non-native teachers who are concerned or unconfident about their ability to sound like a native speaker. What is more, talking picture books do not grow tired and learners can listen to them over and over again, and in contrast to their teachers whom they can hear in their classrooms, EFL learners can listen to talking picture books at their home, as well. They can record their readings and compare their pronunciation to that of the native speakers and detect the mispronounced words either as a class activity or as an individual interest.

Besides human voice, talking picture books make use of sounds that are used in the background and add emotion or sense to the story. As for their effectiveness M.J. Bishop and Ward Mitchell Cates (2001: 5) state that "sounds may gain and focus learner attention, reduce distracting stimuli, and make learning more engaging. In addition, they may help learners condense, elaborate on and organize details, highlighting interconnections among new pieces of information and making connections to preexisting knowledge". Referring to the studies conducted in the field, the authors state that "Seeing a telephone and hearing it ring should result in better memory performance than only seeing it or hearing it" (Bishop and Cates 2001: 12). In other words, the addition of sounds in talking picture books unlike the print books may render reading more fun, keep YLs motivated and engaged as well as facilitating the recall.

Dual Coding Theory developed by Allan Paivio (1969) may be explanatory of the effectiveness of talking picture books. Paivio (1969), in his theory, asserts that information is stored in two different codes: the verbal code deals with language while the nonverbal (imagery), also known as visual code, deals with non-linguistic objects and events. Dual Coding Theory suggests that a piece of information presented both visually and verbally is more likely to be recalled compared to the one presented in either of them. Underwood and Underwood (1997) summarize the issue as follows:

> "Interactive story books make use of a number of symbol sets to represent information to the learner (i.e. orthographic, pictorial and audio-linguistic) different symbol systems are processed in different ways and may be represented differently in memory, and the use of multiple learning systems in media may not only mean that the information has more chance of being absorbed by the learner, with more routes into the memory, that multiple

representations of the same information are generated by the learner. Accordingly, it is more likely that the information will be understood, remembered and recalled by the learner." (p. 96)

Apart from presenting the verbal text with the pictures similar to print books, talking picture books give the learners the chance of listening to them, as well and thus offering another channel, auditory channel, for processing and storing of the information. Wolfgang Schnotz (2005) states that combining pictures with spoken text facilitates working memory since while the pictures are processed through visual channel, the verbal information is processed through the auditory channel. In this case, talking picture books offer learners multiple representations of a piece of information assisting the recall of the information. That different parts of the brain are activated by or process different stimuli has also been verified by the studies conducted in the field of psycholinguistics. Split brain, dichotic listening and aphasia studies have shown that brain is lateralized and while language is mostly represented in the left hemisphere of the brain, non-linguistic stimuli is processed by the right hemisphere (O'Grady and Archibald, 2000, Akmajian, 1997). For instance, split brain studies have illustrated that upon hearing the sound of "a cough" in the left ear and the sound of "a laugh" in the right ear, people tend to report the sound of a cough presented in their left ear which is processed by the right hemisphere responsible for the processing of non-linguistic information. This indicates that when presented a text or pictures with sounds at the background, the learners are more likely to recall the information as a result of a larger activation of the brain area.

Using talking picture books in the lessons is compatible with Howard Gardner's theory of Multiple Intelligences, as well. Howard Gardner (2006) pluralizing the traditional general intelligence, often called g, asserts that there are multiple types of intelligences :Musical , Bodily-Kinesthetic, Logical-Mathematical, Linguistic, Spatial Intelligence, Interpersonal, Intrapersonal Intelligences and later added Naturalist Intelligence and "As a neurally based computational system, each intelligence is activated or triggered by certain kinds of internal or external information" (Gardner, 2006: 7). The theory indicates that though individuals have all types of intelligences to some extent, one/some of them may be more dominant for different people thereby leading to

different cognitive strengths and contrastive styles. That is, "The different intelligences are of neutral value; none of them is considered superior to the others. In their basic form, they are present to some extent in everyone although a person will generally be more talented in some than in others" (Arnold and Fonseca, 2004: 120). That is why some students learn better with visuals while some others need to audios and still others feel more comfortable with hands-on activities in groups or alone. The theory of Multiple Intelligences implies that teachers should use a variety of activities and should activate a variety of senses in order to cater for learners with different learning styles. In other words, lessons should be as much multi modal and multi sensory as possible (Arnold and Fonseca, 2004; Kim, 2009) since although using pictures can be fruitful in language classrooms, sticking up with them and neglecting to address or trigger other senses, may be of service only to the visual learners disregarding other cognitive styles. Karen Yeok-Hwa Ngeow (1999 : 299) indicates that "Multimedia lessons appear to be able to address the modalities of a large number of learning styles simultaneously; in other words, a multimedia program can cater to many learning styles simultaneously because the software teaches in auditory, visual and kinesthetic media". Talking picture books can also be claimed to be highly influential in this case since they can also address visual, auditory, audio-visual learners; can make the understanding and the recall of the new information easier (Uderwood and Underwood, 1997) and the stories presented through them can easily be used to devise numerous activities so as to cater to other cognitive styles, that is, other intelligence types.

Lastly, talking picture books can help create an anxiety-free environment. Although developing listening skills of learners in the TL is vital, using only audio may cause anxiety among YLs for several reasons. Firstly, YLs do not have long attention spans and they may find it rather difficult to concentrate and keep listening till the end. Secondly, YLs who would like to and try to understand everything in the listening section may feel anxious upon hearing unfamiliar vocabulary items. Whereas, the use of talking picture books can help overcome this problem since the learners are provided with pictures and animations helping guess the unknown vocabulary items and arise interest to keep listening to the story. Furthermore, lowering the anxiety level may generate an environment suitable for edutainment, "a place that asks children to enjoy

what they are learning with a combination of sound, animation, video, text and images" (Druin and Solomon, 1996: 64). That is to say, lowering the language anxiety through the use of multimedia features may give YLs the chance of learning and enjoyment, i.e. edutainment, simultaneously.

In conclusion, talking picture books can be a useful tool in TEYL in order to attract and keep the attention of YLs, motivate them, render learning more long-lasting; ease the recall of the information, structures or vocabulary items; create a low-anxiety environment thanks to the power of stories and the added multimedia features such as voice, sound, animation, pictures.

Having covered the issues concerning the characteristics of YLs, the way they think and learn, the implications of these for the language classes, the benefits of using short-stories/fairy tales and talking picture books; the next section is going to provide a brief discussion of the effects of using talking picture books on the attitudes of YLs.

2.8. Attitudes

Attracting the attention of the researchers in the fields of both social psychology and applied linguistics, attitudes have been the concern of many studies conducted in these fields. As regards to the history of the concept, Stephan L. Franzoi (2003) states that once used to describe the physical posture on the theatre stages in the 1800s, the term has gone under a meaning change and it has started to refer to "a posture of the mind" rather than the body. Gordon Allport (1966), on the other hand, highlights the etymological past of the word which derived from the Latin *"aptus"* meaning *"fitness"* or *"adaptness"* ; and *"attitude"*, as a by-form, refers to "a subjective or mental preparation for action" (Allport, 1966: 15). In line with this conception, Allport (1935 cited in Allport, 1966: 20) defines attitude as "A mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related". Still Ray Corsini (2002: 76) in his book *The Handbook of Psychology* defines attitude as (1) "a learned predisposition to react to a given situation, person or other set of cues in a consistent way". (2) "A relatively stable predisposition to react in a specific way to

something". As is seen, there is not a common definition for attitudes although that they are learnt through experiences are frequently stressed.

Attitudes are claimed to have different components (Brown, 2006; Corsini, 2007; Franzoi, 2003; Taylor, Peplam, Sears; 2006). In the one-component view, attitudes are asserted to be composed of feelings towards an object which is evaluated positively or negatively according to these feelings while in the two-component view attitudes refer to a mental state of readiness. As for the three-component view, also called tripartite model, attitudes are believed to be made up of "feelings (affect), behavior (action) and cognition (thoughts)" (Brown, 2007: 49). Taylor, Peplam and Sears (2006) summarize the components in the tripartite model as follows:

> "The affective component consists of the person's emotions and affect toward the stimulus, especially positive or negative evaluations. The behavioral component consists of how the person tends to act regarding the stimulus. The cognitive component consists of the thoughts the person has about that particular attitude object, including facts, knowledge and beliefs."
> (p. 133)

Attitudes are not inborn traits; rather they are learnt in the course of life time. There are different views in social psychology concerning the nature of attitudes (Taylor et al.: 2006: 132-167; Brown, 2006 48-52). For instance, the learning approach asserts, in line with the behaviorist approach, that attitudes are like habits and are formed through reinforcement, association, imitation and punishment while motivational approaches claim that attitudes that fit into one's cognitive structure are accepted since organisms pursue consistency among attitudes and behaviors. Still expectancy value approaches declare that individuals adopt attitudes that maximize their gains and lastly cognitive response theory underlines the importance of situations that lead to individuals' passive acceptance or counter arguments during communications that devised to alter attitudes.

Allport (1966: 17) summarizes the reason why the argument of attitudes is an indispensible part of psychology stating "Attitudes determine for each individual what he will see and hear, what he will think and what he will do". Similarly, Franzoi (2003: 147-148) indicates that "The principal reason the attitude concept is so popular is that

the aim of psychology is to study behavior, and attitudes are supposed to influence behavior". However, different studies have yielded contradictory findings as regards to the relation between behavior and attitudes (Collins and Ashmore, 1970). That is, attitudes may not always lead to the desired behavior.

Briefly, although there is not a clear cut definition regarding what an attitude is or what may be the cause of one's adopting a particular attitude, the common point about the attitudes highlighted by the theorists is that they are learnt through experiences. Attitudes are regarded as significant in social psychology since it is believed that they affect the way individuals behave and react to particular stimuli. Attitudes have had a considerable significance in the field of applied linguistics, as well and this is the concern of the next section.

2.8.1. "Attitude" in Language Education

In the field of applied linguistics, it is Robert C. Gardner who has had a revolutionary influence on the discussion of attitudes in his socio-cultural theory of second-language education. Working in Canada, a second-language environment, Gardner and his associates have underlined that the process of learning a language may be affected from several variables stemming from the self, in or out of school environment which may, in turn, exert considerable influence on the success of the language learners. Dörnyei (2005) recapitulates the issue as follows:

> "From an educational point of view, Gardner and Lambert's (1972) claim indicated that unlike several other school subjects, a foreign language is not a socio-culturally neutral field but is affected by a range of socio-cultural factors such as language attitudes, cultural stereotypes, and even geopolitical considerations." (p. 67)

Gardner (1985: 9) defines attitudes as "an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual's beliefs or opinions about the referent". For Gardner and his associates, attitudes is a part of motivation construct (Dörnyei, 2001b; Dörnyei, 2005; Gardner, 1985; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993; Gardner and Lambert, 1972) which is composed of four aspects: a goal, effortful behavior, also named as motivational intensity, a desire to attain the goal and favorable attitudes

(Gardner; 1985: 50). The reason why attitudes are considered to be influential in Gardner's socio-cultural theory is that it is believed that attitudes have a direct effect on the motivation of the learners. Therefore, it is pointed out that the more learners have positive attitudes towards the TL, the TL community and the learning situation, the more motivated they will be, thereby, being more successful in learning the TL. In order to see the relations among attitudes, motivation and achievement, Gardner and his associates have developed a scale named *The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery* (AMTB, hereafter) which is composed of five different categories: (1) motivation, (2) Integrativeness, (3) Attitude toward the learning situation, (4) Language anxiety and (5) other attributes (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993). The battery measures attitudes under different categories. The category of motivation aims to measure attitudes toward learning the language while the one named integrativeness intends to assess attitudes toward the target language group. Besides, the third category is fully spared to the assessment of the attitudes toward the language situation, i.e. evaluation of the language teacher and the evaluation of the language course.

Extending and reviewing his 1985 theory, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993: 8) summarize the relations among motivation, attitudes and other individual variables as in the Figure 1 below. In this model, they state that the role of antecedent factors stemming from biological or experiential differences should be taken into account so as to have a full grasp of the variables effective in language learning. They name intelligence, language aptitude and strategies as cognitive individual differences; and language attitudes, motivation and language anxiety as affective individual difference variables. In the figure, the directional arrows stand for a causal relationship or correlation among/between the variables while the lack of arrows signifies a lack of relation, as well.

Gardner and Tremblay (1995 cited in Dörnyei, 2001a) have included other variables in their model as a result of the calls for adoption of a more comprehensive vision of motivation which will be discussed below in section 2.9.1.

Socio-cultural milieu

| Antecedent factors | Individual difference variables | Languag acquisition contexts | Outcomes |
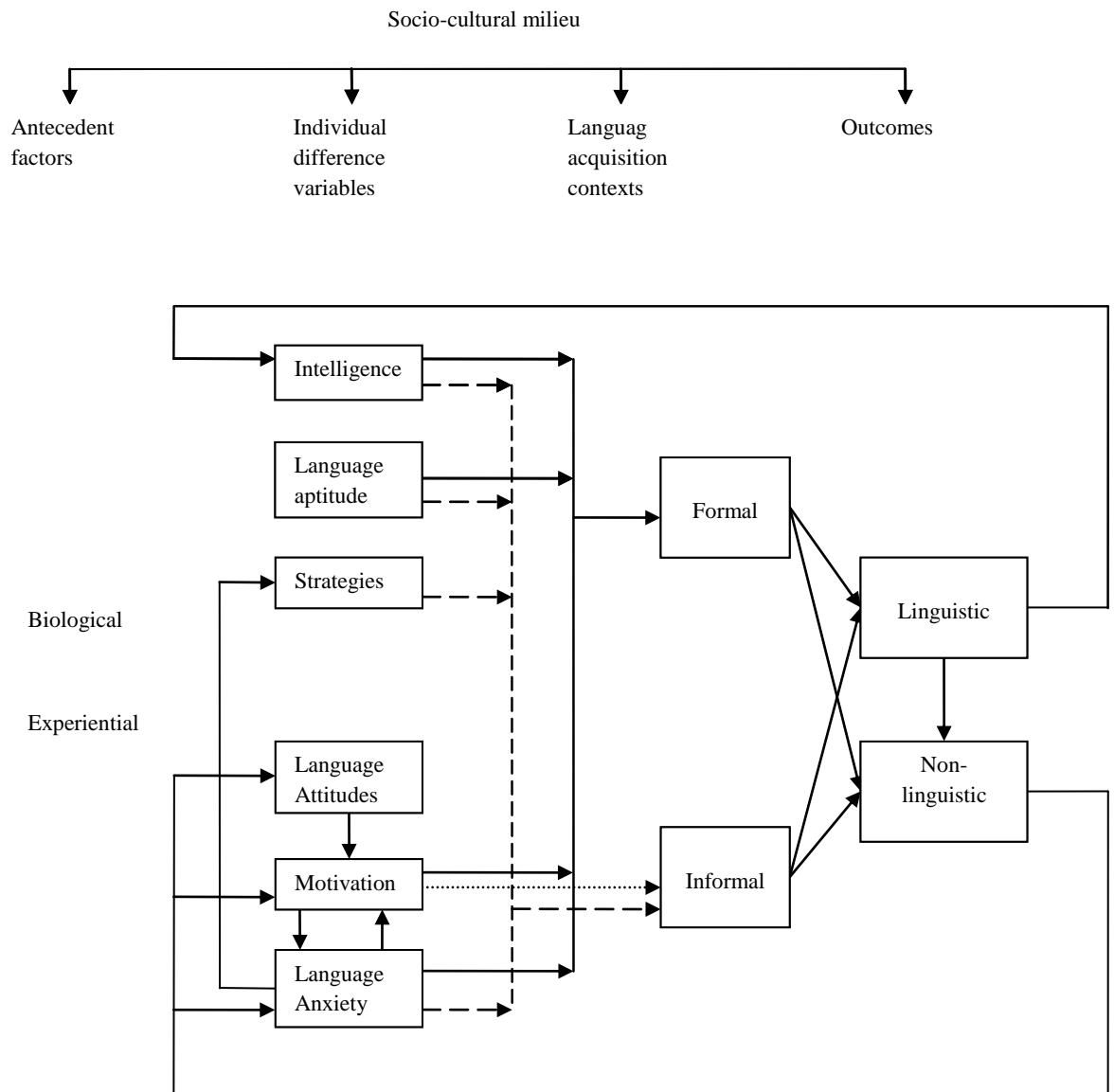
Figure 1. Schematic representation of the Socio-education model of second-language acquisition
(Gardner and MacIntyre. 1993: 8)

Gardner (1985) asserts that attitudes can be classified in several ways. One classification can be along a dimension of *specificity and generality*. For instance, while the 'attitudes toward English' is relatively specific, 'interest in foreign language' is a general attitude. Attitudes can further be classified by taking their *relevance to achievement* into account. For example, "attitudes toward learning French and attitudes toward the French course are obviously more relevant to learning French in the classroom than are attitudes toward French Canadians or interest in foreign languages" (Gardner, 1985: 41). Yet another classification is between the *educational attitudes*, i.e.

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attitudes toward the language teacher and the course and *social attitudes*, i.e. attitudes toward the speakers of the TL or ethnocentrism.

Of the attitudes mentioned above, Gardner (1985) underscores two types of attitudes which are *attitudes toward learning the language* and *attitudes toward the other-language community* and maintains that the former type is more related to achievement while the latter one demonstrate a more variable relation. Similarly, whereas the former set of attitudes may be linked to educational factors the latter set is associated more with social factors.

Pertaining to the attitudes toward learning a language, Gardner (1985) asserts that attitudes play a more predictive role in learner achievement in language courses compared to other school subjects and summarizes the issue as follows:

> "…there are many reasons to expect that a measure of attitudes toward learning a second language would relate to achievement in language, and the research literature generally support this belief despite the fact that the nature and type of attitude scales vary considerably from study to study. Furthermore, the literature suggests that it is highly likely that, although such attitudes are related to achievement in language courses, attitudes toward other school subjects are not necessarily related to achievement in these courses. That is, the nature of language acquisition may be such that attitudes are implicated in achievement more than is true for other subject areas." (p. 42)

There are many studies exhibiting the relationship between attitudes and achievement. For instance, referring to the previous studies Rodriguez Brown, Flora V. and Maria Bustelo Ruesta (1987) conclude that students with positive attitudes towards the TL and high motivation are more probable to do well in a second or foreign language compared to the ones with negative attitudes and less motivation irrespective of their aptitude. Similarly, Bartly (cited in Gardner 1985: 57) conducted a study on all 8th grade students enrolled in a foreign language classroom in two high schools. It revealed that the drop-outs, i.e. the students who did not take a language course in 9th grade, "had significantly less favorable attitudes than the continuing students both at the beginning (September) and at the end (March) of the study" (Gardner, 1985: 57). Furthermore, the drop-outs were founded to have a significant decrease in their attitudes from September to March

while the attitudes of the continuing students were relatively stable. Gardner (1985), himself, underscores the relationship between attitudes and achievement as follows:

> "In comparison with those individuals with negative attitudes, those with positive ones would be more attentive in the learning situation, would take assessments more seriously, would find it more rewarding to simply experience the language, and thus achieve more." (p. 41)

Attitudes toward learning a language can be related to other factors such as gender, age, upbringing, parental influence, the geographical area and the history of the relationships between nations. Concerning the issue of gender, Gardner (1985) refers to several studies such as Burstall, 1975; Gagnon, 1974; Gardner and Smythe, 1975a; Jones 1970a; 1970b that indicated girls having more positive attitudes toward learning a language than boys. Similarly, there are such studies as Gardner and Symthe, 1975a; Jones 1950a; 1950b; Jordan 1941 (cited in Gardner, 1985) illustrating a decrease in the positive attitudes toward learning a language as the learners get older. Gardner (1968) claims that children reflect the attitudinal atmosphere of their homes. Referring to his 1990 study conducted in Montreal, he states that children coming from homes where parents are integratively-oriented have integrative orientations toward learning the target language, as well, while parents with positive attitudes towards French people encourage their children to learn French thinking that learning the language is valuable, the ones with negative attitudes toward the French community do not give the same degree of encouragement to their children (Gardner, 1968: 144). Firsthand experience is another variable that may have an effect in shaping the attitudes toward the language (use). Li (2006) conducted a study to measure the motivation of Chinese research students in second language acquisition studying in the UK and the results revealed that those students who hold negative attitudes toward the host country and its speakers as a result of their direct experiences in the UK tend to show less willingness to interact with the target language speakers and this affected their motivation to learn the TL. On the other hand, those who developed positive attitudes towards the target language and speakers were more eager to interact in the TL. Pertaining to the relations in the past, Elbiad (cited in Suleiman, 1993) found out that 72 percent of the participants in his study who were Arab high school students in Morocco preferred studying English to French when they were asked to choose between two languages since they regarded

French as a colonial language, and the researcher posits that the negative attitudes towards French are reinforced by the participants' parents considering the French as colonizers of their country. Prior achievement may also be effective in the attitude formation. Burstall (cited in Chambers: 1999) recapitulates the effect on prior achievement on foreign language learning as follows:

> "The calculations of partial correlations indicated strongly that early achievement in French affected attitudes towards learning French and later achievement in French to a significantly greater extent than early attitudes towards learning French affected the subsequent development of either attitudes or achievement." (p. 35)

Attitudes towards the other language community are generally formed in second language environments where the language learners have a contact with the target language speakers in their social lives. As a result of such kind of a social experience, learners acquire positive or negative attitudes that affect the degree to which they would like to integrate into the community or identify with the target language speakers. Referring to the studies in the literature, Gardner (1985) indicates that positive attitudes affect language achievement in a positive way irrespective of the intelligence and language aptitudes of the learners.

In conclusion, the attitudes in language education can be classified in several ways though the attitudes toward learning a language and attitudes towards the other language community has attracted the most attention in the literature due especially to the work of Gardner and his associates. Furthermore, there are several variables such as age, gender, prior achievement or failure and parental influence that may have some effect on the attitudes of the learners and hence, on their achievement in the TL.

2.9. Motivation in Language Education

This section aims to give a brief account of motivation research in foreign language and second language contexts with related theories. Yet, before moving on any further, it is better to clarify what motivation is as well as elucidating on several other concepts frequently cited in the literature so as to facilitate the reading of the following argument.

Although it has been a subject of discussion in both psychology and applied linguistics for decades and there are numerous studies on it, there is not a unanimity concerning what motivation is. Brown (2007: 85) states that "Motivation is the extent to which you make choices about (a) goals to pursue, and (b) the effort you will devote to that pursuit". For Gardner (1985: 10), on the other hand, motivation is a construct made up of "effort plus desire to achieve the goal of language learning plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language". It is obvious that Gardner's definition asserts a relation between attitudes and motivation. That is, it is believed that motivated learners have positive attitudes toward learning a language or vice versa. Dörnyei and Otto provide still another definition and for them motivation is "the dynamically changing, cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalized, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out" (1998: 64). This definition, unlike the others, highlights that motivation is not a static but dynamic process on which cognitive factors apart from the social ones exert an influence. For Dörnyei (1994a), motivation is a tripartite construct comprising three levels: *the language level, the learner level* and *learning situation level.* He believes that such a L2 motivation construct includes three basic constituents of L2 learning in three different aspects of language. That is, the language level is related to the target language and signifies the social aspect of language learning. The learner level brings into the factors stemming from learners themselves and highlights the importance of personal dimension of language learning while the learning situation level draws attentions to the learning environment and to the aspect of educational subject matter.

Orientation is the next term to be defined. Put forward by Gardner and Lambert, orientation is a term frequently confused with motivation/motive and used interchangeably. However, orientation refers to the *reasons* to learn a language while motivation is related to the driving *effort* to learn a language. Gardner (1985: 51) , and Gardner and MacIntyre (1991: 58) name two types of orientations: integrative orientation and instrumental orientation. The integrative orientation is related to learning a language so as to identify with, learn about or become closer to the target language community while instrumental orientation stresses practical reasons or

pragmatic benefits such as having a better job/salary/career behind learning the target language. Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) underscore that it is the existence of motivation not the orientation that promotes achievement. In other words, although one may wish to learn a language in order to identify with the TL community (integrative orientation), s/he will not be successful unless s/he puts an effort (motivation) on it. As is seen an integrative orientation is different from an integrative motivation, and Gardner (1985) summarizes the issue as follows:

> "That is, an integrative orientation reflects a goal to learn a second language because of a favorable interest in the other language community. Only if this orientation is linked with effort expended to achieve this goal, a desire to learn the language and favorable reactions to the language, the community and the language learning context; can you meaningfully speak of an integrative motive." (pp. 54-55)

Although Gardner and his associates have classified the reasons behind learning any TL under two categories as instrumental orientation and integrative orientation, there has been considerable research claiming that there are other reasons, orientations as Gardner puts it, to learn a language. Besides, an orientation that Gardner and his associates consider as an integrative orientation may be regarded as an instrumental one in another study by (a) different author(s) or vice versa. For example, Clèment and Kruidenier (cited in Dörnyei, 1994a: 275), apart from the instrumental orientation, name three more orientations as *knowledge, friendship* and *travel orientations* which are generally listed under the integrative orientation in other studies. Similarly, Rebecca Oxford and Jill Shearin (1994:12) claim that learners may have orientations such as "enjoying the elitism of taking a difficult language, showing off to friends, developing greater cultural tolerance through language study" and "aiding world peace" which may relate well to neither the instrumental nor the integrative motive.

Whether the integrative motivation is superior to the instrumental motivation or if the former is more facilitative in language learning has been a subject of discussion in motivation research, as well. Though, in his early works, Gardner advocated that integrative motivation yields better results than instrumental motivation; he, now, claims that both types of motivations are effective in language achievement. Gardner

and MacIntyre (1991) conducted a study to see the role of integrative and instrumental motivation on the learning of 26 English/French word pairs by ninety-two psychology students who were learning French. The control group was composed of integratively motivated learners while the experimental group consisted of instrumentally motivated learners who were instructed that they would be given $10 if they were successful in learning French/English word pairs. However, the monetary reward was not given in the last trial to see whether there would be any changes in the motivation of the experimental group when the incentive was not given. In the study, all participants had a study time to learn the word pairs and then they were asked to write the French counterpart of the English word they saw on the computer screen. Meanwhile, computers registered the amount of time spent on studying the words, viewing the English word and the actual French responses the subjects provided on which the testing is done. The study yielded three results: (a) "both the instrumentally motivated and integratively motivated subjects learned better than subjects who are not motivated so" (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991: 68), (b) although the students in the experimental group, i.e. the instrumentally motivated learners, had longer study times compared to the control group on the first five trials; this difference vanished on the last trial when the subjects did not receive any reward. Gardner and MacIntyre interpret this as stating "Once any chance for receiving the reward was eliminated, subjects in the incentive condition simply ceased applying any more effort" (1991: 68) and (c) the instrumentally motivated subjects spent more time on thinking about their response upon seeing the English word on the screen.

Gardner's socio-educational model of motivation is applicable to second language environments and whether his integrative motivation/orientation is relevant in a foreign language environment has been yet another subject of dispute for the researchers questioning the generalizability of his model (Dörnyei, 1994b; Kang, 2000). Dörnyei (1990) conducted a study to investigate the components of motivation in a foreign language learning (FLL, hereafter) environment, Hungary. He (1990) asserts that learners in a FLL environment are less likely to contact with target language speakers and hence, it is unlikely for them to form positive or negative attitudes towards the target language speakers that may exert an influence on their motivation as Gardner

suggests. Dörnyei (1990) postulates another motivational construct relevant to FLL environment. According to his 1990 study, motivation is composed of four sub-components which are (1) An instrumental motivational subsystem; (2) An integrative motivational subsystem which is further divided into four categories as (a) interest in foreign languages, cultures and people; (b) desire to broaden one's view and avoid provincialism; (c) desire for new stimuli and challenges and (d) desire to integrate into a new community; (3) Need for achievement and (4) Attributions about past failures. In other words, Döryei (1990) underscores that unlike a second language environment where attitudes toward the TL community may have a significant influence on the motivation of language learners; in a FLL environment, general dispositions towards the TL community or the values the TL conveys are more influential in learner motivation since the latter group do not have the chance to communicate with TL speakers to form any kinds of attitudes. However, in this study Dörnyei found out that although instrumental motivation and need for achievement is sufficient to achieve till the intermediate level in a FLL environment, learners need to be integratively motivated to go beyond this level, that is, "to really learn the target language" (Dörnyei, 1990: 62). Yet, as is stated above, Dörneyi's integrative motivation is a four-component construct and is different from that of Gardner's.

Whether instrumental motivation can be transformed into integrative motivation has been yet another issue of controversy. Oxford and Shearin (1994) clarify the issue giving the following examples:

> "As a teenager, she learned the Cyrillic alphabet so she and her boyfriend could have a secret code to use while passing notes in church. The next year, she signed up for Russian in college because it was challenging and had a prestige value. Later she majored in Russian for instrumental career reasons and then taught Russian briefly in two settings, a high school and a university. After being away from Russian for a while, she saw the language as a valuable communication tool and renewed her Russian skills through individualized telephone communicating. [1]
>
> Curry provides the second illustration: a student who started taking Japanese language course simply to fulfill a requirement, later became intellectually

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[1] This example involves one of the authors.

entranced with the language and culture, and still later wanted to live and work in Japan and use the language every day." (p. 14)

These cases exemplify how the reasons why people learn languages go under changes as time passes and as they are more exposed to the TL. Gardner (1985) points out that it is not the source of motivation but whether motivation is aroused or not is what matters. Furthermore, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993: 4) recapitulate the discussion stating "the important point is that motivation is dynamic. The old characterization of motivation in terms of integrative vs. instrumental is too static and restricted". Dörneyi (1994b, 2001b, 2005) strongly advocates this position, as well and gathers his ideas in *process model of L2 motivation* which will be discussed later below in brief.

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation concepts are the last ones to be defined in this section. Intrinsic motivation is evident when learners do the activities for their own sake without any extrinsic reward and when they find doing the activity yields internally rewarding outcomes such as satisfying one's own curiosity, self-determination, feelings of competence while extrinsic motivation deals with behavior performed to receive extrinsic incentives or rewards like getting good grades, money or avoiding punishment (Brown, 1994:156; Dörnyei, 1994a; Dörnyei, 2001c; Noels, 2001; Noels, Clèment and Pelletier, 1999). Intrinsic/extrinsic motivation should not be confused or regarded as the same with integrative/instrumental motivation (Brown, 1994:157; Dörnyei, 1994a; Noels, 2001). For instance, as Brown (1994) states one may develop positive attitudes toward the target language community not to identify with these people but out of external reasons such as parental encouragement. Similarly, Kimberly A. Noels (2001) has found that intrinsic motivation and integrative motivations are two different things in that while the former is more related to the immediate learning situation such as a classroom environment, the latter is more related to intergroup issues in the broader society. There have been discussions concerning whether extrinsic motivation can be transformed into intrinsic one or which type of motivation is more efficient in language learning process. Regarding the former argument Dörnyei (1994a: 276) states that "Recent research on intrinsic/extrinsic motivation has shown that under certain circumstance − if they are sufficiently *self-determined* and *internalized* − extrinsic rewards can be combined with, or even lead to, intrinsic motivation". As for the latter

one, it is believed that the extrinsic rewards have an addictive role and learners tend not to act or cease to act in the desired way when their behavior is not externally reinforced, hence, it is better for learners to be intrinsically motivated to get better results (Brown, 2007: 89). Whether combining extrinsic rewards with intrinsic motivation doubles or increases the learners' level of motivation has attracted the attention of the researchers, as well. Referring to Kohn's 1990 study Brown (2007) gives the following examples which illustrates that an offer of extrinsic rewards discourage learners and decreases the level of motivation:

> "Subjects were asked to solve an intrinsically fascinating complex puzzle with no stated reward. Halfway through the process, the experimenter informed the subjects that there would be a monetary reward for solving the puzzle. From that point onward, intrinsic motivation (as measured by speed and correct steps toward a solution) waned.
>
> Teenage girls were given the task of teaching some games to younger children. One group of "teachers" was simply given the teaching task; the others were told that they would receive a reward (a free ticket to the movies) for successfully completing the task. Result: The first group did their task faster, with more success, and reported a greater pleasure in doing so than the second group!" (p. 89)

Brown (1997: 89) further states that the only effective extrinsic reward on the performance of intrinsically motivated learners is the positive feedback since the learners consider it as a kind of boost fostering their sense of self competence and self-determination.

Having covered the basic terminology in motivation research, the next section is going to be dedicated to a brief summary of theories of motivation developed in the field of applied linguistics.

2.9.1. Theories of Motivation in Applied Linguistics

Quite a number of theories or models have been developed in the field of applied linguistics in order to find out which variables foster or impede motivation since the inclusion of the fostering variables coupled with the exclusion of the impeding ones is

thought to result in success in language learning. Dörnyei (2001a, 2005) divides the history of L2 research into three phases as (1) *The social psychological period* (1959-1990) marked with the works of Robert Gardner and his associates, (2) *The cognitive-situated period* (during the 1990s) reflecting the influence of cognitive theories developed in the field of educational psychology and (3) *The process-oriented period* (from 2000 onwards) highlighting the motivational changes and characterized by Dörnyei and Otto's model of motivation.

Though being in the social psychological period Gardner's work has still had a considerable effect on motivation research. Adding some of the most researched and discussed concepts such as the integrative and instrumental motivation/orientation to the literature, Gardner (1985) claims that motivation is composed of different elements one of which is attitudes towards the TL community, the teacher and the course. Despite being one of the most influential figures in the motivational research, his theory has been criticized for several reasons. First of all, researchers such as Dörnyei (1990, 2001a, 2001b, 2005), Oxford and Shearin (1994) and Dong-Ho Kang (2000) state that Gardner's theory do not fit well into a foreign language context since it has been developed based on the research conducted in a second language environment. Secondly, it has been stressed that trying to explain all the reasons behind any motivated action with integrative or instrumental orientations is not enough and researchers like Deci and Ryan (2000) have offered different driving forces behind the motivated behavior. Thirdly, it has been pointed out that Gardner's motivation construct does not mention the role of the cognitive aspects of motivation (Dörneyi, 1994a). Taking the criticisms into account, Gardner keeps revising his theory of socio-educational model of L2 motivation the latest version of which he developed with Tremblay (cited in Dörnyei, 2001: 54) can be seen in Figure II below.

In this extended version of the theory, it is still easy to notice the link between the attitudes, motivational behavior and the achievement (Dörneyi, 1995; 2001a). What is new is the inclusion of the three variables, i.e. goal salience, valence and self efficacy, as the intermediating variables, thereby including cognitive elements without changing its original structure.
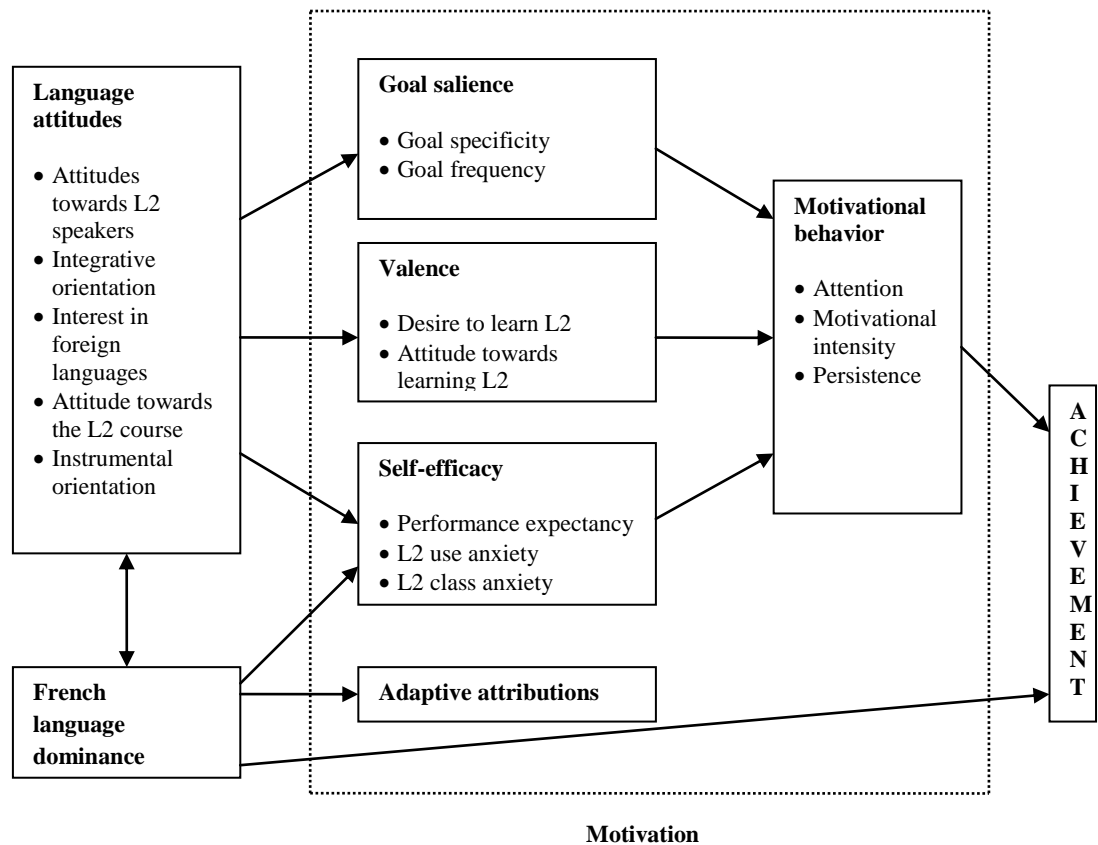
Motivation

Figure II. Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) model of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 2001a: 54)

The cognitive-situated period is named so since unlike Gardner's theory which considers motivation at the level of society, that is whether individuals would like to integrate into the target community, theories in the cognitive-situated period are interested in the variables in the immediate learning environment and situations such as teachers, the teaching learning strategies, peer groups, parents and classroom environment and as they take the cognitive aspect of motivation like one's consideration of one's abilities, potentials and previous performances.

Self-determination theory by Deci and Ryan is one of the most significant theories in this period (Dörnyei, 2005; 2001b). The theory identifies three psychological reasons which are the need for competence, relatedness and autonomy as the driving forces behind organisms' behavior unlike the early theories of self-determination signifying the role of physiological needs. Needs in self-determination theory "specify *innate psychologiz*" (Deci and Ryan, 2000: 229). Offering one of the most widely known

paradigms, i.e. the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, the theory claims that whereas the intrinsically motivated behavior is self-determined, the extrinsically motivated one is controlled and it is the former that brings the success by giving the individuals the chance of satisfying their needs of autonomy. Self-determination theory places five different categories of behaviors on a continuum between the extrinsic and intrinsic forms of motivation depending on the extent to which they are self-determined or controlled from outside which Dörneyi (2001b) recapitulates and exemplifies as follows:

> *"External regulation* (i.e., motivation coming entirely from external sources such as rewards or threats); *introjected regulation* (i.e., externally imposed rules that students accept as norms they should follow in order not to feel guilty); *identified regulation* (i.e., engaging in an activity because the individual highly values it and sees its usefulness); *integrated regulation* (i.e., involving choiceful behavior that is fully assimilated with the individual's other values, needs and identity); and *intrinsic regulation."* (p. 47)

Pertaining to the last phase, that is, the process-oriented period, Dörnyei (2005) names the process model of L2 motivation he has developed together with Ottó, which is illustrated in Figure III below. Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) have put forward three rationales concerning why they felt the need of a new model of motivation. Firstly, they claim that previous motivation theories or models are not comprehensive enough since they do not provide a detailed summary of the motivational influences on behavior. Secondly, they assert that the existing theories of motivation focus on choice motivation, that is, why one chooses a goal, but ignore or have little to say about the execution of the goals and finally, they allege that motivation is a dynamically changing entity and any motivation model should take this into account since "even within the duration of a single course, most learners experience a regular fluctuation of their enthusiasm/commitment, often on a day-to-day basis" (Dörnyei and Ottó; 1998: 45). The process model of L2 motivation claims that there are two dimensions of motivation: The first of them is the *action sequence* which is divided into three as *preactional, actional* and *postactional phases.* The first phase, preactional, is where motivation is generated. This motivation can be referred to as *choice motivation* since "the generated

motivation leads to the selection of the goal or task that the individual will pursue" (Dörneyi, 2005: 84).

MOTIVATIONAL INFLUENCES   **ACTION SEQUENCE**

PREACTIONAL PHASE

| Motivational influences on goal setting | → | Wishes and hopes |
| | | Desires   Goal setting   Opportunities |

| Motivational influences on intention formation | → | Goal (Assigned Task) |
| | | Action plan   Intention formation   Commitment (compliance) |

| Motivational influences on the initiation of intention enactment | → | Intention |
| | | Means and resources   Initiation of intention enactment   Start condition |

Action-launching impulse

INSTIGATION FORCE   Crossing the 'Rubicon' of Action

ACTIONAL PHASE

Executive motivational influences	→	Subtask Generation and Implementation
		Appraisal Action Action control
			Modify or continue action

Actional outcome   Modify goal

Terminated action   Achieved Goal

POSTACTIONAL STAGE

| Motivational influences on postactional evaluation | → | Forming causal attributions   Postactional evaluation   Elaborating standards and strategies |
| | | Dismissing intention and further planning |

Figure III. Dörnyei and Ottó's process model of L2 motivation (1998: 48)

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It is in this phase that initial desires, wishes and hopes are first transformed into goals and then into intentions. Yet, the existence of intentions does not guarantee the motivated action since in order to issue the "action-launching impulse" necessary conditions should be met. That is, the individual should have the essential *means* and *resources,* as well as the *start condition*. The second phase, actional, is characterized by the *executive motivation* which, according to Dörnyei (2001b; 2005) is missing in the previous motivation models and theories. It signifies the motivational influences that foster or impede motivation. The last phase, postactional, start after the goal achieved or the action is terminated or interrupted for some reason. It is characterized by *motivational retrospection* since learners evaluate the outcome, form causal attributions and make inferences to be used for the future experiences. The second dimension of Dörnye's process model of L2 is the *motivational influences* signifying the underlying force or sources fueling motivation.

The model underscores that the motivational factors that are influential in each phase are different from each other. In other words; while attitudes, expectancies of success, learner beliefs and strategies are motivational factors effective in the preactional stage; quality of the learning experience, sense of autonomy and teachers' and parents' influences are the ones that affect motivation in the actional phase. Furthermore, there are some other factors such as received feedback, praise, self-confidence and self- worth influential in the postactional phase. Therefore, manifold language learning motives can be organized by grouping them relevant actional phase. Dörneyi (2005) underscores the significance of this as follows:

> "An important corollary of this perspective is that different motivational systems advocated in the literature do not necessarily exclude each other but can be valid at the same time if they affect different stages of the motivational process. I believe, for example, that the Canadian social psychological construct is effective in explaining variance in choice motivation but to explain executive motivation, more situated factors need to be taken into account."
> (p. 84)

This indicates that the process-model of L2 motivation is not a contradictory but complementary model in that instead of discarding the previous models of motivation, it

adopts an eclectic view by combining different parts from different methods and adding new dimensions so as to create a more comprehensive and exhaustive model.

To conclude, this chapter has provided a brief but comprehensive discussion of the characteristics of YLs, the implications of these characteristics in YL classrooms, the importance of attitudes in learning languages, the role of motivation as well as the theories of language learning motivation. The next chapter, on the other hand, is going to present the methodology of the current study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter is concerned with the presentation of the basic methodological considerations of the current study aiming to investigate the role of talking picture books on the attitudes of young EFL learners. It provides information about the research design, setting and participants of the study, as well as clarifying the data collection tools used and the procedure followed during the study.

3.1. Research Design

This is an experimental study in which the effects of the talking picture books on the attitudes of young EFL learners was explored during an eight-week, sixteen-hour period. Yet, in order to grasp the total picture and have a better understanding of the reasons behind the students' reactions to the procedure, the quantitative date acquired through the pre and post tests in the experimental design is supported by the qualitative data obtained through the student logs in which the students write down their evaluation of the materials as well as their comments on their own performance and feelings during each lesson.

The data obtained from two sixth grade classes which randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. Donald Ary, Lucy Cheser Jacobs, Asghar Razavieh and Christine K. (1996) name such kind of a randomization as cluster random sampling and define it as follows:

> Cluster sampling is similar to simple random sampling except that groups rather than individuals are randomly selected (that is, the sampling unit is a group rather the individuals). The advantages of cluster sampling are that it can be used when it is difficult or impossible to select a random sample individuals, it is often far easier to implement in schools, and it is frequently less time-consuming." (p. 101)

It is clear that since the groups used in this study were already in existence and they were assigned randomly to the control or experimental group, this study adopts a cluster random sampling.

3.2. Sample and Participants

This study was conducted at Samsun İlkadım İlyasköy Türk-iş Primary School. The students studying at the sixth grade at this school in 2010 – 2011 academic year constitute the population of the study. The sample, on the other hand, was consisted of students attending 6/A and 6/B classes. Of these groups, the former assigned to the experimental group while the latter falls into the control group after randomization. The experimental group is composed of 35 students (17 males and 18 females) and the control group consists of 32 students (14 males and 18 females) all aged at 11- 12.

The participants of the study started learning English three hours per week at the fourth grade and continued to their exposure to English at the fifth grade again with a three hour per week schedule. The English proficiency level of the subjects at the beginning of the term was A1 according to the common European framework which is described by the Council of Europe (2001) as follows:

> "[One] Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help." (p. 24)

Determining English proficiency level of the learners is important since the talking picture books chosen for the study should be comprehensible at the level of the subjects.

3.3. Data Collection Tools

For this study, in order to measure the attitude (change) of the subjects, the attitude questionnaire developed by Ahmet Kara (2003) was administered to both the control and the experimental groups first at the beginning and then at the end of the study. This 58-item questionnaire is a five-point Likert scale from "strongly agree" to "strongly

disagree" and is composed of four subcategories as love of English (first 10 items), interest in learning English (items from 11 to 27), desire for and expectations from English (items from 28 to 36) and language anxiety (items from 37 to 58) respectively (see Appendix 1). As for the reliability of the measuring instrument, it is quite high with a 0.71 score of Cronbach Alpha.

Apart from the attitude questionnaire, the subjects in the experimental group kept student logs for each lesson for an eight-week period (see Appendix 2). This is of importance since it helps to reveal the subjects' feelings about and the evaluations of the lessons, materials, activities and talking picture books by supporting the statistical and numeric data obtained from the questionnaire with the descriptive data.

3.4. Procedure

The current study lasted for eight weeks, two class hours per week, with a total of sixteen class hours excluding the two weeks used to administer the pre-test at the beginning and the post-test at the end of the study. Two sixth grade classes, 6/A and 6/B, were assigned randomly as the control and experimental groups. The experimental group was the 6/A while the 6/B class constituted the control group.

In the study, while the experimental group was exposed to the talking picture books on the computer with audio, visual and animation features; the control group studied the same stories in the print version without any audios, visuals or animation features. Hence, by manipulating the audio-visual and animation characteristics of the stories, the study aims to explore the attitude changes in the experimental group in order to suggest their use in language classrooms. However, all the other activities and techniques, worksheets handed out, materials used were totally identical in order to avoid the effect(s) of other variables, thereby revealing the sole effect of talking picture books on the attitudes of the students, and ascribing any positive changes to the existence of the features found not in the print versions of the stories, but in the talking picture book versions of the same stories. The stories were studied with an integrative perspective in both groups by bearing in mind that the target groups were composed of YLs who are

holistic in nature and have difficulty in focusing on the bits and pieces of the target language.

The talking picture books were shown to the subjects in the experimental group via a LCD data projector since there is not a language laboratory in the school of implementation.

Serious considerations were given to the selection of the stories proper for the target group. Firstly, a match was sought between the students' English proficiency levels and the linguistic level of the stories. That is, the stories comprehensible in terms of the vocabulary, structures and functions were chosen since otherwise, the subjects might have had difficulties in grasping the meaning and felt frustrated. Another issue was to find out stories that had visuals or illustrations attractive enough. Besides, whether the visuals and illustrations used in the stories are relevant to the story text or not did not go unnoticed. Furthermore, the characteristics of YLs discussed above were taken into account by providing variety, avoiding mismatches between the stories and the cognitive abilities of the YLs and letting them dissipate their energy through the suitable tasks and activities. Moreover, the objectives of the curriculum imposed by the Turkish Ministry of Education was a further factor influential in the selection of the stories since there should be some congruence between the stories and the curricular objectives in order to provide a smooth transition between the class hours. The last, but not the least, criteria provided by Ellis and Brewster (1991:12) were paid heed and used as a checklist before choosing the proper stories for the target groups (see Appendix 3).

Each story and talking picture book were studied for two weeks, that is, two class hours per week with a total of four class hours. The procedures followed, the activities and materials implemented, the skills targeted and the objectives defined have been given below.

3.4.1. The First Talking Picture Book: *The Animal Musicians*

This talking picture book was chosen because the theme, animals, is already in the sixth grade curriculum, and this story gave the instructor the chance of expanding the unit in their books, i.e. Unit 9: Living Beings in *Spot On 6,* via different kinds of activities targeting the development of the four language skills. The objectives behind the use of this talking picture book as well as the procedure followed can be summarized as below:

Vocabulary	Witch, monster, bandit, match, crow, neigh, bark, meow, kick, master, trip over, scratch, roof, hoof, stew, finger nail, knife, kill, flee and companion.
Grammar	Practicing The Present Simple Tense and the modal, "can".
Skills	Listening, speaking, reading, writing
Materials	_ Workseet 1, 2, 3 and 4 (see Appendix 4) _ The talking picture book, *The Animal Musicians,* for the experimental group. _ The print version of the story for the control group _ The song titled *Ali Baba* (see Appendix 5 for the lyrics).
Procedure	_ As a warm-up the teacher (T, hereafter) asks the students (Ss, hereafter) to write down as many animal names as they can remember and in the end, T chooses the winner of the class. _ Before viewing the story, T introduces the unknown vocabulary items to Ss. T does this in a game like manner. She writes down a vocabulary item on the board and mimes it and Ss try to guess the meaning of the word. Upon finding the meaning, T does not write the Turkish counterpart of it but asks the Ss to keep the meaning in their minds. For the second word T does the same thing, yet before moving to the third word, she asks the meaning of the first word, as well. This chain like procedure continues till all vocabulary

items are introduced. Finally, T passes out Worksheet 1 for which Ss are required to write down the English words under the pictures by looking at the words already written on the board.

_ For the next step, T has Ss listen to the story without viewing it and number the sentences in the correct order in Worksheet 2 as they listen to the story.

_ After completing the listening task, T allows Ss view the story three times but she stops the story several times in order to check the understanding of the learners.

_ Ss in the control group do not watch the story; instead, the story is read out loud by the teacher in order to do the listening activity. This does not constitute a problem of native/non-native speaker since the scope of the research is not to improve listening abilities of the students but to reinforce their positive attitudes towards learning English.

_ As a writing activity, T hands out Worksheet 3 which is like a picture strip story. For this activity, Ss are asked to order the pictures as in the story and then write a sentence for each picture in pairs, thereby making a summary of the story.

_ In the next step, Ss play a game in which one of Ss choose an animal but does not tell it to his/her friends. The other students in the class are supposed to ask questions such as "What color is it?, Where does it live?, Can it fly/ sing/ swim/ talk/ run fast?" in order to find out the animal.

	_ Lastly, Ss listen to the song titled *Ali Baba's Farms,* and then sing it both as a class and individually. Furthermore, T asks Ss to replace the animals in the song with other animals and sing it in this new format.

3.4.2. The Second Talking Picture Book: *The Enormous Turnip*

There are several reasons behind the use of this talking picture book. Firstly, the animations and the illustrations used in the book are quite attractive and motivating. Secondly, the students are already familiar with basic vocabulary items related to a recipe from their book, Unit 3: Eating in *Spot On 6,* and hence, this talking picture book can be used to extend the range of activities provided by the course book. Furthermore, the story is suitable to act out and this can be helpful in giving a chance to the YLs to dissipate their energy and fine tune their pronunciation by means of drama activities. The procedure followed for this talking picture book can be tabulated as follows:

Vocabulary	Grow, plant, turnip, ripe, pull, move, too, moan and enormous.
Grammar	_ Practicing The Present Perfect Tense _ Introducing and practice of "Too + Adjective"
Skills	Listening, speaking, reading, writing
Materials	_ Worksheets 1, 2, 3 and 4 (see Appendix 6). _ The talking picture book version of the story, *The Enormous Turnip.* _ The print version of the story. _ The pictures of the main characters.
Procedure	_ In order to create a transition to the story and have the Ss get ready for the text, T tries to activates their schemata by asking questions such as if they have ever planted a plant or not. In case there is no body having planted a tree, T asks questions regarding what people do so as to grow a plant.

	_ T introduces the unfamiliar words to Ss by miming and using body language.
	_ After this warm-up session, Ss are asked to fill in the blanks with the given words in Worksheet 1 as they are listening to the story. For this activity, in order not to distract the students with the visual stimuli, Ss in the experimental group were not shown the talking picture books. They could only hear the story. The subjects in the experimental group, on the other hand, listened to T to fill in the blanks with the correct words.
	_ Then, Ss view the talking picture books three times. T stops the talking picture book and asks comprehension questions in order to reinforce Ss to speak up and check their understanding of the story.
	_ As a writing activity, T hands out Worksheet 2 for which Ss are supposed to write sentences concerning each character in the story.
	_ Next, Ss work in pairs to practice the form of The Present Simple Tense in Worksheet 3.
	_ T assigns Ss the roles of the characters in the story and asks them to come prepared for the next lesson since they are going to act out the story.
	_ Ss perform their roles in front of the class and act out the stories in groups.

| | _ T makes use of the sentences in the story of *The Enormous Turnip* in order to introduce the structure of "Too+ Adjective" inductively. An example sentence from the story is "Maybe, the turnip is too big". |
| | _ Ss are handed out Worksheet 4 on which they work in pairs to practice the use of the above mentioned structure. |

3.4.3. The Third Talking Picture Book: *This Summer*

This talking picture book was used right after the twelfth unit, A trip in *Spot On 6,* and was totally congruent with both the theme and the structure of the unit. Hence, it proved a good complementary of the book complying with the curriculum. It enabled the Ss to practice the structure of the unit in a meaningful context and provided a wide range of activities and incentives to practice four skills. The procedure followed while studying this talking picture book can be summarized as below:

Vocabulary	Bottom, get bored, lucky, chore, mow, lawnmower, fix, polish, fort, beach, sandcastle, cob of corn, sunset, scary, roast.
Grammar	Practicing Will Future
Skills	Listening, speaking, reading, writing.
Materials	_ Worksheets 1, 2, 3, and 4 (see Appendix 7). _ Power Point presentation in order to introduce the unknown vocabulary items. _ The talking picture book, *This Summer*. _ The print version of the talking picture book. _ The song titled *On a hunting we will go* (see Appendix 8 for the lyrics.)
Procedure	_ T asks Ss questions regarding what they will do during the summer holiday by making use of such questions as: "Where will you go?, What will you do there?, Who will you go with?, Why will you go there?, How will you travel?

	and When will you come back?" as a warm-up activity.
	_ T introduces Ss the pictures of the unknown vocabulary items via a power point presentation.
	_ After studying the words shown on the slides, Ss try to match the words with the pictures in Worksheet 1 in pairs.
	_ Ss view the story once and T passes out Worksheet 2 for which they are required to answer comprehension questions regarding the story.
	_ Following this activity, Ss view the story for the second time so as to check their answers. They may be shown the story one more time in case there arises a necessity.
	_ Next, Ss fill in the blanks in Worksheet 3 using "will" or "won't".
	_ After that an information gap activity is used to reinforce the speaking skills of Ss.
	_ Lastly, the Ss listen to the song titled *On a hunting we will go,* and then sing it both as a class and individually.

3.4.4. The Fourth Talking Picture Book: *Fall*

The main rationale for employing this talking picture book is to practice The Present Continuous Tense in a meaningful context. In the curricula, students are introduced this tense at the very end of the second term in fifth grade when there are hardly any students at school. Even if the students continue to come to school, teachers may get behind the curricula and hence, students may not have a chance to learn or use it at all. However, the visual quality, the appeal of the animations and the linguistic level of the

story were further factors that were taken into account in the selection phase. The process of the implementation of this story can be tabulated as follows:

Vocabulary	Carve a pumpkin, rake the leaves, pick, get colder, get shorter, squirrel, gather, nuts and a pile of leaves.
Grammar	Practicing The Present Continuous Tense
Skills	Listening, speaking, reading, writing.
Materials	_ Worksheets 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 (see Appendix 9). _ A power point presentation of trivia competition. _ The talking picture book titled *Fall.* _ The print version of the talking picture book. _ The song titled *Transport* (see Appendix 10 for the lyrics).
Procedure	_ As a warm-up, T tells the students that they are going to read/ view a story called *Fall* and asks them to make guesses concerning whether the story is about an accident of fall or the season. T lets Ss express their ideas freely and come up with ideas regarding the content of the story. _ Then, T introduces the unknown vocabulary items with pictures by handing out Worksheet 1. _ Next, Ss view the story for the first time. T stops the talking picture book and asks comprehension questions in order to check their understanding. _ After viewing the story once more, T hands out Worksheet 2. In order to do this worksheet, students are supposed to work in groups and write dialogues for the given pictures from the story. _ Then T passes out Worksheet 3 and 4 respectively. For these

	worksheets, Ss first work individually and after finishing each worksheet check their answers with their pairs, i.e. the student sitting next to themselves. T helps the ones who have difficulty in filling out the worksheets.
	_ After these writing activities, in order to enliven Ss, T makes Ss listen to the song, *Transport*. Ss listen to the song and try to complete the missing words in the lyrics handed out on Worksheet 5.
	_ Lastly, T tells Ss that they are going to play a game. This is a game of trivia so as to practice The Present Continuous Tense. In this game, Ss choose questions of different points. There are questions from one hundred-point to five hundred-point. Each time a student answer a question correctly, s/he gets that point.

As it is clear, the stories were studied in an integrated way with a wide variety of activities targeting to improve four language skills of the subjects. Furthermore, each story was chosen for clear purposes and reasons in order to satisfy both the objectives of the curriculum and the needs, characteristics and capabilities of the YLs.

3.5. Data Analysis

This study employs Statistical Packages for Social Science (SPSS) 16.0 program in order to analyze the quantitative data collected through the attitude questionnaire. In addition to the use of basic descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation, different statistical measures are used: In order to compare and contrast the data gathered in pre and post-tests of the control and the experimental groups Paired-Sample T-test was used. The pre and post test results of the experimental group were compared and contrasted via the use of Independent Samples T-tests. Still the pre and post-test scores of the boys and girls in the experimental groups were compared to the ones in the control group through the use of Mann-Whitney U Test since the of the size of the

samples were below 20. For all these analyses, the significance value was accepted as p < 0. 05, the level most frequently employed in social sciences, and the data was evaluated and discussed in the light of this significance level and confidence interval.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANAYSIS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the data collected from the pre and post-tests through the administration of the attitude questionnaire, as well as providing excerpts from the student logs in order to support the findings. Furthermore, it offers a discussion of the findings in relevance to the aims of the study and an evaluation of the results to illustrate whether the hypotheses of the study was confirmed or not.

4.1. Findings of the Pre-Test

Since experimental research designs require that everything except from the manipulation of the independent variable should be equal for both the control and the experimental groups so as to attribute any changes in the targeted trait/behavior to the inclusion or the exclusion of the dependent variable, the attitude questionnaire was administered to all subjects in order to see if there was a significant difference between the attitudes of the control and the experimental groups at the beginning of the study. The pre-test results illustrated that there was no significant attitude difference between the two groups giving way to the launching of the study.

The findings of the pre-test were analyzed in two different ways: Firstly, the total scores of the control and experimental groups were analyzed and discussed and secondly, both groups were compared and contrasted at each subcategory of the questionnaire, i.e. at the levels of love of English, interest in learning English, desire for and expectations from English and language anxiety, for a more detailed evaluation. Below is the table presenting the total scores of both the control and the experimental groups in the pre-test.

Table 4.1.1 Comparison of the Pre-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups

Groups	N	X	SD	t	p
Experimental	35	229,00	33,89		
				- ,538	,592
Control	32	233,65	36,88		

(p > .05)

As is clear, there is no statistically significant difference in the attitudes of the control and the experimental groups at the beginning of the study since the significance score is 0, 592 (p > 0,05). However, although the total scores indicate no significant difference between the attitudes of the two groups, there may be a considerable difference in the subcategories of the questionnaire. Hence, the scores subjects got for each subcategory were compared and presented in the tables below for a more comprehensive evaluation.

Table 4.1.2. Pre-test Scores of Control and Experimental Groups in the Subcategory of Love of English.

Groups	N	X	SD	t	p
Experimental	35	41,14	5,88		
				- ,591	,557
Control	32	41,96	5,52		

(p > .05)

The analysis of the scores both groups took for the subcategory of the "Love of English" indicates that the significance score is 0, 557 (p > 0,05) and hence, there was no significant difference between the control and experimental groups in terms of their love of English before launching the implementation.

Table 4.1.3. Pre-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups in the Subcategory of Interest in Learning English

Groups	N	X	SD	t	p
Experimental	35	73,34	8,30		
				,533	,582
Control	32	71,00	11,45		

(p > .05)

A comparison of the mean scores of the control and the experimental group yields that both groups are quite alike each other in terms of their interest in learning English. The significance score is 0,582 (p > 0,05) and this means that there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups in the subcategory of "Interest in learning English" at the beginning of the study.

Table 4.1.4. Pre-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups in the Subcategory of Desire for and Expectations from English

Groups	N	X	SD	t	p
Experimental	35	40,08	4,13		
				,415	,680
Control	32	39,65	4,31		

(p > .05)

As table 4.1.4 indicates, at the beginning of the study, both groups' desire for and expectations from English are at about the same level. The significance score for this subcategory is 0, 680 (p > 0,05) denoting an insignificant difference between the control and experimental groups concerning their desire for and expectations from learning English.

Table 4.1.5. Pre-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups in the Subcategory of Language Anxiety

Groups	N	X	SD	t	p
Experimental	35	75,42	20,54		
				-1,114	,269
Control	32	81,03	20,56		

(p > .05

The scores of the subcategory of language "Anxiety" displays that before launching the implementation, there was no a statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of their level of language anxiety as the significance score is 0,269 (p > 0,05). Here, the mean scores of the two groups need further clarification. Although the score of the control group is higher than the one for experimental group, this does not imply that the anxiety level of the former group is higher than that of the latter one. A higher score in the subcategory of language anxiety is an indication of less anxiety and such kind of a score is the result of recoding of the items in this last subcategory.

To sum up, the pre-test results of the control and experimental groups indicate that there was no a statistically significant difference between the attitudes of these two groups at the beginning of the study. Likewise, a closer look at the scores both groups had at each subcategory yielded similar results suggesting no significant difference in none of the subcategories.

4.2. Findings about the 1st Hypothesis

The first hypothesis of the study alleges that "There will be a significant difference between the attitudes of YLs who are exposed to the talking picture books and who are not favoring the ones studying the talking picture books". In order to test out this hypothesis, the post-test scores of the control and the experimental groups were analyzed and related table is presented below:

4.2.1. Comparison of the Post-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups

Groups	N	X	SD	t	p
Experimental	35	2,6180	31,27		
				-4,001	,000
Control	32	2,2700	39,73		

$(p < 0,05)$

As is clear in the table above, the significance score is 0,000 ($p < 0,05$) and this indicates a significant attitude difference between the experimental and the control groups favoring the former one. It can be claimed that exposure to talking picture books created positive attitudes towards English in the experimental group and hence, the first hypothesis of the study has been confirmed.

4.3. Findings about the 2nd Hypothesis

The second hypothesis of the study asserts that "There will be a significant difference between the experimental and the control groups in terms of their *Love of English*". In order to find out whether this hypothesis was confirmed or not the first ten items of the attitude questionnaire measuring students' love of English were analyzed for each group and the related table is as below:

4.3.1. Post-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups for Their "Love of English"

Groups	N	X	SD	t	p
Experimental	35	46,14	5,21		
				3,43	,001
Control	32	40,65	7,71		

$(p < .05)$

The data presented in Table 4.3.1 indicates that the implementation created a change and the insignificance between the control and experimental groups' love of English at the beginning of the study is not valid anymore. In other words, following the use of the talking picture books, the experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of their Love of English. The significance score is 0, 001 (p < 0, 05), and this means that there is a quite significant statistical difference between both groups' love of English favoring the experimental group and hence, the second hypothesis of the study has been confirmed.

4.4. Findings about the Third Hypothesis

The third hypothesis of the study asserts that "There will be a significant difference between the experimental and the control groups in terms of their *Interest in Learning English*". The post-test scores both groups got for the items between 10 and 28 in the attitude questionnaire were compared and the findings are presented in the following table.

4.4.1. Post-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups for their "Interest in Learning English"

Groups	N	X	SD	t	p
Experimental	35	79,17	8,83		
				3,16	,002
Control	32	71,50	10,95		

(p < .05)

As is clear the discrepancy between the mean scores of the control and experimental groups became greater compared to the pre-test scores and the insignificance in terms of the interest in learning English valid in the pre-test between the two groups disappeared. The significance level for the post-test is 0,002 (p < 0,05) and this implies a strong significant difference between the two groups' interest in learning English following the

exposure to the talking picture books in favor of the experimental group which proves to be a confirmation for the third hypothesis.

4.5. Findings about the Fourth Hypothesis

The fourth hypothesis of the study presupposes that "There will be a significant difference between the experimental and the control groups in terms of their *Desire for and Expectations from English*". In order to test out this hypothesis, students' score for the items between 27 and 37 in the attitude questionnaire were analyzed for both groups and the findings are presented in table 4.5.1 below.

4.5.1. Post-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups for their "Desire for and Expectations from English"

Groups	N	X	SD	t	p
Experimental	35	43,08	3,02		
				3,96	,000
Control	32	38,78	5,59		

(p < .05)

As is apparent in the above table, the fourth hypothesis of the study has been verified since the experimental group's desire for and expectations from English are higher than that of the control group. The significance score is 0,000 (p < 0,05) and this stands for a high statistically significant difference confirming that the exposure to the talking picture books created a favorable change in the attitudes of the experimental group.

4.6. Findings about the Fifth Hypothesis

The fifth hypothesis of the current study claims that "There will be a significant difference between the experimental and the control groups in terms of their level of language "*Anxiety*". In order to find out whether exposure to the talking picture books have created a change or a decrease in the language anxiety levels of the students in the

experimental group, students scores for the last 22 items of the attitude questionnaire were analyzed for both groups and the findings are tabulated as follows:

4.6.1. Post-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups for their Level of Language "Anxiety"

Groups	N	X	SD	t	p
Experimental	35	93,40	17,34		
				3,77	,000
Control	32	76,06	20,26		

(p < .05)

The t-test findings display the significance level as 0,000 (p < 0,05) which is an indication of a statistically significant difference between the control and experimental groups' level of language anxiety totally eliminating the chance factor. As has been mentioned above, the level of language anxiety of the experimental group was higher than that of the control group but the exposure to the talking picture books reversed the situation creating a considerable decrease in the level of language anxiety of the experimental group. Actually, it can be claimed that the use of talking picture books helped the experimental group not only make up the difference in the anxiety levels of the two groups but also surpass the control group's score and hence, the fifth hypothesis of the study has been validated.

4.7. Findings about the 6th Hypothesis

The sixth hypothesis of the study alleges that "There will be a significant difference between the pre and post test scores of the experimental group following the exposure to the talking picture books. In order to test this hypothesis, Paired-Sample t-test was applied and related table is presented below.

4.7.1. Pre and Post-Test Scores of the Experimental Group

	N	X	SD	t	p
Pre-test	35	228,86	33,86		
				-7,821	,000
Post-test	35	261,80	31,27		

(p < .05)

The comparison of the pre and post-test scores of the experimental group indicates that the exposure to the talking picture books had a positive effect on the attitudes of the subjects as the significance score is 0,000 (p < 0,05). Hence, it is clear that the findings exhibited above serves as a confirmation of the sixth hypothesis.

4.8. Findings about the 7th Hypothesis

The seventh hypothesis of the current study presupposes that "There will be a significant attitude difference between the boys and girls in the experimental group compared to the ones in the control group". In order to test out this hypothesis, the pre and post-test scores of boys and the girls in the experimental group were compared and contrasted through the use of paired-samples t-test. However, to be able to attribute any significant differences to the exposure to the talking picture books, the post-test scores of the boys and the girls in the control group were evaluated, as well. Furthermore, for a more comprehensive evaluation the scores of the boys in the experimental group were compared to the scores of the boys in the control group. Similarly, a comparison was done between the scores of the girls in the experimental and the control groups. For these comparisons, Mann Whitney-U Test was applied since the size of the sample for each group was below twenty. All the tables concerning these analyses and related discussion are provided below:

4.8.1. Pre-test Scores of the Experimental Group for Genders

Experimental Group	N	X	SD	t	p
Boys	17	218,35	33,48		
				-1,843	,079
Girls	18	238,78	31,99		

(p > .05)

As is clear in the Table 4.8.1 above the significance score is 0, 079 and this exhibits an insignificant difference in the attitudes of the girls and boys towards learning English at the beginning of the study. The mean score of the girls is higher and this is in congruence with the research conducted by Burstall, 1975; Gagnon, 1974; Gardner and Smythe, 1975a; Jones 1970a; 1970b (cited in Gardner, 1985) claiming that girls have more positive attitudes compared to boys.

4.8.2. Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group for Genders

Experimental Group	N	X	SD	t	p
Boys	17	255,76	36,27		
				-1,113	,274
Girls	18	267,50	25,43		

(p > .05)

The significance level of the post-test reveals that still there is no statistically significant difference between the attitudes of the boys and the girls in the experimental group because the significance score is 0,274 (p > 0, 05). However, a closer look at the findings illustrate that the discrepancy between the mean scores of the girls and the boys is now smaller. That is, although the post-test findings do not confirm seventh hypothesis asserting a significant difference between the attitudes of the boys than the girls, they offer partial verification because the 19-point difference in the pre-test is

reduced to 12 point in the post-test. Furthermore, although the girls have a 30-point increase in their mean scores, the boys exhibited a 47-point increase.

4.8.3. Pre-test Scores of the Control Group for Genders

Control Group	N	X	SD	t	p
Boys	14	211,71	31,99		
				-3,450	,002
Girls	18	250,72	31,52		

(p < 0.5)

The pre-test scores of the control group indicated a significant difference between boys and the girls favoring the latter group since the significance score is 0,002 (p < 0,05). In order to find out whether studying the print versions of the talking picture books have created an increase in the attitudes of the boys as has been for the experimental group, the post-test scores of the control group was compared and the findings are summarized in the following table:

4.8.4. Post-test Scores of the Control Group for Genders

Control Group	N	X	SD	t	p
Boys	14	208,71	34,20		
				-2,479	,019
Girls	18	241,22	38,65		

(p < 0,05)

Table 4.8.4 indicates that the significant difference between the scores of the boys and the girls in the control group is still valid and it is still in favor of the girls. That is, studying the print versions of the stories has not created a favorable change in the attitudes of the boys. On the contrary, a closer look at the findings reveals that there is a

decrease in the mean scores of both the boys and the girls since the 0,002 significance level at the pre-test increases to 0,019 at the post-test.

In order to see the effect of the talking picture books on the attitudes, the pre- and post-test scores of the boys in both groups compared with Mann Whitney U-test and the findings are summarized in the following table.

4.8.5. Pre-test Scores of the Boys in the Experimental and Control Groups

Boys	N	X	Z	p
Experimental	17	16,91		
			-,615	,538
Control	14	14,89		

(p > .05)

The comparison of the pre-test scores of the boys in both groups indicates that there was no significant attitude difference before starting the implementation since the significance level is 0,538 (p < 0,05).

4.8.6. Post-test Scores of the Boys in the Experimental and Control Groups

Boys	N	X	Z	p
Experimental	17	20,76		
			-3,216	,001
Control	14	10,21		

(p < .05)

The comparison of the post-test scores displays a significant difference between the control and experimental group and the significance score is 0,001 (p < 0,05). This means that the insignificant difference between the attitudes of the boys valid in the pre-test do not exist anymore. Furthermore, a closer look at the findings reveals that the

mean score of the boys in the experimental group has increased while the mean score of the boys in the control group has decreased. In other words, studying the talking picture books have contributed to the positive attitudes of the boys in the control group. Yet, studying the print versions of these books has not created such an effect and, the mean scores of the boys in the control group display a decrease.

In order to explore whether the talking picture books have created an attitude change among the girls in both groups, the girls' pre and post-test scores were compared, as well and the findings are summarized below:

4.8.7. Pre-test Scores of the Girls in the Experimental and Control Groups

Girls	N	X	Z	p
Experimental	18	15,97		
			-1,440	,150
Control	18	21,03		

(p > .05)

The pre-test scores indicates that at the beginning of the study, there was no significant attitude difference between the girls in the experimental and the control groups since the data analysis reveals the significance level as 0,150 (p > 0,05).

4.8.8. Post-test Scores of the Girls in the Experimental and Control Groups

Girls	N	X	Z	p
Experimental	18	22,75		
			-2,422	,015
Control	18	14,25		

(p < .05)

As the table 4.8.8 above indicates, there is a significant difference between the post-test scores of the girls in both groups with a significance level of 0,015 ($p < 0.05$). This means that exposure to talking picture books has created a favorable change not only in the attitudes of the boy in the experimental group but attitudes of the girls in the same group has been effected positively, as well.

Briefly, the data drawn from the pre and post-test scores reveals that the exposure to talking picture books has created favorable attitude changes among the student in the experimental group. There have been significant increases in the students' love of English, interest in learning English, desire for and expectations from learning English and a significant decrease in their level of language anxiety. Furthermore, unlike the boys in the control group, the ones in the experimental group have experienced a positive attitude change towards English and the same thing applies for the girls in the experimental group. A comparison between the post-test scores of the boys and girls in the experimental group, on the other hand, yields that although there is not a significant difference between the scores of the genders, it is the boys whose scores indicate a greater increase compared to the girls indicating that boys benefited more from studying the talking picture books.

4.9. Excerpts from the Student Logs

As has been stated above, in order to see the reasons behind the students' reactions to the talking picture books, qualitative data acquired through the student logs for which students wrote their opinions and feelings about the lessons after finishing the study of each talking picture book. In order to encourage students to evaluate the lessons and comment on their feelings, they were provided four tittles to write about. These were, "I liked this lesson because…", "I didn't like this lesson because…", I did well in this lesson because…" and "I didn't do well in this lesson because…" respectively (see Figure IV below). Comments under these four titles were so positive and full of motivation that one could be sure that the first hypothesis of the study were already confirmed before analyzing the post-test scores in the SPSS 16.0. Below is the translations of some examples of student logs.

Bu dersi <u>SEVDİM</u> çünkü, (resim,bilgisayar, hikaye, alıştırma kağıtları ve öğretmen açısından değerlendiriniz.)	Bu dersi <u>SEVMEDİM</u> çünkü, (resim,bilgisayar, hikaye, alıştırma kağıtları ve öğretmen açısından değerlendiriniz.)
Bu derste <u>İYİYDİM</u> çünkü	Bu derste <u>İYİ DEĞİLDİM</u> çünkü

Figure IV.

The most frequently repeated comment was on the students' wish to continue learning English with talking picture books. Some of the examples are as follows:

Extract 1:

Bu dersi <u>SEVDİM</u> çünkü, (resim,bilgisayar, hikaye, alıştırma kağıtları ve öğretmen açısından değerlendiriniz.)
Dersler hep böyle olsaydı bilmediğimiz kelimeleri hem öğreniyorduk şarkılar son hikayelerdonak lımıza takılıyordu

I wish we always studied English lessons like this. We could immediately learn the unknown vocabulary by the help of the stories and the songs.

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Extract 2:

> Bu dersi <u>SEVDİM</u> çünkü, (resim, bilgisayar, hikaye, alıştırma kağıtları ve öğretmen açısından değerlendiriniz.) ☺
>
> Bu derslerde hikaye ler Çok güzeldi. Hikayeyi bilgisayarda izlemek Çok güzel. Bütün ingilizce dersleri böyle olsun. İngilizce dersini Çok seviyordum. Şimdi daha Çok seviyorum

The stories we used in these lessons were very good. Seeing the stories on the computer is very fun. I wish all English lessons were like this. I already loved English lessons. Now, I love it more. I was good at these lessons because we learnt English by seeing.

Extract 3:

> Bu dersi <u>SEVDİM</u> çünkü, (resim, bilgisayar, hikaye, alıştırma kağıtları ve öğretmen açısından değerlendiriniz.) ☺
>
> Bu dersi sevdim çünkü çok güzel bir dersti hemde bu derste çok güzel şeyler öğrendim bence Hikaye kitap tan değilde Hep birlikte okuyup dinlemek çok güzeldi. Heyecan verici bir dersmdu. Ben bu dersi o kadar çok sevdimki çünkü hem çok eğlenceliydi Hemde keşif verici bir dersti

I loved this lesson because it was very good. Also, I learnt useful things in this lesson. In my opinion, reading stories together on the computer is better than reading it from a book. It was exciting. I loved these lessons so much because they were both exciting and enjoyable.

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Extract 4:

> Bu dersi SEVDİM çünkü,
> (resim, bilgisayar, hikaye, alıştırma
> kağıtları ve öğretmen açısından
> değerlendiriniz.) ☺
>
> *Bu derste kullanılan hikayeler gerçekten çok güzeldi?
> *Derste böyle hikayeler kullanarak öğrenince derse motivasyonum artıyor
> *konuları bilgisayarda görsel olarak görünce daha çabuk öğreniyorum

I loved this lesson because it was very good. Also, I learnt useful things in this lesson. In my opinion, reading stories together on the computer is better than reading it from a book. It was exciting. I loved these lessons so much because they were both exciting and enjoyable.

Extract 5:

> Bu dersi SEVDİM çünkü,
> (resim, bilgisayar, hikaye, alıştırma
> kağıtları ve öğretmen açısından
> değerlendiriniz.) ☺
>
> Bu dersi çok sevdim böle ders işlese ilerde öretmen olurum. Eskiden çok kötüydüm şimdi iyiyim. Yıkayeleri bilgisayardan izleyince güzel oluyor Şarkılarda.

I loved the lesson very much. If the lessons were studied like this, I would be a teacher in the future. In the past, I was very unsuccessful but I am successful now. Watching the stories and the songs on the computers is very good.

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In following extracts, students explain why they consider themselves successful in the lessons:

Extract 6:

> Bu derste İYİYDİM çünkü ☺
>
> Dersler zevkli geçince insan dersi daha çok seviyor. Ve hergün olsa diye düşünüyor.

When the lessons are enjoyable, one loves the lessons more and wishes to have English lessons every day.

Extract 7:

> Bu derste İYİYDİM çünkü ☺
>
> Bu derslerin hep böyle olmasını çok istiyorum. Çünkü bu tür derslerde konulan daha iyi anlıyorum DERSLER HEP BÖYLE GEÇSİN.

I want to study English lesson in this manner because I can understand the lessons better. MAY THE LESSONS BE ALWAYS LIKE THIS.

Extract 8:

> Bu derste İYİYDİM çünkü ☺
>
> Bu derslerde projek siyondan izlediğimiz için derse katılmak için can atıyordum

Since we watched (the stories) on the projector, I was aching to participate in the lessons.

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Furthermore, the student logs provided information why students did not feel like participating in the lessons or did not seem interested in the talking picture books. See the following extract.

Extract 9:
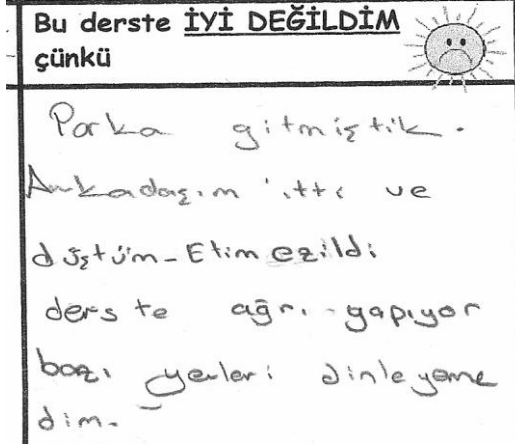
Bu derste **İYİ DEĞİLDİM** çünkü

Parka gitmiştik. Arkadaşım itti ve düştüm. Elim ezildi. derste ağrı yapıyor bazı yerleri dinleyemedim.

Since we watched (the stories) on the projector, I was aching to participate in the lessons.

Extract 10:

Bu derste **İYİ DEĞİLDİM** çünkü

iyi değildim Günkü evden acele çıkmıştım Kahvaltı yapamamıştım acitim
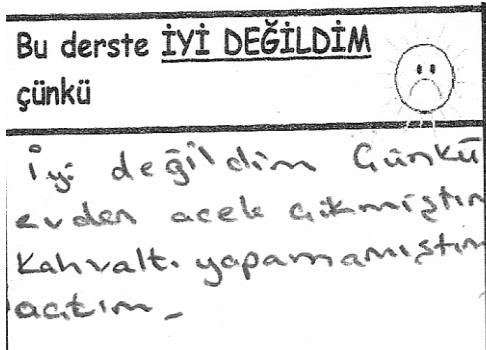
I was not good during the lesson because I left home in a hurry and could not have breakfast. I was hungry.

As is clear, the main idea of the extracts is the satisfaction and enjoyment felt while studying the stories on the computers, i.e. studying the talking picture books. These positive feelings were reflected on the post-test scores and the data analysis illustrated that there was a statistically significant attitude difference between not only the control and experimental groups' post-test scores but the pre and post-test scores of the experimental group, as well. Moreover, the student logs revealed that the reasons why students seemed unwilling or reluctant to participate in the lessons was not because they

were not interested in or did not enjoy the talking picture books but because of their personal problems such as hunger or pain.

4.10. Discussion on the Findings

Conducted to see the effect of talking picture books on the attitudes of young EFL learners, this study presupposes seven hypotheses. To be able to test out these seven hypotheses, data drawn from the administration of the attitude questionnaire was analyzed through the SPPS 16.0 and related tables were presented above. The following section, on the other hand, has been dedicated to the discussion of what these findings mean or whether they are in line with the hypotheses.

The first hypothesis of this study claims a significant difference between the attitudes of the experimental group studying the talking picture books and the control group who were exposed to the print versions of the same stories. The post-test scores of the experimental and control groups were analyzed and the total scores of the two groups revealed a significant difference in conformity with the first hypothesis. That is, studying the talking picture books contributed to the positive attitudes of the subjects in the experimental group.

The next four hypotheses asserts that there will be a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of their love of English, interest in learning English, desire for and expectations from English and level of language anxiety, respectively, favoring the experimental group. Data drawn from the related items of the attitude questionnaire was analyzed and presented in tables 4.3.1, 4.4.1, 4.5.1 and 4.6.1. All these four tables indicate a significant difference between the attitudes of the experimental and the control groups favoring the former one. When the insignificant difference between the two groups drawn from the pre-test scores was taken into account, it is more apparent that the exposure to the talking picture books generated positive attitudes towards English. Based on these findings, it can easily be claimed that the post-test scores of the two groups confirm the second, third, fourth and the fifth hypotheses. In other words, studying talking picture books increased the positive

attitudes of the subjects in the experimental group thereby creating a significant difference.

The sixth hypothesis of this study asserts a significant score between the pre and post tests scores of the experimental group. Data analysis exhibited that exposure to the talking picture books increased the positive attitudes of the subjects and there is a significant difference between the pre and post test scores which proves to be the confirmation of the sixth hypothesis.

The seventh hypothesis assumes that the attitude change following the exposure to the talking picture books will be greater for boys compared to the girls and related findings has been presented in section 4.8 above. At first sight, one can see that the difference between the scores of the girls and the boys in the experimental group is insignificant. However, a closer look at the results reveals that although the mean score of the boys are lower than the girls, it is boys' mean score that displayed a greater increase compared to that of the girls. Such kind of a result may stem from several reasons. Firstly, it can be asserted that a 8-week, 16-hour exposure was not enough for the boys to make up the difference to create a significant difference between the genders. Secondly, the talking picture books were presented through a LCD data projector and this did not give the boys, who are known for their keen interest in using technology (Kay, 2006; He and Freeman, 2009), the chance of interacting with the computers. Hence, if the boys in the study had had a chance to study the talking picture books by using their interface features such as clicking on arrows in order to follow the story, starting or stopping the story, they may have enjoyed the stories more and this may have created a significant difference confirming the second hypothesis (Haseltine, 2006; Lai and Kuo, 2007; Naba'h, Hussain, Al-Omar and Shdeifat, 2009). However, when the scores of the boys in the experimental group were compared to that of the boys in the control group, the positive effect of the talking picture books becomes more apparent since the initially insignificant difference drawn from the pre-test scores of the boys in two groups turns out to be significant in the post-test ensuing the exposure to the talking picture books. This means that talking picture books create positive attitudes among the boys and this verifies the seventh hypothesis.

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The data analyzed for the seventh hypothesis revealed the effect of the talking picture books on the attitudes of the girls, as well. The findings illustrated that although the boys gained more from studying the talking picture books than the girls in the experimental group, a comparison between the scores of the girls in the experimental and control groups demonstrated that the initially insignificant difference between the pre-test scores of girls in two groups becomes significant. Such kind of a result was due not only to the increase in the attitudes of the girls in the control group following the exposure to the talking picture books but also to the decrease in the attitudes of the girls in the control group after studying the print versions of stories.

Briefly, data drawn from the attitude questionnaire verifies the first six hypotheses. Concerning the seventh hypothesis, on the other hand, although the post-test scores of the boys and the girls in the experimental group do not yield a significant result, a closer look at the findings reveals that it is the boys' score that illustrates greater increase. Furthermore, the comparison of the post-test scores of the boys in the experimental group to the ones in the control group yields a significant score and this confirms the contributions of the talking picture books on the attitudes of the boys in the experimental group. Moreover, data drawn from the pre and post-test scores of the girls displays a significant difference between the scores of the girls in two groups favoring the experimental group. In short, it is apparent that talking picture books significantly contributed to the formation of positive attitudes towards learning English among the target group in this study.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter provides a concluding summary of the research and makes suggestions based on the findings of the data analysis.

5.1. Conclusion

This experimental study was conducted to explore the role of talking picture books on the attitudes of young EFL learners with two sixth grade classes at Samsun İlkadım İlyasköy Türk-iş Primary School. As a requirement of the experimental research designs, the two classes were assigned to the experimental and control groups randomly. The experimental group was composed of 35 students while the control group consisted of 32 students. Students in the former group were exposed to the talking picture books while the latter one studied the print versions of the same stories during a 8-week, 16-hour period. In both groups, the stories were studied in an integrative way.

Before starting the implementation, a pre-test was administered to both groups in order to see if there are any significant attitude differences towards English between the two groups. The pre-test findings illustrated that the two groups are quite alike each other in terms of the attitudes they hold for learning English with a significance level of 0,592 (p > 0,05) making it possible to launch the implementation. During the implementation, except for the use of the talking picture books, every activity, material and worksheet was totally identical. Following the 8-week instruction a post-test was administered to the control and experimental groups, and the hypotheses were checked out based on this data.

The analysis of the post-test scores yielded that studying talking picture books contributed significantly to the positive attitudes of the students in the experimental group and the statistically insignificant difference drawn from the pre-test scores disappeared. In order to get a more clear picture, the post-test scores of the both groups were compared to each other in terms of the love of English, interest in learning English

desire for and expectations from English and language anxiety, in the hypothesis from 2 to 5, and the results indicated a significant difference between the two groups in all four categories in conformity with the presupposition of these hypotheses.

The comparison of the pre and post test scores of the experimental group yielded results in full conformity with the fourth hypothesis since there was a considerable increase (p = 0,000 and p < 0,05) in the subjects' positive attitudes towards English.

Pertaining to the seventh hypothesis, although the comparison of the post-test scores of the boys and girls in the experimental group did not yield a significant result, since the boys' score exhibited a greater increase and the comparison of the post-test scores of the boys in the experimental group to that of the boys in the control group turned out to be significant favoring the ones in the experimental group; it can be claimed this hypothesis was verified, as well.

Briefly, it is clear that the use of talking picture books generated positive attitudes towards learning English and decreased the anxiety levels of the students. Furthermore, as the student logs indicated, students felt more motivated to participate in the lessons and stated that learning English became easier for them while studying these books.

5.2. Suggestions on the Use of Talking Picture Books and for Further Research
The findings of the current research indicated that the use of talking picture books significantly contributed to the students' positive attitudes towards learning English and hence, their implication in language classrooms can be suggested for several reasons.

Firstly, talking picture books provide animated visual input to the learners and this makes comprehension of the stories easier and more memorable for the learners. Besides, the animations and visuals used in these books include a sense of humor and hence, make learning fun. This, as the findings illustrated, lowers the affective filter of the learners and creates a more anxiety-free environment.

Secondly, talking picture books give the learners studying in a foreign language learning environment the chance of listening to the native speakers and hence, fine tune their pronunciation. Furthermore, apart from the human voice, sounds related to events and places are used and these give contextual clues to the learners as well as rendering the story more attractive and enjoyable.

Thirdly, talking picture books are attractive for the new generation of young learners since these children are already keen on using computers in their daily lives. Students can study these books at home and hence learning transcends the walls of the classroom and continues at home, as well. These books can be implemented to make the learners more autonomous since while studying the books, it is the student who decides on to move, go back, listen again or go through the pages.

Furthermore, talking picture books can be the source of numerous activities and can easily be used to offer the YLs the variety they are already in need of. Providing a meaningful context and audio-visual stimuli, these books can fruitfully be used in an integrative way which is in compliance with the preferences and cognitive capabilities of the YLs. Moreover, these books can help teachers who consider preparing materials for YLs difficult find readymade, attractive, and multi sensory materials.

As for further research concerning the implementation of the talking picture books, current research offers several ideas. Firstly, research can be conducted to see the effect of talking picture books on the four language skills. Another proposal can be the vocabulary retention since the talking picture books provide visual support for learning. Moreover, in order to see if there are any gender differences in the use of talking picture books, a study can be conducted at schools where there is a computer per capita. Furthermore, the role of parents' level of education and amount of income per month on the attitudes of young learners can be explored via comparing the scores of the children studying at a private school and a state school.

To sum up, current research indicated that talking picture books can increase the positive attitudes towards learning which in turn lead to motivation. They can be

implemented to make learning fun and more enduring, and last but not the least they can lower the affective filter if chosen properly. However, in order to get more comprehensive and valid findings, research can be conducted on learners at different ages or proficiency levels in order to see the effects of these books on different language skills or vocabulary learning/retention and to explore if girls and boys exhibit differing inclinations to use or learn from the talking picture books.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX – I

İNGİLİZCE DERSİ İLE İLGİLİ TUTUM ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıda İngilizce dersiyle ilgili çeşitli ifadeler verilmiştir. Bir ifadeye hangi oranda katılıyorsanız, lütfen onun altındaki sütunu "X" ile işaretleyiniz.

Verdiğiniz bilgiler İngilizce dersiyle ilgili istek, beklenti, sevgi, ilgi, merak ve kaygılarınızı belirlemede kullanılmakla birlikte bilimsel amaç taşımaktadır. Katılımınız için teşekkürler.

İng. Öğrt: Dilek YAZICI DEMİRCİ

Adı Soyadı: Sınıfı: Numarası:	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Çoğunlukla Katılmıyorum	Hiç Katılmıyorum
1. İngilizce çalışmaktan hoşlanırım.					
2. Arkadaşlarımla İngilizce çalışmayı severim.					
3. Boş zamanlarımda İngilizce çalışırım.					
4. İngilizce dersini severim.					
5. Arkadaşlarımla İngilizce konuşmayı severim.					
6. İngilizce öğrenmek gereklidir.					
7. İngilizce dersi sevilecek bir ders değildir.					
8. Mümkün olsa her gün İngilizce çalışırım.					
9. İngilizce öğrenmek çok zevklidir.					
10. İngilizce öğretmenimi çok seviyorum.					
11. İngilizce öğrenmek heyecan dolu bir maceradır.					
12. İngilizce dersine ilgi duyuyorum.					
13. İngilizce öğrenmek gereksiz ve anlamsızdır.					
14. Zayıf not alsam bile İngilizce dersine devam etmek isterim.					
15. İngilizce dersi önemli ve gerekli bir derstir.					
16. İngilizce dersi zamanımı harcamaktan başka bir işe yaramıyor.					
17. İngilizce konuşulan bir ülkede bir süre yaşamak isterim.					
18. İngilizce dersi zamanımı harcamaktadır.					
19. İngilizce dersine girmekten hoşlanmam.					
20. İngiliz yaşam biçimini merak ediyorum.					
21. İngilizce dersi zaman kaybından başka bir işe yaramıyor.					
22. Turistlerle İngilizce konuşmayı çok istiyorum.					
23. İngilizce dersine çalışmak hoşuma gidiyor.					
24. Hiçbir şey beni İngilizce öğretmekten vaz geçiremez.					
25. Ne kadar zor olursa olsun İngilizce öğretilmelidir.					
26. İngilizce dersinde çaba göstermek gerekir.					

	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Çoğunlukla Katılmıyorum	Hiç Katılmıyorum
27. Boş zamanlarımda İngilizce çalışmaktan hoşlanırım.					
28. İş hayatımda İngilizcenin faydası büyük olacaktır.					
29. İngilizceyi öğrenmek hayatımı kazanmada bana katkıda bulunacaktır.					
30. İleriki çalışmalarımda İngilizceye ihtiyaç duyacağım.					
31. İngilizce öğrenmeyi çok istiyorum.					
32. İngilizce dersi bir arada yaşamayı öğretir.					
33. İngilizce öğrenerek İngiliz arkadaşlar edinmek istiyorum.					
34. Gün geçtikçe İngilizcenin önemi artmaktadır.					
35. Geleceğim için İngilizce önemlidir.					
36. Yetişkin olduğumda İngilizceyi birçok yerde kullanacağım.					
37. Ödevlerimi yaparken İngilizce dersi bende bunalıma sebep oluyor.					
38. Ne zaman İngilizce çalışsam içimde bir rahatsızlık hissediyorum.					
39. Öğretmenimiz İngilizceyi öğretemiyor.					
40. Ezberim zayıf olduğundan İngilizce öğrenemiyorum.					
41. İngilizce dersinde dikkatimi toplayamıyorum.					
42. İngilizceyi bir türlü öğrenemiyorum.					
43. İngilizce dersinde okuma zorluğu çekiyorum.					
44. İngilizce dersinde başarısızım.					
45. İngilizce yazarken zevk almıyorum.					
46. İngilizce dersinde başarılı olamıyorum.					
47. İngilizce dersleri çok zordur.					
48. Okuma esnasında yaptığım hatalar beni olumsuz yönde etkiler.					
49. İngilizce konuşmaktan kaçınırım.					
50. Dil öğrenmeye yetenekli değilim.					
51. İngilizce ödevlerimi tek başına yapamıyorum.					
52. İngilizce dersleri çok sıkıcı geçiyor.					
53. İngilizce dersinde başarılı olmak imkansızdır.					
54. İngilizce dersi beynimi yoruyor.					
55. İngilizce dersi bana beceriksiz olduğumu gösterdi.					
56. İngilizce dersine başladığımızda başım ağrır.					
57. İngilizce sorulara cevap vermekten korkuyorum.					
58. İngilizce dersinin olduğu günler okula gitmek istemiyorum.					

APPENDIX – II

Bu dersi <u>SEVDİM</u> çünkü, (resim,bilgisayar, hikaye, alıştırma kağıtları ve öğretmen açısından değerlendiriniz.)	**Bu dersi <u>SEVMEDİM</u> çünkü,** (resim,bilgisayar, hikaye, alıştırma kağıtları ve öğretmen açısından değerlendiriniz.)
Bu derste <u>İYİYDİM</u> çünkü	**Bu derste <u>İYİ DEĞİLDİM</u> çünkü**

APPENDIX – III

Criteria for selecting storybooks

LINGUISTIC

- vocabulary
- level
- structures
- functions

  Is the language level appropriate? Not too easy? Not too difficult? Does the story contain language included in beginner syllabuses? For example, vocabulary, structures and functions? Will it provide pupils with a successful learning experience?

- pronunciation
  - rhyme
  - onomatopoeia
  - rhythm
  - intonation

  Does the story contain any features such as rhyme, onomatopoeia, rhythm or intonation that pupils will enjoy imitating and so improve their pronunciation?

- content/subject matter
  - relevant
  - interesting
  - amusing
  - memorable

  Will the story interest pupils? Is it relevant to their needs? Is it amusing? Is it memorable?

- visuals
  - use of illustrations
  - attractive/colourful
  - size
  - target culture

  Do the illustrations relate to the text and support the children's understanding? Are they appropriate to the age of the pupils? Are they attractive and colourful? Are they big enough for all the class to see? Do they depict life in the target culture?

PSYCHOLOGICAL

- encourage participation
  - repetition
  - prediction
  - develop memory
  - build confidence

  Is there any natural repetition to encourage participation in the text and to provide pattern practice, pronunciation practice, to recycle language items and develop memory skills? Does the repetition allow pupils to predict what is coming next in the story and to build up their confidence?

- motivating

  Will the story motivate pupils by drawing on their personal experience? Will it develop their imagination and appeal to their sense of humour?

- arouse curiosity

  Will the story arouse their curiosity and make them want to find out more about the target language and culture and language learning?

- create positive attitudes
  - target language
  - target culture
  - language learning

  Will pupils respond positively to the story and develop positive attitudes towards the target language and culture and towards language learning?

CULTURAL

- language/content
  - authentic
  - appropriate

  Is the language representative of what is spoken in the target culture? Does the story give any information about life in the target culture? Does it contain any obscure cultural references that may be difficult to understand? Is it too culture specific?

POTENTIAL FOR FOLLOW-UP WORK

Does the story provide a starting-point for related language activities and lead on to follow-up work such as drama or role-play to reinforce vocabulary and structures in a meaningful and memorable way?

EDUCATIONAL POTENTIAL

What is the learning potential of the story in terms of learning about other subjects, the target culture, the world and learning about learning?
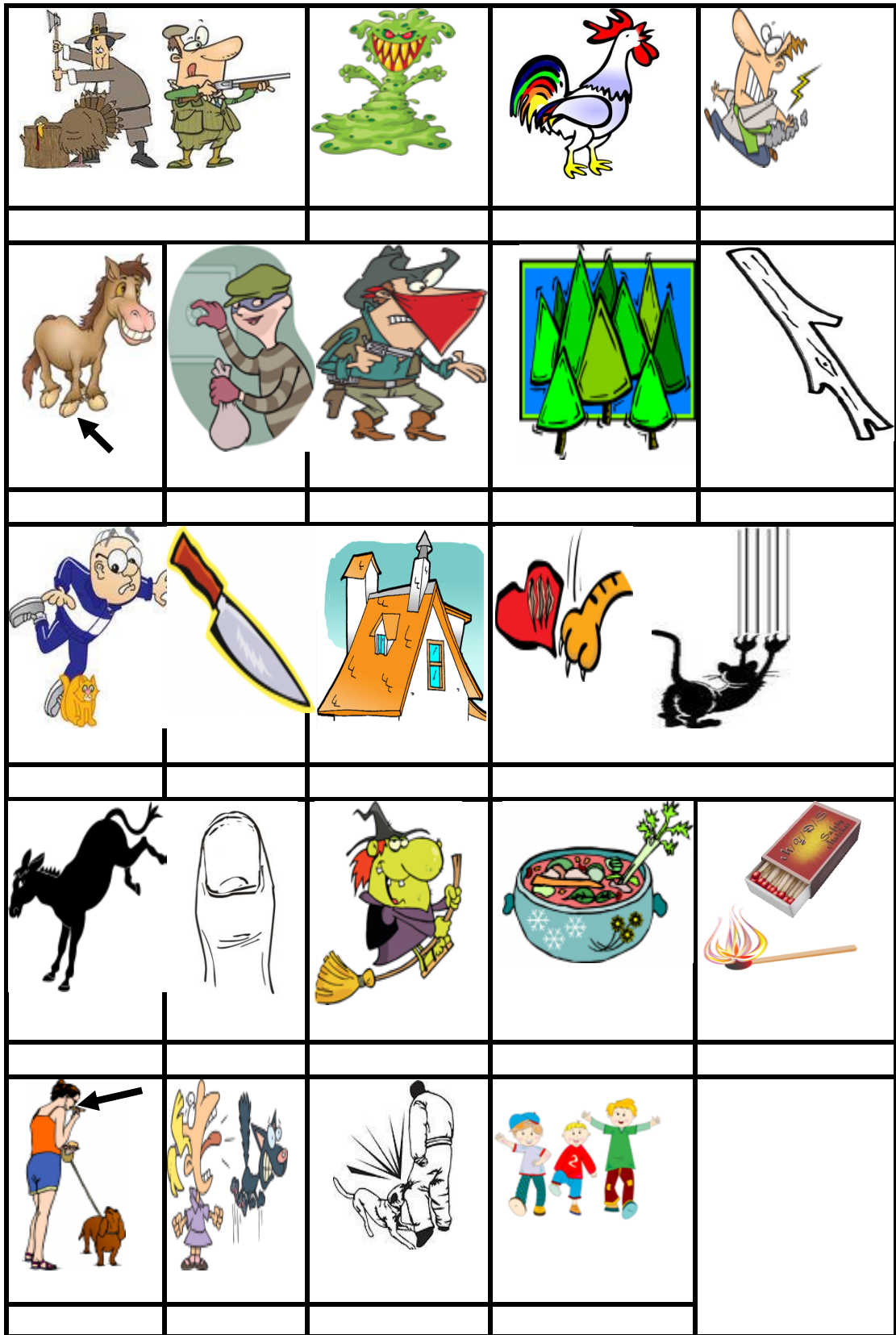
Order the sentences as you listen to the story.

☐   They all decide to escape from this place.

☐   The donkey kicks him.

☐   A donkey, a dog and a cat walk together.

☐   The town was very far.

☐   They stayed happily ever after in the house.

☐   It sees a group of bandits drinking and eating at a table.

☐   They begin to play their music.

☐   On their way, they come across a cock.

☐   The bandits think that some monster has come in.

☐   They stay in the forest.

☐   He trips over the dog

☐   They walk until they reach a house.
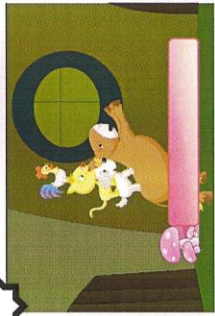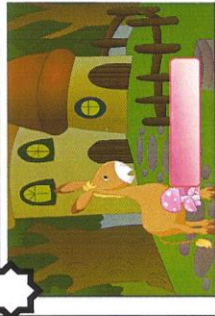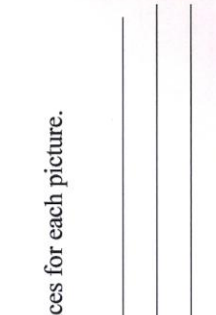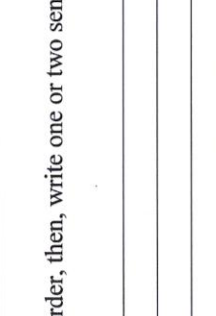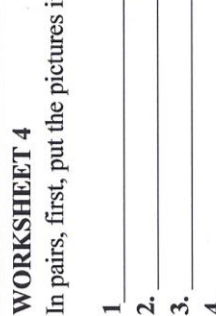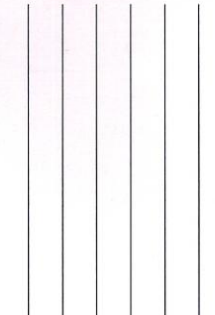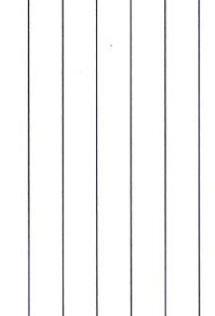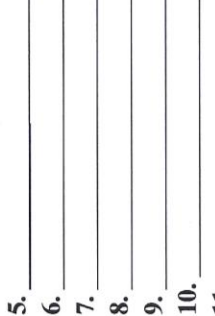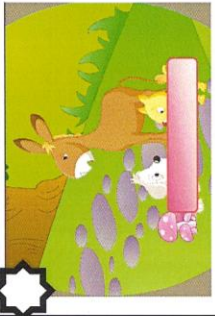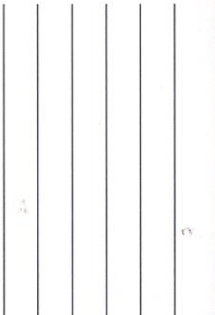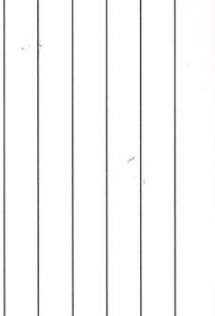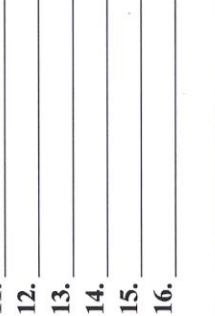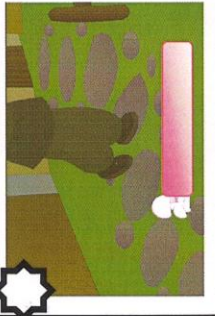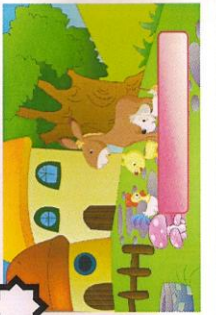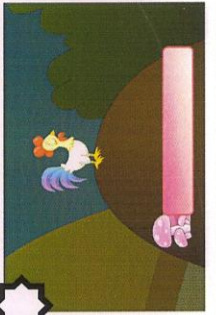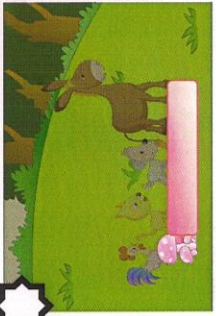
☺ LET'S PRACTICE VOCABULARY ☺

A) Match the pictures with words and fill in the blanks in pairs

- ☐ witches
- ☐ kick
- ☐ trip over
- ☐ bark
- ☐ companion
- ☐ monster
- ☐ forest
- ☐ chief
- ☐ look trough
- ☐ meow
- ☐ scratch
- ☐ stew
- ☐ flee
- ☐ neigh
- ☐ crow

1. The donkey_____ the bandit in the yard.
2. The animals stay in the _____ all night.
3. The cat_____ the man's face.
4. The cock _____ from the master because he wants to put it into the _____
5. Animals have different voices. Cats _____, dogs _____, cocks _____ and horses _____.
6. The man tells what happens to him to the _____ bandit.
7. At night, the man_____ the dog because he doesn't see the dog in dark.
8. The donkey_____ the window and sees the bandits eating.
9. The donkey, cock, cat and dog become _____
10. The bandits leave home because they think that there are _____ and _____ in it.

WORKSHEET 4

In pairs, first, put the pictures in order, then, write one or two sentences for each picture.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____

APPENDIX – V

The Lyrics of the Song

Ali Ba-ba, he has a little farm

On his farm, he has some little lambs,

"Baa baa" cries his little lambs

On the farm of Ali Ba-ba

Ali Ba-ba, he has a little farm

On his farm, he has some little cows,

"Moo Moo" cries his little cows

On the farm of Ali Ba-ba

Ali Ba-ba, he has a little farm

On his farm, he has some little pigs,

"Oink Oink" cries his little pigs

On the farm of Ali Ba-ba

APPENDIX – VI (Worksheets 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively)

Pull　woma　give　Tail　tomato

turnip　come　ready　mous

husban　trying　good　help　too

Once upon a time a farmer planted a turnip.

Farmer: Grow big and grow strong!

Wife: Humph! Every day he talks to that _____!

Farmer: At last! You are ripe. I am going to _____ you out. But the turnip would not move.

Farmer: Help me pull the turnip!

Wife: Pull harder!

Farmer: I'm pulling as hard as I can! But the turnip would not_____out.

Boy: What are you doing?

Farmer: We're _____ to pull this turnip.

Boy: Let us help you.

Dog: I'll pull the boy.

Boy: I'll pull the _____.

Wife: I'll pull my _____.

Farmer: And I'll pull the turnip. But still the turnip would not come out.

Dog: Hey! Come and _____ us!

Cat: What are you doing?

Dog: We're trying to pull this turnip!

Farmer: Okay, everyone! On the count of three.

Dog: Pull the tail! Ouch! Not so hard.

Farmer: One, two, three! The turnip moved just a little.

Farmer: Maybe we should just _____ up.

Wife: Maybe the turnip is _____ big.

Boy: Maybe the turnip is too strong.

Mouse: What are you doing?

Cat: We're trying to pull this turnip.

Mouse: Let me help you.

Others: You? A little _____?

Farmer: If we all work together, we can pull the turnip out.

Boy: Shall we try it one more time?

Wife: Is everyone _____?

Everyone: Ready!

Farmer: Come! Pull!

Wife: Harder! Heave ho!

Boy: I can feel it moving!

Dog: Ouch! My _____!

Cat: Stop moaning and pull!

Mouse: Oh, here it comes! We did it together!

Dog: We make a _____ team.

Farmer: I'm going to plant a _____ next. What do you think about that?

The mouse helps the others. They all pull and the turnip comes out.
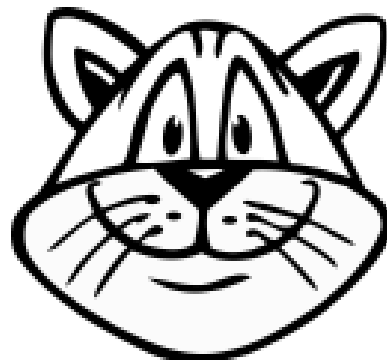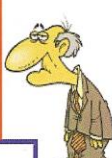
Poor - ill - short - big - heavy - difficult -large
hot - bad - old – cold - small - tired - young

1. Match the words with the pictures. 2. Make sentences using "TOO".

He can't lift the box because ____

_____

He can't run fast because_____

_____

She can't drink the coffee because

_____

_____

He can't swim because _____

_____
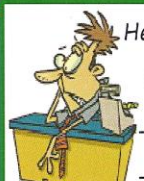
He can't buy these shoes because

He can't wear the T-shirt because

_____

He can't buy food because_____

_____

!!!0#*!! He can't solve the problem because

_____

_____

He can't do house-work because

_____

He can't go to work because

_____

He can't reach the shelf because

He can't go out today because

_____

_____

They can't go out alone at night because_____

_____

He can't wear this sweater because_____

_____

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APPENDIX – VII

LET'S LEARN NEW WORDS ☺

BOTTOM — GET BORED

LUCK → LUCKY — CHORE

MOW — LAWN — LAWNMOWER

LAWNMOWER

LAWN

FIX — POLISH

FORT — TRUCK

BEACH

SANDCASTLE

SANDCASTLE

BEACH

Two COBS OF CORNS

BARBECUED MEAT

BARBECUE

COB

SUNSET

CAMPFIRE

CAMPFIRE

SCARY

SCARED

ROAST MARSHMALLOW
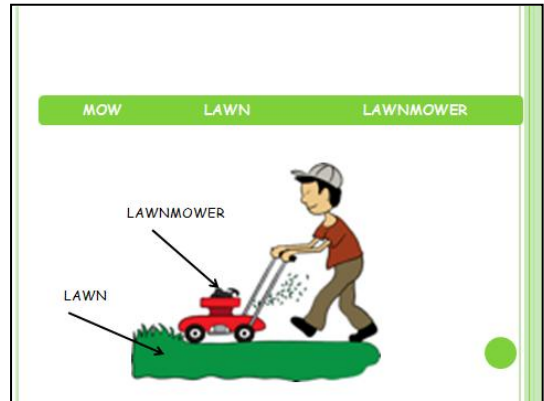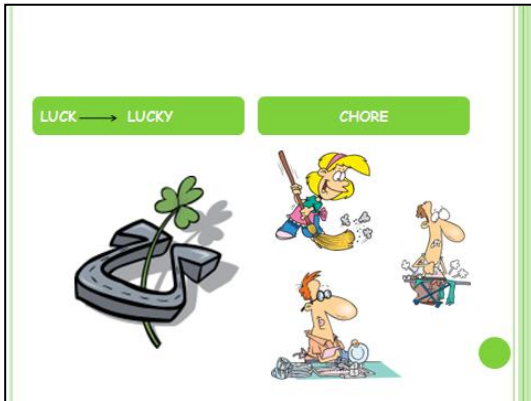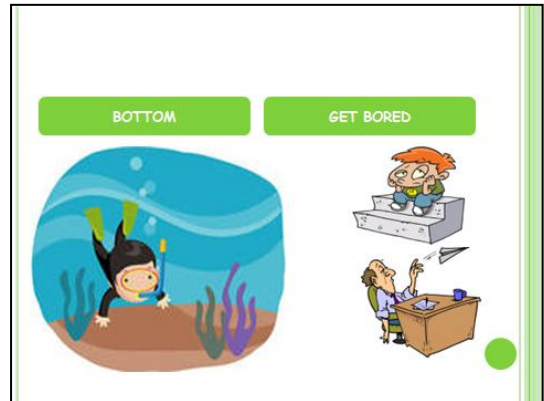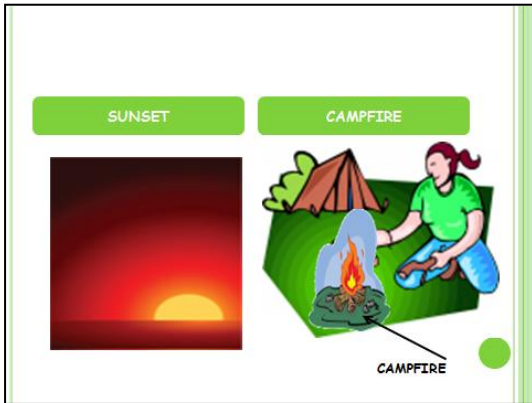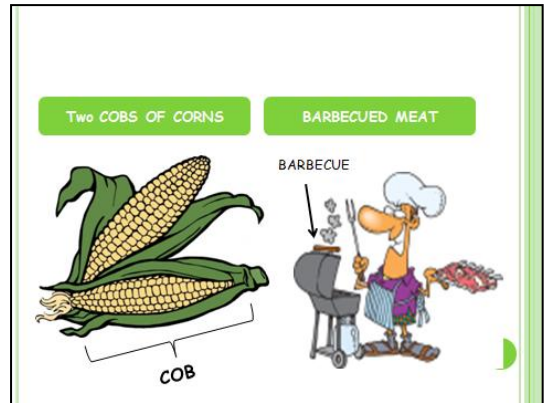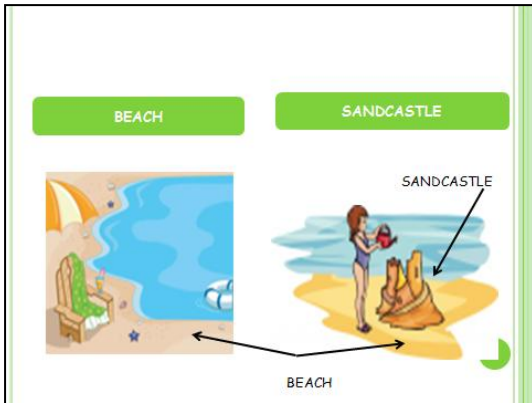
Sandcastle – fix – cobs of corn – scary – get bored – barbecue –

lucky – lawnmower – campfire – fort – chore – roast –

scared – polish – truck – bottom – sunset – beach
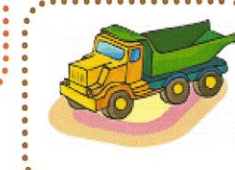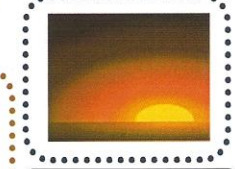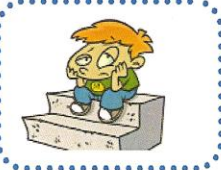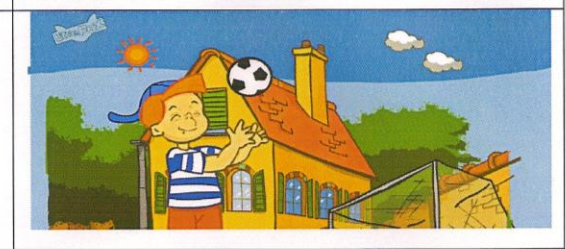
What will he do ?

A) Look at the pictures and write what he will do.

What will he do in the morning?	What will he do with his friends?
What will they do on the beach?	What will they do at five o'clock?
What will his grandpa do?	Where will they play?
What will he do?	What will he do?

WHAT WILL HAPPEN?

COMPLETE THE SENTENCES WITH "WILL" OR "WON'T".

1. I expect the train _____ be very crowded.

2. Our teacher is ill, so she _____ be at school next week.

3. Nick _____ pass his French test. He doesn't work hard

4. We haven't got any money, so we _____ go on holiday this

5. Take your umbrella, or you _____ get

6. Put on your coat or you _____ catch a cold.
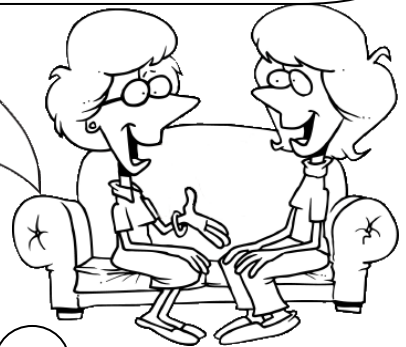
7. _____ there be many people at John's party?

8. I don't think the journey to London _____ be very

9. Take some sandwiches. There _____ be a restaurant car.

1. I'm afraid you _____ catch your train. It's already two o'clock.

1. Your English is very good. I'm sure you _____ pass the English test.
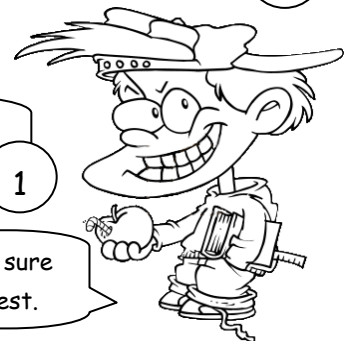
WILL I BE RICH?

PUT THE VERBS IN BRACKET IN THE FUTURE TENSE.

One day you 1)_____ (be) a successful man. You 2)_____ (not be) famous, but there 3)_____ (be) many interesting people in your

1

4)_____ (be /

2

I'm not sure. Maybe you 5)_____ (be) rich one day and maybe you

3

7)_____ I always _____ (live) in

4
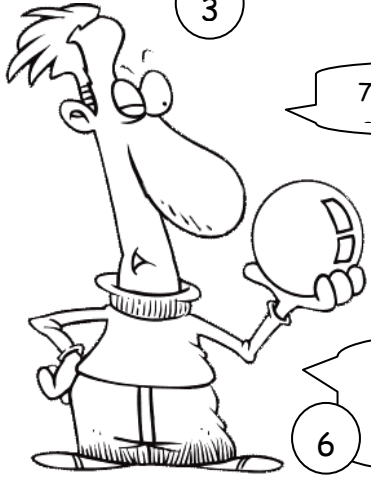
I don't know. Maybe you 8)_____ (live) in another country.

5

I hope it 9)_____ (be) England. My English is terrible. That reminds me, Madame X, what 10)_____ the questions _____ (be) in our

6
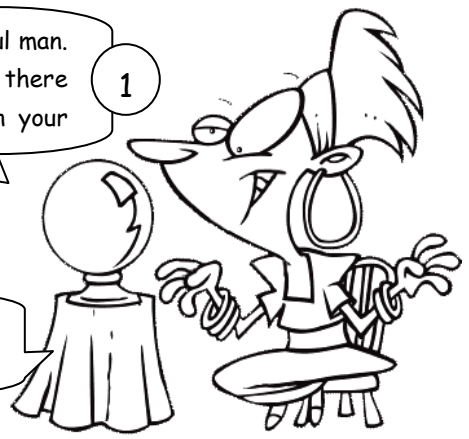
We use Future Simple to inform others about some future action or

AFFIRMATIVE FORM	NEGATIVE FORM	INTERROGATIVE FORM
I will …	I won't …	Will I … ?
You will …	You won't …	Will you … ?
He/she/it will …	He/she/it won't …	Will he/she/it …
We will …	…	Will we … ?

Ask questions to your pair and fill in the blanks in your chart.
You can use questions like
- **What will s/he do on _____?**

	SUNDAY	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY
Jack	do shopping			do the ironing
	SUNDAY	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY
Mary	go jogging		have a haircut	

Ask questions to your pair and fill in the blanks in your chart.
You can use questions like
- **What will s/he do on _____?**

	SUNDAY	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY
Jack		Read newspaper	Work on a report	
	SUNDAY	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY
Mary		do yoga		meet friends

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APPENDIX – IX

The Lyrics of the Song

Oh a hunting we will go

A hunting we will go

We'll catch a fox

Put him in a box

And then we will let him go

Oh a hunting we will go

A hunting we will go

We'll catch a fish

Put him on a dish

And then we will let him go

Oh a hunting we will go

A hunting we will go

We'll catch a pig

Dance a little jig

And then we'll let him go.

| Squirrel | Rake the leaves | Carve a pumpkin |

| Pile of leaves | Pick apples |
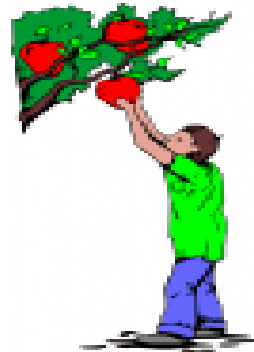
Let's write dialogues!
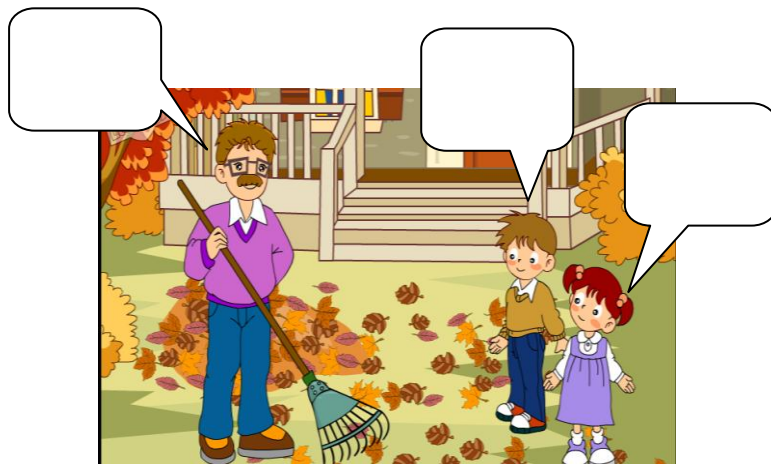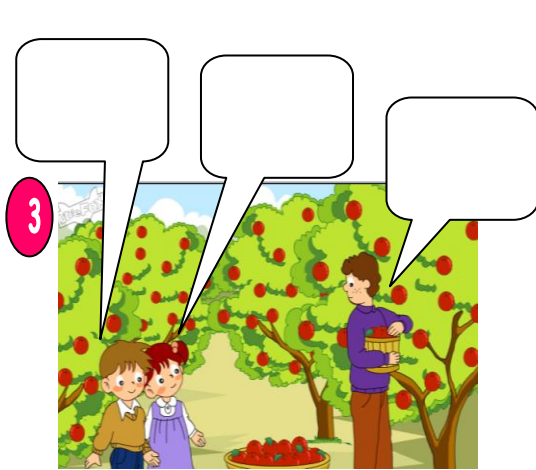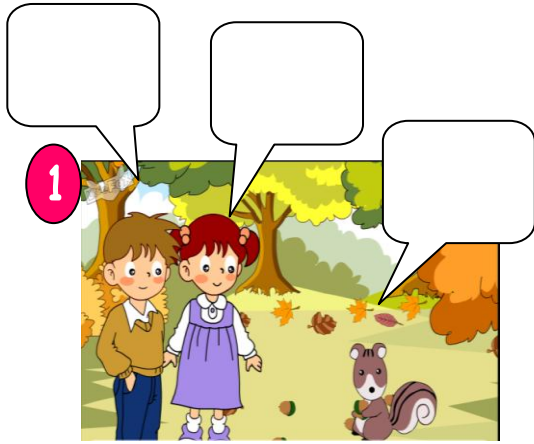
What are they doing?

2. Is he taking a shower?

_____

_____

1. Is he painting the wall or the door?

_____

_____

3. What are they doing?

_____

_____

4. Is she riding a horse?

_____

_____

5. What is he doing?

_____

_____

6. Is he reading a book?

_____

_____

7. What is he doing?

_____

_____

8. What is he doing?

_____

_____

9. What is she doing?

_____

_____

10. What is he doing?

_____

_____

11. What is he doing?

_____

_____
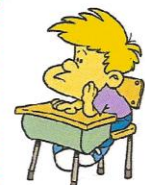
12. What're they doing?

_____

_____
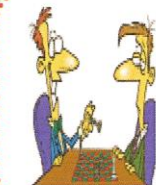
Let's Write !

Do shopping – read a book – sing a song – use the computer – ride a bike
play the guitar – fly a kite – have dinner – talk on the phone
watch TV – drink tea – drive a car – play golf – eat chocolate – brush teeth

I'm driving in a car, I'm driving in a car
I'm driving in a car, I'm driving in a car

Over the _____
Through the trees
Travel the world
And the seven seas
I'm sailing on a ship, I'm sailing on a ship
I'm sailing on a ship, I'm sailing on a ship
I'm _____ on a ship
I'm driving in a car and

Over the mountain
Through the trees
_____ the world
And the seven seas

I'm travelling on a train, I'm travelling on a train
I'm travelling on a train, I'm travelling on a train
I'm travelling on a _____
I'm sailing on a _____
I'm driving in a car and
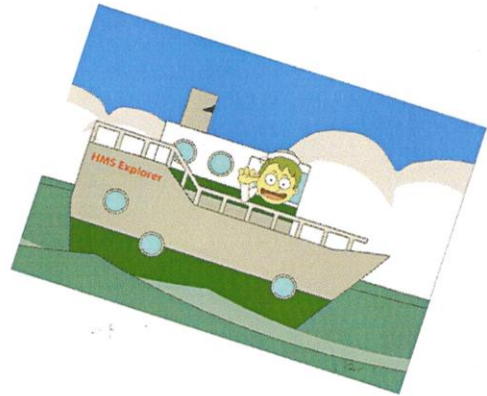
Over the mountains
Through the _____
Travel the world
And the seven _____
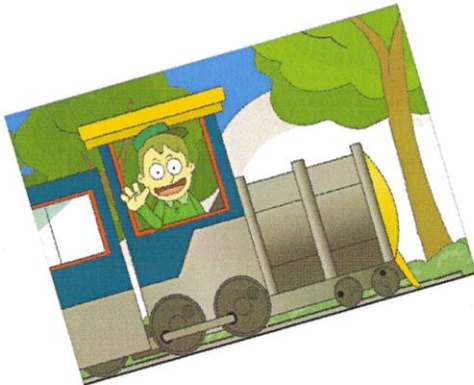
I'm riding on a horse, I'm riding on a horse
I'm riding on a horse, I'm riding on a horse
I'm _____ on a horse
I'm _____ on a train
I'm sailing on a ship
I'm _____ in a car and

Over the mountains
Through the trees
Travel the world
And the seven seas
_____ the mountains
Through the trees
Travel the world
And the seven seas

from http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/
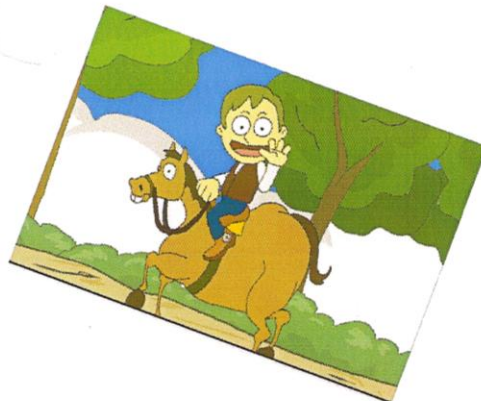
Let's
practice ☺

Choice1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4
100	100	100	100
200	200	200	200
300	300	300	300
400	400	400	400
500	500	500	500

He is riding a horse

What is he doing?

Row 1, Col 1

He is swimming.

What is he doing?

1,2

He is drawing a picture.

What is he doing?

1,3

She is cooking.

What is she doing?

1,4

She is making a cake.
She – make a cake (+)

2,2

They are riding a horse.
They – ride a horse (+)

2,1

We are having a party.
We – have a party (+)

2,3

It is drinking milk.
It – drink milk. (+)

2,4

You aren't listening to music.
You – listen to the teacher. (-)

3,1

She isn't writing a report tonight.
She – write a report tonight. (-)

3,2

They aren't planning to eat out.

They – plan to eat out. (–)

3,3

You aren't studying Maths now.

You – study Maths now.

3,4

Is your father coming home early tonight?

Your father – come home early tonight (?)

4,1

Is she talking on the phone?

She– talk on the phone (?)

4,2

Are they going on a holiday?

They – go on a holiday (?)

4,3

Are we visiting our grandparents?

We – visit our grandparents (?)

4,4

She is studying English.

Is she studying English or German.

5,1

They are going to the cinema?

Where are they going ?
(cinema)

5,2

I am answering the questions.

What are you doing?
(Answer the questions)

5,3

He is buying fruit and vegetables?

What is he buying?
(fruit and vegetables)

5,4