REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

LEXICAL AND SYNTACTICAL MODIFICATIONS IN TEACHER TALK OF NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS IN EFL CLASSROOMS

Arzu ÜNEL

MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA/2014

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ÖZET

İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN SINIFLARDA ANA DİLİ İNGİLİZCE OLAN VE OLMAYAN ÖĞRETMENLERİN KONUŞMASINDAKİ SÖZCÜKSEL VE SÖZDİZİMSEL DEĞİŞİKLİKLER

Arzu ÜNEL

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı
Danışman: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Meryem MİRİOĞLU
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İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen sınıflardaki sınıf dili, öğretmenlerle öğrenciler arasındaki iletişimin özünü oluşturur. Bu bağlamda, öğretmen konuşması sınıf dilinin doğasını anlamada önemli bir rol oynar. Krashen'in dilsel girdi hipotezine göre, öğretmen konuşması aynı zamanda öğrencilerin dil ediniminde önemli bir dilsel girdi kaynağı oluşturur (Krashen, 1981). Dilsel girdinin anlaşılabilir kılınması için öğretmenler sözcüklerinde, söz dizimlerinde, konuşma hızlarında ve söylemlerinde değişiklik yapabilirler. Dolayısıyla bu çalışmanın amacı başlangıç ve orta öncesi seviyelerinde ders veren ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan öğretmenlerin konuşmalarında herhangi bir sözcüksel ve sözdizimsel değişiklik yapıp yapmadıklarını keşfetmek ve eğer sözcük ve sözdizimlerini değiştiriyorlarsa ne tür değişiklikler yaptıklarını ortaya çıkarmaktır. Çalışma aynı zamanda, başlangıç ve orta öncesi seviyelerde olan sınıflarda gerçekleşen öğretmen konuşmasında herhangi bir sözcüksel çeşitliliğin olup olmadığını araştırmayı da amaçlar. Çalışma, Türkiye'de, Çağ Üniversitesi'nde sekiz İngilizce okutmanının (ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan) ses kayıtları ve onlarla yapılan anket ve görüşmeler kullanılarak gerçekleştirilmiştir. Nicel verileri analiz etmek için Antconc 3.2.1 programı, Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner's English sözlüğü ve SPSS 17.0 programı kullanılmıştır. Verilerden elde edilen bulgular, çalışmanın nitel tarafını oluşturan görüşme sonuçları ile birleştirilmiştir. Verilerin sonuçları, başlangıç ve orta öncesi seviyelerde ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan öğretmenlerin konuşmalarında sözcüksel ve sözdizimsel değişiklikler yaptıklarını ortaya koymuştur. Sözcüksel değişikliklerle alakalı olarak her iki seviyede de sözcük sayılarında, farklı kullanılan sözcüklerde, farklı sözcük sayısının toplam sözcük sayısına

oranlarında ve en sık kullanılan 100 içerik kelimesinin İngilizcedeki kullanım sıklığında farklılıklar olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Sözdizimsel değişikliklere gelince, bu değişiklikler cümle başına düşen sözcükten, fiil türlerine, fiil kiplerine, etken ve edilgen fiillerden, "olmak" fiiline, yan cümleciklerden cümle türlerine kadar değişiklik göstermektedir. Her değişiklik istatistiki olarak anlamlı farklılıklar oluşturmasa da, çalışmanın bulguları ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan öğretmenlerin konuşmalarındaki sözcüksel ve sözdizimsel değişiklikliklerin öğrenenlerin seviyesine bağlı olarak değiştiğini göstermektedir. Sözcük zenginliğine gelince, ilginç bir şekilde her iki seviyede de, ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan öğretmenlerin konuşmalarında herhangi bir sözcüksel çeşitlilik gözlenmemiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce, Öğretmen Konuşması, Sözcüksel Değişiklikler, Sözdizimsel Değişiklikler, Anlaşılabilir Dilsel Girdi.

ABSTRACT

LEXICAL AND SYNTACTICAL MODIFICATIONS IN TEACHER TALK OF NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS IN EFL CLASSROOMS

Arzu ÜNEL

Master Thesis Dissertation, English Language Teaching Department
Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Meryem MİRİOĞLU
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Classroom language in EFL classrooms consists the core of communication between teachers and learners. Teacher talk plays a central role in understanding the nature of classroom language in this respect. According to Krashen input hypothesis, teacher talk also constitutes an important source of comprehensible input for the language acquisition of the learner (Krashen, 1981). To make the input comprehensible, teachers may make modifications in their vocabulary, syntax, rate of speech or discourse. Accordingly, the aim of this study is to discover whether native and non-native speakers of English make any lexical and syntactical modifications in their teacher talk at elementary and pre-intermediate levels and to try to find out what kind of lexical and syntactical modifications they make if they modify their lexis and syntax during their speech. This study also aims to probe whether there is a lexical variety in teacher talk of native and non-native speakers of English in elementary and pre-intermediate level classrooms. The study was carried out with 8 EFL instructors (both NSs and NNSs) at Çağ University in Turkey using their audio-recordings and conducting a questionnaire and an interview. Antconc 3.2.1 Programme, Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner's English Dictionary – Fifth Edition and SPSS 17.0 Programme were used to analyse the quantitative data. The findings of the data were incorporated with the results of interviews forming the qualitative part of the study. The results of the data revealed that native and non-native speakers of English made lexical and syntactical modifications in their teacher talk at elementary and pre-intermediate levels. Regarding lexical modifications, there were differences in word tokens, word types, type token ratios and dictionary frequencies of 100 most frequently used content words at both levels. As for syntactical modifications, they ranged from words per

sentence, types of verbs, verb moods, voice of verbs (passive and active verbs), the verb "be", subordinate clauses to the types of sentences. The findings of the study also demonstrated that the lexical and syntactical modifications in teacher talk of native and non-native speakers at both levels depended on the proficiency level of the learners although not all of these modifications formed a statistically meaningful difference. As for lexical richness, interestingly, no lexical variety was observed in the speech of native and non-native speakers of English at both levels.

Keywords: English as a Foreign Language, Teacher Talk, Lexical Modifications, Syntactical Modifications, Comprehensible Input.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

TT : Teacher Talk

FT : Foreigner Talk

NS : Native Speaker

NNS : Non-Native Speaker

ESL : English as a Second Language

EFL : English as a Foreign Language

ELT : English Language Teaching

TEFL : Teaching English as a Foreign Language

TTR : Type-Token Ratio

MLU : Mean Length of Utterance

WPM : Words per Minute

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

‘‘Language is the dress of thought.”
Samuel Johnson

Language is one of the phenomena that has served humanity giving meaning to its life all over the years. While a language shapes what people think and opens the way to express their ideas and thoughts to a great extent, learning another language urges learners to use their minds more actively and helps them gain another soul enlargening their perspectives. Also, its effect of raising awareness towards life cannot be ignored, especially in this rapidly changing global world that we need to keep up with.

Due to the need for increasing demands of globalization, the importance of learning a foreign language has risen rapidly. Strategies, learning styles, curriculums, sources of language learning and language learning environment have been revised. When language learning environment is examined, it has been observed that most people learn a foreign language in classrooms where learners are often exposed to target language. In this sense, classroom language becomes a focal point of research.

Classroom language consists of the language of learners and teachers. The kind of language used by the teacher for instruction in the classroom is known as *teacher talk* (TT). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* defines teacher talk as “that variety of language sometimes used by teachers when they are in the process of teaching” (Richards, 1992, p.472).

Ellis (1985b) has expressed his own view about teacher talk: “Teacher talk is the special language that teachers use when addressing learners in the classroom. There is a systematic simplification of the formal properties of the teacher’s language…” (p. 145).

Ellis (1985b) also remarks “the language that teachers address to learner is treated as a register, with its own specific formal and linguistics properties” (p.145). On the other hand, Chaudron (1988) proposes that theoretical attention to comprehensible

input and formal instructions has lead to substantial amount of research on L2 teacher speech, frequently referred to as “teacher talk” (p.8).

When these definitions are taken into account, it can be put forward that teacher talk in foreign language classrooms is regarded as “one special variety of the English language, so it has its own specific qualities and style which other varieties do not share” (Xiao-Yan, 2006, p.5). Secondly, teacher talk has another purpose of communicating with students, developing students’ foreign language proficiency and aiding to learn as Chaudron (1988) pinpoints. It is also very important to try to understand the nature of classroom speech to define the characteristics of teacher talk. Thirdly, teacher talk is particularly important to language teaching (Cook, 2000, p.144). Teachers transfer their knowledge and skills, manage classroom activities and help students practice through teacher talk. Also, Nunan (1991) adds:

> Teacher talk is of crucial importance, not only for the organization of the classroom but also for the processes of acquisition. It is important for the organization and management of the classroom, because it is through language that teachers either succeed or fail in implementing their teaching plans (p.189).

It can be inferred that the language of teachers helps both the management of the classroom and the goal of teaching. Teacher talk is also significant since it is the major source of comprehensible language input that the learner is likely to receive in a formal classroom setting. Hadley (1994) emphasises the importance of the teacher talk by explaining:

> Teacher talk is another type of listening material that contributes to the acquisition of the language… It tends to consist of a simplified code, characterized by slower, more careful articulation, the more frequent use of known vocabulary items, and attempts to ensure comprehension via restatements, paraphrases, and nonverbal aids to understanding (p.175).

To summarize, good teacher talk is a kind of interactional input with the modifications in the classroom aiming to improve learning comprehension during language learning process.

Input also plays a critical role in the language learning process. Teachers affect the language produced by the learners. In Krashen's view, learning only takes place by means of a learner's access to comprehensible input. "Humans acquire language in only one way - by understanding messages or by receiving comprehensible input. Learning will occur when unknown items are only just beyond the learner's level" (Krashen, 1985, p.2).

It is also vital to know how teachers could know whether their input is enough for learners' comprehension and how they could make their input comprehensible. To clarify, Krashen (1985) demonstrates two ways: utilization of the context by learners when linguistic resources are not enough for immediate decoding and simplified input that can be made available to the learner through one-way interaction including listening to a lecture, watching television, reading and two-way interaction occuring in conversations. Krashen (1985) focuses on the idea that two-way interaction is a particularly good way in terms of providing comprehensible input since it gives the learner an opportunity to get additional contextual information and optimally adjusted input when meaning has to be negotiated because of communication problems.

Krashen (1985) also comments that the input, which is totally incomprehensible to learners, is not likely to lead to learning. In this sense, teacher talk functions as the main sources of input of the language exposure in classroom learning, especially in foreign language classrooms. Therefore, teachers should try to make their input as comprehensible as possible. This is partly due to Krashen's hypothesis about *comprehensible input* and statements such as: "... the defining characteristic of a good teacher is someone who can make input comprehensible to a non-native speaker regardless of his or her level of competence in the target language" (Krashen, 1982, p.64). Furthermore, while trying to communicate with learners or making input comprehensible, teachers often simplify their speech, giving it many of the characteristics of teacher talk and other simplified styles of speech directed at language learners (Richards, 1992, p.471).

1.2. Statement of Problem

One of the areas of interest in foreign language classrooms is *teacher talk*. A considerable amount of research has been done in this area. Most studies have been carried out in order to try to understand the nature, characteristics and structure of

teacher talk. These studies have also been used to shed light on various aspects of teacher talk in EFL context. However, there are few studies conducted with regard to comparison of modifications in teacher talk of both native and non-native speakers of English in Turkey.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

This current study attempts to focus on lexical and syntactical modifications in teacher talk of native and non-native speakers of English in classrooms where the target language is English. Due to the rare studies on such kind of modifications of teacher talk, it is hoped that this study may fill this gap and provide some insights into efficacious English teaching practices.

1.4. Research Questions

1. Do native and non-native speakers of English modify their lexis while interacting with non-native learners in EFL classroom settings? If any, what kind of lexical modifications do native and non-native speakers of English make in their teacher talk for elementary and pre-intermediate level class learners?
2. Do lexical modifications in teacher talk of native and non-native speakers of English change according to the proficiency level of the learners?
3. Is there any lexical variety in teacher talk of native and non-native speakers of English in elementary and pre-intermediate level classrooms? If so, what kind of varieties can be seen in terms of lexis?
4. Are there any syntactical modifications made by native and non-native speakers of English while addressing non-native learners of English with elementary and pre-intermediate proficiency level? If any, what kind of syntactical modifications are made during teacher talk of native and non-native speakers of English towards elementary and pre-intermediate learners?
5. If there are any syntactical modifications in teacher talk of native and non-native speakers of English, do these modifications in teacher talk depend on the level of the learners?

1.5. The Structure of the Thesis

The thesis consists of five chapters that will be separated as follows:

Chapter One introduces the conception of teacher talk, background to the study and the purpose of the study.

Chapter Two puts forward the related studies on teacher talk. It reviews the literature and discusses the features of TT, types of modifications during the speech of the teacher, second language acquisition and input. It also envisages the related theory that would be involved in the study.

Chapter Three reveals the research design, subjects, methods, instrumentation and data collection. Following Chapter Three, Chapter Four comprises the analysis of the data and results.

Finally, Chapter Five summarizes the findings obtained from the data and suggests some possible implications.

1.6. Limitation of the Study

This study is based on the modifications of just four native and four non-native speakers of English during their speech to non-native learners in English language classrooms in a university in Turkey. The involvement of eight teachers is too small of a figure with regard to studies involving greater number of participants. Moreover, this study covers primarily lexical and syntactical modifications in TT. Hence, it does not enlighten all perspectives of teacher talk. In the present study, no attempts and claims are made to generalize these modifications in TT for any language classrooms in which English is taught as a foreign language. Therefore, more thorough and detailed investigation is required for further studies.

1.7. Operational Definitions

Teacher Talk: The language used by teachers while addressing their students.

Foreigner Talk: A simplified version of a language that is used by native speakers when addressing non-native learners.

Type: The number of unique word forms, rather than the total number of words in a text.

.

Token: The number of individual words in the text.

Type-Token Ratio: The ratio obtained with the division of the types occurring in a text or utterance by its tokens.

Content Word: A word, such as a noun, verb, or adjective, that has a statable lexical meaning, rather than indicating a syntactic function.

Function Word: A word, such as a preposition, a conjunction, or an article, that has little semantic content of its own and chiefly indicates a grammatical relationship.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Teacher Talk

The studies on language learning have made an enormous impact on the study of the classroom environment that facilitates communication and enables different kinds of interaction between teachers and learners. Cullen (1998) elucidates the necessity of distinction between the world outside and the classroom stating that classroom is unique on its own with its rules and conventions. Besides, Gaies (1983) defines classroom research as the study of communication in the classroom. When we examine recent studies on classroom conversations, it can be easily seen that studies of some researchers such as Wright (2005), Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005) and Seedhouse (2004) mainly concentrate on the features of classroom interaction between teachers and learners and the language that teachers use during interaction. Therefore, it is essential to understand the notion of teacher talk in the classroom environment, a significant area for us to study.

While Xiao-Hui (2010) defines teacher talk as “an instrument of implementing teaching plan” (p.46), Ellis (1994) focuses on the difference between teacher talk and other kinds of talk stating "the teacher talk is to address language learners in the classroom differently from the way which addresses other kinds of classroom learners by making modifications in form and function to promote interaction between learner and teacher" (p.726).

Besides the functions of speech in a foreign language or second language learning process in terms of communication and interaction, it may have various kinds and input adjustments for L2 learners depending on the situations that are conducted. In this sense, teacher talk and foreigner talk are subjects open to disputation. Foreigner talk seems “a variety of the language that is considered as mainly suitable for addressing foreigners” (Ferguson & Debose, 1977, p.103). It can also be defined by Ferguson (1971) as "a register of simplified speech… used by speakers of a language to outsiders who are felt to have very limited command of the language or no knowledge of it at all" (cited in Brulhart, 1986, p.29).

On the other hand, some linguists have used teacher talk and foreigner talk interchangeably due to the fact that they consider these terms as the forms of the same register. Whereas Hatch (1983) remarks "this register has sometimes been called 'foreigner talk' and/or 'teacher talk.' (though it is not limited to language teachers nor is it spoken by foreigners) " (p.64), Hallett (2000) puts forth that TT can be distinguished from FT in terms of the functions and circumstances of their use (p.28).

This distinction based on the fact that TT is more grammatical (Cazden cited in Ivanova, 2011, p.8) in correlation with the studies that have demonstrated ungrammatical use of FT. It can be deduced that while the speech that NSs use with non-native learners in natural conversation is defined as foreigner talk, the speech used by teachers in a classroom environment is referred to as teacher talk. In this sense, teacher talk differs from foreigner talk as being the variety of language that teachers use when they are in the process of teaching (Sinclair & Brazil, 1982).

Along with the definition and function of teacher talk and its differentiation from other types of talk, the features of teacher talk are very significant. Some studies (Chaudron, 1982; Downes, 1981; Griffiths, 1990; Hakansson, 1986; Henzl, 1973, 1979; Mannon, 1986) have concentrated on finding characteristics and features of teacher talk and its effects on L2 learners' comprehension and learning.

In addition, teacher talk has mainly two features. While the first feature focuses on the form of teacher talk such as pauses, speed, repetition and modifications, the second feature stresses the characteristics of the language that teachers use to organize and control classes and the quality and quantity of teacher talk (Xiao-yan, 2006).

2.2. Krashen's Input Theory

Understanding teacher talk necessiates looking into language acquistion and input. In that sense, the concepts of *nature* and *nurture* consist of the core of second language acquisition. While *nature* means that learners learn the language innately, *nurture* presumes that the development of the language is stimulated by the environment while learners are in a process of interaction (Doughty and Long, 2003). Many researchers (Hatch, 1983; Krashen, 1982; Long, 1981) have pinpointed that SLA is also built upon learners' getting comprehensible input. It is obvious that acquisition occurs when learners are exposed to language input that correlates with their level of proficiency. It is beyond doubt that one way of acquiring a second language is through

simplified input or speech adjustments. Gaies (1983) makes a comparison of the classroom language of the teachers at different levels and highlights that teacher talk is roughly tuned to the learners' language proficiency. He (1983) also suggests that these findings supporting classroom input may facilitate acquisition (p.207).

Krashen (1981) highlights teacher talk as an important source of comprehensible input for the language acquisition of the learner. He (1982) emphasises that learning takes place by means of the learner's access to comprehensible input. He (1982) also states that comprehensible input involves "a language that contains structures that are 'a little beyond' our current level of competence (i+1), but which is comprehensible through our use of context, our knowledge of the world, and other extra linguistic cues directed to us" (p.21). When "i+1" structure is examined, "i" stands for learners' current linguistic competence and "1" represents the items that learners intend to learn. The Input theory also has two corollaries (Krashen, 1985):

> Corollary 1: Speaking is a result of acquisition, not its cause; it emerges as a result of building competence via comprehensible input.
>
> Corollary 2: If input is understood and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided. The language teacher need not attempt deliberately to teach the next structure along the natural order - it will be provided in just right quantities and will automatically review a sufficient amount of comprehensible input (p.2).

In correlation with corollaries, Krashen (1983) believes that listening and reading are primarily important, and the ability to speak or write will come automatically. He emphasises the significance of teacher talk aiming at providing comprehensible input. He asserts "we are not only giving a language lesson, we may be giving the best possible language lesson since we will be supplying input for acquisition" (Krashen and Terrell, 1983, p.35).

In addition to second language, speaking a foreign language also promotes acquisition in which the acquirer has control over the topic, and the teacher tries to implement activities that are natural, interesting and understood for the classroom. Krashen (1981) and Pica (1994) also put forward that Krashen's Input Hypothesis affects the communicative approach in language teaching by noting "the need for teacher-student and student-student interaction on an equal level rather than traditional

'teacher-fronted format' or communicative methods which allow the more communicatively students to dominate" (pp.180-181).

Once and for all, in order to understand the central role of modified input in second language acquisition to a great degree, it is necessary to know what modifications native and non-native speakers of English typically make when communicating with non-native learners.

2.3. Linguistic and Interactional Modifications

Researchers have focused on the modifications of the input to non-native learners in different ways in written or spoken mode (Ellis, 1985b) as a result of increasing attention to comprehensible input in classroom instructions**.** The effects of modifications on second language acquisition, what teacher talk requires and how modified input aids to learning are also other areas that scholars have emphasised. When the role of comprehensible input is highlighted, it is also beneficial to take the target of modification (what is modified) into account as Urano (2000) signifies (p.3). The studies that have dealt with the nature of classroom speech have tried to depict what is modified and the characteristics of the modifications such as vocabulary, syntax, speech rate, discourse, measures of subordination and markedness and sentence type distribution by comparing teacher talk of NSs and NNSs towards non-native learners.

Besides, Gass (2003) mentions the modifications in linguistic level stating "speech tends to be slower; intonation is often exaggerated; syntax tends to be simpler (e.g., two sentences instead of single sentence with a relative clause); lexical items tend to be simpler. (often reflecting more frequent words in a language) " (p.230). Chaudron (1988) suggests the following modifications in teacher talk in language classrooms:

1) Rate of speech appears to be slower.
2) Pauses, which may be evidence of the speaker planning more, are possibly more frequent and longer.
3) Pronunciation tends to be exaggerated and simplified.
4) Vocabulary use is more basic.
5) Degree of subordination is slower.
6) More declaratives and statements are used than questions.
7) Teachers may self-repeat more frequently (p.85).

In consistent with Chaudron (1988), Owen (1996) investigates modifications in teacher's speech according to the proficiency level of the students by utilizing a research that includes two groups of students instructed in an EFL classroom at a college of Further Education in the United Kingdom. He (1996) concludes that especially for more competent students, teacher:

1) increased the amount of her teacher talk (TT);
2) reduced the amount of time and opportunities for more able students to speak;
3) used a more complex lexical content for her group teacher talk;
4) increased significantly the use of polysyllabic words in both types of TT;
5) inserted more receptive pauses used primarily as comprehension aid;
6) reduced the number of productive pauses thereby reducing the opportunities for the students to speak;
7) used quicker speech rates;
8) increased the use of question tags;
9) decreased the use of imperatives (p.48).

When Owen's study is analysed and the results are taken into account, it demonstrates that teachers modify their speech at linguistic level according to the proficiency level of the students.

2.4. Phonological Features of Teacher Talk

Rate of speech, one of the phonological features of teacher talk has been probed in the studies related to foreign and second language learning. Its significant role of affecting communication and interaction between teachers and non-native learners of a language have also been examined (Chaudron, 1982; Derwing, 1990; Griffiths 1990). Especially, second language acquisition literature demonstrates a number of studies (Dahl, 1981; Henzl, 1973, 1979; Hakansson, 1986; Steyaert, 1977; Mannon, 1986) focusing on teacher talk to reveal whether teachers modify their speech rate when interacting with non-native learners. When such studies are examined, the rate of speech in teachers' speech is found to be slower compared to the rate of speech in other circumstances.

While there are some conducted studies (Griffiths, 1991; Derwing, 1990) in contrast with the widely popular recognition of the decrease in speech rate in teacher talk towards non-native learners of English, Mannon (1986) emphasises the importance of the rate of speech while interacting with non-native learners and finds a slower rate of speech towards them in a lecture. In his study, a linguistics professor gives the same lecture to a class that consists of native speakers and to a low-intermediate level L2 class that is academically adjusted. The professor speaks at 122.97 words per minute to the class of native speakers and at 112.26 words per minute to non-native learners.

Ishiguro (1986) also highlights a comparison between the rate of speech of NS teachers and NNS teachers directed to non-native learners of English in a classroom environment. Nine NNS teachers and NS teachers were included in the study. When the speech rate of teachers towards non-native learners at three different levels is investigated, important differences are observed.

While NSs speak at 111.49 wpm, 106.73 wpm, and 97.53 wpm towards advanced, intermediate and beginning non-native learners respectively, NNSs use the same rate of speech towards non-native learners at three different levels. The speech rate of NNSs does not show any differences among the language proficiency levels. In other words, the study shows variations and important differences across levels for only NSs teachers, not for NNSs.

In another study (Steyaert, 1977) supporting the necessity of modifications in teachers' rate of speech towards different learners, six practicing teachers are required to tell a story twice to native speakers and intermediate ESL learners. Their mean rate of speech is calculated as 152.28 words per minute (wpm) while narrating a story to non-native learners and 160.68 wpm to native speakers on the first narration of the story. On the second narration of the story, mean rate of speech is 150.65 wpm to non-native learners and 164.13 wpm to native speakers. This shows an important difference in the speech rate of teachers. It can be deducted from this study that NS teachers envisage that they need to modify their speech rate towards different learners: native speakers and non-native learners.

Henzl (1979) also puts forward that NS teachers tend to modify their rate of speech when narrating stories to less proficient listeners of the target language. In a storytelling task, teachers who are provided with two picture sequences narrate the stories to both non-native learners and native speakers. During implementation of this task, teachers are observed to change their rate of speech according to language

proficiency level of non-native learners of English. NSs of Czech, English, and German respectively tell stories to advanced non-native learners of the target language at 78 wpm, 152.4 wpm, and 126.7 wpm. On the other hand, they decrease their speech rate to 54.1 wpm, 107.6 wpm, and 99.5 wpm when they tell the stories to beginner non-native learners of the target language. When compared with teachers' rate of speech towards non-native learners, it is noted that the teachers have increased their rate of speech to 118.2 wpm (Czech), 203.8wpm (English), and 137.6 wpm (German) when narrating the stories to native speakers. Only one teacher, a German teacher, speaks faster towards non-native speakers rather than native ones (p.163).

To sum up, besides the studies (Mannon, 1986; Ishiguro, 1986; Steyaert, 1977), the findings of Henzl (1979) reveal that NS teachers are inclined to modify their speech especially by decreasing their speech rate addressing non-native learners.

One of the studies of Chaudron (1982) investigating the vocabulary explications of high school and university teachers in ESL classrooms reveals that teachers show a tendency to divide their speech with longer pauses while uttering difficult words. Besides the studies of Chaudron (1982) and Henzl (1973, 1979) proposing more and longer pauses to non-native learners, Wesche and Ready (1985) also find out that the English professor in their studies pauses notably longer when interacting with non-native learners. Additionally, Downes (1981) compares NS and NNS teachers' speech towards non-native learners and he suggests that NS teachers use longer pauses in their speech compared with the pauses in the teacher talk of NNSs.

2.4.1. Articulation of Segments, Pitch, Intonation, and Stress

When teachers' articulation of the speech segments towards non-native learners is observed in the studies of Henzl (1973), Downes (1981) and Mannon (1986), it is seen that less vowel redundancy, fewer contractions and fewer consonant cluster reductions are the main determinants of clear articulation. While Henzl (1973) notes that teachers use less vowel redundancy and fewer consonant cluster reductions to L2 students, Downes (1981) proposes that 100% of NS teachers show an exaggerated articulation in their L2 classrooms. In addition, Mannon (1986) observes more careful articulation, less reduction and fewer contractions with auxiliary verbs to non-native learners (37% versus 86% in teacher talk to native speakers) during the lecture in linguistics.

While Downes (1981) does not find any exaggerations in the intonation of teachers to L2 learners and does not observe any significant differences in the loudness of teachers' speech directed to native and non-native learners, Hatch (1983) pinpoints different intonations and higher pitched talk in teachers' speech addressing learners. Henzl (1973) suggests that NS teachers of Czech speak louder, but slower and use more standard and literary pronunciation towards non-native learners. Chaudron (1982) also reveals an increasing final intonation and noticeable stress in several teachers' speech to non-native learners.

2.5. Discourse Features of Teacher Talk

In order to understand the role of modified input in a foreign or secondary language learning environment, it is essential to know what modifications native and non-native speakers typically make when interacting with learners. It demonstrates that while the core of information on teacher talk has increased steadily, there is "still a need for the description of many aspects of linguistic input and interaction in SLA and for research on variables related to each" (Long, 1980, p.62). In that sense, discourse modification is one of the most prominent features of teacher talk illustrating interactional aspects of the speech in the classrooms in which dialogue and communication between teachers and learners constitute the major part of learning.

Many researchers have also focused on the interactional adjustments made by NSs when talking to non-native learners so as to aid comprehension of learners and to convey the message of communication (Early, 1985; Hamayan & Tucker, 1980; Long, 1981; Pica & Long, 1986). Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975) are among the pioneer language researchers to take the role of conversation into account during the development of second language learning.

In addition, Long (1980) clarifies the notion of conversational structure showing differences between NS/NNS conversations and NS/NS conversations. He (1980) puts forward that it is necessary to investigate the interactional structure itself rather than focusing on just simple native speaker modifications. He (1980) also proposes that conversations between NS/NNS show a greater amount of interactional modification when compared with interactional structures in NS/NS conversations.

When the discourse modifications in foreign and second language classrooms have been examined, it is essential to look into the devices employed by the teachers so

as to facilitate the interaction and communication between teachers and learners. Repetition is one of the most striking devices in the analysis of L2 and foreign language classroom discourse. Though the function of repetition has not been established yet, Wong-Fillmore (1985) highlights the success in language learning through repetition. Wesche and Ready (1985) state that both their French and English professors use considerably more words in their self-repetitions while lecturing in their L2 classrooms than they do in their L1 classrooms. Early (1985) notices that ESL teachers use significantly more (about seven times as many) self-repetitions in their teacher talk in comparison with the teachers interacting with native speakers of English. Ellis (1985a) counts the same teacher's self-repetitions at two times with two adolescent ESL students in an interactional class environment, and he (1985a) reveals an important decrease in frequency over the six-month period of observation.

As Lin (2005) pinpoints, self-repetition may facilitate learners' comprehension by giving them more time to process the input besides providing information about the form and the content of the input. Therefore, it can clearly be stated that repetitions used by teachers as modifications may improve comprehension of the learners during the language learning process.

Another device used by teachers during interaction with learners is questions. Questions constitute a major part of the communication in L2 classrooms as White and Lightbown (1984) propose. It can be deduced that questions draw the attention of the learner to participate and sustain the conversation. In addition to this, questions determine the topic and the turn of the speaker by making the communication easier (Long,1981; Long&Sato, 1983). Long and Sato (1983) also concentrate on three kinds of questions: comprehension checks, confirmation checks and clarification requests. Among these three kinds of questions, comprehension checks are observed more frequently in ESL classrooms because of the teacher's role of transferring his language knowledge to the learners that have limited language proficiency (Stubbs, 1983).

Since teacher talk is very different from the other types of speeches in terms of presenting different kinds of information for a variety of activities in a classroom environment, it includes a high percentage of utterances such as certain speech acts: informing, explaining, defining, questioning, correcting, commanding and requesting.

Directives, the last device employed by teachers to analyse the modifications of discourse is one of the illocutionary speech acts that can be crucial to the learners who have low proficiency levels in the target language. As Ekasing (1991) puts forth, "They

very often require only a non-verbal reaction which is easy for learners who do not have a good command of the target language to respond verbally" (pp.29-30). In parallel with this, a significant increase has been observed in the use of imperatives by an English-speaking professor when communicating with non-native learners during a lecture in the target language (Wesche and Ready, 1985). Finally, the directives used in classrooms play a key role in managing the classroom, controlling student's behaviour, maintaining discipline and arranging learning activities (Ellis, 1980).

While some TT studies (Ellis, 1985a; Kleifgen, 1985) have revealed that teachers adjust their speech towards non-native learners via communication devices, such as confirmation and comprehension checks and clarification requests, there are no important differences that have been observed in NS-NNS interactions (Wesche and Ready, 1985). Furthermore, comprehension and confirmation checks and clarifications do not show significant differences when measured at different times (Ellis, 1985a).

Above all, it is apparently obvious that interaction is a significant notion for EFL and ESL teachers. Interaction with teachers enables learners to get more input and more opportunities to understand and use the language.

2.6. Lexical Features of Teacher Talk

It is not too difficult to observe the reflections of modifications in teacher talk in the vocabularies that teachers choose. Henzl (1973, 1979) claims that NS and NNS teachers tend to use a more basic and stylistically neutral set of vocabulary items in their narratives told to non-native learners. Henzl (1979) also reports that in foreign language classrooms, chosen vocabularies are generally based on fewer idioms, fewer indefinite pronouns, more general words, less colloquial, more concrete and proper nouns to make the input comprehensible to their learners.

Mizon (1981) lists the vocabularies produced by NSs and NNSs. When she compares the results, the results are similar in terms of using more proper nouns, less varied content and function words. Although some similarities are assumed between the teacher talk of NSs and NNSs in terms of lexical modifications, the differences must also be taken into account. Chaudron (1982) observes one native speaker of English talking to both native and non-native learners on the same subject. Based on Chaudron's observations, the teacher uses high frequency vocabulary while addressing non-native

learners (“hold on very tightly” instead of “clinging”) with the consciousness of the necessity of shifting his vocabulary to more basic ones.

Type-token ratio is also one of the key indications in lexical modifications illustrating vocabulary variation in TT. To obtain TTR (type-token ratio), types (the total number of different words) in a text or in a speech are divided by its tokens (the total number of words). The range changes between 0 and 1. Researchers may refer type-token ratio as percentages, multiplying the ratio by 100. Whether TTR is expressed in the range differing from 0 to 1 or in terms of percentages, a high TTR illustrates a high degree of lexical diversity.

Youmans (1990) puts forward that type-token ratio is analysed in the studies ranging from “freshman compositions to childhood acquisition of language" (p.4). However, it has been occasionally examined in teacher talk in a classroom environment. Therefore, while there are some studies focusing on the significance of lexical modifications in TT especially towards non-native learners, it is not difficult to observe some studies that have not suggested lexical richness. Wesche and Ready (1985) suggest no noticeable difference in TT to both native and non-native learners in terms of lexical diversity. On the other hand, whether or not studies support lexical modification in TT according to the proficiency level of the learners, it is necessary to examine the definition of type prior to analysis of teacher talk through type-token ratio. Kucera and Francis' definition (1967) of distinct word type is “a word (type) is any distinctive, continuous string of alphanumeric characters (including hyphens and apostrophes but excluding other punctuation) that is preceded and followed by a space” (cited in Youmans, 1990, p.3).

Following lexical variation or lexical variety in TT determined by TTR and the definition of type and token, Chaudron (1988) expresses that the simplicity of vocabulary may be also measured through TTR (number of different words to number of produced, the smaller the ratio, the less diverse).Westin (2002) states:

> A high type/token ratio recorded for a text indicates that many different lexical items are used which, in turn, means that a high proportion of the words will have a specific meaning. A low ratio, on the other hand, shows that few specific words are used while the more general ones are frequent (p.77).

While type-token ratio can be evaluated through the proportion of the number of different words to the number of produced ones in total TT, it is also possible to figure out this ratio for both content and function words as Mizon (1981) finds out in the reports of her findings including type-token ratios of a L2 and a British teacher. The ratios for L2 teacher are 7 and 7.5 for function and content words respectively. On the other hand, the ratios counted for L1 British teacher are 2.3 and 4.3.

In addition to type-token ratio, some studies (Mizon, 1981; Kliefgen, 1985) have used a "token-type" to show lexical variations in TT. Token-type ratio is calculated by division of the number of tokens by the number of types. In these studies, higher ratios demonstrate lower degree of lexical diversity and TTR "1" illustrates the highest degree of diversity.

Kleifgen (1985) calculates type-token ratios of teacher talk (also token-type ratio) in an ESL classroom to four kindergarten children, three of whom are non-native learners of English and one of whom is native speaker of English. Type-token ratio in the speech directed to the native speaker of English (2.07) shows greater lexical variety than type-token ratio in the speech addressing two of the non-native learners (2.73).

Although TTR ratio depends on being a native speaker of the language or non-native learner of the language, it may show variances with regard to addressees' different proficiency levels. Chaudron (1988) exemplifies it by explaining the averages of TTR for NS child (1.5), advanced NNS learners (1.7), beginner NNS learners (2.5) with the overall means (p.73). Accordingly, vocabulary simplification of the teacher is not so disputable for lower-level learners with the basis of observations demonstrating less variety with beginner non-native learners. On the other hand, it may remain open to discussion for advanced learners.

2.7. Syntactic Features of Teacher Talk

At syntactic level, words per utterance and words per T- unit can be measured with regard to length of the sentences. When words per sentence are used as a measurement of sentence length for both addressees, native and non-native learners, shorter sentences to non-native learners are noticed in teachers' speech (Henzl, 1973, 1979; Hakansson, 1986). Additionally, it is also observed that the rate of the words per sentence changes according to the level of L2 learners by increasing the rate of length of utterance for advanced learners.

Along with the length of the sentences, proportion of the subordination and its frequency in TT show complexity in syntax. The analysis of the frequency of the subordinate clauses in Henzl's study (1973, 1979) illustrates teacher's tendency to use fewer subordinate clauses to non-native learners. Gaies (1976) emphasises a similar trend regarding increasing rate of different kinds of subordinations (noun, adjective and adverb clauses) in correlation with the proficiency level of the learners while Chaudron (1979) proposes this variation just for relative clause.

The effects of teachers' modifications in their speech towards less proficient learners cannot be also ignored in terms of measures of verbs, grammaticality and sentence type distribution (e.g., declarative forms, interrogatives, and imperatives). The studies that have compared the measurement of markedness of the verbs in TT to the learners who have lower level of English proficiency demonstrate a higher rate of verbs in simple present tense than the verbs that are marked for non-present tense (Long and Sato, 1983).

Wesche and Ready (1985) examplify it in their studies addressing native and non-native learners in a university. They report that their native-like professor has used more tensed verbs rather than non-finite verbs to non-native learners and he has not preferred to use conditionals. It is also observed that the same professor has used fewer non-present tense towards non-native learners.

Wesche and Ready (1985) also highlight less inflectional complexity and lack of passive constructions in English-speaking professor's speech addressing non-native learners. Moreover, Henzl (1979) reports that conditionals are avoided in NS teacher's interaction with non-native learners.

Despite the fact that the ungrammaticality in the speech of a teacher such as deletion of copula, function words, auxiliaries, determiners, subject and object pronouns can be frequently noticed (Kleifgen, 1985; Hakansson, 1986; Downes, 1981), teachers generally try to use grammatical and well-formed sentences when they direct their speech to non-native learners (Henzl, 1973).

Other studies (Downes, 1981; Hakansson, 1986; Henzl, 1979) have revealed that grammaticality is observed in teacher's speech towards non-native learners. In addition, Kliefgen (1985) supports that ungrammatical forms in TT to learners decrease when the learners' language proficiency progresses.

Length of utterances is another syntactical modification that shows conflictions because of inconsistency of the findings and different measurements to analyse such as

MLU (mean length of utterance), words per sentence or the length of T-unit. Steyaert (1977) reveals that there is no noticeable difference in terms of length of utterances although teachers prefer to use shorter utterances to non-native learners. Another inconsistency regarding findings of syntactical modifications has been observed in the studies of Wesche and Ready (1985). While they compare T units in teacher talk of English-speaking professor and French-speaking professor towards native speakers and non-native learners, they find no important differences in teacher talk of French-speaking professor to native speakers and non-native learners.

On the other hand, when the length of utterance is measured by words per sentence, some studies (Henzl,1979; Hakansson, 1986) have provided data concerning the idea that teachers use shorter sentences in their speech to non-native learners than they do towards native speakers. Hakansson (1986) examines whether the length of the sentences in participating teachers' talk has changed over periods of time. He (1986) pinpoints that mean words per sentence in teachers' speech to non-native learners show an increasing trend. This rate is lower compared to the mean words per sentence directed to native speakers. According to these findings, teachers prefer shorter utterances when interacting with less proficient learners and they enhance the length of their utterance over time.

Moreover, Henzl (1979) reveals that the number of words per sentence towards native speakers averages 19 words. However, the length of utterance addressing advanced learners is 10.1 while the length of utterance to beginners is measured as 5.8 words.

In addition, MLU (mean length of utterance), another way of measuring length of utterance is a focal point in Kliefgen's (1985) study addressing kindergarten children. The shortest MLUs (3.18 words) in teacher talk are directed to a NNS child who has the lowest language proficiency level. However, the longest MLUs (5.27 words) are observed in the teacher's speech to a native speaker child.

Next syntactic adjustment in teacher talk towards non-native learners is the use of sentence types such as declaratives/statements, interrogatives and imperatives. Mizon (1981) highlights higher proportion of interrogatives and declaratives in the teacher talk in an ESL classroom compared to the proportion of these sentence types in teachers' speech directed to NSs. Significant differences in the distribution of these sentence types have been observed in the studies of Pica and Long (1986) aiming to measure these sentence types in different conditions. Early (1985) also reveals that declaratives,

interrogatives, and imperatives that teachers use while addressing native speakers and non-native learners demonstrate important variations.

Pica and Long (1986), Steyaert (1977) and Wesche and Ready (1985) examine syntactic subordination in teacher talk by taking the number of clauses per T unit into account. In these studies, they have notified no important differences in the degree of subordination in teacher talk directed to L2 learners in comparison with NS-NS communication. On the other hand, Chaudron (1979) emphasises significantly less complexity in TT to low and high beginners in contrast with greater complexity in teacher talk towards advanced learners. Besides, some studies (Gaies, 1977; Early, 1985; Ishiguro, 1986) have found significantly less complex teacher talk addressing non-native learners.

To sum up, when the above-mentioned studies are examined, it seems that teachers make syntactical modifications in their speeches towards non-native learners in a classroom environment. However, important differences may not be observed in syntactical modifications in teacher talk directed towards native speakers. Therefore, different conditions and the addressees that teachers aim to teach must be taken into account.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents methodology, participants, data collection, techniques, procedures and data analysis. The study has a mixed research design in which qualitative and quantitative methods were integrated. The data used in this research design have been obtained from audio-recordings of eight EFL instructors (both NSs and NNSs) at Çağ University in Turkey, a questionnaire aiming at obtaining participants' background information and an interview regarding their views on the modifications in teacher talk.

3.2. Instructional Setting

The research was conducted during the first term of 2010/2011 academic year at a private university, Çağ University in the southern part of Turkey. The university chosen as the study site is the first foundation university located in the Mediterranean region of Turkey.

Prior to starting undergraduate and graduate programmes at the University, an English Proficiency Exam is required. This exam determines English proficiency levels of the students whose major is English and of the students who are going to study in the departments where the medium of instruction is English. The test is prepared by the Preparatory School instructors at the University. Students who cannot pass the test are placed in appropriate classes according to their language proficiency levels. Lessons in Preparatory School consist of the tasks basically aiming to improve four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

3.3. Participants

The participants of the study were eight EFL instructors from Prepatory School at Çağ University. Convenience Sampling in which participants are chosen randomly was used during the selection of the participants. Four instructors who participated in

this research are native speakers of English, three of whom are females. Their ages vary between twenty eight and thirty six. While one of the instructors is a graduate of Mass Communication, three instructors graduated from a department directly related to the English language. Among these three instructors, one of them holds both master's and doctorate degrees and one participant is presently doing her master's degree. The teaching experience of these participants ranges from four to fifteen years.

As for the non-native speakers of English, their ages differ between twenty nine and fifty seven. Among the four non-native instructors, two of them are graduates of ELT, and the other two hold Bachelor of Arts degrees in English Language and Literature and American Culture and Literature. While two of them are students of master's degree, the other two do not hold any postgraduate studies. Their teaching experience varies between seven and thirty seven years. Detailed information about the age, gender, the years of experience and education level of the participants at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels can be seen in Table 1 below:

Table 1.

Background Information of the Participants

	PARTICIPANTS	AGE	GENDER	GRADUATE OF	EXPERIENCE
Elementary Level	NS1	28	Female	Bachelors of Arts in English Language	6 years
	NS2	36	Female	Bachelors of Arts in English Language	15 years
	NNS1	32	Female	American Culture and Literature	7 years
	NNS2	33	Male	English Language and Literature	11 years
Pre-Intermediate Level	NS3	28	Female	ELT	8 years
	NS4	33	Male	Communication Studies	4 years
	NNS3	29	Female	ELT	7 years
	NNS4	57	Female	ELT	37 years

3.4. Instruments

Three types of instruments were utilized: audio-recordings, a questionnaire on the background of the participants and an interview regarding participants' opinions on the modifications in TT.

3.4.1. Audio Recordings

The first instrument for data collection was audio recording. As a first step, the data were collected using a voice recorder. There was a total of eight sessions of recordings. After each class, the recordings were transcribed in a detailed way in order to obtain comprehensive written data for analysis according to Jefferson's (2004) transcription rules (see Appendix 1). Recordings and transcriptions were double checked by both the researcher and a native speaker of English.

3.4.2. Questionnaire

In addition to audio recording, another instrument, a questionnaire showing the qualitative part of the study was used. The questionnaire consisted of seven items. Items of the questionnaire were utilized so as to get background information about the age, gender, the years of experience and education level of the participants (see Appendix 7).

3.4.3. Interview

Each participant was interviewed within the duration of an arranged appointment. One open-ended question was asked to the participants to get information about their point of views on whether the language of the teacher in an EFL classroom should change according to proficiency level of the learners. In the case that participants expressed the necessity of modifications, they were asked an additional question by which they were required to express their opinions on what kind of modifications needed to be made in TT (see Appendix 7).

3.5. Data Collection

The study is based on mixed research design that includes both quantitative and qualitative methods. For the purpose of this study, the data were compiled from audio-recordings of eight lessons in the Prepatory School at Çağ University. So as to obtain the data, participants' speaking lessons were chosen. The total number of learners in each class ranged from fifteen to nineteen at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels.

While there were two classes at the elementary level, there were also two classes at the pre-intermediate level. Each class at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels was taught by one NS and one NNS. Because there were two classes at the elementary level, there were totally four lessons to be recorded.

Four other periods of classes were taught in the same fashion at the pre-intermediate level. Each session of recordings lasted for fifty minutes in parallel with the duration of each single class. The researcher and a native speaker of English conducted transcriptions of eight sessions of recordings over the span of four months. They transcribed 235 pages in total. These transcriptions were also double checked by both the researcher and a native speaker of English.

To collect the data, permissions of both the director of the Preparatory School and eight EFL instructors were asked in advance prior to in-class recordings. The researcher did not attend the classes in order not to disrupt the natural flow of the lessons. Before each class started, voice recorder was placed in an inconspicuous place in the class so as to minimize the negative effect of the device on the learners while simultaneously increasing the quality of natural data. In addition, the researcher waited outside while the instructor was audio recording the lesson. To obtain the data as natural as possible, instructors were not given information about the main focus of the research.

As for the implementation of the questionnaire, questionnaire was filled by the instructors individually. However, during the questionnaire phase, one of the participants at the elementary level was pregnant. Therefore, the researcher sent the questionnaire to the researher via e-mail. The participant filled the questionnaire and sent it back to the researcher to be examined.

As the last phase of the data collection, an interview was conducted with each participant. Appointments were made to talk with the instructors one by one. Then, the researcher met the instructors to interview on the appointed day.

3.6. Data Analysis

Data analysis of the study is based on the analyses of teachers' speech at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels regarding lexical and syntactical modifications. Following the transcription of the data, teacher talk was analysed with regard to research questions. Besides the analysis of the quantitative data, a questionnaire and an interview were conducted.

For the analysis of teacher talk regarding lexical modifications, the number of types and tokens and word frequencies in teachers' speech were counted by the AntConc 3.2.1 programme. This program is a concordance program that has the tools to analyse word clusters (lexical bundles), n-grams, collocates, word frequencies and keywords.

In order to count type and token, the recordings of each instructor were transcribed in MS Word and saved as a .txt file. Then, while .txt files of two NSs at the elementary level were entered together into the AntConc programme, .txt. files of two NNSs at the same level were also placed together into the programme. The word list part in the AntConc Programme was used to analyse .txt files. The obtained data were saved as an output file (See Appendix 3). It was examined whether there were important differences between NSs and NNSs in terms of the number of types and tokens they used in their teacher talk via Chi square (X^2) statistics in SPSS Statistics 17.0 Programme. The aforementioned statistics system is a comprehensive system for analysing data. The results of the data were evaluated by a reference to the chi-squared distribution. The same fashion was followed for the .txt files of two NSs and two NNSs at the pre-intermediate level. The comparison was not made only between NSs and NNSs, but also between NSs and NSs and NNSs and NNSs.

After numbering types and tokens, the total number of types was divided by the total number of tokens to calculate the type-token ratio. The number of types and tokens, type-token ratios of NSs and NNSs at the elementary and the pre-intermediate levels were illustrated in tables in data analysis and result part.

As to word frequency, the same procedure was followed by using word list in the AntConc 3.2.1 programme. The number of the frequency of the words in TT at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels was calculated. Data were kept as an output file listing the frequency of words in the .txt files from the highest frequency to the lowest (see Appendix 3). Then, the words in the list were divided into two categories: content words and function words. 100 most frequently used content words uttered by NSs and

NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels were chosen and illustrated in the tables by the researcher for the analysis (See Appendix 4). During the process of determining 100 most frequently used content words, the researcher showed noticeable attention to the words that can be sometimes used as content words or functional words such as ‘‘have’’, ‘‘do’’ or ‘‘did’’.

In addition, dictionary frequency information of these content words was also probed. This information was obtained from three frequency bands in the Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner’s English Dictionary – Fifth Edition in which the most frequently used English words are labelled with diamonds ranging from 1 to 3 (see Appendix 5).

After the provision of frequency information of the 100 most frequently used content words, they were listed alphabetically according to frequency bands. The study aimed at revealing the frequencies of the content words that NSs and NNSs used for NNS learners at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels in terms of frequency bands (see Appendix 6). The study also revealed whether there was a meaningful difference between the dictionary frequencies of 100 most frequently used content words in the speech of NSs and NNSs at both elementary level and pre-intermediate levels by using Chi square (X^2) statistics in SPSS Statistics 17.0. The results of the findings were obtained through using chi-squared distribution.

As for the analysis of teachers’ speech in relation to syntactical modifications, words and sentences in teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels were counted by both the researcher and a native speaker of English. The obtained data from each instructor’s lesson were entered into SPSS Statistics 17.0. Chi square (X^2) statistics was utilized to understand whether there was a meaningful difference between teacher talk of NSs and NNSs, NSs and NSs and between NNSs and NNSs with regard to the number of words that they uttered and sentences that they made.

Additionally, types of verbs (transitive, intransitive and linking verbs), verb moods (indicatives, imperatives and subjunctives), voice of verbs (active and passive voice), the verb ‘‘be’’, subordinate clauses (noun clauses, adjective clauses and adverb clauses) and types of sentences (compound, complex and complex compound sentences) were determined and checked by both the researcher and a native speaker of English. The number of types of verbs, verb moods, voice of verbs, the verb ‘‘be’’, subordinate clauses and types of sentences was calculated one by one. It was examined

whether any significant differences existed in the uses of these syntactical structures uttered by NSs and NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels according to Chi squared distribution in SPSS Statistics 17.0.

Regarding the analysis of the questionnaire that consisted of the qualitative part of the study, it was beneficial to get background information of the participants and to illustrate this information (their age, gender, education and work experience) in a table (see Table 1).

An interview was also conducted so as to get instructors' ideas about whether the language of the teacher in an EFL classroom should be modified according to the proficiency level of the non-native learners. The researcher took notes and asked what kinds of modifications needed to be made when the instructors mentioned the necessity of the modifications towards learners. For the analysis of the interview, the researcher examined the responses regarding the types of modifications that instructors preferred to make towards non-native learners.

3.7. Trustworthiness

Validity and reliability are key concepts in any kinds of study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) highlight the significance of these concepts suggesting the most important question: "How can an inquirer persuade his or her audience that the research findings of a study are worth paying attention to?" (p.290). On the other hand, Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) argue that the data obtained from an instrument, "can be quite reliable but not valid" (p.157). By taking these into account, it is very important to understand the differences between these key factors.

Validity is one of the most crucial features of a study as to whether it is qualitative or quantitative research. Validity measures the extent to which data and findings show an accurate picture of the events they claim to be describing (Silverman, 1993, p.149). According to LeCompte and Goets (1982), validity is concerned with whether the research is actually observing and measuring what the researcher really intends. One way to evaluate how valid an instrument is comparing its results with other sources of data (p.43). This feature is based on the presumption that the issue being investigated owns objective sense.

3.7.1. Credibility

Credibility replaces the idea of *internal validity*, by which researchers search for establishing confidence in the 'truth' of their findings. One of the key criteria is credibility that aims at revealing how findings are consistent with reality. Lincoln and Guba (1985) assert that ensuring credibility is one of most significant steps to establish trustworthiness (p.289). To provide credibility, they suggest the adoption of well-established research methods in an investigation. Yin (2003) focuses on constructing validity enabling the reader to understand "correct operational measures for the concepts being studied" (p.34). Therefore, the specific procedures in the data gathering sessions and the methods of data analysis should be parallel with the ones that have been successfully used in previous comparable studies. In this respect, previous studies done in the same or a similar organisation and addressing these studies may constitute valuable sources.

To establish credibility, the researcher in this study examined similar studies related to her research, made use of appropriate research methods that she would apply and informed the readers about these methods. Furthermore, the research instruments utilized in the present study were checked by the experts in the field of language, education and statistics to make sure that these instruments were actually measuring what was aimed. These experts in related fields directed the researcher to employ the instruments to be used in the study.

Prolonged engagement has also been proposed to increase credibility in the study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Erlandson (1993) et al. suggest that the investigator undertakes a "prolonged engagement" with the participants in order to understand the organisation and to establish a trust relationship with them. Alkin, Daillak and White (1979) maintain the idea that a participant's trust in the researcher is of equal importance to procedures employed in the research. The researcher tried to provide an atmosphere of trust before she started collecting the data by asking permission from the director of Preparatory School and instructors and presenting essential information about the study. The researcher also continued her engagement with the participants during data collection.

Triangulation is another criterion that involves observation, focus groups, individual interviews and questionnaires. Triangulation is also known as a combination of qualitative and quantitative research. It may be used in order to facilitate the research

design and support the research that is conducted. Especially, interviews and questionnaires constituting the component of triangulation may provide a background and shed more light on the specific details about participants. Questionnaires also have their own uses. They are means of gathering information from a wider perspective that may be reached by personal interviews. They can explore whether the study is a matter of interest. In this study, a questionnaire was used to get background information about instructors. Also, an interview was conducted to get their opinions on whether teachers should change their classroom language according to English proficiency levels of non-native learners and how they can do it if they need to modify their speech.

3.7.2. External Validity

Merriam (1998) puts forward that *external validity* "is concerned with the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations" (p.207). Stake (1994) puts forth that although each study was important on its own, it was also an example within a broader group (pp.236-247). Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest that the researcher must provide the reader with sufficient contextual information about the fieldwork sites to make such a transfer. It can be inferred that sufficient description of the study may allow readers to have a proper understanding of it and may let them compare the instances of the phenomenon described in the study with the ones that they have seen. In other words, researchers provide details about the setting in which the research is conducted and give readers enough information for them to judge the applicability of the findings in other settings.

According to Marchionini and Teague (1987), it is the focal point that the researcher must convey the extent and frame of the study to reader before any transference is made. Therefore, Shenton (2004) notes that information on the following issues should be given to the reader:

a) The number of organisations taking part in the study and where they are based;
b) Any restrictions in the type of people who contributed data;
c) The number of participants involved in the fieldwork;
d) The data collection methods that were employed;
e) The number and length of the data collection sessions;
f) The time period over which the data was collected. (p.70)

From these descriptions, the reader may make judgments about the applicability of the data to their context. As for the researcher in the study, she tried to be in line with above-mentioned issues. She implemented the procedures above and gave information to the reader about the issues above. Even though this study had limitations in it, she suggested that the results of the study might be applicable for similar settings, situations and groups.

3.7.3. Reliability

This concept replaces the idea of *dependability*. It urges researchers to provide the documentation of data, methods and decisions about the research. Somekh and Lewin (2007) define reliability from a qualitative point of view. They (2007) define reliability: "The truth of the findings has been established by ensuring that they are supported by sufficient and compelling evidence. In quantitative research, it refers specifically to measurement repeatedly giving the same result. (being consistent)" (p.348). Davies (2007) also explains reliability from a qualitative perspective. He (2007) states:

> Because qualitative researchers do not normally employ any formal or precise systems of measurement, the concept of reliability is related to the rigour with which the researcher has approached the tasks of data collection and analysis and the care with which the report describes in detail the methods that have been employed –including, especially, some discussion of how critical decisions were made. Often, the term 'reliability' in this sense is equated with methodological 'accuracy' (p.241).

Whether reliability is examined from a quantitative or qualitative point of view, achieving reliability is significant. In this research, sufficient and compelling evidence was achieved through the use of different methods of research. Furthermore, the documentation of data and methods about the research were provided for the use of other researchers.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

In this section, an administered questionnaire, an interview with NSs and NNSs and data obtained from the teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels at Preparatory School, Çağ University with regard to lexical and syntactical modifications are analysed and discussed.

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4.2. Data Results

In this part, the number of word tokens and types, type-token ratios and dictionary frequencies of 100 most frequently used content words have been examined regarding lexical modifications in the speech of NSs and NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels through Antconc 3.2.1, Collins Cobuild 5th Edition and SPSS 17.0 Programme. Valid type-token ratios and percent results of dictionary frequencies of 100 most frequently used content words have been shown in tabular forms. Chi Square (X^2) results have also been integrated into the tables related to word tokens and types.

As for syntactical modifications, the number of words and sentences, words per sentence, kinds of verbs, the verb "be", verb moods, voice of verbs, subordinate clauses and types of sentences have been probed. Chi Square (X^2) has been used so as to see whether there are any meaningful differences between NSs and NSs, NNSs and NNSs and between NSs and NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels.

In addition, an administered questionnaire has been analysed to get background information about the participants of the study and an interview has been conducted in order to get information about their views on whether teachers should change their language according to the proficiency level of learners and if so, what kind of modifications they make in their language classes.

Table 2.

Differences in the Word Tokens and Word Types in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Elementary Level

	NSs	**NNSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Word Tokens	4604	5241	41,216	1	,000
Word Types	599	593	,030	1	,865

In Table 2, it can be clearly seen that the number of word tokens in the speech of NNSs was higher than the number of word tokens in the teacher talk of NSs at the elementary level. It is also possible to observe a significant difference between teacher talk of NSs and NNSs with regard to word tokens ($p<.05$). On the other hand, Table 2 demonstrates that it is not possible to see statistically meaningful variations in terms of uses of word types employed by NSs and NNSs at the elementary level ($p>.05$).

Table 3.

Differences in the Word Tokens and Word Types in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

	NSs	**NNSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Word Tokens	5233	5757	24,894	1	,000
Word Types	729	756	,491	1	,484

As shown in Table 3, NNSs had more word tokens than NSs did at the pre-intermediate level and this constitutes an important difference regarding numbers of word tokens ($p<.05$). Apart from this result, the number of word types employed in the teacher talk NSs and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level was close to each other. Therefore, it does not form a significant difference when the word types used in the speech of NSs are compared with the ones in the teacher talk of NNSs ($p>.05$).

Table 4.

Differences in the Word Tokens and Word Types in the Teacher Talk of NSs at the Elementary Level and Teacher Talk of NSs at Pre-intermediate Level

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate Level**			
	NSs	**NSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Word Tokens	4604	5233	40,220	1	,000
Word Types	599	729	12,726	1	,000

Based on Table 4 illustrating the number of word tokens and types in the teacher talk of NSs at the elementary level and NSs at the pre-intermediate level, it is possible to notice that there was an increase in the number of word tokens and word types in teacher talk of NSs at the pre-intermediate level compared to the numbers in the speech of NSs at the elementary level which can be regarded as a significant difference ($p<.05$ for both word tokens and word types).

Table 5.

Differences in the Word Tokens and Word Types in the Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Elementary Level and NNSs at the Pre-intermediate Level

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate**			
	NNSs	**NNSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Word Tokens	5241	5757	24,209	1	,000
Word Types	593	756	19,695	1	,000

As represented in Table 5, NNSs at the pre-intermediate level used more word tokens and types than NNSs did at the elementary level. It can obviously be noted that there was a statistically meaningful difference between the speech of NNSs at the elementary level and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level regarding word tokens and word types ($p<.05$ for both word types and word tokens).

Table 6.

Differences in the Type-Token Ratio in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Elementary Level

	NSs	**NNSs**
Word Tokens	4604	5241
Word Types	599	593
Type-Token Ratio	0.13	0.11

Table 6 mirrors type-token ratios demonstrating the variety of the lexis in the teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the elementary level. Chaudron (1988) pinpoints that the smaller the type-token ratio is, the less diverse the speech is (p.72). As illustrated in Table 6, the type-token ratio in the speech of NSs was 0.13 while this ratio was 0.11 in the teacher talk of NNSs at the elementary level. It can be inferred that data obtained from the teacher talk of both NSs and NNSs at the elementary level was not rich regarding the variety of the vocabulary.

Furthermore, the closer to 1 type token ratio is, the richer teacher talk is in terms of lexis as S.K Mangal and U. Mangal (2008) states (p.293). However, it is not possible to observe any closeness to 1 in the speeches of NSs and NNSs at this level. In addition, the ratios for both teacher talk of NSs (0.13) and NNSs (0.11) were somehow close to each other. Therefore, no lexical diversity can be observed in the teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the elementary level.

Table 7.

Differences in Type-Token Ratio in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

	NSs	**NNSs**
Word Tokens	5233	5757
Word Types	729	756
Type-Token Ratio	0.13	0.13

In the light of the data obtained from Table 7, it can clearly be figured out that the type-token ratio calculated for the teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level was the same. (0.13) In other words, teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at

the pre-intermediate level do not show any lexical richness because of the fact that these ratios were not close to 1, but close to 0.

Table 8.

The Percentage of Dictionary Frequency of 100 Most Frequently Used Content Words in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Elementary Level

The Percentage of Dictionary Frequency of 100 Most Frequently Used Content Words	**Frequency 1**	**Frequency 2**	**Frequency 3**
Native Speakers	6 %	18 %	76 %
Non-Native Speakers	10 %	18 %	72 %

Based on Table 8, dictionary frequency information obtained from Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner's English Dictionary – Fifth Edition was illustrated with three frequency bands that have diamond symbols with a scale from 1 (uncommon words) to 3 (most common words or most basic words) diamonds. When the speech of NSs was compared with the speech of NNSs at the elementary level, it was noted that NSs and NNSs used content words with dictionary frequency band 3 most (76% in the speech of NSs and 72% in the speech of NNSs) while they uttered content words with frequency band 1 least (6% in the teacher talk of NSs and 10% in the teacher talk of NNSs). As for the content words with dictionary frequency band 2, the percentage in the speech of NSs and NNSs at the elementary level was interestingly the same (18%).

A slight difference was observed between the teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the elementary level regarding the percentages of content words with dictionary frequency band 1 and 3. While the content words with dictionary band 1 showed a slight increase in the speech of NNSs, the number of content words with frequency band 3 illustrated a small decline in the same speech.

Table 9.

The Percentage of the Dictionary Frequency of 100 Most Frequently Used Content Words in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

The Percentage of Dictionary Frequency of 100 Mostly Used Content Word	**Frequency 1**	**Frequency 2**	**Frequency 3**
Native Speakers	5 %	16 %	78 %
Non-Native Speakers	6 %	12 %	83 %

As depicted in Table 9, the percentage of content words with dictionary frequency band 1 used by both native and non-native speakers of English was almost the same at the pre-intermediate level (5% in the teacher talk of NSs and 6% in the teacher talk of NNSs). With regard to the content words with dictionary frequency band 2, the percentages in the speech of NSs and NNSs were close to each other (16% in the speech of NS and 12% in the speech of NNS). It seems that the same trend continued in the use of content words with dictionary frequency 3 at the pre-intermediate level (78% in the teacher talk of NS and 83% in the teacher talk of NNS).

In addition, the content words with dictionary frequency band 3 were uttered most again in the teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level although the number of content words with dictionary frequency 3 was expected to decrease with the higher level of language proficiency of the non-native learners.

Table 10.

Differences in the Words per Sentence in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Elementary Level

	NSs	**NNSs**	χ^2	**Sd**	**P**
Words	4604	5241	41,216	1	,000
Sentences	691	881	22,964	1	,000
Words per Sentence	6.6	5.9			

As displayed in Table 10, we can observe a significant difference in the numbers of words and sentences uttered by NSs and NNSs at the elementary level ($p<.05$ in teacher talk of both NSs and NNSs). NNSs used more words and sentences than NSs

while interacting with the learners at the elementary level. This might result from NSs' stimulating the learners to talk more rather than exposing their own speech.

As for words per sentence, it can be investigated in regard with measures of length of utterances, one type of syntactical modifications. When words per sentence were examined in the teacher talk of NSs and NNSs, it was noticed that the number of words per sentence in the teacher talk of NSs (6.6) was more than the number of words per sentence in the speech of NNSs (5.9). It mirrors the fact that NSs made longer sentences towards non-native learners than NNSs whereas NNSs uttered more words and sentences.

Table 11.

Differences in the Words per Sentence in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

	NSs	**NNSs**	χ^2	**Sd**	**P**
Words	5233	5757	24,894	1	,000
Sentences	680	981	54,546	1	,000
Words per Sentence	7.6	5.8			

Table 11 illustrates that NNSs uttered more words and made more sentences than NSs did in their teacher talk at the pre-intermediate level forming a meaningful difference ($p<.05$ in teacher talk of both NSs and NNSs) between the speech of NSs and NNSs directed at non-native learners at the pre-intermediate level. NNSs exposed their teacher talk more than NSs did. As for words per sentence, the rate of words per sentence in the speech of NSs (7.6) surpassed the rate in the teacher talk of NNSs (5.8). Although NNSs used more words and made more sentences than NSs, NSs made longer sentences than NNSs at the pre-intermediate level that was the same at the elementary level.

Table 12.

Differences in the Words per Sentence in the Teacher Talk of NSs at the Elementary Level and Teacher Talk of NSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate Level**			
	NSs	**NSs**	χ^2	**Sd**	**P**
Words	4604	5241	41,216	1	,000
Sentences	691	881	22,964	1	,000
Words per Sentence	6.6	7.6			

Based on the comparison between the number of the words and sentences used by NSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels in Table 12, it was clearly marked that the number of words and sentences in the teacher talk of NSs at the elementary level increased in the teacher talk of NSs at the pre-intermediate level that constituted a significant difference ($p<.05$ for both words and sentences). When words per sentence are examined, it can obviously be noticed that words per sentence increased in the teacher talk of NSs at the pre-intermediate level.

Table 13.

Differences in the Words per Sentence in the Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Elementary Level and the Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate Level**			
	NNSs	**NNSs**	χ^2	**Sd**	**P**
Words	5233	4328	24,984	1	,000
Sentences	680	981	54,546	1	,000
Words per Sentence	5.9	5.8			

Table 13 shows that an increase was observed in the use of sentences in the teacher talk of NNSs at the pre-intermediate level whereas there was a decrease in the teacher talk of NNSs. In addition, a meaningful difference was observed between the teacher talk of NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels ($p<.05$ for both words and sentences).

Furthermore, the rate of words per sentence in teacher talk of NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels was close to each other. The length of sentence was 5.9 in the speech of NNSs at the elementary level while it was 5.8 in the speech of NNSs at the pre-intermediate level. It is not possible to mark any increase in the length of the sentences despite higher level of language proficiency of the non-native learners.

Table 14.

Differences in the Use of Type of Verbs in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Elementary Level

Types of Verbs	**NSs**	**NNSs**	χ^2	**Sd**	**P**
Transitive	307	360	4,211	1	,040
Intransitive	191	132	11,180	1 2	,001
Linking Verb	202	247	9,998	1	,002

As depicted in the Table 14, NNSs used transitive verbs most while they preferred to use intransitive verbs least at the elementary level. The same pattern was valid for teacher talk of NSs at this level.

When the use of these verbs by NNSs was compared with the verbs used by NSs, it can be stated that the number of transitive and linking verbs used in teacher talk of NNSs was more than the ones in teacher talk of NSs. NNSs uttered 360 transitive verbs while NSs used 307 transitive verbs. As for linking verbs, there were 247 linking verbs in the speech of NNSs. On the other hand, there were 202 linking verbs in the teacher talk of NSs. On the contrary with the fact that NNSs used more transitive and linking verbs, NSs used more intransitive verbs rather than NNSs did. (191 intransitive verbs in the teacher talk of NSs and 132 intransitive verbs in the teacher talk of NNSs)

When it is examined whether there were any meaningful differences between teacher talk of NSs and NNSs in terms of types of verbs, it is possible to see meaningful differences in the uses of transitive, intransitive and linking verbs uttered by NSs and NNSs at the elementary level ($p<.05$ for transitive verbs, $p<.05$ for intransitive verbs and $p<.05$ for linking verbs).

Table 15.

Differences in the Use of Types of Verbs in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

Types of Verbs	**NSs**	**NNSs**	χ^2	**Sd**	**P**
Transitive	314	396	9,470	1	,002
Intransitive	228	215	,381	1	,537
Linking Verb	238	217	,969	1	,325

Figures in Table 15 demonstrate that NNSs used transitive verbs more in comparison with other verbs at the pre-intermediate level. It can also be observed that the number of intransitive verbs and linking verbs was close to each other in the speech of NNSs. The same trend continued exactly for the uses of transitive, intransitive and linking verbs in the teacher talk of NSs.

Upon the examination of the use of verbs between the teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level, it can be seen that NNSs used more transitive verbs than NSs. While NNSs used 396 transitive verbs, NSs used 314 transitive verbs in their teacher talk. Therefore, a meaningful significance was seen in the use of transitive verbs ($p<.05$).

As for intransitive and linking verbs, NSs used more intransitive and linking verbs than NNSs did. There were 215 intransitive verbs in the teacher talk of NNSs while there were 228 intransitive verbs in the speech of NSs. Regarding linking verbs, NSs uttered 238 linking verbs in their speech towards the learners at the pre-intermediate level. On the other hand, NNSs used 217 linking verbs in their teacher talk. However, these results do not form any noticeable difference ($p>.05$ for intransitive verbs and $p>.05$ for linking verbs).

Table 16.

Differences in the Use of Type of Verbs between Teacher Talk of NSs at the Elementary Level and Teacher Talk of NSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate Level**			
Verbs	**NSs**	**NSs**	χ^2	**Sd**	**P**
Transitive	307	314	0,79	1	,779
Intransitive	191	228	3,267	1	,071
Linking Verb	202	238	2,945	1	,086

According to the results obtained from Table 16, NSs at the elementary level used 307 transitive verbs while NSs at the pre-intermediate level employed 314 transitive verbs. Regarding intransitive verbs, there were 191 intransitive verbs in the speech of NSs at the elementary level. On the other hand, there were 228 intransitive verbs in the teacher talk of NSs at the pre-intermediate level. In addition, NSs at the elementary level uttered 202 linking verbs while NSs at the pre-intermediate level used 238 linking verbs.

Based on the overall findings in Table 16, it can be seen that there was not a meaningful difference regarding these verbs between teacher talk of NSs at the elementary and NSs at the pre-intermediate level ($p>.05$ for transitive verbs, $p>.05$ for intransitive verbs and $p>.05$ for linking verbs) although the number of transitive, intransitive and linking verbs showed a small increase in teacher talk of NSs at the pre-intermediate level compared to the teacher talk of NSs at the elementary level.

Table 17.

Differences in the Use of Type of Verbs between Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Elementary Level and Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate Level**			
Verbs	**NNSs**	**NNSs**	χ^2	**Sd**	**P**
Transitive	360	396	1,714	1	,190
Intransitive	132	215	15,813	1	,000
Linking Verb	247	217	1,940	1	,164

Table 17 depicts that NNSs at the pre-intermediate level used more transitive and intransitive verbs in their speech in comparison with NNSs at the elementary level. NNSs at the elementary level uttered 360 transitive verbs whereas NNSs at the pre-intermediate level employed 396 transitive verbs. No meaningful difference was observed when the number of transitive verbs in the speech of NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels was compared ($p>.05$).

As for intransitive verbs, there were 132 intransitive verbs in the speech of NNSs at the elementary level. Nevertheless, there were 215 intransitive verbs in the teacher talk of NNSs at the pre-intermediate level. In addition, NNSs at the elementary level had 247 linking verbs while NNSs at the pre-intermediate level had 217 linking verbs. Although there was a decrease in the use of linking verbs at the pre-intermediate level, there were not any markable differences between teacher talk of NNSs at the elementary level and teacher talk of NNSs at the pre-intermediate level regarding linking verbs ($p>.05$). On the other hand, only meaningful difference was found in the number of intransitive verbs ($p<.05$) rather than transitive and linking ones.

Table 18.

Differences in the Verb Mood in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Elementary Level

Verb Mood	**NSs**	**NNSs**	χ^2	**Sd**	**P**
Indicative	624	673	1, 851	1	,174
Imperative	76	66	,704	1	,401
Subjunctive	-	-	-	-	-

As displayed in Table 18, NNSs used more indicatives than NSs did whereas NSs employed more imperatives than NNSs did at the elementary level. Despite these differences, meaningful differences were not observed in the use of indicatives and imperatives between teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the elementary level ($p>.05$ for indicatives and $p>.05$ for imperatives). As to subjunctives, no subjunctives were used by NSs and NNSs at the elementary level. Therefore, there was not any statistically meaningful significance.

Table 19.

Differences in the Verb Mood in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

Verb Mood	**NSs**	**NNSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Indicative	729	759	,605	1	,437
Imperative	48	68	3,448	1	,063
Subjunctive	3	1	1,000	1	,317

Table 19 represents that NNSs at the pre-intermediate level used more indicatives and imperatives than NSs did at the pre-intermediate level. As for subjunctives, NSs used 3 subjunctives while NNS used only 1 subjunctive. Upon the examination of the differences between the teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level, it can be stated that the number of indicatives, imperatives and subjunctives in teacher talk of NSs and NNSs did not carry any meaningful importance ($p>.05$ for indicatives, $p>.05$ for imperatives and $p>.05$ for subjunctives).

Table 20.

Differences in the Use of Verb Moods between Teacher Talk of NSs at the Elementary Level and Teacher Talk of NSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate Level**			
Verb Mood	**NSs**	**NSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Indicative	624	729	8,149	1	,004
Imperative	76	48	6,323	1	,012
Subjunctive	-	3	-	-	-

Based on the comparison between verb moods in the speech of NSs at the elementary level and NSs at the pre-intermediate level in Table 20, it can be observed that there was an increase in the use of indicatives in teacher talk of NSs at the pre-intermediate level compared to the the number of indicatives used by NSs at the elementary level although this increase was not expected at the pre-intermediate level. On the other hand, there was a decline in the use of imperatives in the teacher talk of NSs at the pre-intermediate level with the higher level of language proficiency of the

learners compared to the number of imperatives in the speech of NSs at the elementary level.

When it is examined whether there was any statistically important significance regarding indicatives and imperatives, it can clearly be seen that there were meaningful differences between teacher talk of NSs at the elementary level and teacher talk of NSs at the pre-intermediate level in terms of use of indicatives and imperatives ($p<.05$ for indicatives and $p<.05$ for imperatives). As for subjunctives, it is not possible to measure statistically meaningful differences between NSs at the elementary level and NSs at the pre-intermediate level because NSs at the elementary level did not use any subjunctives though NSs at the pre-intermediate level employed 3 subjunctives.

Table 21.

Differences in the Use of Verb Moods between Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Elementary Level and Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate Level**			
Verb Moods	**NNSs**	**NNSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Indicative	673	759	5,165	1	,023
Imperative	66	68	,030	1	,863
Subjunctive	__	1	__	__	__

As shown in Table 21, NNSs at the pre-intermediate level used more indicatives than NNSs at the elementary level that formed an important difference ($p<.05$). As for imperatives, the number of imperatives used by NNSs at both elementary and pre-intermediate levels was close to each other. Therefore, it does not constitute any meaningful differences ($p>.05$). Regarding subjunctives, NNSs at the pre- intermediate level uttered only 1 subjunctive while NNSs at the elementary level did not use any subjunctives. Because there was no use of subjunctives in the teacher talk of NNSs at the elementary level, no calculation could be implemented to see the comparison in regard with the numbers of subjunctives in the speech of NNSs at both levels.

Table 22.

Differences in the Use of Active and Passive Voices in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Elementary Level

Voice of verbs	**NSs**	**NNSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Active	697	738	1,171	1	,279
Passive	3	1	1,000	1	,317

In the light of data provided in the Table 22, it can easily be observed that NNSs uttered more active verbs than NSs did at the elementary level. There were 697 active verbs in the speech of NSs. However, there were 738 active verbs in the teacher talk of NNSs. NSs had 3 passive verbs while NNSs had only 1 passive verb. Despite the differences in these figures, no considerable discrepancy was observed in the teacher talk of native speakers of English and non-native speakers of English in terms of using active and passive voice at the elementary level ($p>.05$ for active verbs and $p>.05$ for passive verbs).

Table 23.

Differences in the Use of Active and Passive Voices in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

Voice of Verbs	**NSs**	**NNSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Active	766	827	2,336	1	,126
Passive	14	1	11,267	1	,001

As illustrated in Table 23, more active verbs were used by NNSs in comparison with the ones uttered by NSs at the pre-intermediate level. On the other hand, NSs used more passive forms than NNSs did at the pre-intermediate level. While NSs used 14 passive verbs, NNSs employed only 1 passive verb. According to the statistical values in the Table 23, it can be concluded that the use of passive verbs showed important variations in the teacher talk of NSs compared with the passive verbs uttered by NNSs ($p<.05$) whereas there was not any meaningful difference regarding active verbs in the speech of NSs and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level ($p>.05$).

Table 24.

Differences in the Use of Active and Passive Voices between Teacher Talk of NSs at the Elementary Level and Teacher Talk of NSs at the Pre-Intermediate

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate Level**			
Voice of Verbs	**NSs**	**NSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Active Voice	697	766	3,254	1	,071
Passive Voice	3	14	7,118	1	,008

In Table 24, when active and passive verbs uttered by NSs at the elementary level are compared with the ones uttered by NSs at the pre-intermediate level, it is clearly seen that NSs at the pre-intermediate level used more active and passive verbs than NSs did at the elementary level. NSs at the elementary level had 697 active verbs in their teacher talk while NSs at the pre-intermediate level had 766 active verbs in their speech. However, it does not form any noticeable discrepancy in the use of active verbs ($p>.05$).

Regarding passive verb use, there were 3 passive verbs in the speech of NSs at the elementary level whereas there were 14 passive verbs in the teacher talk of NSs at the pre-intermediate level. According to statistical values in Table 24, there were markable differences between teacher talk of NSs at the elementary level and NSs at the pre-intermediate level in terms of passive verbs ($p<.05$).

Table 25.

Differences in the Use of Active and Passive Voices between Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Elementary Level and Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate Level**			
Voice of Verbs	**NNSs**	**NNSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Active Voice	738	827	5,061	1	,024
Passive Voice	1	1	,000	1	1,000

Table 25 illustrates that NNSs at the pre-intermediate level used more active verbs compared to the ones at the elementary level. There was a meaningful difference in the number of active verbs between teacher talk of NNSs at the elementary level and NNSs

at the pre-intermediate level (p<.05). As for passive verbs, NNSs at both elementary and pre-intermediate levels used just 1 passive verb which does not form any significant differences between them (p>.05).

Table 26.

Differences in the Use of the Verb 'be' in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Elementary Level

Elementary Level	**NSs**	**NNS**	χ^2	**Sd**	**P**
Verb "be"	181	231	6,068	1	,014

In Table 26, when the use of the verb "be" in the teacher talk of NSs at the elementary level was compared with the use of the verb "be" in the speech of NNSs at the elementary level, it can clearly be highlighted that the verb "be" forms were uttered more by NNSs than NSs. NNSs uttered 231 verb "be" forms while NSs employed 181 verb "be" forms. Therefore, it is possible to see a noticable difference between the use of the verb "be" in the speech of NSs and NNSs at the elementary level (p<.05).

Table 27.

Differences in the Use of the Verb 'be' in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

Pre- Intermediate Level	**NS**	**NNS**	χ^2	**Sd**	**P**
Verb "be"	212	126	21,982	1	,000

Table 27 shows that there was also a markable difference in the use of the verb "be" at the pre-intermediate level (p<.05). NSs preferred to use the verb "be" more than NNSs in this level in contrast with its use at the elementary level (126 verb "be" forms in the speech of NNSs and 212 verb "be" forms in the teacher talk of NSs).

Table 28.

Differences in the Use of the Verb "be" between Teacher Talk of NSs at the Elementary Level and Teacher Talk of NSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate Level**			
	NSs	**NSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Verb "be"	181	212	2,445	1	,118

As represented in Table 28, NSs at the pre-intermediate level used more verb "be" forms in their speech rather than NSs at the elementary level. NSs at the elementary level used 181 verb "be" structures. On the other hand, NSs at the pre-intermediate level uttered 212 verb "be" forms. Despite the increasing trend, no meaningful discrepancies were observed in the use of the verb "be" in the speech of NSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels ($p>.05$).

Table 29.

Differences in the Use of the Verb "be" between Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Elementary Level and Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate Level**			
	NNSs	**NNSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Verb "be"	231	126	30,882	1	,000

In Table 29, based on the comparison in the use of the verb "be" between teacher talk of NNSs at the elementary level and teacher talk of NNSs at the pre-intermediate level, the number of the verb "be" in the speech of NNSs at the elementary level was twice as high as the number in the teacher talk of NNSs at the pre-intermediate level that formed a notable distinction ($p<.05$).

Table 30.

Differences in the Use of Subordinate Clauses in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Elementary Level

Subordinate Clauses	**NSs**	**NNSs**	χ^2	**Sd**	**P**
Noun Clause	39	22	4,738	1	,030
Adjective Clause	14	14	0,000	1	1,000
Adverb Clause	48	24	8,000	1	,005

In Table 30, when subordinate clauses that NSs and NNSs used at the elementary level were examined, it was seen that NNSs used 22 noun clauses in their speech, NSs uttered 39 noun clauses. In parallel with the results, a meaningful difference in the use of noun clause between teacher talk of NSs and NNSs was noticed ($p<.05$). This meaningful difference between the speech of NSs and NNSs at the elementary level was also present for the use of adverb clauses ($p\leq.05$). Adverb clauses were used more by NSs rather than NNSs. The number of adverb clauses in teacher talk of NSs was two times as many as the number of adverb clauses in the speech of NNSs. NSs employed 48 adverb clauses whereas NNSs used 24 adverb clauses.

In contrast with the use of noun clauses and adverb clauses, adjective clauses were used at the same number by both NSs and NNSs (14 adjective clauses in both speeches). Therefore, no important difference was observed between the teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the elementary level.

Table 31.

Differences in the Use of Subordinate Clauses in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

Subordinate Clauses	**NSs**	**NNSs**	χ^2	**Sd**	**P**
Noun Clause	71	39	9,309	1	,002
Adjective Clause	25	16	1,976	1	,160
Adverb Clause	54	43	1,247	1	,264

As emphasised in Table 31, NSs used more noun clauses than NNSs did at the pre-intermediate level. There were 71 noun clauses in the speech of NSs while there were 39 noun clauses in teacher talk of NNSs. Therefore, it is obvious to say that there was a remarkable difference in the use of noun clauses between the speech of NSs and NNSs ($p<.05$). However, significant discrepancies were not seen in the use of adjective and adverb clauses between teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at this level although NSs used more adjective and adverb clauses than NNSs did (25 adjective clauses in teacher talk of NSs, 16 adjective clauses in teacher talk of NNSs, 54 adverb clauses in the speech of NSs and 43 adverb clauses in the speech of NNSs).

Table 32.

Differences in the Use of Subordinate Clauses between Teacher Talk of NSs at the Elementary Level and Teacher Talk of NSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate Level**			
Subordinate Clauses	**NSs**	**NSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Noun Clause	39	71	9,309	1	,002
Adjective Clause	14	25	3,103	1	,078
Adverb Clause	48	54	,353	1	,552

Table 32 illustrates an increasing pattern in the use of noun clauses, adjective clauses and adverb clauses in the teacher talk of NSs at the pre-intermediate level. To specify the data, NSs at the pre-intermediate level used more noun and adjective clauses rather than NSs did at the elementary level although there was a marked difference in just noun clauses ($p<.05$). Regarding adverb clauses, NSs used more adverb clauses at the pre-intermediate level surpassing NSs in their speech at the elementary level that does not form a great difference ($p<.05$).

Table 33.

Differences in the Use of Subordinate Clauses between Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Elementary Level and Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate Level**			
Clauses	**NNSs**	**NNSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Noun Clause	22	39	4,738	1	,030
Adjective Clause	14	16	,133	1	,715
Adverb Clause	24	43	5,388	1	,020

Table 33 mirrors that NNSs at the pre-intermediate level used more noun, adjective and adverb clauses than NNSs did at the elementary level. Despite high rate of subordinate clauses in the teacher talk of NNSs at the pre intermediate level, there was an observable difference in only use of noun and adverb clauses between teacher talk of NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels ($p<.05$ for noun clauses, $p<.05$ for adverb clauses).

Table 34.

Differences in the Use of Sentences in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Elementary Level

Sentences	**NSs**	**NNSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Compound Sentence	26	26	,000	1	1,000
Complex Sentence	74	48	5,541	1	,019
Complex-Compound Sentence	14	6	3,200	1	,074

As observed in Table 34, the number of compound sentences used by NSs was the same as the number in the teacher talk of NNSs. Both NSs and NNSs used 26 compound sentences. In addition, NSs used 14 complex-compound sentences. However, NNSs uttered 6 complex-compound sentences. According to statistical calculations, no significant discrepancies were observed between NSs and NNSs in the uses of compound and complex-compound sentences at the elementary level ($p>.05$ for compound sentences, $p>.05$ for complex-compound sentences) although the use of

complex sentence shows a meaningful difference between teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the same level (p<.05).

Table 35.

Differences in the Use of Sentences in the Teacher Talk of NSs and NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

Sentences	**NSs**	**NNSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Compound Sentence	34	23	2,123	1	,145
Complex Sentence	83	76	,308	1	,579
Complex Compound Sentence	29	11	8,100	1	,004

In Table 35, NSs used more compound, complex and complex-compound sentences than NNSs did at the pre-intermediate level. Despite this, the number of compound and complex sentences used by NSs and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level did not reflect any important differences (p>.05 for compound sentences, p>.05 for complex sentences) while the number of complex-compound sentences used by NSs and NNSs in this level formed a meaningful difference (p<.05).

Table 36.

Differences in the Use of Sentences between Teacher Talk of NSs at the Elementary Level and Teacher Talk of NSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate Level**			
Sentences	**NSs**	**NSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Compound Sentence	26	34	1,067	1	,302
Complex Sentence	74	83	,516	1	,473
Complex-Compound Sentence	14	29	5,233	1	,022

As pinpointed in Table 36, compound, complex and complex-compound sentences were made more in the speech of NSs at the pre-intermediate level rather than in the teacher talk of NSs at the elementary level. Despite the increasing trend in the

number of subordinate clauses at the pre-intermediate level, the only notable difference was seen in the number of complex-compound sentences ($p<.05$) while the number of compound and complex sentences in teacher talk of NSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels was close to each other. NSs at the pre-intermediate level made 14 complex-compound sentences. On the other hand, NSs at the pre-intermediate level constructed 29 complex-compound sentences.

Table 37.

Differences in the Use of Sentences between Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Elementary Level and Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Pre-Intermediate

	Elementary Level	**Pre-Intermediate Level**			
Sentences	**NNSs**	**NNSs**	**χ^2**	**Sd**	**P**
Compound Sentence	26	23	,184	1	,668
Complex Sentence	48	76	6,323	1	,012
Complex-Compound Sentence	6	11	1,471	1	,225

Table 37 represents that NNSs at the pre-intermediate level made more complex and complex-compound sentences compared with NNSs at the elementary level. However, the only observable difference was seen in the use of complex sentences ($p<.05$). There were 48 complex sentences in teacher talk of NNSs at the elementary level while there were 76 complex sentences in the speech of NNSs at the pre-intermediate level. As for compound sentences, NNSs at the elementary level formed more compound sentences than NNSs did at the pre-intermediate level. However, it was not possible to see any meaningful differences between these levels because the number of compound sentences at the elementary level was so close to the number of compound sentencees at the pre-intermediate level ($p>.05$).

4.2.1. Data Obtained From The Questionnaire and Interview

Besides tables related with lexical and syntactical structures used in teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels, there was a questionnaire in the study that was designed for getting background information including the age, the first language, educational life and working experience of the participants (see Table 1). However, these findings were not taken into consideration for analysis.

Also, an interview was conducted. Participants were first asked a question regarding whether the language that teacher uses should change according to proficiency level of the learners. When the participants answered this question "yes", they were asked how they could change their language according to the level of the students. They were also asked whether they would simplify or elaborate their classroom language or how they would make some modifications.

When the answers of NSs were compared with the ones of NNSs at the elementary level, it was clearly seen that both NSs and NNSs stated that they would modify their talk according to the proficiency level of the learners. They also pinpointed that each proficiency level necessiated certain types of vocabulary and grammar structures. Therefore, they put forward that they needed to teach and interact with the learners by taking their language level into account. One of NNSs at the elementary level expressed:

> "*As each level contains certain vocabulary, teachers should use language according to level of students to make interaction with them easier*."

On the other hand, based on the comparison of the answers given by NSs and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level, it was obviously noticed that NSs and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level believed that using complex structures at beginner or elementary level could cause learners to lose their motivation during the process of language learning. One of the NNSs at the pre-intermediate level says:

> "*How can you use complex sentences when teaching beginners? Firstly, they will lose motivation. Then, they will lose their interest in the lesson."*

They mainly thought that teachers needed to modify their classroom language so that learners could feel the confidence in their abilities to understand. However, they put forward that their classroom language needed to be just beyond the level of the learners. They believed the necessity of challenge in language learning process. In addition, they suggested that there was no need to use too simple language and to speak too slowly to make the learners comprehend the language.

In contrast with the point of views of NNSs and one NS at the pre-intermediate level, just one native speaker of English at the pre-intermediate level expressed the necessity of speaking slower with beginners. He stated:

> "*I think you should speak slower with beginners and as they progress, you can speak faster and use more difficult grammar and vocabulary."*

In other words, it can be said that NSs and NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels shared similar ideas about modifying their classroom language according to the proficiency level of the learners while their views on the type of modifications that teachers could show differences. All of the NSs and NNSs at the elementary level and one of the native speakers of English at the pre-intermediate level stressed the simplification of the language especially towards the learners at the beginner or elementary level. However, one other NS and both of the NNSs at the pre-intermediate level emphasised that there was no need to simplify the language and try to make everything clear for the learners to understand. Furthermore, they focused on the idea that teachers needed to use classroom language a little beyond learners' understanding.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

This study mainly focuses on the lexical and syntactical modifications in teacher talk of NSs and NNSs in EFL classrooms. This chapter reveals the discussion of the findings regarding research questions, implications for ELT, limitations and suggestions for future studies.

5.2 Evaluation of the Research Questions

Research Question 1: Do native and non-native speakers of English modify their lexis while interacting with non-native learners in EFL classroom setting? If so, what kind of lexical modifications do native and non-native speakers of English make in their teacher talk for elementary and pre-intermediate level class learners?

The analysis of the data has shown that NSs and NNSs in EFL classrooms modify their lexis while addressing non-native learners. Data gathered from Antcon 3.2.1, Collins Cobuild 5th Edition and SPSS 17.0 Programme have also presented the lexical modifications such as word types, word tokens, type-token ratios and dictionary frequencies of 100 most frequently used content words in the teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels.

Research Question 2: Do lexical modifications in teacher talk of native and non-native speakers of English change according to the proficiency level of the learners?

The results obtained from the quantitative data have proven to us that the number of the lexical modifications in the speech of NSs and NNSs at the elementary level regarding word tokens, word types and dictionary frequencies of 100 most frequently used content words differed in number in the teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level.

To specify the results regarding lexical modifications, NSs and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level uttered more *word tokens* compared with the number of word tokens used by NSs and NNSs at the elementary level. Both NSs and NNSs increased the use

of word tokens at the pre-intermediate level constituting a notable difference (see Table 4 and Table 5).

Regarding the second category *word types,* it can easily be stated that there were more word types in the speech of NSs and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level rather than the word types in teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the elementary level and this forms a statistically important significance (see Table 4 and Table 5).

As for the *type-token ratio*, one of the types of lexical modifications does not show any variations according to the proficiency level of the learners. Type-token ratio was interestingly the same in the teacher talk of NSs at the elementary level and NSs and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level (0.13). There was an increase just in the rate of type-token ratio in the speech of NNSs at the pre-intermediate level compared to the ratio in the speech of NNSs at the elementary level. It increased from 0.11 to 0.13 (see Tables 6 and 7).

In relation with the last category, the *dictionary frequency of 100 most frequently used content words*, the fact that NSs and NNSs used higher percentage of content words with the dictionary frequency band 3 and lower percentage of content words with the dictionary frequency band 1 at the elementary level is consistent with the ideas of Henzl (1973, 1979) suggesting that teachers were inclined to use more basic vocabularies to L2 learners, especially to the ones with lower proficiency level of the language. In addition, the results of the interview presenting the simplicity of the vocabulary in the teacher talk addressing non-native learners with lower proficiency level have also been in parallel with Henzl' s (1973) findings. On the other hand, when we compare the results in the teacher talk of NSs at the elementary level with the ones in the speech of NSs at the pre-intermediate level, it is possible to observe a slight decrease regarding 100 most frequently used content words with dictionary frequency band 1, 2 and a slight increase in the use of content words with dictionary frequency band 3 in the teacher talk of NSs at the pre-intermediate level (see Table 8 and Table 9). This is in contrast with the expectation that there should be a lower percentage of content words with dictionary frequency band 3 and higher percentage of content words with dictionary frequency band 1 and 2 as the proficiency level of the learner progresses.

As for NNSs, the same trend in relation to 100 most frequently used content words with dictionary frequency 1, 2 and 3 also continues between the teacher talk of NNSs at the elementary level and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level (see Table 8 and

Table 9). Also, the findings are not in accordance with the assumption that the use of basic vocabulary decreases with the higher level of language proficiency of the learners.

Research Question 3: Is there any lexical variety in teacher talk of native and non-native speakers of English at elementary and pre-intermediate level classrooms? If any, what kind of varieties can be seen in terms of lexis?

The data have also been analysed to reveal whether teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels shows lexical variety. Chaudron (1988) emphasises that the smaller the type-token ratio is, the less diverse the speech is (p.72). According to results obtained from Tables 6 and 7, teacher talk of NNSs at elementary level indicated the least variance with regard to lexical diversity (0.11) while the type token ratio for NSs at the elementary level, NSs at the pre-intermediate level, and for NNSs at the pre-intermediate level was interestingly same (0.13). However, it can be clearly inferred that there was no lexical richness in teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at both levels. These results seem to be in correlation with the findings in the studies of Henzl (1979), Mizon (1981) and Kleifgen (1985) suggesting less varied vocabulary towards non-native learners.

Research Question 4: Are there any syntactical modifications made by native and non-native speakers of English while addressing non-native learners of English with elementary and pre-intermediate proficiency level? If any, what kind of syntactical modifications are made during teacher talk of native and non-native speakers of English towards elementary and pre-intermediate learners?

The findings obtained from the quantitative data have revealed that NSs and NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels made syntactical modifications while addressing non-native learners of English. These syntactical modifications range from words per sentence, types of verbs (transitive, intransitive and linking verbs), verb moods (indicatives, imperatives and subjunctives), voice of verbs (active and passive verbs), the verb "be", subordinate clauses (noun, adjective and adverb clauses) to the types of sentences (compound, complex and complex-compound sentences).

Research Question 5: If there are any syntactical modifications in teacher talk of native and non-native speakers of English, do these modifications in teacher talk depend on the level of the learners?

The results obtained from data have shown that the syntactical modifications in the speech of NSs and NNSs change according to the proficiency level of the learners. First, when *words per sentence* in teacher talk are taken into consideration, it can clearly

be seen that NSs at the pre-intermediate level made longer sentences (wpm=7.6) than NSs did at the elementary level (wpm=6.6) (see Table 12) in correlation with the ideas of Henzl (1973, 1979) and Hakansson (1986) suggesting an increase in the number of words per sentence as the proficiency level of the learners progressed. Apart from the findings regarding the use of words per sentence in the teacher talk of NSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels, NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels used almost the same number of words per sentence (5.9 in the speech of NNSs at the elementary level and 5.8 in the teacher talk of NNSs at the pre-intermediate level) which does not form any differences in the use of words per sentence.

Regarding *types of verbs*, the number of transitives, intransitives and linking verbs in the teacher talk of NSs at the pre-intermediate level increased in comparison with the number in the speech of NSs at the elementary level. However, there was not a statistically meaningful difference in the speech of NSs at both levels in relation to these types of verbs (see Table 16). When the teacher talk of NNSs at the elementary level was compared with the teacher talk of NNSs at the pre-intermediate level, a small decrease was observed in the use of linking verbs in the speech of NNSs at the pre-intermediate level. As for transitive and intransitive verbs, NNSs at the pre-intermediate level used more transitive and intransitive verbs in their teacher talk rather than NNSs did at the elementary level. Nevertheless, the only meaningful difference between the speech of NNSs at the elementary level and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level was marked in the use of intransitive verbs (see Table 17). NNSs at the pre-intermediate level used more intransitives than NNSs did at the elementary level.

As for the *verb mood* in the teacher talk of NSs at the elementary level and NSs at the pre-intermediate level, it is not possible to measure a statistically meaningful difference in the use of subjunctives because NSs at the elementary level used no subjunctives in their speech (see Table 20). Similarly, it is also not possible to calculate whether there is a meaningful significance between the speech of NNSs at the elementary level and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level due to the fact that NNSs at the elementary level used no subjunctives (see Table 21). However, meaningful differences were observed between the teacher talk of NSs at the elementary level and NSs at the pre-intermediate level regarding indicatives and imperatives. NSs at the pre-intermediate level used more indicatives than NSs did at the elementary level whereas NSs at the elementary level used more imperatives than NSs did at the pre-intermediate level (see Table 20). The use of imperatives more by NSs at the elementary level might

result from teachers' tendency to modify their language to make the input more comprehensible and to facilitate learning. On the other hand, the number of imperatives used by NNSs at the pre-intermediate level was somehow close to the number in the teacher talk of NNSs at the elementary level. This does not constitute any markable significance (see Table 21).

When teacher talk of NNSs at the elementary level was compared with the speech of NNSs at the pre-intermediate level, the only meaningful difference was seen in the use of indicatives. NNSs at the pre-intermediate level used more indicatives than NNSs did at the elementary level which does not correlate with the findings in the study of Henzl (1979) emphasising more indicatives while interacting with beginners.

To specify the results in relation to another kind of syntactical modification, *voice of verbs*, it can be said that NSs at both levels used more active verbs than passive verbs. Interestingly, NSs at the pre-intermediate level used more active sentences than NSs did at the elementary level. However, this does not form a notable significance. A markable significance was noted between the teacher talk of NSs at the elementary level and NSs at the pre-intermediate level in terms of passive voice (see Table 24). As for NNSs at both levels, they used the same number of passive verbs. While NNS at the elementary level used 1 passive verb, NNS at the pre-intermediate level also used 1 passive verb which does not necessiate any calculations. Only meaningful difference in the speech of NNSs at both levels was observed in the use of active verbs. Interestingly, NNSs at the pre-intermediate level used more active verbs than NNSs did at the elementary level (see Table 25). Findings regarding the use of passive verbs correlate with the results in the study of Henzl (1979) suggesting almost no passives towards non-native learners with lower level of language proficiency. On the other hand, results in this study in relation to active verbs are not in parallel with the findings in the study of Henzl (1979) and Chaudron (1979) focusing on using more active verb forms while interacting with less proficient learners.

The findings in this study regarding *the verb "be"* reveal the measures of markedness in a teacher's speech. According to results, there were no markable discrepancies between the teacher talk of NSs at the elementary level and NSs at the pre-intermediate level (see Table 28). However, a markable difference in relation to the verb "be" is statistically revealed in the speech of NNSs at the elementary level and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level (see Table 29). NNSs at the elementary level used more verb "be" forms than NNSs did at the pre-intermediate level. These results are

consistent with the results of the studies of Wesche and Ready (1985) highlighting fewer verb "be" forms towards non-native learners. As Chaudron (1988) mentions, it can clearly be said that teachers tend to modify their classroom language to learners with lower proficiency level by uttering less marked forms.

In addition, the use of *subordinate clauses* indicates the measure of subordination in teacher talk. Regarding noun clauses, NSs at the pre-intermediate level used more noun clauses than NSs did at the elementary level which forms a notable difference. The same fashion continues in the speech of NNSs at both levels (see Tables 32 and 33). As for adjective clauses, there was a slight increase in the use of adjective clauses in the teacher talk of NSs and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level compared with the speech of NSs and NNSs at the elementary level although this does not constitute a notable difference (see Table 32 and 33). In addition to the use of noun and adjective clauses, the use of adverb clauses increased in the speech of NNSs at the pre-intermediate level compared to the use of adverb clauses in teacher talk of NNSs at the elementary level forming an observable difference (see Table 33). Although there is a small increase in the number of adverb clauses in the speech of NSs at the pre-intermediate level, this does not lead to a marked difference (see Table 32). It can be inferred from the data that teachers mostly tended to use fewer subordinate clauses towards less proficient non-native learners as Hakansson (1986) pinpoints. This inference is also in accordance with the ideas of Gaies (1977) emphasising an increase in the use of subordinate clauses to the learners with higher level of language proficiency.

As a last category, the findings of the *types of sentences* illustrated that NSs at the pre-intermediate level used complex sentences most while NSs at the elementary level constructed complex-compound sentences least. It is an undeniable fact that there was an increase in the use of compound, complex and complex-compound sentences in the teacher talk of NSs at the pre-intermediate level in comparison with the speech of NSs at the elementary level. Despite this increase, the only notable difference was observed in the use of complex-compound sentences. NSs at the pre-intermediate level used more complex-compound sentences than NSs did at the elementary level (see Table 36). An increase in the use of these types of sentences can also be observed in the use of complex and complex-compound sentences in NNSs' speech at the pre-intermediate level. Nevertheless, the only meaningful difference was found in the use of complex sentences rather than compound and complex-compound sentences. NNSs at

the pre-intermediate level constructed more complex sentences than NNSs did at the elementary level. As for compound sentences in the speech of NNSs at both levels, it can be said that there was interestingly a slight decrease in the number of compound sentences in the teacher talk of NNSs at the elementary level compared with the number at the pre-intermediate level that does not form a markable difference (see Table 37).

Upon the examination of the overall findings in relation to types of sentences, it can be interpreted that speech addressing less proficient non-native learners should be less complex as Chaudron (1979) and Gaies (1977) put forward. This is also in correlation with the findings obtained from the administered interview with NSs and NNSs at the elementary level and one NS at the pre-intermediate level stressing simplification of the language and avoidance from complex sentence structures.

Finally, syntactical modifications obtained from the quantitative data have also been supported by the findings of the interviews although the opinions of NSs and NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels on the kinds of syntactical modifications may change. The results of the interviews have mirrored that NSs and NNSs at the elementary level focused on the idea that each proficiency level necessitated certain types of grammar structure and teachers needed to interact with the students according to the proficiency level of the learners. As for NSs and NNSs at the pre-intermediate level, only one of the NSs at the pre-intermediate level emphasised the necessity of using simple structures with the beginners and he suggested that teachers should use more advanced grammar as the proficiency level of the learners progressed. The other NS and both of the NNSs at the pre intermediate level also stressed the importance of the teacher talk modified according to the proficiency levels of the learners because they pinpointed that using complex structures at the beginner or elementary levels might cause learners to lose their interest and motivation in language learning. However, they also put forth that the classroom language of the teacher should be a little beyond the level of the learners to provide comprehensible input as Krashen (1982) pinpoints. In other words, NSs and NNSs at the elementary and pre-intermediate level had similar opinions and beliefs on modifying the classroom language according to the proficiency levels of the learners whereas their points of views on the kind of syntactical modifications could show differences.

5.3. Limitations of the Study

The study investigated the talk of only eight instructors: four native and four non-native speaker instructors. Because participants symbolize a small number, the study has limitations in this respect. In addition, this study focused on two aspects of teacher talk: lexis and syntax. Therefore, it does not provide all the aspects of teacher talk and insights from all perspectives.

Teaching habits or strategies of the teachers may differ and affect their teacher talk in the classroom. Besides this, gender and qualifications of the teacher, teaching subjects, the activities and materials that teachers use may influence teachers' use of English in EFL classrooms.

5.4. Implications for ELT

The findings of the present study try to probe a phenomenon and arouse insights demonstrating lexical and syntactical modifications of native and non-native speakers of English in their speech when talking to non-native learners at the elementary and pre-intermediate levels. By means of the comparison of teacher talk of native and non-native speakers, this study may contribute to more studies in relation to teacher talk of NSs and NNSs and their modifications and it may raise awareness of EFL teachers regarding the importance of teacher talk.

Although further research is necessary to enhance the findings of this study, the present findings have several important implications for the field of foreign language teaching. First, comprehensible input is in the core of second or foreign language learning and teaching, and modifications in teacher talk help non-native learners understand the input enabling them to acquire the language. In this sense, the linguistic input in teacher talk may be enhanced for the benefit of non-native learners.

Second, the data gained in this study or similar research may be used by in-service or teacher training programs to give more instructions about how to produce effective teacher talk providing comprehensible input to L2 learners. Furthermore, the findings of the study may be beneficial in terms of preparing ELT materials and resources that can be used in different classrooms and with various non-native learners to meet their needs of comprehensible input.

Third, teacher resources may concentrate on the phenomenon of teacher talk by presenting and describing adjustments at lexical and syntactic levels in order to contribute to development of professional skills and advancement of the quality of an ESL or EFL teacher.

5.5. Suggestions for Further Study

Because of the small number of the participant population, similar studies are necessary to expand the range of the study and confirm its findings. Teacher talk in this study may be studied considering the modifications in other areas such as phonology, semantic and discourse rather than lexical and syntactical ones. Furthermore, not only the speech of teachers, but also the speech of learners may be analysed through discourse analysis.

Secondly, this study may be applied in three different levels including elementary, intermediate and advanced levels to see the differences among levels more clearly.

Finally, other variables such as gender, age or the experience of the teacher may also be investigated to understand and demonstrate whether there may be differences regarding the gender, age or the experience of the teacher.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1
TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

The transcription conventions used in this study are adapted from Jefferson (2004). The table below demonstrates the symbols employed in the study.

SYMBOL	FUNCTION
0001	Line number
hhh	Laughter tokens
((coughs))	Verbal description of actions noted in the transcript including non-verbal actions
((unintelligible))	A stretch of talk that is unintelligible to the analyst
.	A full stop indicates a stopping fall in tone. It does not necessarily indicate the end of a sentence.
?	A question mark indicates a rising inflection. It does not necessarily indicate a question.

APPENDIX 2

SAMPLES FROM THE TRANSCRIPTIONS OF THE RECORDINGS AT THE ELEMENTARY LEVEL AND PRE-INTERMEDIATE LEVEL

2.1 The Transcription of the Recording of a Non-Native Speaker of English at the Elementary Level

Ok, Bengü. Let's start with you. Have you ever been to China? Have you ever been to China?

No, I haven't. Have you ever been to İstanbul?

Let's say. Have you ever been to Ankara?

No, I haven't. No, we should find a place that you have been to. Have you ever been to Mersin? Did you go to Mersin?

Who did you go with?

I went with my family. How long did you stay? How long did you stay in Mersin?

What did you do?

I swam. Do you like swimming? What else do you like doing? You like swimming?

Dancing? and Do you go to dance school? Do you have dance classes?

You take dance classes. What is Mersin like? What is Mersin like? Is it a big city? Is Weather hot?

It is a hot city and how are people like? Are they friendly? Are they…? What are they like? They are friendly. Do you want to live in Mersin? Do you want to live in Mersin?

Do you want to live in another city in Turkey?

Why do you want to live in İzmir?

Because I love İzmir. Have you ever been to İzmir?

When did you go there?

When I was 10 years old. Did you study there? Or?

No, I didn't. Thank you, Bengü and let's go on with Sultan. Sultan, have you ever eaten Italian food?

No, Have you ever eaten Chinese food?

2.2 The Transcription of the Recording of a Native Speaker of English at the Pre-Intermediate Level

5 The first question just says what's happening in the pictures?

7 Yes, lots of traffic.

9 Yeah, good. What about the second picture?

11 Lots of bicycles. What else do you notice about the bicycles?

12 Yeah, he's wearing a suit (laughing). He'a wearing a suit and riding a bicycle. Ok
13 and the third one?

14 Yeah, metro.

16 Yeah, it's crowded. Do these things ever happen to you? This is the second
17 question. Like traffic jams or a crowded metro or a crowded bus?

19 Yeah, like in Adana.

21 Well, there is a metro.

22 Yeah.

24 I think it's a joke, too. A total inconvenience, you know totally unusable for normal
25 people, but that is a different subject. How do you feel when you are in a crowded
26 metro or a traffic jam?

27 Yeah, angry.

29 Umm, bored. I remember, are you all from Adana? No?

31 None of you are?

33 I was born in Adana but I am not from.

35 Umm, I mean, yeah, you don't live in Adana.

37 Where are you from?

39 Oh I see, like your parents?

41 But you live in Adana, so you don't ride the buses?

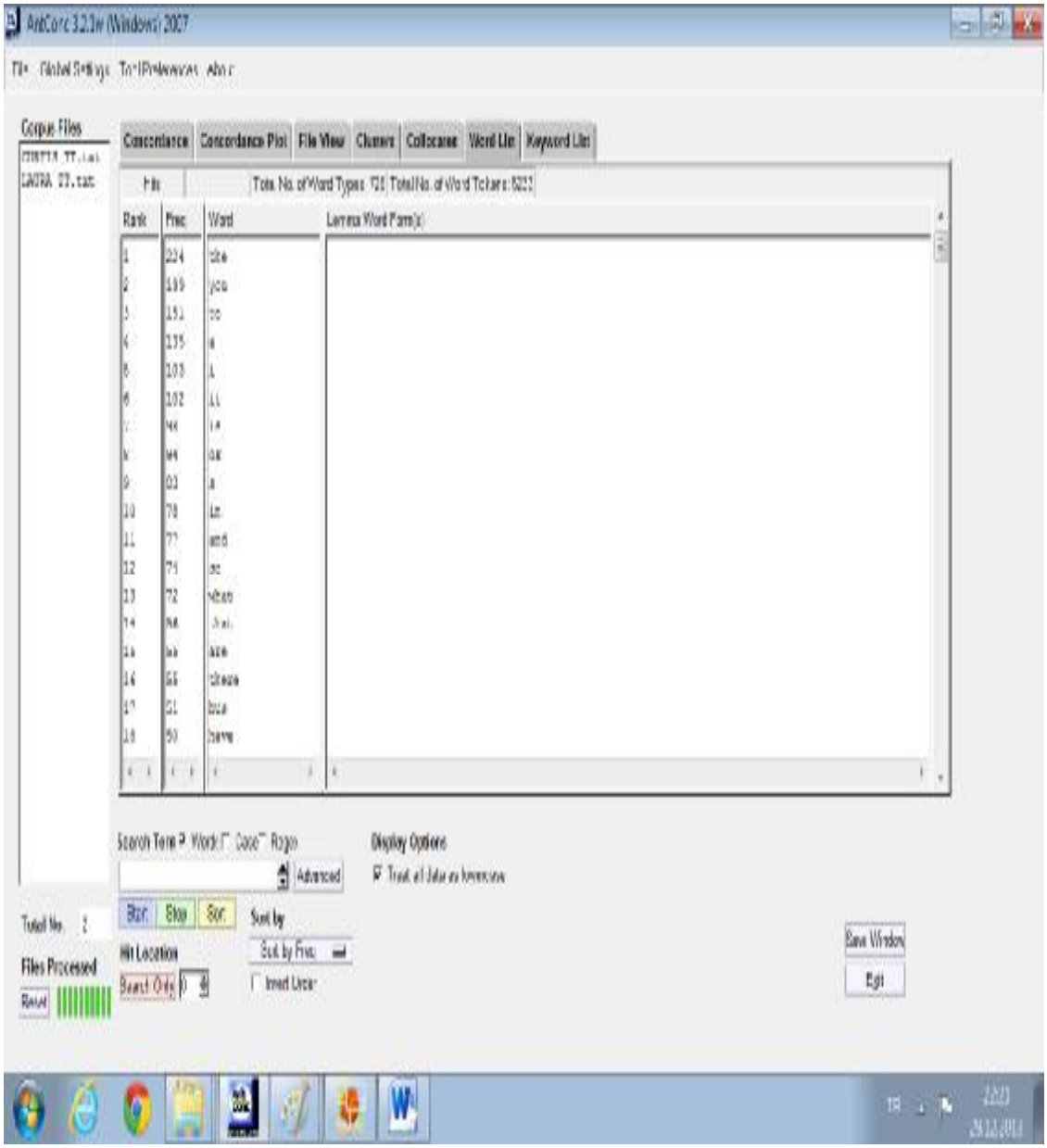
42 You don't ride the busses? I will never forget my first time. I am on the red bus in
43 Adana because those buses are so crowded and they are ten cents or ten kurus
44 cheaper I think and they are so crowded. Everybody is on them like fish on the bus.
45 They are so crowded and you know, I kept saying excuse me, excuse me and a
46 woman, I don't remember if it was in Turkish or in English but kept saying "is
47 this you first time on the bus" because I kept saying "excuse me, I'm sorry, oh,
48 I'm sorry" like this because it's so crowded. They are always so crowded.

49 Exactly, I need to buy a car. The third question says how do you usually get around?

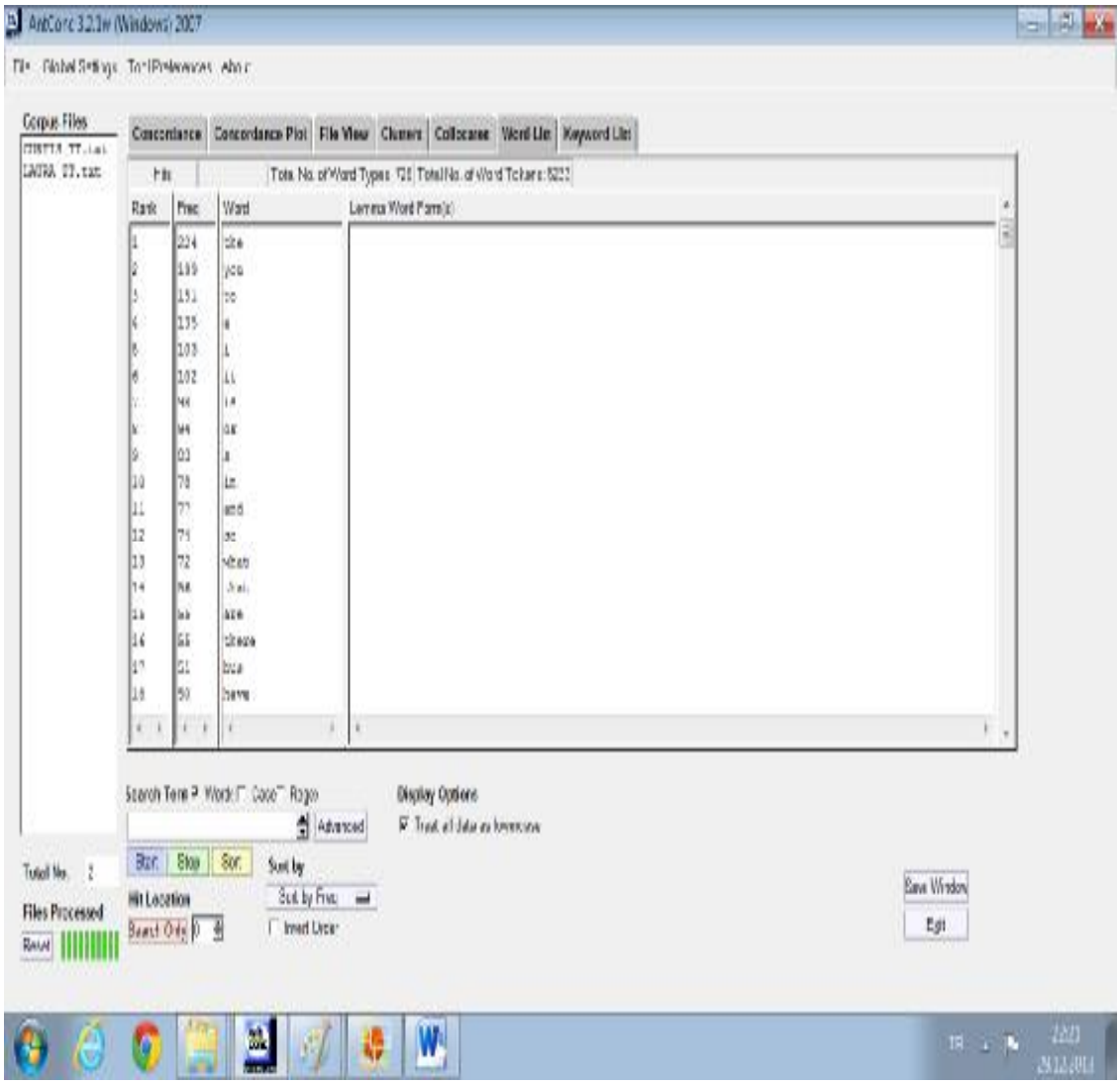
APPENDIX 3

SAMPLES FROM ANTCONC 3.2.1 PROGRAMME

3.1 A List of Word Types, Word Tokens and Word Frequency in Teacher Talk of NNSs at Elementary Level



3.2 A List of Word Types, Word Tokens and Word Frequency in Teacher Talk of NSs at Pre-Intermediate Level



APPENDIX 4

SAMPLES FROM THE LISTS OF 100 MOST FREQUENTLY USED CONTENT WORDS AT THE ELEMENTARY AND PRE-INTERMEDIATE LEVEL

Appendix 4.1 The List of 100 Most Frequently Used Content Words in the Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Elementary Level

100 MOST FREQUENTLY USED CONTENT WORDS	TT FREQUENCY
Ok	157
Like	102
Yes	69
What	55
Want	50
Country	44
Food	32
Go	28
Live	28
Thought	27
Ask	23
Do	23
Let	23
No	22
Mean	21
Question	19
Understand	19
Interesting	18
Questions	18
Famous	18
Say	18
City	17
Maybe	17
Have	15
See	15
Know	14
Look	14

Person	14
Where	14
Singer	14
Thank	14
Changing	14
Now	14
Please	13
Supermarket	12
Again	11
Department	11
Different	11
Happy	11
Job	11
Moving	11
Change	10
Culture	10
People	10
Study	10
Think	10
Worker	10
Tell	10
Car	9
Competition	9
Kind	9
Met	9
Palace	9
Soccer	9
Wants	9
Eat	8
Looks	8
New	8
Old	8
Restaurant	8

Years	8
Big	7
Has	7
Book	7
Explore	7
Friendly	7
International	7
Long	7
Try	7
Become	6
Choices	6
Improve	6
Man	6
Dancing	6
Nights	6
Music	6
Trade	6
Time	5
Answer	5
Class	5
Easy	5
Films	5
Find	5
Friends	5
Hot	5
Life	5
Picture	5
School	5
Sorry	5
Talk	4
Asking	4
Beat	4
Castles	4

Dance	4
Film	4
Drive	4
Eaten	4
Football	4
Hats	4
Law	4

4.2 The List of 100 Most Frequently Used Content Words in the Teacher Talk of NSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

PRE- INTERMEDIATE LEVEL	
NATIVE SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH	
100 MOST FREQUENTLY USED CONTENT WORDS	**TT FREQUENCY**
Ok	94
Bus	51
Yes	41
Like	38
Get	37
Train	37
What	36
Traffic	29
Go	25
Very	24
Think	23
Know	21
Going	21
Maybe	20
Right	20
Have	19
How	19
Car	18
People	18
Take	18
Crowded	17
Use	17
Time	17
Let	16
Only	16
Cars	14

Drivers	14
Last	14
Parking	14
Want	14
Bike	13
Transportation	13
Picture	13
Listen	12
Talk	12
Took	12
Way	12
Five	12
Says	11
No	11
Solutions	11
Look	11
Make	10
Ask	10
Good	10
Page	10
Taken	10
Thirty	10
Women	10
Best	9
Bikes	9
Goes	9
Different	9
Long	9
Problem	9
Questions	9
Say	9
Buses	8
Directions	8

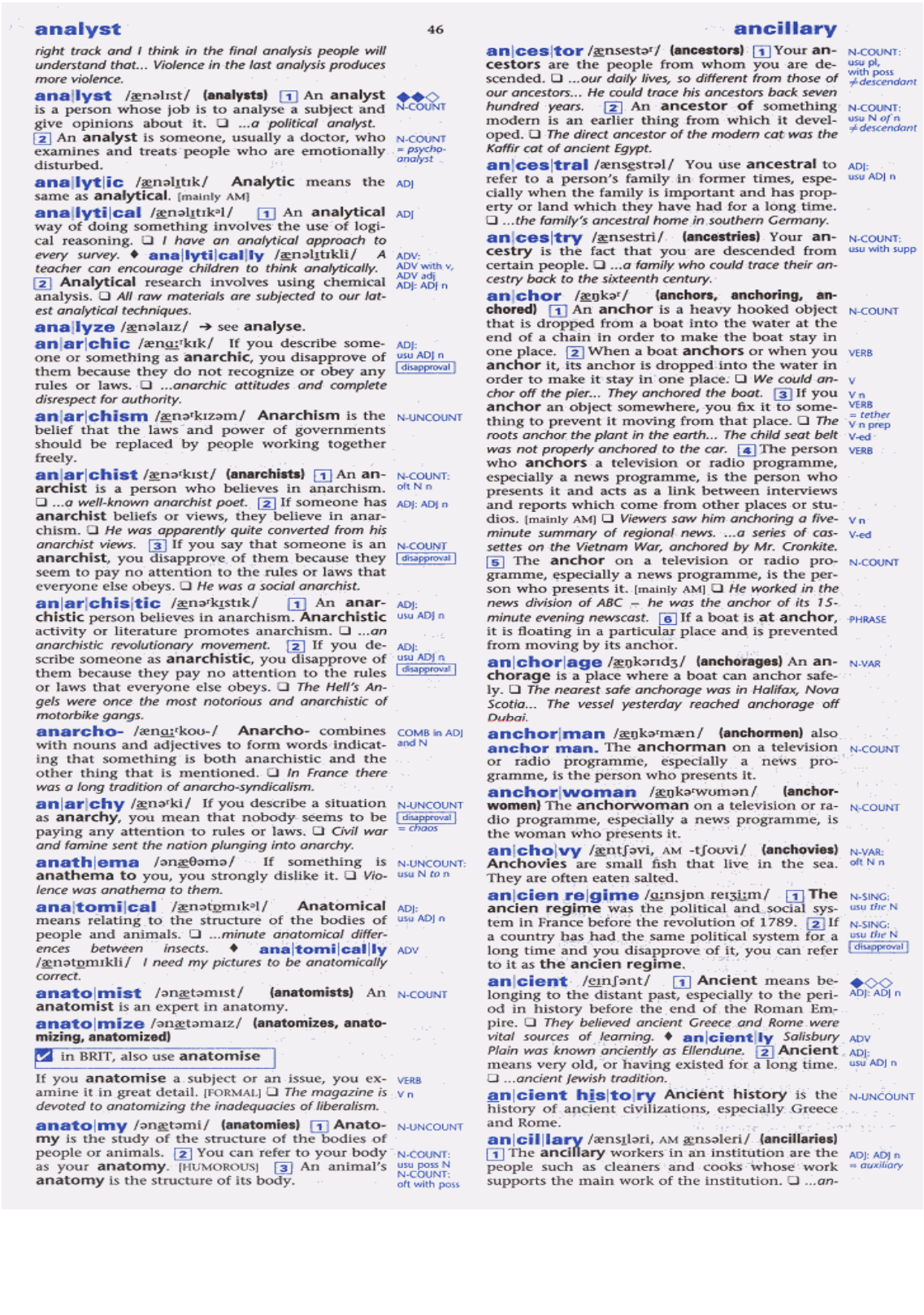
Driving	8
Just	8
Need	8
Never	8
Partner	8
Plane	8
See	8
Solution	8
Station	8
Street	8
Tell	8
Move	8
One	7
First	7
Lane	7
Mean	7
Minutes	7
Pictures	7
Place	7
Places	7
Problems	7
Write	7
Two	7
Then	7
Again	6
Air	6
Answer	6
Four	6
Had	6
New	6
Morning	6
Office	6
Now	6

Quick	6
School	6
Service	6
Standing	6
When	6
Bad	5
City	5
Dangerous	5
Decisions	5

APPENDIX 5

SAMPLES FROM COLLINS COBUILD DICTIONARY 5TH EDITION

5.1 DICTIONARY FREQUENCY BAND 1 AND 2



analyst 46 **ancillary**

right track and I think in the final analysis people will understand that... Violence in the last analysis produces more violence.

ana|lyst /ænəlɪst/ **(analysts)** 1 An **analyst** is a person whose job is to analyse a subject and give opinions about it. ❑ *...a political analyst.* 2 An **analyst** is someone, usually a doctor, who examines and treats people who are emotionally disturbed.

N-COUNT ◆◆◇ N-COUNT = *psycho-analyst*

ana|lyt|ic /ænəlɪtɪk/ **Analytic** means the same as **analytical**. [mainly AM]

ADJ

ana|lyt|i|cal /ænəlɪtɪkəl/ 1 An **analytical** way of doing something involves the use of logical reasoning. ❑ *I have an analytical approach to every survey.* ◆ **ana|lyt|i|cal|ly** /ænəlɪtɪkli/ *A teacher can encourage children to think analytically.* 2 **Analytical** research involves using chemical analysis. ❑ *All raw materials are subjected to our latest analytical techniques.*

ADJ ADV: ADV with v, ADV adj ADJ: ADJ n

ana|lyze /ænəlaɪz/ → see **analyse**.

an|ar|chic /ænɑːrkɪk/ If you describe someone or something as **anarchic**, you disapprove of them because they do not recognize or obey any rules or laws. ❑ *...anarchic attitudes and complete disrespect for authority.*

ADJ: usu ADJ n disapproval

an|ar|chism /ænərkɪzəm/ **Anarchism** is the belief that the laws and power of governments should be replaced by people working together freely.

N-UNCOUNT

an|ar|chist /ænərkɪst/ **(anarchists)** 1 An **anarchist** is a person who believes in anarchism. ❑ *...a well-known anarchist poet.* 2 If someone has **anarchist** beliefs or views, they believe in anarchism. ❑ *He was apparently quite converted from his anarchist views.* 3 If you say that someone is an **anarchist**, you disapprove of them because they seem to pay no attention to the rules or laws that everyone else obeys. ❑ *He was a social anarchist.*

N-COUNT: oft N n ADJ: ADJ n N-COUNT disapproval

an|ar|chis|tic /ænərkɪstɪk/ 1 An **anarchistic** person believes in anarchism. **Anarchistic** activity or literature promotes anarchism. ❑ *...an anarchistic revolutionary movement.* 2 If you describe someone as **anarchistic**, you disapprove of them because they pay no attention to the rules or laws that everyone else obeys. ❑ *The Hell's Angels were once the most notorious and anarchistic of motorbike gangs.*

ADJ: usu ADJ n ADJ: usu ADJ n disapproval

anarcho- /ænɑːrkoʊ-/ **Anarcho-** combines with nouns and adjectives to form words indicating that something is both anarchistic and the other thing that is mentioned. ❑ *In France there was a long tradition of anarcho-syndicalism.*

COMB in ADJ and N

an|ar|chy /ænərki/ If you describe a situation as **anarchy**, you mean that nobody seems to be paying any attention to rules or laws. ❑ *Civil war and famine sent the nation plunging into anarchy.*

N-UNCOUNT disapproval = *chaos*

anath|ema /ənæθəmə/ If something is **anathema to** you, you strongly dislike it. ❑ *Violence was anathema to them.*

N-UNCOUNT: usu N *to* n

ana|tomi|cal /ænətɒmɪkəl/ **Anatomical** means relating to the structure of the bodies of people and animals. ❑ *...minute anatomical differences between insects.* ◆ **ana|tomi|cal|ly** /ænətɒmɪkli/ *I need my pictures to be anatomically correct.*

ADJ: usu ADJ n ADV

anato|mist /ənætəmɪst/ **(anatomists)** An **anatomist** is an expert in anatomy.

N-COUNT

anato|mize /ənætəmaɪz/ **(anatomizes, anatomizing, anatomized)**

✔ in BRIT, also use **anatomise**

If you **anatomise** a subject or an issue, you examine it in great detail. [FORMAL] ❑ *The magazine is devoted to anatomizing the inadequacies of liberalism.*

VERB V n

anato|my /ənætəmi/ **(anatomies)** 1 **Anatomy** is the study of the structure of the bodies of people or animals. 2 You can refer to your body as your **anatomy**. [HUMOROUS] 3 An animal's **anatomy** is the structure of its body.

N-UNCOUNT N-COUNT: usu poss N N-COUNT: oft with poss

an|ces|tor /ænsestər/ **(ancestors)** 1 Your **ancestors** are the people from whom you are descended. ❑ *...our daily lives, so different from those of our ancestors... He could trace his ancestors back seven hundred years.* 2 An **ancestor of** something modern is an earlier thing from which it developed. ❑ *The direct ancestor of the modern cat was the Kaffir cat of ancient Egypt.*

N-COUNT: usu pl, with poss ≠ *descendant* N-COUNT: usu N *of* n ≠ *descendant*

an|ces|tral /ænsestrəl/ You use **ancestral** to refer to a person's family in former times, especially when the family is important and has property or land which they have had for a long time. ❑ *...the family's ancestral home in southern Germany.*

ADJ: usu ADJ n

an|ces|try /ænsestri/ **(ancestries)** Your **ancestry** is the fact that you are descended from certain people. ❑ *...a family who could trace their ancestry back to the sixteenth century.*

N-COUNT: usu with supp

an|chor /æŋkər/ **(anchors, anchoring, anchored)** 1 An **anchor** is a heavy hooked object that is dropped from a boat into the water at the end of a chain in order to make the boat stay in one place. 2 When a boat **anchors** or when you **anchor** it, its anchor is dropped into the water in order to make it stay in one place. ❑ *We could anchor off the pier... They anchored the boat.* 3 If you **anchor** an object somewhere, you fix it to something to prevent it moving from that place. ❑ *The roots anchor the plant in the earth... The child seat belt was not properly anchored to the car.* 4 The person who **anchors** a television or radio programme, especially a news programme, is the person who presents it and acts as a link between interviews and reports which come from other places or studios. [mainly AM] ❑ *Viewers saw him anchoring a five-minute summary of regional news. ...a series of cassettes on the Vietnam War, anchored by Mr. Cronkite.* 5 The **anchor** on a television or radio programme, especially a news programme, is the person who presents it. [mainly AM] ❑ *He worked in the news division of ABC – he was the anchor of its 15-minute evening newscast.* 6 If a boat is **at anchor**, it is floating in a particular place and is prevented from moving by its anchor.

N-COUNT VERB V V n VERB = *tether* V n prep V-ed VERB V n V-ed N-COUNT PHRASE

an|chor|age /æŋkərɪdʒ/ **(anchorages)** An **anchorage** is a place where a boat can anchor safely. ❑ *The nearest safe anchorage was in Halifax, Nova Scotia... The vessel yesterday reached anchorage off Dubai.*

N-VAR

anchor|man /æŋkərmæn/ **(anchormen)** also **anchor man.** The **anchorman** on a television or radio programme, especially a news programme, is the person who presents it.

N-COUNT

anchor|woman /æŋkərwʊmən/ **(anchorwomen)** The **anchorwoman** on a television or radio programme, especially a news programme, is the woman who presents it.

N-COUNT

an|cho|vy /æntʃəvi, AM -tʃoʊvi/ **(anchovies)** **Anchovies** are small fish that live in the sea. They are often eaten salted.

N-VAR: oft N n

an|cien re|gime /ɑːnsjɒn reɪʒiːm/ 1 **The ancien regime** was the political and social system in France before the revolution of 1789. 2 If a country has had the same political system for a long time and you disapprove of it, you can refer to it as **the ancien regime**.

N-SING: usu *the* N N-SING: usu *the* N disapproval

an|cient /eɪnʃənt/ 1 **Ancient** means belonging to the distant past, especially to the period in history before the end of the Roman Empire. ❑ *They believed ancient Greece and Rome were vital sources of learning.* ◆ **an|cient|ly** *Salisbury Plain was known anciently as Ellendune.* 2 **Ancient** means very old, or having existed for a long time. ❑ *...ancient Jewish tradition.*

◆◇◇ ADJ: ADJ n ADV ADJ: usu ADJ n

an|cient his|to|ry **Ancient history** is the history of ancient civilizations, especially Greece and Rome.

N-UNCOUNT

an|cil|lary /ænsɪləri, AM ænsəleri/ **(ancillaries)** 1 The **ancillary** workers in an institution are the people such as cleaners and cooks whose work supports the main work of the institution. ❑ *...an-*

ADJ: ADJ n = *auxiliary*

5.2 DICTIONARY FREQUENCY BAND 3

wait|ing game (waiting games) If you play a **waiting game**, you deal with a situation by deliberately doing nothing, because you believe you will gain an advantage by acting later, or because you are waiting to see how other people are going to act. ❑ *He's playing a waiting-game. He'll hope to hang on as long as possible until the pressure is off.* N-COUNT: usu sing

wait|ing list (waiting lists) A **waiting list** is a list of people who have asked for something which cannot be given to them immediately, for example medical treatment, housing, or training, and who must therefore wait until it is available. ❑ *There were 20,000 people on the waiting list for a home.* N-COUNT: oft on N

wait|ing room (waiting rooms) also **waiting-room.** A **waiting room** is a room in a place such as a railway station or a clinic, where people can sit down while they wait. N-COUNT

wait|ress /weɪtrəs/ **(waitresses, waitressing, waitressed)** [1] A **waitress** is a woman who works in a restaurant, serving people with food and drink. [2] A woman who **waitresses** works in a restaurant serving food and drink. ❑ *She had been working in a pub, cooking and waitressing.* ♦ **wait|ress|ing** *She does a bit of waitressing as a part-time job.* N-COUNT / VERB / V / N-UNCOUNT

waive /weɪv/ **(waives, waiving, waived)** [1] If you **waive** your right to something, for example legal representation, you choose not to have it or do it. ❑ *He pleaded guilty to the murders of three boys and waived his right to appeal.* [2] If someone **waives** a rule, they say that people do not have to obey it in a particular situation. ❑ *The art gallery waives admission charges on Sundays.* VERB / V n / VERB / V n

waiv|er /weɪvəʳ/ **(waivers)** A **waiver** is when a person, government, or organization agrees to give up a right or says that people do not have to obey a particular rule or law. ❑ *...a waiver of constitutional rights.* N-COUNT: usu with supp

wake /weɪk/ **(wakes, waking, woke, woken)** ◆◇◇

☑ The form **waked** is used in American English for the past tense.

[1] When you **wake** or when someone or something **wakes** you, you become conscious again after being asleep. ❑ *It was cold and dark when I woke at 6.30... Bob woke slowly to sunshine pouring in his window... She woke to find her dark room lit by flashing lights... She went upstairs to wake Milton.* ♦ **Wake up** means the same as **wake**. ❑ *One morning I woke up and felt something was wrong... At dawn I woke him up and said we were leaving.* VERB / V / V to n / V to-inf / V n / PHRASAL VERB / V P / V n P

[2] The **wake** of a boat or other object moving in water is the track of waves that it makes behind it as it moves through the water. ❑ *Dolphins sometimes play in the wake of the boats.* [3] A **wake** is a gathering or social event that is held before or after someone's funeral. ❑ *A funeral wake was in progress.* N-COUNT: usu sing, with poss / N-COUNT: usu sing

PHRASES [4] If one thing follows **in the wake of** another, it happens after the other thing is over, often as a result of it. ❑ *The governor has enjoyed a huge surge in the polls in the wake of last week's convention.* [5] Your **waking hours** are the times when you are awake rather than asleep. ❑ *It was work which consumed most of his waking hours.* [6] If you leave something or someone **in your wake**, you leave them behind you as you go. ❑ *Adam stumbles on, leaving a trail of devastation in his wake.* [7] If you are following **in** someone's **wake**, you are following them or their example. ❑ *In his wake came a waiter wheeling a trolley. ...the endless stream of female artists who released albums in her wake.* PREP-PHRASE = following / PHRASE: usu with poss / PHRASE: PHR after v / PHRASE: PHR after v

♦ **wake up** If something such as an activity **wakes** you **up**, it makes you more alert and ready to do things after you have been lazy or inactive. ❑ *A cool shower wakes up the body and boosts circulation.* → See also **wake 1**. PHRASAL VERB / V P n (not pron) / Also V n P

♦ **wake up to** If you **wake up to** something, you become aware of it. ❑ *People should wake up to the fact that people with disabilities have got a vote as well.* PHRASAL VERB / V P P n

wake|ful /weɪkfʊl/ Someone who is **wakeful** finds it difficult to get to sleep and wakes up very often when they should be sleeping. ♦ **wake|ful|ness** ❑ *It is never a good idea to take sleeping tablets regularly for this kind of wakefulness.* ADJ / N-UNCOUNT

wak|en /weɪkən/ **(wakens, wakening, wakened)** When you **waken**, or when someone or something **wakens** you, you wake from sleep. [LITERARY] ❑ *The noise of a door slamming wakened her... Women are much more likely than men to waken because of noise.* ♦ **Waken up** means the same as **waken**. ❑ *'Drink this coffee – it will waken you up.'... If you do waken up during the night, start the exercises again.* VERB = wake / V n / V / PHRASAL VERB / V n P / V P

wake-up call (wake-up calls) [1] A **wake-up call** is a telephone call that you can book through an operator or at a hotel to make sure that you wake up at a particular time. [2] If you say that something is a **wake-up call** to a person or group of people, you mean that it will make them notice something and start to take action. ❑ *The Ambassador said he hoped the statement would serve as a wake-up call to the government.* N-COUNT: usu sing / N-COUNT: usu sing, oft N to n

walk /wɔːk/ **(walks, walking, walked)** ◆◆◆

[1] When you **walk**, you move forward by putting one foot in front of the other in a regular way. ❑ *Rosanna and Forbes walked in silence for some while... She turned and walked away... They would stop the car and walk a few steps... When I was your age I walked five miles to school.* [2] A **walk** is a journey that you make by walking, usually for pleasure. ❑ *I went for a walk... He often took long walks in the hills.* [3] A **walk** of a particular distance is the distance which a person has to walk to get somewhere. ❑ *It was only a three-mile walk to Kabul from there... The church is a short walk from Piazza Dante.* [4] A **walk** is a route suitable for walking along for pleasure. ❑ *There is a 2 mile coastal walk from Craster to Newton.* [5] **A walk** is the action of walking rather than running. ❑ *She slowed to a steady walk.* [6] Someone's **walk** is the way that they walk. ❑ *George, despite his great height and gangling walk, was a keen dancer.* [7] If you **walk** someone somewhere, you walk there with them in order to show politeness or to make sure that they get there safely. ❑ *She walked me to my car.* [8] If you **walk** your dog, you take it for a walk in order to keep it healthy. ❑ *I walk my dog each evening around my local streets.* [9] to be **walking on air** → see **air**. to **walk tall** → see **tall**. VERB / V / V prep/adv / V n / V n to n / N-COUNT / N-SING: supp N, N of n / N-COUNT / N-SING: a N / N-SING: poss N / VERB = escort / V n prep/adv / VERB / V n

♦ **walk away** If you **walk away** from a problem or a difficult situation, you do nothing about it or do not face any bad consequences from it. ❑ *The most appropriate strategy may simply be to walk away from the problem... No one knows you're a part of this. You can just walk away.* PHRASAL VERB / V P from n / V P

♦ **walk away with** If you **walk away with** something such as a prize, you win it or get it very easily. [JOURNALISM] ❑ *Enter our competition and you could walk away with £10,000.* PHRASAL VERB = walk off with / V P P n

♦ **walk in on** If you **walk in on** someone, you enter the room that they are in while they are doing something private, and this creates an embarrassing situation. ❑ *His wife walked in on him making love.* PHRASAL VERB / V P P n

♦ **walk into** [1] If you **walk into** an unpleasant situation, you become involved in it without expecting to, especially because you have been careless. ❑ *He's walking into a situation that he absolutely can't control.* [2] If you **walk into** a job, you manage to get it very easily. [INFORMAL] ❑ *When I left school, I could walk into any job.* PHRASAL VERB / V P n / PHRASAL VERB / V P n

♦ **walk off with** If you **walk off with** something such as a prize, you win it or get it very easily. [JOURNALISM] ❑ *The delighted pensioner walked off with a £2,000 prize.* PHRASAL VERB = walk away with / V P P n

♦ **walk out** [1] If you **walk out of** a meeting, a performance, or an unpleasant situation, you leave it suddenly, usually in order to show that PHRASAL VERB

APPENDIX 6

SAMPLES FROM DICTIONARY FREQUENCY LISTS

6.1 Dictionary Frequency List of 100 Most Frequently used Content Words in Teacher Talk of NNSs at the Elementary Level

ELEMENTARY LEVEL		
NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH		
100 MOST FREQUENTLY USED CONTENT WORDS CATEGORIZED ACCORDING TO DICTIONARY FREQUENCY		
FREQUENCY 3	**FREQUENCY 2**	**FREQUENCY 1**
Answer	Choices	Castles
Again	Competition	Dancing
Ask	Culture	Explore
Asking	Dance	Friendly
Beat	Eat	Hats
Become	Eaten	Interesting
Big	Famous	Palace
Book	Football	Singer
Car	Happy	Soccer
Change	Hot	Supermarket
Changing	Improve	
Class	Maybe	
City	Music	
Country	Ok	
Different	Picture	
Department	Please	
Drive	Restaurant	
Do	Sorry	
Easy		
Film		
Films		
Find		
Food		

Friends		
Go		
Has		
Have		
International		
Job		
Kind		
Know		
Law		
Let		
Life		
Like		
Live		
Look		
Looks		
Long		
Man		
Mean		
Met		
Moving		
New		
Nights		
No		
Now		
Old		
Person		
People		
Question		
Questions		
Say		
See		
School		
Study		

Talk		
Tell		
Thank		
Think		
Thought		
Time		
Trade		
Try		
Understand		
Want		
Wants		
What		
Where		
Worker		
Years		
Yes		

6.2 Dictionary Frequency List of 100 Most Frequently used Content Words in Teacher Talk of NSs at the Pre-Intermediate Level

PRE-INTERMEDIATE LEVEL		
NATIVE SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH		
100 MOST FREQUENTLY USED CONTENT WORDS CATEGORIZED ACCORDING TO DICTIONARY FREQUENCY		
FREQUENCY 3	**FREQUENCY2**	**FREQUENCY 1**
Again	Crowded	Bike
Air	Dangerous	Bikes
Answer	Drivers	Bus
Ask	Listen	Buses
Bad	Maybe	Lane
Best	Ok	Traffic
Car	Parking	
Cars	Partner	
City	Picture	
Decisions	Pictures	
Directions	Plane	
Driving	Solution	
First	Solutions	
Five	Station	
Four	Train	
Get	Transportation	
Go		
Goes		
Going		
Good		
Had		
Have		
How		
Minutes		
Just		

Know		
Last		
Let		
Like		
Long		
Look		
Make		
Mean		
Minutes		
Morning		
Move		
Need		
Never		
New		
Now		
No		
One		
Only		
Office		
Page		
People		
Place		
Places		
Problem		
Problems		
Quick		
Right		
Say		
Says		
School		
See		
Service		
Standing		

Street		
Talk		
Take		
Taken		
Tell		
Time		
Then		
Think		
Thirty		
Two		
Took		
Use		
Very		
Want		
Way		
What		
When		
Write		
Women		
Yes		

APPENDIX 7

QUESTIONNAIRE

Background Information of the Participant

1.Name:

2. Surname:

3. Age:

4. Number of Years in English Language Teaching:

5. University Degree Obtained and Year:

6. Any English Certificates:

7. Any Master or Doctorate Degree:

APPENDIX 8

INTERVIEW

1. Do you think that the language that teacher uses in the classroom should change according to proficiency level of the students while interacting with them?

2. If so, what kind of modifications do teachers make in their speech? (Such as simplification, elaboration in the use of vocabulary or structures or some other modifications of the language)

CURRICULUM VITAE

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EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

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2004-2008	Hacettepe University, Faculty of Letters, Department of English Language and Literature, Ankara
2000-2004	Dumlupınar High School, Mersin
1997-2000	Şevket Pozcu Elementary School, Mersin
1992-1997	Mobil Çankaya Primary School, Mersin

WORK EXPERIENCE

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