

**T.C.  
İSTANBUL ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ**

**DOKTORA TEZİ**

**LEXICO-GRAMMATICAL FEATURES OF  
ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA: A CORPUS-BASED STUDY  
ON SPOKEN INTERACTIONS**

**SERAP ÖNEN**

**YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI  
İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ**

**YRD. DOÇ. DR. DİLEK İNAL**

**TEZ DANIŞMANI**

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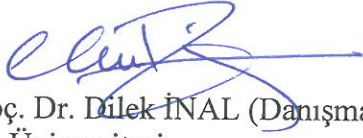
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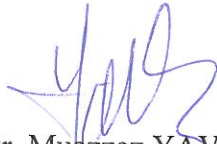
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## PREFACE

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SERAP ÖNEN

## ÖZET

### LINGUA FRANCA OLARAK İNGİLİZCENİN SÖZCÜK-DİLBİLGİSEL ÖZELLİKLERİ: SÖZLÜ ETKİLEŞİMLERE DAYALI BİR BÜTÜNCE ÇALIŞMASI

İngilizcenin bir dünya ortak diline (Lingua Franca) dönüşmesi kaçınılmaz olarak kullanımında dilbilimsel sapmalar ve yenilikler ortaya çıkarmıştır. Anadilleri tamamen farklı olan konuşucularının gereksinim ve tercihleri sonucu ortaya çıkan bu yeni kullanımlar genel olarak sözcük-dilbilgisel ve sesletim özellikleri olarak tanımlanabilir ve bunlar ortak dil olarak İngilizce iletişimi çalışmalarının temel alanlarından birini oluşturmaktadır. Lingua Franca İngilizcesinin ortak ve sistematize edilmiş kullanımlarını ve bunların olası kodlamalarını araştırmak alandaki başlıca araştırmaların odağı haline gelmiştir. Bu çalışma, Lingua Franca olarak İngilizcenin sözel etkileşimlerini sözcük-dilbilgisi düzeyinde araştıran bütüncüye dayalı bir çalışmadır. Bütüncü 10 saat 47 dakikalık kaydedilmiş konuşma ve 93,913 kelimelik çözümlenmiş veriden oluşmaktadır. Bütüncü 54 konuşma olayıyla toplanmıştır; bunlardan 29 tanesi ikili görüşme, kalan 25 ise odak grup toplantısıdır. Çalışmanın katılımcıları 2012-2013 akademik yılında İstanbuldaki 4 devlet ve 6 vakıf üniversitesinde kayıtlı olan Erasmus öğrencilerinden oluşmaktadır. Katılımcıların sayısı 79 olup, 24 anadil temsil edilmiştir. Bu anadiller şöyledir: Arapça, Azerice, Basque, Bulgarca, Kanton Çincesi, Çince, Çekçe, Danca, Flemenkçe, Fransızca, Galikyaca, Almanca, Yunanca, İtalyanca, Korece, Litvanyaca, Mandarin Çincesi, Polonyaca, Portekizce, Slovakça, İspanyolca, Surinam Dili, Türkçe, ve Ukraynaca. Çalışma, Lingua Franca konuşucularının sözlü iletişimlerinde anadil olarak İngilizce konuşucularından farklı olarak kullandıkları sözcük-dilbilgisel özellikleri üzerinde durmuştur. Bu özellikler Lingua Franca olarak İngilizce kullanımı araştırmalarında sıklıkla kullanılmış geniş zaman 3. tekil şahıs -s, ilgi zamirleri 'who' ve 'which', belirli ve belirsiz tanımlık kullanımı, eklenti sorularının kullanımı, edatların kullanımı, anlamsal genişlik belirten fiillerin kullanımı, mastar yapıların kullanımı ve açıklık özelliğidir (Seidlhofer, 2004; Cogo and Dewey, 2012). Sonuçlar araştırılan sözcük-dilbilgisel yapıların kullanımında standart anadil olarak İngilizceden farklılık gösterdiğini ortaya koymaktadır. Çalışma, aynı zamanda Lingua Franca olarak İngilizce farkındalığı gelişmiş bir İngilizce öğretimi ve alanda yapılabilecek ileriye yönelik araştırmaları da tartışmayı amaçlamaktadır.

## ABSTRACT

### **LEXICO-GRAMMATICAL FEATURES OF ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA: A CORPUS-BASED STUDY ON SPOKEN INTERACTIONS**

The growth of English into a lingua franca has inevitably created linguistic deviations and innovations in the use of English. These emerging uses that result from the needs and preferences of speakers whose mother tongues are all different can be broadly identified as lexico-grammatical and pronunciation features and they compose one of the main arteries of study in English as lingua franca communication. In an effort to investigate shared and systematized uses of English as a lingua franca and their possible codification have formed the focus of considerable research in the field. The present study is a corpus-based study which investigates the lexico-grammar of spoken ELF interactions. The corpus consists of 10 hours 47 minutes of recorded speech and 93,913 words of transcribed data. It is compiled by means of 54 speech events, 29 interviews and 25 focus group meetings. The participants of the study are incoming Erasmus students, enrolled in 4 state and 6 foundation universities in Istanbul in the 2012-2013 academic year. The number of participants is 79, with 24 first languages (L1s) represented. These L1s are namely Arabic, Azerbaijan, Basque, Bulgarian, Cantonese, Chinese, Czech, Danish, Dutch, French, Galician, German, Greek, Italian, Korean, Lithuanian, Mandarin Chinese, Polish, Portuguese, Slovak, Spanish, Suriname, Turkish, and Ukrainian. The study investigates whether there are variations from standard ENL forms with respect to the use of: 3<sup>rd</sup> person present tense –s, the relative pronouns ‘who’ and ‘which’, definite and indefinite articles, tag questions, prepositions, verbs that denote semantic generality, infinitive constructions, and explicitness, as have been outlined in ELF research (Seidlhofer, 2004; Cogo and Dewey, 2012). The results indicate that there are variations from standard ENL varieties with respect to the use of investigated lexico-grammatical units. The study further aims to discuss implications for an ELF-aware pedagogy in English language teaching and further research in the field.



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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASEAN	Association of South-East Asian Nations
BES	Bilingual English speaker
CE	Chinese English
EFL	English as a foreign language
EIL	English as an international language
ELF	English as a lingua franca
ELFA	Lingua franca in academic settings
ELT	English language teaching
ENL	English as a native language
ERASMUS	European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students
ESL	English as a second language
L1	First language
L2	Second language
LFC	Lingua franca code
MES	Monolingual English speaker
METs	Multilingual English teachers
NBES	Non-bilingual English speaker
NETs	Native English Teachers
NNEST	Non-native English speakers in TESOL
NNS	Non-native speaker
NS	Native speaker
TESOL	Teachers of English to speakers of other languages
SE	Standard English
VOICE	Vienna-Oxford international corpus of English
WE	World Englishes
WSE	World Standard English

# CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

## 1.1. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

If there is one predictable consequence of a language becoming a global language, it is that nobody owns it any more. Or rather, everyone who has learned it now owns it – ‘has a share in it’ might be more accurate – and has the right to use it in the way they want.

(Crystal, 2003: 2-3)

Despite the fact that there is no agreed upon singular definition for it, the phenomenon of globalization paved the way for one indisputable consequence: the need for a global language. As individuals interconnected on commercial, technological, ethnographic and ideological levels on a global scale, English gradually fulfilled this need. Transcending borders and becoming a contact language among speakers from different mother tongues, it grew into a world-wide lingua franca. This transformation naturally affected the “standards” of the language that were drawn and sanctioned by its native speakers for centuries. “Standard English” as known was exposed to variations in the tongues of English speakers all over the globe who demanded it for countless reasons of use.

The unprecedented spread of English as a lingua franca (ELF) paralleled the diversity it entailed: as English spread geographically and across domains, the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of its speakers duly extended, and ELF interactions manifested changes in the language. Defining ELF interactions, however, was “problematic and controversial”, as noted by Jenkins (2014: 24). Whether or not native English speakers’ presence in its use as a contact language characterized an ELF situation was debatable. Although a significant number of scholars included native English speakers in ELF situations (Jenkins, 2014: 24), there were those others who, like Firth, claimed that non-native English speakers using English as a common language manage to communicate with each other despite the “dysfluencies”, “unidiomatic language choices and phonological anomalies and infelicities” in their English which cause “deviant and sometimes ‘abnormal’ linguistic behavior. Even then, Firth states that these non-native English speakers manage to “imbue talk with an orderly and ‘normal’ appearance” in spite of that deviant behavior (1996: 239).



House's description of ELF interactions (as cited in Jenkins, 2014: 25) as those which need to be explored in their own right- not in terms of native English- draws attention to ELF research as requiring more attention to the study of the processes and features involved in such interactions than the mere difference that surfaces in comparison with the native forms. Seidlhofer similarly contends that ELF should be regarded as "any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option (2011: 7). In a slightly different vein, Jenkins observes that either argument regarding the presence or absence of native English speakers in an ELF interaction is acceptable by itself. Nor is it adequate to say that all the processes and features found in ELF communication are necessarily different from those found in native English. On the contrary, she explains that it is understandable when a deviant ELF use can be regarded as "incorrect" but that ELF and native English have quite in common. Jenkins concludes that the critical factor is that ELF research should first identify the processes, motivations and all the features involved that typify ELF communication, and then begin making comparisons with native English (2014: 25).

Today, ELF research confirms that ELF speakers exploit the potential of English and not only deviate from native norms but use the language innovatively. It can be said that research has investigated mostly spoken ELF forms in an effort to identify phonological, morphological, lexico-grammatical, pragmatic and idiomatic features involved. Typical structures that systematically emerged from close analyses through the use of concordance became attributed to "typical spoken ELF". These, appear as the deviant but the preferred structures that replace the native English forms, as Cogo and Dewey (2012) indicate. More intensive and extensive research aims to provide data towards the discussion of possible varieties in ELF.

In terms of lexico-grammatical investigation of ELF interactions, most research investigates spoken ELF in terms of the preliminary lexico-grammatical findings as outlined by Seidlhofer (2004: 220) and supports most of them (Breiteneder 2005, 2009, Cogo and Dewey 2012, Hülmbauer 2009, Klimpfinger 2007). Jenkins notes that these provide evidence of a considerable degree of typicality in ELF lexico-grammar, emphasizing that "the occurrence of even a relatively small number of forms may be indicative of change in progress (2014: 34).

Hence, the need for more naturally acquired data and “proper” research, as is noted by Jenkins to refer to the studies that perceive ELF interactions to be investigated in their own right.

## **1.2. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

Globalization as a phenomenon undoubtedly accompanied the globalization of English and according to Jenkins (2014) one domain where the response to the effects of globalization is seen in the form of internationalization is Higher Education. It is in the Higher Education domain where an international or intercultural dimension is integrated into the mission of teaching, research and service functions (Maringe and Foskett, 2010: 1). Any attempt at internationalization in Higher Education includes international students, student mobility and scope for English-medium instruction. According to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2010: 315, as cited in Jenkins, 2014: 4), while “an increasing number of institutions in non-English speaking countries now offer courses in English to overcome their linguistic advantage”, this trend is particularly noticeable in countries in which the use of English is widespread.” Turkey is one such country and Turkish universities are allocating considerable budget and effort to encourage international student mobility. Particularly in Istanbul, where there are 27 universities, there is a significant international student body.

On a broad level, the purpose of this descriptive study is to contribute to the investigation of the lexico-grammatical characteristics of spoken ELF discourse. On a more particular level, however, the research aims to compile naturally occurring spoken ELF interactions gathered in settings where English is used as a contact language among international students in Istanbul, and apply a corpus approach to linguistic features. The fundamental reason for choosing a corpus study rests on its nature and the rich data it yields for the description of a language. The motive for compiling a spoken corpus, on the other hand, rests on the fact that spoken interactions are instantaneous and therefore less affected from the standardizing influence of writing and better representing the lexico-grammatical features in use.

The purpose of the study, therefore, is to examine whether the use of English as a lingua franca reveals any variations from standard ENL forms; to identify the lexical items and grammatical structures that commonly appear in spoken ELF

interactions; to present the characteristics of spoken ELF discourse and thereby contribute to the corpus studies in ELF lexico-grammar.

### 1.2.1. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study addresses the following research questions that have been outlined in ELF lexico-grammar research as units of investigation:

*Does English as a lingua franca reveal any variations from standard ENL forms with respect to:*

1. the use of 3<sup>rd</sup> person present tense -s?
2. the use of relative pronouns 'who' and 'which'?
3. the use of definite and indefinite articles?
4. the use of tag questions?
5. the use of prepositions?
6. the use of verbs that denote high semantic generality?
7. the use of infinitive constructions?
8. the degree of explicitness?

In pursuing the answers to these questions, the research also aims to discuss the functional use of the forms in an effort to detect widely used innovations from random idiosyncrasies.

### 1.3. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

ELF research reveals corpora of spoken and written ELF and native English use in natural or simulated circumstances. There is also research conducted with international students in form of interviews but these are mostly in Anglophone contexts and are concerned more with cultural than linguistic features (Trahar & Hyland, 2011; Tian & Lowe, 2009; Wu & Hammond, 2011; Henderson, 2011; Hennebry, Lo, & Macaro, 2012). In North America, on the other hand, studies regarding international students' English use have a tendency to have deficit assumptions about them. Jenkins draws attention to the way these studies mainly identify academic English deficiencies of the international students in order to help them overcome these insufficiencies (2014: 168).

There is limited research on the English use of international students- none in the Turkish setting. The present research, therefore, aims to fulfil this niche in the ELF research. In so doing, it aims to gather a totally different corpus, instead of studying the data from VOICE or other ELF corpora<sup>1</sup>. The collected data of 93,913 words gathered in 10 hours, make up the IST-ERASMUS Corpus and is unique in its contribution. Upon completion Corpus IST-Erasmus will be made available for further research in the field.

#### **1.4. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The first limitation encountered in the study was finding volunteer participants. The total number of participants was 79; however, the size of the corpus could be larger if more participants had volunteered to take part in the study. Secondly, arranging and conducting the speech events presented a challenge. Arranging a meeting with two participants on a specific date and time to suit both parties was particularly demanding. This process was completed with the help of social media and Erasmus coordinators from various universities. Announcements on Facebook, particularly on Erasmus students' Facebook groups were made to inform the students about the research and encourage them to take part in the study. The Erasmus coordinators from Istanbul University, Bilgi University, Bahçeşehir University, and Yeditepe University helped immensely in getting into contact with the Erasmus students in their universities.

The most strenuous part of the study was transcribing, coding, and mark-up. Software programs were not able to transcribe the recorded speech verbatim as they could not recognize all the pronunciation of non-native English speakers. Therefore, the 10 hours 47 minutes of recorded data had to be transcribed manually. Then, the raw transcriptions were marked and coded according to VOICE transcription conventions.

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<sup>1</sup> VOICE, BNC World, Dewey (2007a) Corpus A are the seminal corpora used to present a comparative perspective. Detailed information regarding the corpora used will be provided throughout the dissertation.

## 1.5. DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

The key terms and concepts are discussed at length in the following chapters. However, a brief list of definitions is presented below to give information about the scope of the study.

***English as a lingua franca (ELF):*** Firth (1996) defines English as a lingua franca as “a ‘contact language’ between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen *foreign* language of communication” (p. 240). Seidlhofer (2011: 7), however, does not exclude native speakers from the definition of ELF and suggest the following definition: “any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option”.

***ELF interactions:*** ELF interactions are those “between members of two or more different linguacultures in English, for none of whom English is the mother tongue” (House 1999: 74).

The working definition for this particular study accepts ELF interactions to include both native and non-native English speakers. Yet, their absence here is the result of not having any native speaker English Erasmus students at the time of research.

***Corpus IST-Erasmus:*** Corpus IST-Erasmus is the name of the ELF corpus that is compiled for this doctoral study. It consists of 10 hours and 93,913 words of transcribed ELF speech which is gathered through focus group meetings and interviews. The participants of the corpus were 79 Erasmus students who came to study in Istanbul in the 2012-2013 academic year.

***Speech events:*** Speech events refer to particular types of communicative activities through which spoken ELF interactions are collected. The speech events of this corpus study are *interviews* and *focus group meetings*. Each speech event was conducted on a face-to-face basis. While the interviews were conducted with one participant, the focus group meetings were conducted with two participants. In the interviews, the participants were asked to answer 15 open-ended questions impromptu. In the focus group meetings, on the other hand, the participants were

asked to discuss the topic of their choice among the previously arranged discussion topics impromptu.

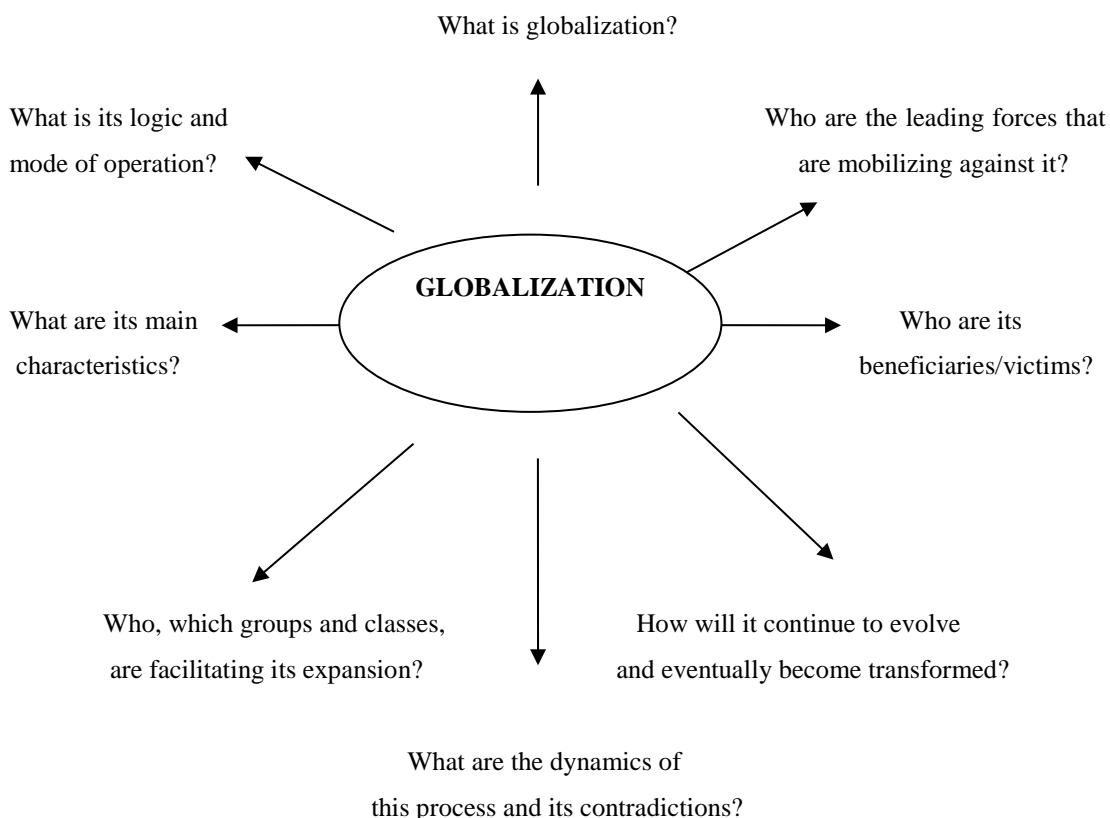
## **CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

This section reviews the relevant literature on issues regarding the effects of globalization on English language and its spread, its transformation into a world lingua franca and the linguistic issues and implications that arose in due course.

### **2.1. GLOBALIZATION AND SPREAD OF ENGLISH**

Globalization is a phenomenon that has been hotly debated by numerous scholars in the last decades. Some investigate the implications of globalization on economy (Frankel, 2000; Henderson, 1999; Hirst & Tompson, 1996). Some investigate the effects of globalization on culture (Bird & Stevens, 2003; Featherstone, 1995; Tomlinson, 1999). Others investigate its implications on languages and language pedagogy (Block & Cameron, 2002; Crystal, 1997, 2003; Kramsh & Thorne, 2002; Kumaravadivelu, 2008; Phillipson, 1992; Yano, 2001).

Globalization is a multidimensional concept; thus has been defined by social scientists in various ways. Giddens (1990: 64) defines globalization as “the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa”. Kumaravadivelu (2008: 31-32) defines globalization as “...a dominant and driving force that is shaping a new form of interconnections and flows among nations, economies, and peoples. It results in the transformation of contemporary social life in all its economic, political, cultural, technological, ecological, and individual dimensions”. Although there are various definitions, much of the debate on globalization has centered on the following questions:



**Figure 2-1: The key questions about globalization**  
(adapted from Berberoglu, 2010: 2)

There seems to be, however, no consensus among researchers on a number of concomitant issues. Block (2004: 75) categorizes these issues as follows:

**Table 2-1: Varying perspectives towards globalization**

<b>Debatable Issue # 1: The Emergence of Globalization</b>	
Some believe that globalization began in 15 <sup>th</sup> century Europe, when Europeans began to map and colonize the world.	Others see it as a phenomenon of the latter part of the 20 <sup>th</sup> century.
<b>Debatable Issue # 2: A Done Deal versus On-going Process</b>	
Some see it as essentially a 'done deal'.	Others as a 'work in progress' which is unequally developed in different parts of the world.
<b>Debatable Issue # 3: Favourable versus Unfavourable</b>	
Some see globalization as both progress and progressive (benign and indeed 'good').	Others see it as the steamroller of late modernity taking away all that is authentic and meaningful in our lives.
<b>Debatable Issue # 4: Imperialist versus Egalitarian</b>	
Some see globalization as hegemonically western, and above all an extension of American imperialism.	Others see the process as more egalitarian, and reject discussion in terms of Western dominance over 'the rest'.
<b>Debatable Issue # 5: Prescriptive versus Descriptive</b>	
Some discuss globalization in a prescriptive way as a way of life that should be adopted.	Others see it as a sociological descriptor of events going on around us.

(adapted from Block, 2004: 75)

As can be seen in Table 2-1, the first of the controversial issues about globalization is its origin. While most people agree that 'we live in a globalized



world', there is not yet a consensus on the emergence of globalization. Kilminster (1997, 257; as cited in Block & Cameron, 2002: 2) states that the word 'globalization' originally appeared in Webster's Dictionary in 1961. However, the creator of the word 'globalization' is considered to be Roland Robertson (1992). He perceives globalization as a *pre-modern* phenomenon and believes that it started in the 15<sup>th</sup> century in Europe just at the same time with the birth of the nation-state. On the other hand, while Anthony Giddens (1990) puts forward that globalization began in the 17<sup>th</sup> century, Robert Cox (1996; as cited in Block & Cameron, 2002: 2) suggests that it essentially started in 1973 with the first fuel crisis.

The second argument is about the extent to which globalization has completed its course- 'an achieved reality' (Block & Cameron, 2002: 2). There is no consensus among researchers as to whether globalization has come to an end or is still continuing. According to Giddens (2000; as cited in Block & Cameron, 2002: 2), these differing views emerge because researchers generally look from the perspective of economics. However, as Block and Cameron (2002: 3) state

Most sociologists and social theorists take a view that falls between the two extremes described above. They accept that 'globalization' names a real phenomenon, something which differentiates the present from the more distant past, but they also recognize that the process is not complete and has not been experienced in the same way everywhere (see e.g. Albrow 1996; Beck 1992, 2000; Giddens 1990, 2000; Held et al. 1999; Nash 2000; Robertson 1992; Tomlinson 1999).

Another discussion is shaped around the question whether globalization is something favorable or unfavorable. In this respect, some believe that globalization promotes standardization and uniformity while others see it as a process of hybridization or glocalization (Block & Cameron, 2002: 3). The first group argues that globalization is a homogenizing process, the second group, on the other hand, point out that "globalization entails a synergetic relationship between the global and the local as opposed to the dominance of the former over the latter" (Block & Cameron, 2002: 3). Closely related to this discussion is the debate on whether globalization is an imperialist or an egalitarian phenomenon. Some view globalization as a Western hegemonic imposition, and as a propagation of American imperialism. Others consider it as more egalitarian and emphasize that the spread of globalization cannot be explained solely in terms of Western hegemony (Block & Cameron, 2002: 3). Finally, there is also no consensus on the way globalization

should be described; that is to say, either in a prescriptive or in a descriptive way. While the former group adopts globalization as a lifestyle, the latter perceives it as a social phenomenon that takes place around us (Block, 2004: 75).

All these disputes lead to an attitude that views globalization as either a favorable or unfavorable phenomenon. Alongside these debatable issues, there are differing perspectives on the advantages and disadvantages of globalization as a world-shaping force. A range of benefits of globalization are stated in the report of World Commission on the social dimension of globalization (2004: 3) as follows:

It has promoted open societies and open economies and encouraged a freer exchange of goods, ideas and knowledge. In many parts of the world, innovation, creativity and entrepreneurship have flourished. In East Asia, growth lifted over 200 million people out of poverty in a single decade. Better communications have enhanced awareness of rights and identities, and enabled social movements to mobilize opinion and strengthen democratic accountability. As a result, a truly global conscience is beginning to emerge, sensitive to the inequities of poverty, gender discrimination, child labour, and environmental degradation, wherever these may occur.

However, the same report also states that “its advantages are too distant for too many, while its risks are all too real” (2004: 3), drawing attention to the not-for-all benevolence of the power of globalization.

Its volatility threatens both rich and poor. Immense riches are being generated. But fundamental problems of poverty, exclusion and inequality persist. Corruption is widespread. Open societies are threatened by global terrorism, and the future of open markets is increasingly in question. Global governance is in crisis. We are at a critical juncture, and we need to urgently rethink our current policies and institutions.

(The report of World Commission on the social dimension of globalization, 2004:3)

One of the prominent factors that is indispensable in the discussions of globalization is undoubtedly communication, which is also pointed out by the World Commission’s Report (2004: 3). According to this report, globalization facilitated improved communication, which in turn provided individuals with better and heightened sense of their and others’ rights and identities, eventually leading to a consolidation of democratic liability. However, this growth in international communication warranted a common language; that is *a global language*.

The need for a global language has initially emerged in the twentieth century, especially after the 1950s. It was the era when the leading international organizations such as the United Nations, the World Bank, UNESCO, UNICEF, the World Health

Organization and the International Atomic Energy Agency started to be held. Translation, which had been the most common means to establish international relations, had come to be seen impractical and costly. About half of the budget had to be spent on the multi-way translation facilities. Especially in linguistically diverse organizations, it became impossible to rely on interpreters. Thus, the need for a common language surfaced with these international organizations (Crystal, 2003: 12).

As a result of the modern communication technology and the technology of air transportation, international relations increased considerably. People were now more mobile than ever before. They were able to take part in any social, academic and business-related events worldwide both physically and electronically. In order to communicate on the phone, on the Internet, or at an international conference with people from different L1s, one needed a common language. As Crystal (2003: 13) states:

A situation where a Japanese company director arranges to meet German and Saudi Arabian contacts in a Singapore hotel to plan a multi-national deal would not be impossible, if each plugged in to a 3-way translation support system, but it would be far more complicated than the alternative, which is for each to make use of the same language.

It is undeniable that global communication accelerated both the economic growth and the cultural change around the world. The revolution in communication started with the emergence of the Internet and email technology in 1990. This unprecedented development has made it possible for millions of people to communicate with each other instantly and in real time, no matter in which part of the world they are (Kumaravadivelu, 2008: 36). Therefore, it can be said that globalization and modern technology enhanced human interaction both in the virtual and real world, facilitating the need for a common language. As Block and Cameron (2002: 1) put forward "... global communication requires not only a shared channel (like the internet or video conferencing) but also a shared *linguistic* code". This common language has become English because it was "at the right place at the right time" (Crystal, 2003: 78).

### 2.1.1. ENGLISH AS A GLOBAL LANGUAGE

Today English is recognized as the global language. It is the language of international communication, the language of business, the language of politics and diplomacy, the language of science, and the language of the Internet. It has achieved this status for a number of reasons which will be discussed below.

There is a need to touch upon a number of misconceptions before discussing the factors that have made English a global language. First of all, the fact that English has attained a global status is not accounted for by the number of its mother-tongue users in the USA, the UK, Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa, and several other territories. As Crystal (2003: 4) states “no language has ever been spoken by a mother-tongue majority in more than a few countries (Spanish leads, in this respect, in some twenty countries, chiefly in Latin America), so mother-tongue use by itself cannot give a language global status”.

In a similar vein, a language cannot achieve a global status just because of the total number of its speakers worldwide. This makes sense when considering the number of Chinese speakers, for instance. As McIntyre (2009: 31) states “...there are many hundreds of millions of people who speak some variety of Chinese, yet it is English that is so often cited as *the* global language...”. Similarly, Crystal (2003: 7) proposes that the number of its speakers plays only a minor role in making a language global.

Unlike the commonly held belief, a language does not become global because of its grammatical simplicity, literary power, or the size of its vocabulary. However, such assumptions are usually made about English as though it has become global because it has less grammar, fewer suffixes, and no distinction between genders in word formation. The case of Latin and French validates this assumption. For instance, Latin as a highly inflectional and gender-distinguishing language was once a global language. Similarly, French which makes distinction between genders in word formation was once a global language. Therefore, it can be said that the ease of learning a language does not have a direct relationship with the globalization of a language (Crystal, 2003: 7-8).

One of the factors that do make a language global, on the other hand, is the power of its speakers: political and military. There is a direct relationship between the success of a language and the success of its speakers. As Crystal (2003: 7) states “[w]hen they succeed, on the international stage, their language succeeds. When they fail, their language fails”. Hence, it can be said that a language cannot achieve a global status without a strong military or economic power-base. This assumption can again be validated with the case of Latin, which was once an international language owing to the power of the Roman Empire. Latin did not become an international language because of the population of Romans, but because of their military power (Crystal, 2003: 7).

One other factor labeling English as global is related to how a language is perceived in the world. In other words, a language gains a global status when all the countries in the world perceive it as special and give it a special role in their own settings. This can be achieved by two means. First, by making a language the official language; that is, the second language of a country. When a language becomes official in a country, it is used as a means of communication in several disciplines like education, government, and the media. In the case of English, it has the official status in more than seventy countries, such as Nigeria, Singapore, and India (the complete list is given in Table 2). As Crystal (2003: 4) points out “[t]his is far more than the status achieved by any other language – though French, German, Spanish, Russian, and Arabic are among those which have also developed a considerable official use”. The second way, on the other hand, is to make a language the most widely taught and learned language; that is, making it the most preferred foreign language in a country. This can be also illustrated by English, which is today the most commonly taught foreign language in more than 100 countries in the world, such as China, Turkey, and Spain (Crystal, 2003: 3-4).

The global spread of English is considered unique when compared with previous languages which have spread mainly as a result of trade or religious factors. English is distinct from those earlier languages in two ways; that is, it has geographically reached a wider spread and has a higher number of users. On the other hand, its spread is not by chance. One of the facilitators of this process is language pedagogy (Phillipson, 1992: 6). As Troike (1977: 2; as cited in Phillipson,

1992: 7) states “[t]he process was also greatly abetted by the expenditure of large amounts of government and private foundation funds in the period 1950-1970, perhaps the most ever spent in history in support of the propagation of a language”. As a result of the success in the promotion of English, English has become the language of global market.

The fact that English is now a global language is meaningful when it rests upon the above-mentioned features. Yet, to avoid oversimplification, a closer probing into a range of aspects affecting its present day condition is needed.

### 2.1.2. ASPECTS OF GLOBALIZATION

The global language of English can be explained by mainly two aspects: geographical-historical and socio-cultural. The historical aspect relates to the origins of global English whereas the socio-cultural aspect is related to the current status of English in international domains such as communication, politics, education, and media, and why people all over the world have been forced to learn English for their economic and social welfare (Crystal, 2003: 29).

#### 2.1.2.1. HISTORICAL ASPECT

The origins of global English go back to the fifth century when English came from northern Europe to England. Then it started to spread around the British Isles, and after the Norman invasion to Scotland, and in twelfth century to Ireland. These movements, however, took place only within the British Isles. The transportation of English to new areas around the world was materialized in the form of two major Diasporas: first as a result of discovery voyages from England, Scotland and Ireland to America, Australia and New Zealand; second as a result of colonization of Asia and Africa. This spread of English peaked with its adoption as an official or semi-official language. Nevertheless, for Crystal, this spread can still be regarded a local one, awaiting a larger scale dispersal. He states, “[t]he first significant step in the progress of English towards its status as a global language did not take place for another 300 years, towards the end of the sixteenth century” (2003: 30).

#### 2.1.2.2. CULTURAL ASPECT

Naturally, there is a cultural dimension to all spread of English. It has become an international medium of communication in domains such as the media and advertising, entertainment, technology, education, and travel (Crystal, 2003).

##### 2.1.2.2.1. MEDIA AND ADVERTISING

The role of English in media, which is commonly referred to as the world's most powerful force, also needs consideration. As it has diverged into several forms such as the press, advertising, the radio, and television, media is commonly defined as the various means of communication. It is considered as the world's gateway to information; thus, it can be said that the world cannot function without media. Stemming from this significant position of media, 21<sup>st</sup> century has witnessed the creation of some vital concepts such as media literacy, mass media in education, media contribution, media savvy, digital literacy, digital culture, and digital citizens.

The dominance of English in media has started with the press. It has been the language of the press since the 17<sup>th</sup> century when the *Weekley Newes* in 1622 and the *London Gazette* in 1666 appeared. With the development of news gathering techniques, the use of English in the popular press was promoted (Crystal, 2003: 91-92). Associated Press, Reuters, the BBC or CNN have emerged through such a promotion as the leading channels providing international news by means of English (Graddol, 2006: 46).

There is, however, a profound change in the form of media communications today, at the heart of which 'digital media', or 'digital literacy', is to be noted. Digital literacy is an umbrella term used to describe "...the various social, discursive and textual practices which occur within communities using digital technologies" (Thomas, 2011: 91). Digital television, the Internet, smart phones, tablet PCs are different types of digital technologies which occupy an increasingly important role in people's lives. These are utilized especially by younger generations, by the so-called 'Internet Generation'. In fact, as digital media is becoming a common teaching aid in most educational settings, the youth have no other choice but to adopt it. For instance, most educational institutions around the world use MOODLE (Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment) e-learning software which

provides facilities such as assignment submission, file upload and download, grading, and the like. In fact, a number of countries have launched projects to integrate computer technology to their education system. Turkey, for example, launches a new project, titled 'FATİH' (the Movement to Increase Opportunities and Technology), in public education which aims to bring the requirements and technologies of the modern era into classrooms. The pilot phase of the project started with the delivery of tablet PCs and smart boards which will enable teachers and students to instantly access information and which facilitate long-distance learning by means of e-textbooks and electronic materials. These digital media implementations undoubtedly contribute to the spread of English by making English easily accessible.

Social media is another form of digital communication which enables social interactions. Facebook and Twitter are the leading social networks in the world. With the technology of smart phones, access to these websites has become imminence, which has made these platforms more popular. English was formerly the only medium of communication on many social networks. However, today, most of these social networks have become multilingual and offer a language preference to the user. Although this means that local languages coexist with English on social networks, it is still possible to talk about the need to be conversant in English for a large number of people who want to follow the trend topics on Twitter or who want to make friends with a foreigner. Finally, as Herring (2008: 71) states "there is little doubt that young people will determine the future of digital media". If this is true, then it is possible to say that the language preferences of the youth will determine the language of future media.

#### 2.1.2.2.2. ENTERTAINMENT

Television has been the most popular form of entertainment in the world. A similar popularity and increase in satellite TV channel use has inevitably led to the spread of English. MTV, for example, has promoted American English by means of music (Graddol, 1997: 46-47). Children in any part of the world can watch cartoon films in English, while teenagers and adults can follow American serials and international news. In entertainment technologies, namely, the cinema and recording industry, English has also been the dominant language. It became the language of the



movie world, and has maintained its dominance with huge productions such as the *Lord of the Rings*, *Harry Potter*, and *Star Wars*. According to *the BFI film and television handbook*, in 2002, “over 80 percent of all feature films given a theatrical release were in English” (Dyja, 2001; as cited in Crystal, 2003: 99).

As for the recording industry, when the phonograph, the first device for recording and reproducing sound, was invented by Thomas A. Edison, the first words<sup>2</sup> to be recorded were in English (Crystal: 2003, 100). English has maintained its dominance in the recording industry as the language of popular music. The world famous British and American pop groups such as the Beatles, the Rolling Stones, Bill Haley and the Comets and Elvis Presley were the major sources of the spread of English in 1960s. In terms of the effect of popular music, Crystal (2003: 102) states that “(n)o other single source has spread the English language around the youth of the world so rapidly and so pervasively”. According to the data provided by *the Penguin encyclopedia of popular music* (as cited in Crystal, 2003: 103), in the 1990s, “...of the 557 pop groups it included, 549 (99 percent) worked entirely or predominantly in English; of the 1,219 solo vocalists, 1,156 (95 percent) sang in English”. Besides this, most of the countries have participated to the annual Eurovision Song Contest with an English song. In 2002, for example, 17 titles out of 24 were in English (Crystal, 2003: 103). Today, the technology of smart phones has started to change the modes of entertainment. Most people, especially the young, do not go to a music shop, but prefer to purchase their favorite albums online. They just click and download the music with an application supported by their phones. What needs to be emphasized here is that the language of the smart phone, or tablet applications is English. Despite the growth of local applications, people who want to follow the current trends, and applications in smart phone and tablet technology has to know English.

### 2.1.2.3. TECHNOLOGICAL ASPECT

English is now used for a wider range of purposes in technological and scientific domains, economy and entertainment. This in turn has resulted in an

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<sup>2</sup> ‘What God hath wrought’, ‘Mary had a little lamb’.

increase in its size of vocabulary, and change in its grammatical structures and mode of speaking and writing. Within these, however, the Internet is the domain where the spread of English is clearly seen with the development of 'net English' (Graddol, 1997: 2)

The Internet is undoubtedly the most distinctive feature of globalization today. It is the global electronic communication force which affects not only the economic but also the cultural globalization (Kumaravadivelu, 2008: 36). The 'Internet Generation', the 'Net Generation', the 'Net Gen', 'Generation i', the 'Digital Generation', 'Millenials' are the concepts used to describe the children who were born into a world where the Internet was already present. Compared with previous generations, the Internet Generation tends to use the Internet more, and for a broad variety of purposes (Herring, 2008: 71). The Internet is mainly used for commercial, educational, social and entertainment purposes both in local and international domains. In the days when the Internet and its facilities were newly introduced, people had to know English in order to be able use it. However, years later English is no longer a requirement because, as stated in Graddol (2006: 45), "many more languages and scripts are now supported by computer software". Accordingly, it can be said that the communication on the Internet is becoming multilingual. As for the English that is used for the Internet interactions by most people, it has changed dramatically- in form and function. It is no longer the Standard English that has been imposed upon language learners; instead, one that is altered according to the many idiosyncrasies of its users throughout the world- but, still making sense.

#### 2.1.2.4. EDUCATIONAL ASPECT

Throughout the world, where it is not spoken as a mother tongue, English is used as either an official language or a foreign language. In a significant number of settings, it has been preferred as a primary foreign language and made an imposed subject of study at schools. In the context of education, this can be justified with the fact that English is the medium of the world's knowledge and the de facto language of science and technology. It is understandable that the desire to not fall behind this knowledge but, instead, have access to it leads to such an obligation to know English

(Crystal, 2003: 110). Hence, English language learning becomes an indispensable part of education worldwide.

In accordance with the changing paradigms in education in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, English has also gained particular importance in a variety of components. First of all, in many parts of the world, it has become the medium of instruction in higher education. In many parts of the world, school children are “immersed” in English for educational purposes. With the internationalization of higher education, the pressure to use English has grown (Crystal, 2003: 112). The international student and lecturer exchange programs such as ERASMUS (European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students) require use of English as a means of instruction. An international student has to use English not only in the classroom but also while preparing their assignments, reading their course materials, communicating with their friends and professors, and in order to survive in the foreign country. Moreover, the internationalization of higher education has inevitably increased the online communication between students and professors. Interactions in the form of distance learning, and email require use of English.

Moreover, English has also become the language of academic publications throughout the world. It has been dominant in scientific publications since the 1980s; however, its prominence has increased even more in the last decades (Crystal, 2003: 112). In order to get their papers published in an academic journal with an international readership, scholars have to write in English, which means they have to be proficient in English. Similarly, in order to present a paper in an international organization, they have to be fluent in English. Therefore, academic exchange and even promotion partly rests upon competence in a foreign language, which is most commonly English.

#### 2.1.2.5. TRAVEL ASPECT

People travel around the world for various purposes such as educational, political, military, business, and touristic. Regardless of what the purpose is, “each journey has immediate linguistic consequences – a language has to be interpreted, learned, imposed – and over time a travelling trend can develop into a major influence” (Crystal, 2003: 104). In this respect, the world-wide spread of English is closely related with the role of English in international travel.

English has long been the lingua franca of international transportation, especially in the air, and on the sea, fulfilling the need for a common language that stemmed from the communicative needs of air and sea personnel from varying language backgrounds (Crystal, 2003: 106). In 1980 a project was launched to construct Essential English for International Maritime Use, which also aimed to minimize the possibility of misunderstandings in communication between mariners (Crystal, 2003: 106). To this end, a restricted but expressive language - e.g. ‘Say again’, ‘day one-three, month zero-five, year one-nine-nine-six’- was created. This type of restrictive language first appeared in air traffic control after the Second World War when English became the official language of international aviation. As pilots and controllers were from different linguistic backgrounds, there was a need for a contact language in order to reduce the risk of breakdown in communication. The reason why English was chosen as a lingua franca rests on the facts that “(t)he leaders of the Aliens’ were English-speaking; the major aircraft manufacturers were English-speaking; and most of the post-war pilots in the West (largely ex-military personnel) were English-speaking” (Crystal, 2003: 108).

In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the dominance of English in international travel is even more noticeable. English -alongside local languages- is used as the language of signs in the shop windows, restaurants and hotels; the language of menus in cafes and restaurants; the language of credit card facilities; the language of safety instructions in transportation; and the language of directions to major locations in the world, especially in countries which receive the most international visitors. For instance, “(a)n English-speaking visitor to Tokyo in 1985 would have found city travel a largely impenetrable experience without an English-language map; but by 1995, English road signs had become commonplace” (Crystal, 2003: 105). It seems that English will hold its dominance in international travel, as long as it is the world-wide lingua franca.

### 2.1.3. CONCEPTUAL IMPLICATIONS OF ENGLISH AS A GLOBAL LANGUAGE

It has been previously pointed out that the number of its speakers does not make any language a global one. Yet, the position of English today reveals an unprecedented spread, leading to 1.5 billion speakers (Crystal, 2003: 6) around the globe. When it comes to profiling this many speakers, however, a difficulty that is

due to conceptual fuzziness arises. What was not that difficult to categorize is now complicated because of all the intricate relationships of factors affecting the position and use of English around the globe today. Concepts such as “native language”, “second language” and “foreign language” have now been called into question because of the dynamics of defining language and language use in the complex context of English.

Discussions regarding the description of English speakers have long been centered on the three-way classification; that is, *English as a native language* (ENL), *English as a second language* (ESL), and *English as a foreign language* (EFL). Speakers of English around the world have been described using this inadequate classification. ENL speakers were thought of as those who are born and raised in countries where English is historically spoken as the first language. ESL speakers were those who live in territories which were once English colonies. EFL speakers, on the other hand, were those who live in countries where English has no official function (Jenkins, 2009:15-16). This three-way categorization cannot fully map out the speakers of English around the world, though. As Jenkins (2009:15) explains “the categories have become fuzzy at the edges and that it is increasingly difficult to classify speakers of English as belonging purely to one of the three”. The deficiency of this three-way categorization is explained by Jenkins (2009:16-17) as follows:

Firstly, in a number of the so-called ESL countries such as Singapore and Nigeria, some English speakers learn the language either as their first language or as one of two or more equivalent languages within their bi- or multilingual repertoires. And secondly, there are so-called EFL/ELF countries such as The Netherlands and Scandinavian countries where English is increasingly being used for intranational (i.e. country internal) purposes rather than purely as a foreign or international language. For example, English is fast becoming the medium of instruction in tertiary education, while in secondary and even primary education, school subjects are increasingly being taught through English as a means of learning both.

Similarly, Crystal (2003: 6) suggests that classifying English as ‘first’, ‘second’, and ‘foreign’ language can be practical provided that we avoid simplistic interpretation. First, distinctions between ‘second’ and ‘foreign’ language, that is solely based on fluency level should be avoided, though ESL speakers can often be more competent than EFL speakers. However, most of the English speakers in Scandinavian countries and the Netherlands, for example, do also attain very high levels of fluency. Second, when distinguishing first language speakers from others, we must also consider the babies “learning English as a foreign language as its

mother tongue” (Crystal, 2003: 6). That is to say, we must consider the children born to families in which both parents learned English as a foreign language, but English is the only means of communication at home. Crystal (2003: 6) exemplifies this as follows:

In the Emirates a few years ago, for example, I met a couple – a German oil industrialist and a Malaysian – who had courted through their only common language, English, and decided to bring up their child with English as the primary language of the home.

(Crystal, 2003: 6)

Although such cases make it difficult to define the current uses and users of English, they demonstrate the fact that English is being used as a global language by more and more people than ever.

### 2.1.3.1. ENGLISH AS A NATIVE LANGUAGE

English as a Native Language (ENL) is “the language of those born and raised in one of the countries where English is historically the first language to be spoken” (Jenkins, 2009:15). English is spoken as a native language mainly in US, UK, Canada, Australia, Ireland, New Zealand and South Africa. However, there are other territories<sup>3</sup> where English is spoken as a first language. These territories, along with their estimated number of ENL speakers, are presented in Table 2-2 below. The asterisks used in the table denote the countries where the English is used as pidgin or creole.

**Table 2-2: ENL and ESL speaking territories**

Territory	Usage Estimate		Population in 2001
	ENL	ESL	
American Samoa	2 000	65 000	67 000
Antigua & Barbuda*	66 000	2 000	68 000
Aruba	9 000	35 000	70 000
Australia	14 987 000	3 500 000	18 972 000
Bahamas*	260 000	28 000	298 000
Bangladesh	-----	3 500 000	131 270 000
Barbados*	262 000	13 000	275 000
Belize*	190 000	56 000	256 000
Bermuda	63 000	-----	63 000

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<sup>3</sup> As in Crystal (2003: 62-65) and Jenkins (2009: 2-3), the term ‘territory’ is used to refer to the areas where English has had special relevance. The term indicates not only the countries, but also the unincorporated territories such as American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, and the British Overseas Territories such as British Virgin Islands and Gibraltar.

Bhutan	-----	75 000	2 000 000
Botswana	-----	630 000	1 586 000
British Virgin Islands*	20 000	-----	20 800
Brunei	10 000	134 000	344 000
Cameroon*	-----	7 700 000	15 900 000
Canada	20 000 000	7 000 000	31 600 000
Cayman Islands	36 000	-----	36 000
Cook Islands	1 000	3 000	21 000
Dominica	3 000	60 000	70 000
Fiji	6 000	170 000	850 000
Gambia*	-----	40 000	1 411 000
Ghana*	-----	1 400 000	19 894 000
Gibraltar	28 000	2 000	31 000
Grenada*	100 000	-----	100 000
Guam	58 000	100 000	160 000
Guyana*	650 000	30 000	700 000
Hong Kong	150 000	2 200 000	7 210 000
India	350 000	200 000 000	1 029 991 000
Ireland	3 750 000	100 000	3 850 000
Jamaica*	2 600 000	50 000	2 665 000
Kenya	-----	2 700 000	30 766 000
Kiribati	-----	23 000	94 000
Lesotho	-----	500 000	2 177 000
Liberia*	600 000	2 500 000	3 226 000
Malawi	-----	540 000	10 548 000
Malaysia	380 000	7 000 000	22 230 000
Malta	13 000	95 000	395 000
Marshall Islands	-----	60 000	70 000
Mauritius	2 000	200 000	1 190 000
Micronesia	4 000	60 000	135 000
Montserrat*	4 000	-----	4 000
Namibia	14 000	300 000	1 800 000
Nauru	900	10 700	12 000
New Zealand	3 700 000	150 000	3 864 000
Nigeria*	-----	60 000 000	126 636 000
Northern Marianas*	5 000	65 000	75 000
Pakistan	-----	17 000 000	145 000 000
Palau	500	18 000	19 000
Papua New Guinea*	150 000	3 000 000	5 000 000
Philippines	20 000	40 000 000	83 000 000
Puerto Rico	100 000	1 840 000	3 937 000
Rwanda	-----	20 000	7 313 000
St Kitts & Nevis*	43 000	-----	43 000
St Lucia*	31 000	40 000	158 000
St Vincent & Grenadines*	114 000	-----	116 000
Samoa	1 000	93 000	180 000
Seychelles	3 000	30 000	80 000
Sierra Leone*	500 000	4 400 000	5 427 000
Singapore	350 000	2 000 000	4 300 000
Solomon Islands*	10 000	165 000	480 000
South Africa	3 700 000	11 000 000	43 586 000
Sri Lanka	10 000	1 900 000	19 400 000
Suriname*	260 000	150 000	434 000
Swaziland	-----	50 000	1 104 000
Tanzania	-----	4 000 000	36 232 000
Tonga	-----	30 000	104 000
Trinidad & Tobago*	1 145 000	-----	1 170 000
Tuvalu	-----	800	11 000

Uganda	-----	2 500 000	23 986 000
United Kingdom	58 190 000	1 500 000	59 648 000
UK Islands (Channel, Man)	227 000	-----	228 000
United States	215 424 000	25 600 000	278 059 000
US Virgin Islands*	98 000	15 000	122 000
Vanuatu*	60 000	120 000	193 000
Zambia	110 000	1 800 000	9 770 000
Zimbabwe	250 000	5 300 000	11 365 000
Other dependencies	20 000	15 000	35 000

(Crystal, 2003: 62-65, adapted from Jenkins, 2009: 2-3)

As can be seen in Table 2-2, English is spoken as a native language in more than 60 territories in the world. The number of ENL speakers in these territories is estimated to be around 329 million. In fact, when the English-derived pidgins and creoles are added, the total number of ENL speakers is approximately 400 million in the early 2000s (Crystal, 2003: 67).

Here, it must be noted that ENL does not have a single standard variety. It differs from one district to another (the American variety, the British variety), and also within the districts. This is closely related to the previously mentioned diasporas of English, which is of two kinds. In the first diaspora, as a result of immigration, English was brought by its native speakers from England, Scotland, and Ireland to America, Australia, and New Zealand. The second diaspora, on the other hand, occurred as result of the colonization of Asia and Africa. While the first diaspora led to the emergence of new L1 or mother-tongue varieties, the second led to the emergence of L2 varieties or ‘New Englishes’ (Jenkins, 2009: 5).

In identifying English speakers across the globe, Kachru (2005: 12) specifically focuses on “nativeness” and makes a distinction between ‘genetic nativeness’ and ‘functional nativeness’. In his opinion, genetic nativeness refers to the historical and typological relationship. Functional nativeness, on the other hand, is related to the range and depth of a language- “[r]ange refers to the domains of function, and depth refers to the degree of social penetration of the language”. According to Kachru, functional nativeness should be determined considering the following issues:

1. the sociolinguistic status of a variety in its transplanted context;
2. the functional domains in which the language is used;
3. the creative processes used at various levels to articulate local identities;
4. the linguistic exponents of acculturation and nativization;
5. the types of cultural ‘cross-over’ contributing to a new canon; and
6. the attitude-specifying labels used for the variety.

(Kachru, 2005: 12)



The dichotomy of native versus non-native speaker will be discussed later in this chapter; however, it is important to note here that the terms “native” and “non-native” are no longer viable especially in the context of ELF. As Jenkins (2009: 87) states “when English is used as an international lingua franca among Expanding Circle speakers, then these speakers ‘own’ their lingua franca English, or ELF, and it therefore makes no sense to describe them as ‘non-native’ English speakers”. Moreover, these terms imply that in order to become fully proficient in a language, one should learn it from birth as his *first and only* language. Another weakness of this classification is that, it does not recognize the use of English in ESL and EFL territories as a home language, as an official language, and as the language of education. This classification also causes difficulty for non-native teachers as they become exposed to discrimination in the job market and in publishing their works. For these reasons, scholars suggest abandoning these terms. For alternatives, Rampton (1990: 98-99) and Leung, Harris, and Rampton (1997: 555) suggest using the concepts ‘language expertise’, ‘language inheritance’, and ‘language affiliation’.

*Language expertise* refers to how proficient people are in a language; *Language affiliation* refers to the attachment or identification they feel for a language whether or not they nominally belong to the social group customarily associated with it;

Language inheritance refers to the ways in which individuals can be born into a language tradition that is prominent within the family and community setting whether or not they claim expertise in or affiliation to that language.

(Leung et al., 1997: 555)

However, as Jenkins (2009: 90) points out, when we use the term ‘expert’ for proficient speakers, then ‘non-expert’ will inevitably imply less proficient speakers. Instead of these value laden words (non-native, non-expert), Jenkins (2009) suggests using the traditional terminology: ‘monolingual English speaker’ (MES), ‘bilingual English speaker’ (BES), and ‘non-bilingual English speaker’ (NBES). According to this, MES is used for those who speak only English. BES is used for speakers who are proficient in at least one other language besides English, regardless of the order of acquisition. NBES is used for speakers who are not fully proficient in English but are able to speak it to some extent. In this type of conceptualization, BESs become more favourable than MESs because of their larger linguistic repertoire. Moreover, the classification of speakers in terms of nativeness / non-nativeness is eliminated, which in turn might bring the discrimination towards non-native teachers to an end. However, this type of labeling does also have some weaknesses. The line between

NBESs and BESs is not clear; that is, the level of competence required for a BES is not specified (Jenkins, 2009: 90-91). It seems that until appropriate terminology is found to describe the speakers of English, the use of terms 'native' and 'non-native' will be inevitable as it is today.

#### 2.1.3.2. ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

English is spoken as a second language (ESL) in territories such as Philippines, Nigeria, and India, the ex-colonies of the UK and the USA, where English is used as the official language. The total number of ESL speakers is estimated to be around 350 million (Jenkins, 2009: 16). The whole list of ESL speaking areas is displayed in Table 2, with the estimated numbers for each area.

Scholars have put forward various definitions of ESL. Richards and Schmidt (2010: 196-197), for example, address ESL from two different perspectives.

...In a loose sense, English is the second language of anyone who learns it after learning their first language in infancy in the home. Using the term this way, no distinction is made between second language, third language, etc... Someone who learns English in a setting in which the language is necessary for everyday life (for example, an immigrant learning English in the US) or in a country in which English plays an important role in education, business, and government (for example in Singapore, the Philippines, India, and Nigeria) is learning English as a second language.

Phillipson (2007: 130) points out that it is unfortunate to name English as 'second' language because "the position of ESL users and learners in continental Europe is radically different from that of learners of ESL in the US or the UK, just as it also significantly differs from English in postcolonial countries such as Singapore or Kenya ...".

In ESL areas, English is used for intra-national purposes; whereas in EFL areas it is mainly used for international purposes. However, in terms of the competence in English, there is also a discrepancy among speakers of ESL, like EFL, from native-like fluency to extremely poor (Graddol, 1997: 11). It is also important to note that "English shifts from foreign-language status to second-language status for an increasing number of people" (Graddol, 1997: 56). The use English for intra-national purposes – e.g. higher education, professional discourse- is increasing in numerous countries such as Argentina, Belgium, Costa Rica, Denmark, Ethiopia, Honduras, Lebanon, Myanmar (Burma), Nepal, Netherlands, Nicaragua, Norway,

Panama, Somalia, Sudan, Surinam, Sweden, Switzerland, United Arab Emirates. This indicates that these countries are in the process of shifting towards ESL status (Graddol, 1997: 11). This shift, however, was anticipated by Kachru (1985: 13-14) decades ago, as can be understood from his statements below.

The Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle cannot be viewed as clearly demarcated from each other; they have several shared characteristics, and the status of English in the language policies of such countries changes from time to time. What is an ESL region at one time may become an EFL region at another time or vice versa.

(Kachru, 1985: 13-14)

Apart from the intra-national purposes, English is being adopted as the language of the home in many ESL countries by people who are bilingual in English. As Graddol (1997: 11) states “English is thus acquiring new first-language speakers outside the traditional ‘native-speaking’ countries”.

On the other hand, as Graddol (1997: 11) states “[a]reas in which English is used extensively as a second language usually develop a distinct variety of English which reflects other languages used alongside English”. These varieties, which are called as ‘New Englishes’, have come out in ex-colonial areas in South Asia, South-east Asia, Africa and the Caribbean.

#### 2.1.3.3. ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

English as a foreign language (EFL) is used in countries, such as Germany, Turkey, and China, where English is neither the primary, nor the official language, but the most commonly learned foreign language. The number of EFL learners, though not easy to predict, is around 1 billion when based on the ‘reasonable competence’ criterion (Jenkins, 2009: 16). Unlike L2 countries, there are no local models of English in EFL countries, although EFL speakers’ accents vary in accordance with their first languages (Graddol, 1997: 11).

English has become the most widely taught and learned language around the world. As the demand for learning English has increased, EFL countries has started to change their foreign language education policies by lowering the starting age for learning English, or by increasing the hours of English courses. There have been two basic models of teaching English: the teaching of English as a second language (ESL) and the teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL). EFL has been the dominant model of teaching English since the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. An

EFL learner can be defined as “[s]omeone who learns English in a formal classroom setting, with limited or no opportunities for use outside the classroom, in a country in which English does not play an important role in internal communication” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 196-97). EFL has emphasized the importance of learning about the target culture and following the native speaker language behavior. However, today there is a need for a new model which meets the realities of global English (Graddol, 2006: 82).

As stated in Mitchell (2009: 85) “many countries have adopted English as compulsory first foreign language for reasons of prestige and as a ‘taken for granted’ component of modern globalizing curricula, rather than on account of substantive local and national needs”. For example, in China, starting from primary school Grade 3 until university, English is the first foreign language (Mitchell, 2009: 92).

#### 2.1.3.4. ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE

International Language is a term used to refer to the language “used by people of different nations to communicate with one another” (Smith, 1976, as cited in Brutt-Griffler, 2002: 5). Latin, French, and Arabic were once major international languages, but today it is English. In fact, “English is not only an international language, but *the* international language” in today’s world. (Seidlhofer, 2011: 2). Richard and Schmidt (2010: 196) define EIL as

a term used to characterize the status of English as the world’s major second language and the commonest language used for international business, trade, travel, communication, etc. Like the term **World Englishes**, the notion of International Language recognizes that different norms exist for the use of English around the world. British, American, Australian or other mother-tongue varieties of English are not necessarily considered appropriate targets either for learning or for communication in countries where English is used for cross cultural or cross linguistic communication, for example, when a Brazilian and a Japanese businessperson use English to negotiate a business contract. The type of English used on such occasions need not necessarily be based on native speaker varieties of English but will vary according to the mother tongue of the people speaking it and the purposes for which it is being used.

(Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 196)

The term English as an International Language (EIL) was previously used to imply communication that consisted of native and non-native speakers, whereas ELF was solely used to refer non-native communication. This distinction, however, was found to be impracticable. As Jenkins (2009: 144) puts forward “[h]ow, for example, should you refer to an ELF interaction in which the participants are joined midway

by a native English speaker? Does it then become EIL? Do the target norms suddenly change to the native English speaker's ENL norms?" Moreover, when ELF is considered as the language of non-natives, then native speakers have to orient themselves to the non-native speaker norms. Thus, ELF researchers do not eliminate native speakers from their definition of ELF, though most of the ELF interaction takes place between non-native speakers. On the other hand, the term EIL is still preferred by some researchers but used interchangeably with ELF (Jenkins, 2009: 144).

One of those researchers, Seidlhofer (2011: 3) explains the development of English as an International Language in two ways. According to this, English has been 'exported' and 'imported'. First, mainly by means of colonization, English has been exported to various parts of the world by its native speakers. Second, English has been imported by its non-native speakers around the world who wanted to learn it as a second or foreign language. Seidlhofer (2011: 4) also makes a distinction between 'localized EIL' and 'globalized EIL'. While the former represents the intra-national use of Englishes in Outer Circle<sup>4</sup> countries, the latter represents the global use of English in inter-national-communication.

#### 2.1.4. MODELS OF ENGLISH SPEAKERS AROUND THE WORLD

Several models (Graddol, 2006; Görlach, 1988; Kachru, 1985, 1992; McArthur, 1987, 1998; Modiano, 1999a, 1999b; Strevens, 1880, 1992, Yano, 2001, 2009a, 2009b) have been suggested to describe the spread of English and English speakers around the world. Strevens' world map of English is known as the oldest model among others. In his map, presented in Figure 2-2, Strevens (1992) uses a tree diagram demonstrating the two major branches of English; that is, British English Branch and American English Branch; and also the local forms of English, such as Indian English. According to Strevens

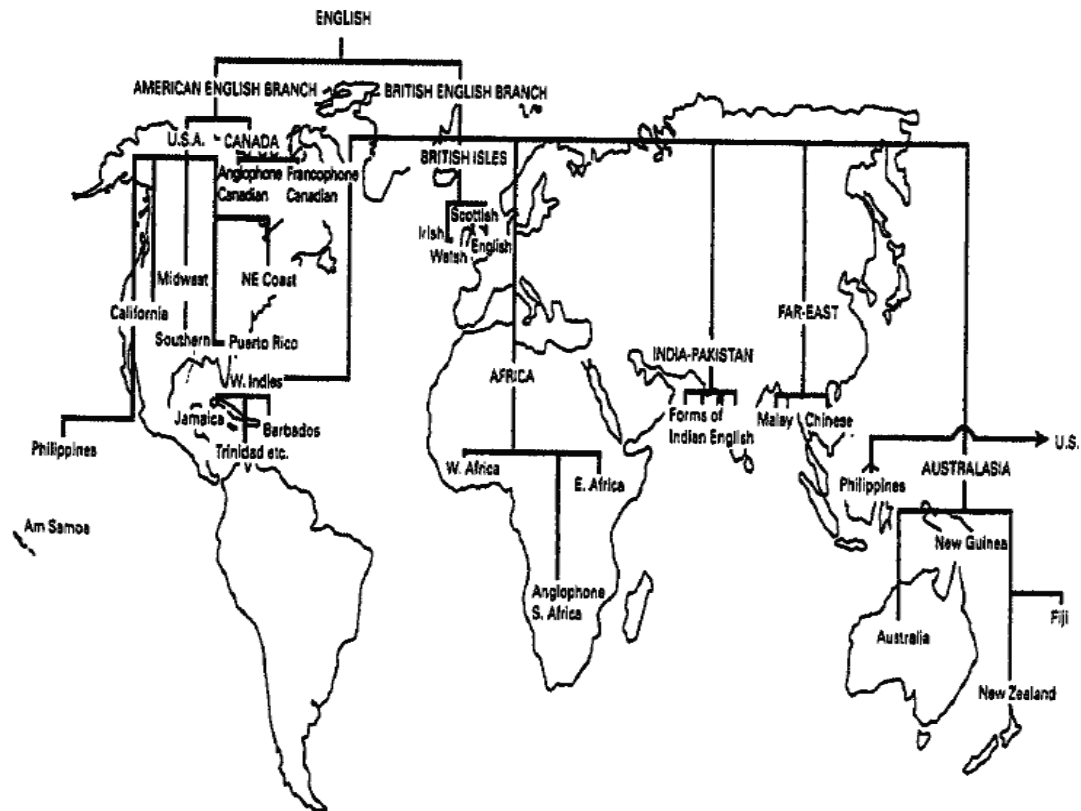
Describing the size and geographical spread of English, noting the distinction between ethnocentered and non-ethnocentered uses of English, and among the ethnocentered users of English distinguishing between NS and NNS – this sets the scene but does not exhaust the range of distinctions that operate and have to be

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<sup>4</sup> The Outer Circle, proposed in Kachru's (1985) three-circle model of World Englishes, includes countries where English is spoken as a second language and where it has an official status.

recognized within English. In particular, we need to be aware of (a) the two main branches of English, British English (BE) and American English (AE); (b) the nature of local forms of English (LFE); and (c) the notions of English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL)

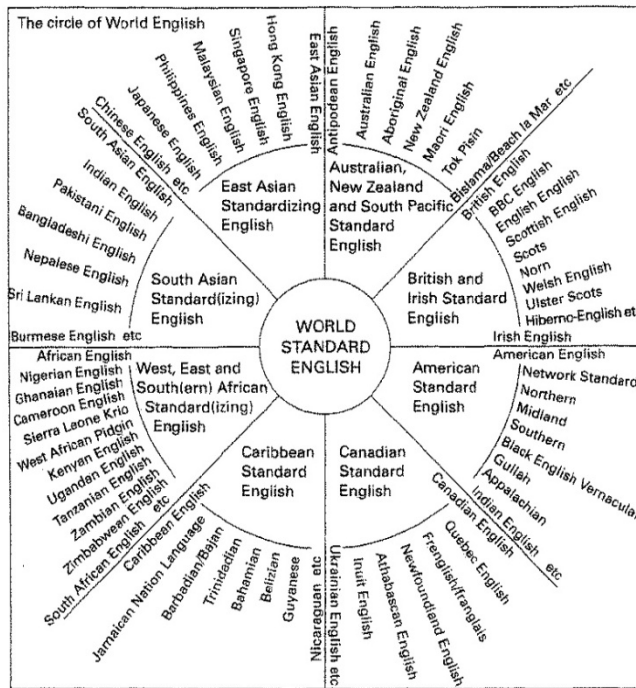
(Stevens, 1992: 32)



**Figure 2-2: Stevren’s World Map of English**

(Stevens, 1992: 33)

Then in 1985 and 1988 Kachru proposed the ‘Three circle model of World Englishes’. In 1987 McArthur puts forward the ‘Circle of World English’, and in 1988 Görlach suggested the ‘Circle model of English’. As Jenkins (2009) points out Görlach’s and McArthur’s models have some common features. Both models place English as a global language at their centres, although named differently. While Görlach uses the term ‘International English’, McArthur uses ‘World Standard English’. Then, each model moves out-wards to regional standard Englishes. However, when it comes to classify the non-standard Englishes, the terminology used by Görlach and McArthur is distinct. Görlach classifies non-standard forms as 1) semi-/sub-regional standard Englishes, 2) non-standard Englishes, and 3) pidgins and creoles. McArthur, on the other hand, uses the classification of 1) standard, 2) standard(izing), and 3) standardizing. Besides, McArthur divides the world into eight regions as can be seen in Figure 2-3.



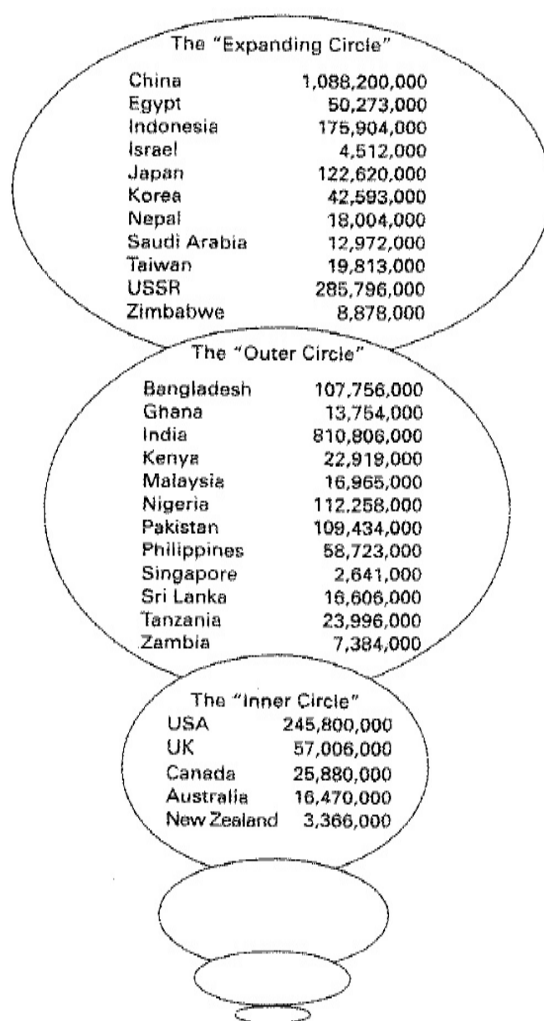
**Figure 2-3: McArthur’s Circle of World English**  
(McArthur, 1998: 97)

Among these models, however, Kachru’s three circle model is considered as the most useful and influential way of conceptualizing the spread of English, and thus, has been used as a framework in studies on World Englishes.

#### 2.1.4.1. KACHRUVIAN CIRCLES

In 1985, Braj Kachru proposed his now famous ‘three circle model of World Englishes’. In this model, English was made plural and Englishes were classified into three concentric circles; the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle. The model describes “(1) the *types of spread* of English worldwide, (2) the *patterns of acquisition*, and (3) the *functional domains* in which English is used internationally” (Bolton, 2006: 292). In this respect, the Inner Circle Englishes represent the ENL varieties of English spoken in the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, where English is the main language. The Outer Circle Englishes, on the other hand, represent the ESL varieties of English spoken in countries such as India, Nigeria, Malaysia, and the Philippines, where English is the official language. The Expanding Circle Englishes represent the EFL varieties of English spoken in countries such as Germany, Italy, Egypt, and Japan, where English is learned as a foreign language (Kirkpatrick, 2007b: 377-378). While the Inner Circle Englishes are seen as ‘norm-providing’, the Outer and the Expanding Circle

Englishes are respectively seen as ‘norm-developing’, and ‘norm-dependent’ (Jenkins, 2009: 18).



**Figure 2-4: Kachru's three-circle model of World Englishes**  
(Kachru, 1992: 356)

While providing a useful framework of reference in describing speakers of English, Kachru's three-circle model has been criticized due to its limitations. Jenkins (2009: 20) summarizes the drawbacks of Kachru's model in seven points. First, the model fails in its description of the current uses and users of English since it is a geography and history-based model. For instance, today English is spoken as a first language by some Outer Circle speakers. Besides, English is being used for a variety of purposes in the Expanding Circle. It has become the medium of communication between NNSs and NSs and more frequently between NNSs and NNSs from different L1s, and the medium of instruction in Europe and Asia. As a second limitation, Jenkins (2009: 20) puts forward that "there is often a grey area



between the Inner and Outer Circles”. English is used not only for official purposes, but also as a home language by those who have learnt it as a second language. Another grey area is said to be between the Outer and Expanding Circles. As stated in Graddol (1997: 11), in a number of Expanding Circle countries, there is a transition from EFL to L2 status. In terms of these shifts, Graddol (1997: 4) states that “as the number of people using English grows, so second-language speakers are drawn towards the ‘inner circle’ of first-language speakers and foreign-language speakers to the ‘outer circle’ of second-language speakers”.

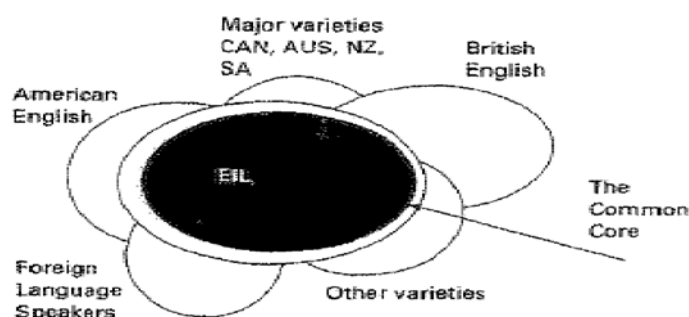
According to Jenkins (2009: 20), Kachru’s model also fails to explain the case of bilingual or multilingual speakers of English. Each language serves a particular function in those speakers’ daily lives; thus, it is difficult to explain whether English serves as a first, second, or third language in their repertoire. Another limitation of this model is that it categorizes speakers of English in terms of their proficiency levels. However, a non-native speaker may have a higher grammatical and lexical competence than that of a native speaker. As stated in Jenkins (2009: 20) “The fact that English is somebody’s second or third language does not itself imply that their competence is less than that of a native speaker”. Furthermore, although the model assumes that there is uniformity within the circles, there is linguistic diversity even in the Inner Circle. Another problem is that the Inner Circle speakers in this model are perceived as superior - though Kachru did not want to imply that - to the Outer and Expanding Circle speakers (Jenkins, 2009: 20-21).

Although it has some limitations Kachru’s model is considered as groundbreaking. While some scholars (Modiano, 1999a, 1999b) have developed different models for the description of the spread of English, others (Yano, 2001; Graddol, 2006) have enhanced Kachru’s model considering the current status of English. Although they differ in their approaches, all these models are used to describe the spread and global uses of English.

#### 2.1.4.2. MODIANO’S MODEL

Modiano (1999a, 1999b) abandons Kachru’s geography and history-based model and develops his own model of English. In his first model, ‘the centripetal circles of international English’, he emphasizes English as an International language, and classifies speakers of English in terms of their proficiency levels. He puts

speakers of English who are proficient in international English to the centre of the model. These speakers are considered to have no strong regional accent. The second circle in the model represents the speakers of English who have either native or foreign language proficiency. The third band consists of learners of English who are not considered as proficient. Finally, outside the circle there are the people who do not know any English. This model, however, has been criticized due to its vagueness. Jenkins (2009: 22) states that the boundary between ‘proficient in international English’ and ‘not proficient in international English’ is not clear as there is no definition of ‘international English’. Then, Modiano (1999b) proposed his second model that is presented in Figure 2-5. As can be seen, English as an International Language (EIL) is at the center of the model, and is considered as the common core among all native and non-native varieties of English. However, as Jenkins (2009: 23) states “the difficulty of determining what goes into his central category remains”.



**Figure 2-5: Modiano’s model of English as an international language**  
(Modiano, 1999b: 10)

#### 2.1.4.3. YANO’S MODEL

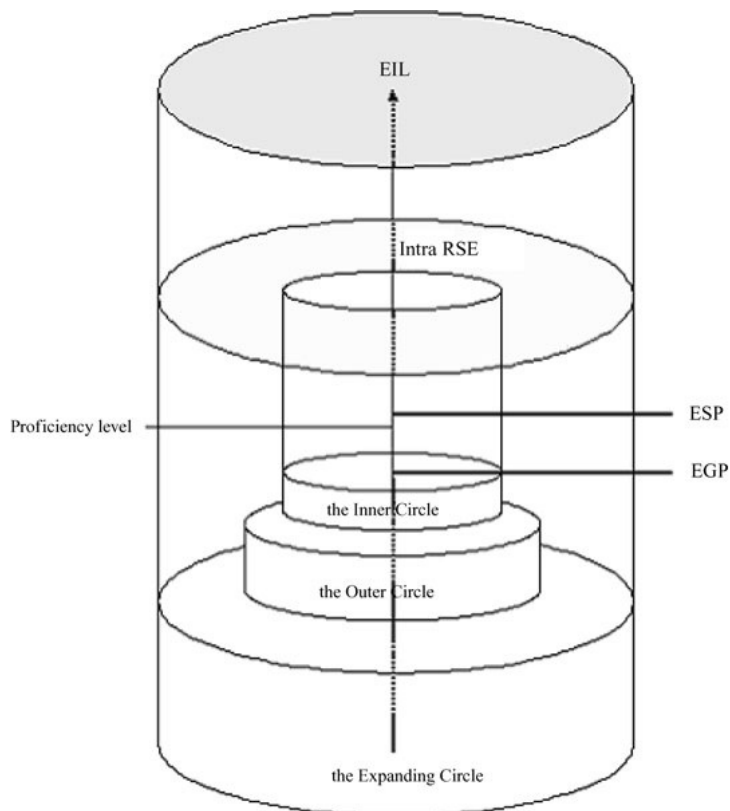
Yano (2001) suggests improving Kachru’s geography-based model due to the established varieties of English in Outer Circle and speakers of Outer Circle who perceive themselves as natives with native speaker intuition. He points out the limitation of Kachru’s distinction of ‘genetic nativeness’ (ENL) versus ‘functional nativeness’ (ESL). He (2001: 122) states that “functionally native ESL speakers in the outer circle are expected to far exceed those genetically native English speakers in the inner circle not only by their numbers but by economic and technological power”, which as he claims will make such a boundary less meaningful. He also emphasizes that as a result of immigration the number of nonnative speakers in Inner

Circle will surpass the number of natives in states such as California, Hawaii, and Texas; and therefore, suggests redefining the Inner Circle.

To this end, he modifies Kachru's model by categorizing Outer Circle as 'functional ENL' and Inner Circle as 'genetic ENL', and by separating the circles with a 'dotted line' which implies that the boundary will eventually disappear. As Jenkins (2009: 21) states "the attempt to remove any possible suggestion of a 'mandatory' genetic element from the definition of 'native speaker' is very welcome".

Yano (2001) proposes an equal-sized cylinder model in which the varieties of English are not distinguished as ENL, ESL, and EFL; but as 'acrolectal' and 'basilectal'. "The use of English for international communication and for formal and public domestic interaction is acrolectal in that it is characterized by its formality of linguistic forms and by the relative absence of local and indigenous linguistic and sociocultural aspects" (Yano, 2001: 123). On the other hand, the use of English as an intranational communication, which is informal and indigenous in its nature, is considered as basilectal. However, Jenkins (2009: 21) points out that this model disregards the basilectal use of English in international communication, though it is becoming very common.

Then, Yano (2009) proposes a three-dimensional cylindrical model which is presented in Figure 2-6. He (2009: 250) states that "an individual proficiency based model is also needed to represent the individual learner and user as another factor in the context of English as an international lingua franca".



**Figure 2-6: Yano's three-dimensional model of English use**  
(Yano, 2009a: 250)

## 2.1.5. CONCEPTUAL CONTROVERSIES

### 2.1.5.1. NATIVE VERSUS NON-NATIVE

The first language a human being learns to speak is his native language; he is a native speaker of this language.

(Bloomfield, 1933: 43; as cited in Kirkpatrick, 2007a: 8)

The global spread of English has also led to the questioning of native and non-native speakers within the discipline of English language teaching. English has been taught as a second or foreign language both by NS and NNS teachers of English since the 15<sup>th</sup> century. The first NNS teacher of English known by name is a native of French called Gabriel Meurier (Braine, 2010: 1). It might be that the dichotomy of “native” and “non-native” teachers of English has been discussed since then. The issues discussed thus far has been whether NS or NNSs make better teachers of English, the differences between them in terms of language proficiency and teaching practice, and the superiority of native speakers. However, in the last decade the scope of this debate has broadened with the increase in the number of non-native English teachers. Based on the current estimates, nearly 80% of the English teachers worldwide are now NNSs. This increase triggered the NNS movement which

aroused with the concept of World Englishes proposed by Kachru and Smith in 1970s (Braine, 2010: 2).

A seminar, titled ‘In Their Own Voices: Nonnative Speaker Professionals in TESOL’, is considered as the beginning of the NNS movement. At the seminar, which was organized by Braine and held at the 30<sup>th</sup> Annual TESOL Convention in Chicago in 1996, prominent NNS scholars came together and gave presentations discussing the case of NNS teachers. As Braine (2010: 3) states the audiences in the seminar were very enthusiastic. It was for the first time that a TESOL Caucus for Non-Native English Speakers was proposed. Then in 1998, the TESOL (NNEST) Caucus was established. The purpose of this organization was to

1. create a nondiscriminatory professional environment for all TESOL members regardless of native language and place of birth
  2. encourage the formal and informal gatherings of NNS at TESOL and affiliate conferences
  3. encourage research and publications on the role of nonnative speaker teachers in ESL and EFL contexts, and
  4. promote the role of nonnative speaker members in TESOL and affiliate leadership positions.
- (Braine, 2010: 4)

As can also be understood from the objectives of this NNS movement, NNS teachers of English have faced discrimination from employers, students, and parents of the students both in their local communities and around the world. As Braine (2010: 3-4) states, “for many NNS English teachers, qualifications, ability, and experience were of little help in the job market where the invisible rule appeared to be “No NNS” need apply”. ELT administrators in Inner and Outer Circle countries explain this with ESL learners’ preferences and the complexity of the legal procedure in hiring NNS teachers. However, according to Braine (2010: 4) “the main reason was the subtle opposition to the increasing presence of foreigners in western academia as teachers, researchers, and scholars.” On the other hand, these NNS teachers do also have to compete with NS teachers in their own countries. For example, “[a]s far as the Expanding Circle is concerned, China offers the most vivid instances of discrimination in the employment of NNS English teachers” (Braine: 2010: 15). In fact, as Braine (2010: 4) puts forward, in expanding circle countries such as Japan, Korea, and Hong Kong, unqualified NSs of English are given preference over qualified local English teachers.

Cook (1999: 185-209) drawing attention to the role of native speakers in language teaching, questions whether it is time to admit the importance and necessity of nonnative speakers in language teaching. He states that “language teaching would benefit by paying attention to the L2 user rather than concentrating primarily on the native speaker” (p. 185). For one thing, non-native teachers can better understand the difficulties their students experience in learning the L2 because they themselves pass through the same process. As Seidlhofer (1999: 238) states “native speakers know the destination, but not the terrain that has to be crossed to get there: they themselves have not travelled the same route”. Thus, this shared experience should be seen as a gain rather than a loss, and it should increase non-native speakers’ self-confidence. Holliday (2005: 11), on the other hand, points out that the change has already taken place. He explains this as a shift from native-speakerism (Position 1), to Position 2 (which is considered as the new way of seeing TESOL).

**Table 2-3: From native speakerism to position 2**

Orientation	Native Speakerism Traditional, ‘us’-‘them’ position. Setting superior ‘native’ speakers’ against inferior ‘non-native speakers’. Cultural difference	Position 2 Struggle to make new relationships. ‘We are all in this together.’  Cultural continuity
Language and context	English is foreign. The ‘native speaker’ is the norm.	English is international. The local context is is the norm.
ESOL educator from outside the English-speaking West	She is a ‘non-native speaker’. English is someone else’s, with a foreign culture and expertise.	She is a teacher at home. English is hers. She has her own ways of doing things. There is an instrumental use of foreign expertise. She can also be a teacher ‘abroad’, like any other teacher.
ESOL educator from the English –speaking West	She is a ‘native speaker’. She brings her English and culture to the uninitiated. She has theories of exotic foreign cultures.	She is a speaker of a dominant English variety-but perhaps parochial. She needs to rethink the normality of what she brings, and what she meets.

(Holliday, 2005: 12)

As can be seen in Table 2-3, there is a shift from traditional ‘us’-‘them’ position, (or ‘native’ versus ‘non-native’), to ‘We’ position. Here it should be emphasized that while the ‘us’-‘them’ position has had an exclusive feature, the ‘We’ position has now an inclusive feature. As Holliday (2005: 12) states, this “involves new thinking about how we should be together”. Another important point emphasized here is that the role of teachers has been to help learners attain native-like proficiency. The reasons for this can be explained as follows:

Grammar that differs from native speakers’, pronunciation that betrays where L2 users come from, and vocabulary that differs from native usage are treated as signs of L2 users’ failure to become native speakers, not of their accomplishments in learning to use the L2. Just as it was once claimed that women should speak like men to succeed in business, Black children should learn to speak like White children, and working-class children should learn the elaborated language of the middle class, so L2 users are commonly seen as failed native speakers.

(Cook, 1999: 185)

Position 2 in Holliday’s (2005: 12) distinction, on the other hand, points out the new conceptualization. As he states “because English is international, its ownership is shifted to whoever wishes to use it; and the ‘normal’ location becomes whichever milieu in which it is being taught, rather than the idealized native-speakerist classroom” (p. 13). Moreover, Position 2 brings *cultural continuity* in contrast to native-speakerist principle of *cultural difference*. Native-speakerism emphasizes knowing about a foreign Other (students and colleagues from outside the English-speaking countries). However, as Holiday states, cultural continuity can be achieved by knowing and understanding who and how we are.

In the context of teaching ELF, Kirkpatrick (2011: 221) proposes a multilingual model in which multilingual English teachers (METs) will serve both as a role model and a linguistic model. In this model, METs take the place of native English teachers (NETs). One of the advantages of this approach is that rather than only British or American culture and literature, the curriculum can include teaching of regional cultures and regional literatures, which would be more applicable with multilingual teachers. On the other hand, the model has a disadvantage; that is, it delays the teaching of English until secondary school. This contradicts with the tenet that the earlier English is taught the better the results. However, according to Kirkpatrick (2011: 222) this is not a weakness because the target goal in multilingual model is not native-like competence. He states that “[t]here is no need, for example,

for the multilingual who is using English in lingua franca contexts to sound like a native speaker. Instead, the multilingual can be allowed to sound just that: a multilingual” (p. 222).

Timmis (2002) was one of the first to investigate teachers’ and students’ perceptions of English as an international language and their attitudes towards native-speaker English. He states that students still wish to conform to the native-speaker norms, even when they do not interact or anticipate interacting with native speakers. Moreover, although the majority of the students aim to communicate in English, some of them still hold the idea of achieving native-like proficiency. Teachers, on the other hand, tend to deviate from the native-speaker norms faster than students.

Ammon (2000), on the other hand, emphasizes that non-native speakers of English are exposed to linguistic discrimination. He notes that non-native researchers are disadvantaged in efforts to publish their findings in English. For instance, Swiss scientists are trained in writing academic texts in their native language, but are asked to publish their studies in English. In this respect, Ammon (2000) emphasizes non-native speakers’ rights to ‘linguistic peculiarities’ when using English as an international language. In fact, as Crystal (2003: 172) states “[t]o have learned a language is immediately to have rights in it”.

Phillipson (1992) points out that the tenets discussed in the Common Wealth Conference, held in 1961 in order to determine the priorities for ELT, were similar with the commonly held beliefs. The tenets were as follows:

English is best taught monolingually.  
The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker.  
The earlier English is taught, the better the results.  
The more English is taught, the better the results.  
If other languages are used much, standards of English will drop.  
(Phillipson, 1992: 185)

Phillipson claims that these tenets are false and therefore should be termed as fallacies: the monolingual fallacy, the native speaker fallacy, the early start fallacy, the maximum exposure fallacy, and the subtractive fallacy. Ammon (2000) states that the native speaker fallacy is still widespread even among the researchers who investigate the new varieties of English and those who are aware of the fact that non-



native speakers outnumbered native speakers. He also notes that native speakers of English still regard themselves as the only owner of English and overemphasize its linguistic correctness. However, as Seidlhofer (2011: 45) states “referring to a representative of the majority group of speakers as ‘the non-native’ sounds somewhat outdated to say the least”.

#### 2.1.5.2. STANDARD VERSUS NON-STANDARD

Another dichotomy in the discourse of English as a global language is the standard versus non-standard English. ‘Standard language’ is a term used to refer to the variety of a language that is recognized as the norm. Thereby, standard English is not a language, but one of the varieties of English. In fact, Trudgill (1999b) puts forward that ‘standard English’ is not a language, not an accent, not a style, not a register, and not a set of prescriptive rules; but, it is a dialect. As he states ‘standard English’ is “the most important dialect in the English-speaking world from a social, intellectual and cultural point of view; and it does not have an associated accent” (Trudgill, 1999b: 123).

In today’s global world, “a national standard language should be valid not only within a particular country but globally” (Seidlhofer, 2011: 42). Graddol (1997: 56) questions whether a single world standard English (WSE), in the form of a supranational variety, will develop for international communication and teaching. He points out that the emergence of local varieties should not be seen as a threat to ELF. As he states, English, as a world standard variety, will not only be the language of international communication but also the language of identity for many people in the world.

Unlike the development of normal languages, which is usually random, standard languages are shaped by society (Hudson, 1996: 2; as cited in Jenkins, 2009: 34). In the standardizing process, which includes selection, codification, elaboration of function, and acceptance, speakers play an important role (Haugen, 1966, as cited in Jenkins, 2009: 34). On the other hand, languages are not only influenced by native speakers, but also by the second and foreign language speakers. As for English, since the number of ENL speakers is steadily falling, it is the ESL and EFL speakers who will shape the future of English. It is highly possible then that these speakers will create their own standard varieties. As Crystal (2003: 173) states

...as numbers grow, and second/foreign-language speakers gain in national and international prestige, usages which were previously criticized as 'foreign' – such as a new concord rule (*three person*), variations in countability (*furnitures, kitchen-wares*) or verb use (*he be running*) – can become part of the standard educated speech of a locality, and may eventually appear in writing.

(Crystal, 2003: 173)

However, instead of formulating these new varieties, there is still a tendency to adopt the standard British or American English varieties. Clyne (1987, as cited in Ammon, 2000) proposes that English texts written by Germans are not appreciated since Germans tend to transfer the features of academic genre in German into the English academic texts. Furthermore, Ammon (2000) asserts that British and US reviewers regard the books and papers written by Germans as incomprehensible and unintelligible. In fact, as Ammon (2000) states, he himself as a German editor of a book in English was once criticized for being almost unintelligible due to the grammatical mistakes he made in his book. Therefore, Ammon (2000) questions whether non-native speakers' works are really unintelligible or whether there are some other reasons why native speakers evaluate those works negatively. He proposes that intelligibility is not the primary reason of this negative attitude and states that apart from a few instances, the reviewers of his works have never had severe comprehension problems. Moreover, he notes that his interviews with a dozen of German colleagues have revealed the same conclusion. However, in order to fully understand the matter of intelligibility of the texts written by non-native speakers, further experimental studies should be conducted. Until such studies are undertaken, the issue of intelligibility will remain open to doubt and disagreement.

Another common assumption is that the degree of intelligibility is high among non-native speakers of English sharing the same native language, while it is low among non-native speakers of English from diverse language backgrounds. This is explained by the 'familiarity' factor; that is to say, speakers who share the same or similar cultural and linguistic models understand each other better in a foreign language. For instance, while a Turkish EFL speaker can interact with another Turkish EFL speaker easily, he will have difficulties in understanding a Japanese EFL speaker. On the other hand, there is another assumption that non-native speakers of English understand the standard British or American English better than they do non-native Englishes. While these assumptions have an element of truth, they need to be justified with empirical studies. Besides this, it would be wise to let the standards

develop gradually through interaction, so that they would be more effective in addressing the needs of international communication.

## **2.2. ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA**

### **2.2.1. APPROACHING ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA**

The term *lingua franca* is commonly defined as “any lingual medium of communication between people of different mother tongues, for whom it is a second language” (Samarin, 1987: 371; as cited in Seidlhofer, 2007: 138). The original *lingua franca* is said to be a pidgin derived from some Italian dialects, but also reflects Arabic, French, Greek, Persian, Portuguese, Spanish, and Turkish features (Knapp & Meierkord, 2002: 9; as cited in Jenkins 2007: 1). *Lingua francas* can function both intra-nationally and internationally. Mandarin in China, Bahasa Indonesia in Indonesia, and Swahili in East Africa are national *lingua francas* used to provide communication in linguistically diverse areas (Kirkpatrick, 2007a: 7). Today, the most obvious example for international *lingua franca* is English. It is also the most important *lingua franca* of ASEAN (Association of South-East Asian Nations) and of Europe. There were, however, other *lingua francas*, such as Arabic, Latin, and French, which previously served as international *lingua francas*.

While Samarin’s definition is useful in describing local *lingua francas*, it does not apply to English, today’s global *lingua franca* (Seidlhofer, 2011: 7). As House (2003: 557) puts forward the term *lingua franca* was initially used to refer to an intermediary language between Arabic speakers and travelers who come from Western Europe. Then, its meaning extended and *lingua franca*, as a single variety, was used refer to the language of commerce. This meaning of *lingua franca* still does not describe ELF which is functionally flexible and variable. Besides, ELF is not spoken in a single area like the local *lingua francas*; but has spread to all parts of the world. As House (2003: 557) states ELF does not have a restricted code; therefore, it is not like a pidgin or a language for specific purposes. Besides, it is not an interlanguage; but a language for communication.

In line with Samarin’s definition, which excludes the native speakers, Firth (1996: 240) defines ELF as “a ‘contact language’ between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is

the chosen foreign language of communication”. However, as Seidlhofer (2011: 7) puts forward, excluding native speakers from the definition of ELF is not accurate as ELF interactions do include Inner and Outer Circle English speakers as well, e.g. in an academic conference held in Seattle or at a touristic journey to India. Therefore, Seidlhofer (2011: 7) proposes the following definition for ELF: “any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option”.

On the other hand, there are a few terms that are used interchangeably with ELF. These are ‘English as a world language’ (Mair, 2003), ‘English as a global language’ (Crystal, 1997, 2003), ‘World Englishes’ (B. B. Kachru, 1992; Brutt-Griffler, 2002), ‘English as an international language’ (Widdowson, 1997a; Modiano, 2001; McKay, 2002; Timmis 2002), and ‘English as a medium of intercultural communication (Seidlhofer, 2003a). As Bolton (2004: 367; as cited in Pakir, 2009: 225) points out ‘World Englishes’ serves as an umbrella term containing all the above mentioned varieties of English, but it normally implies ‘new Englishes’ (the ‘indigenized’, or ‘nativized’ varieties).

According to Jenkins (2007: 3) the term ELF has several advantages over the above mentioned terms.

ELF emphasizes the role of English in communication between speakers from different L1s, i.e. the primary reason for learning English today; it suggests the idea of community as opposed to alienness; it emphasizes that people have something in common rather than their differences; it implies that ‘mixing’ languages is acceptable... and thus that there is nothing inherently wrong in retaining certain characteristics of the L1, such as accent; finally, the Latin name symbolically removes the ownership of English from the Anglos both to no one and, in effect, to everyone.

(Jenkins, 2000: 11)

However, Phillipson (2008: 250) questioning the neutrality of the term ELF states that “[I]labelling English as a *lingua franca*, if this is understood as a culturally neutral medium that puts everyone on an equal footing, does not merely entail ideological dangers – it is simply false”. As he points out English serves many purposes in the major social domains, both intra-nationally and internationally. Therefore, he suggests defining English with more explicit terms.

*a lingua economica* (in business and advertising, the language of corporate neoliberalism),

*a lingua emotive* (the imaginary of Hollywood, popular music, consumerism, and hedonism),  
*a lingua academica* (in research publications, at international conferences, and as a medium for content learning in higher education), or  
*a lingua cultura* (rooted in the literary texts of English-speaking nations that school foreign language education traditionally aims at, and integrates with language learning as one element of general education)

(Phillipson, 2008: 250)

In order to understand what ELF is and what scholars mean with the term ELF, it is necessary to make a comparative analysis. Table 2-4 presents various definitions of ELF suggested by ELF scholars. The dates provided in the Table may give an insight about the historical development of the term ELF.

**Table 2-4: ELF definitions**

<b>ELF Scholar</b>	<b>Year / Page</b>	<b>ELF Definition</b>
Firth	1996: 240	a 'contact language' between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication
House	1999: 74	ELF interactions occur between members of two or more different linguacultures in English, for none of whom English is the mother tongue
	2001b: 2	English as a lingua franca is nothing more than a useful tool: it is a "language for communication", a medium that is given substance with the different national, regional, local and individual cultural identities its speakers bring to it. English itself does not carry such identities, it is not a "language for identification"
	2003: 559	ELF appears to be neither a restricted language for special purposes, nor a pidgin, nor an interlanguage, but one of a repertoire of different communicative instruments an individual has at his/her disposal, a useful and versatile tool, a 'language for communication'
Kirkpatrick	2007a: 155	a medium of communication by people who do not speak the same first language
Jenkins	2006a: 160	in its purest form, ELF is defined as a contact language used only among non-mother tongue speakers
	2007: 2	an emerging English that exists in its own right and which is being described in its own terms rather than by comparison with ENL
	2009: 143	it is English as it is used as a contact language among speakers from different first languages
Seidlhofer	2011: 7	any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option

As can be seen in Table 2-4, the term ELF is perceived in at least four ways.

According to this:

- ELF 1. The use of English in an interaction where at least some of the participants are non-native speakers (NNS) of English
- ELF 2. The use of English in an interaction where all the participants are NNSs and do not share the same first language
- ELF 3. The use of English in an interaction where all the participants are NNSs and all share (or similar) first language

ELF 4. A (new) code used for interaction among NNSs, not standard English but based on standard English (SE)

(Elder & Davies, 2006: 282-284)

The main characteristics of ELF, has been described by Jenkins (2009: 143-145) as follows:

1. It is used in contexts in which speakers with different L1s (mostly, but not exclusively, from the Expanding Circle) need it as their means to communicate with each other.
2. ELF is an alternative to EFL rather than a replacement for it, and depends on the speaker's (or learner's) potential needs and preferences.
3. Linguistically ELF involves innovations that differ from ENL and which, in some cases, are shared by most ELF speakers.
4. Pragmatically, it involves the use of certain communication strategies, particularly accommodation and code-switching. This is because ELF forms depend crucially on the specific communication context rather than being an 'all-purpose' English.
5. Descriptions of ELF that may lead to codification are drawn from communication involving proficient ELF speakers.

As can be understood from the items above, native speakers are not excluded from the definition of ELF, though most of the ELF interaction takes place between non-native speakers. Moreover, as opposed to the commonly held belief, ELF will not supersede EFL rather both will exist to meet people's varying linguistic needs. For speakers who wish to attain native like proficiency, EFL will remain as the most appropriate variety. However, it is important to raise learners' awareness of the differences between EFL and ELF. The third item, on the other hand, emphasize that speakers of ELF can use both the globally common features of ELF and the features of their local ELF. It is also important to understand the pragmatics of ELF. The use of ELF varies depending on the context of communication such as the setting, interlocutors, and the topic. In order to adjust themselves to a specific linguistic context, ELF speakers use various communication strategies among which accommodation and code-switching are the commonest. Finally, although ELF communication includes speakers who are still in the process of learning the language, when codifying the features of ELF only the proficient ELF speakers' use of language is taken into consideration (Jenkins, 2009: 144-145).

On the other hand, there have been several misinterpretations of ELF. These are summarized by Seidlhofer (2006; as cited in Jenkins, 2007: 20) in five points:

Misconception 1: ELF research ignores the polymorphous nature of the English language worldwide.

Misconception 2: ELF work denies tolerance for diversity and appropriacy of use in specific sociolinguistic contexts.

Misconception 3: ELF description aims at the accurate application of a set of prescribed rules.

Misconception 4: ELF researchers are suggesting that there should be one monolithic variety.

Misconception 5: ELF researchers suggest that ELF should be taught to all non-native speakers.

(adapted from Jenkins, 2007: 20)

As opposed to the misconception 1, ELF aims to provide diversity. In fact, the purpose of corpus studies is to contribute to the diversity of Englishes. As for the second misconception, there is a distinction between core and non-core features in ELF. Core areas are considered as the norms to be followed; however, in non-core areas there is permission for variation, so long as mutual intelligibility is ensured. On the other hand, the aim of ELF is not to present a set of prescriptive rules and ask its speakers to stick to them. Conversely, it is descriptive in nature and aims to provide alternatives to the (NS-based) prescriptive rules. Moreover, ELF scholars do not claim that ELF is a single variety; there is always allowance for local variation. Finally, EFL and ELF serve for different purposes; therefore, learners themselves should decide which variety they need to learn (Seidlhofer, 2006; as cited in Jenkins, 2007: 20).

Seidlhofer (2004: 220) investigating the lexico-grammar of ELF puts forward the emerging patterns observed in ELF communication. She proposes that there is a tendency among ELF speakers to drop the 3<sup>rd</sup> person present tense -s suffix; confuse the relative pronouns 'who' and 'which'; omit definite and indefinite articles where necessary according to ENL norms, and use them redundantly; fail to use the correct tag question forms; use prepositions redundantly; overuse verbs that denote high semantic generality, substitute infinitive structures with 'that clauses'; and overuse explicit forms.

Jenkins (2000) investigating the phonology of ELF, puts forward the 'lingua franca core' (LFC), which specifies the phonological features essential for mutual intelligibility in ELF. The main point here is that non-native pronunciation is accepted as long as mutual intelligibility is maintained. Table 2-5 displays the phonological features of ELF.

**Table 2-5: The lingua franca core (LFC)**

<b>Pronunciation Features of ELF</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• all the consonant sounds except voiceless ‘th’ /θ/, voiced ‘th’ /ð/, and dark ‘l’ [ɫ],</li><li>• vowel length contrasts (e.g. the difference between the vowel sounds in ‘pitch’ and ‘peach’),</li><li>• avoidance of consonant deletion at the beginnings of words (e.g. the <i>cri-</i> in ‘crisp’), and only certain deletions intelligible in word-medial and final position (e.g. ‘factsheet’ as ‘facsheet’ but not ‘fatsheet’ or ‘facteet’; ‘scripts’ as ‘scrips’ but not ‘scrits’ or ‘script’); on the other hand, the avoidance of consonant clusters by means of the addition of vowels, such as ‘film’ pronounced [filəm], seems not to be a problem in ELF, and</li><li>• production and placement of nuclear (tonic) stress, e.g. in Ian McEwan’s novel <i>Amsterdam</i>, one character sends a postcard to another, on which he has written ‘You deserve to be sacked’. This can be interpreted either as ‘You deserve to be sacked’ (but you have not been) or ‘You deserve to be sacked’ (and you have been).</li></ul>

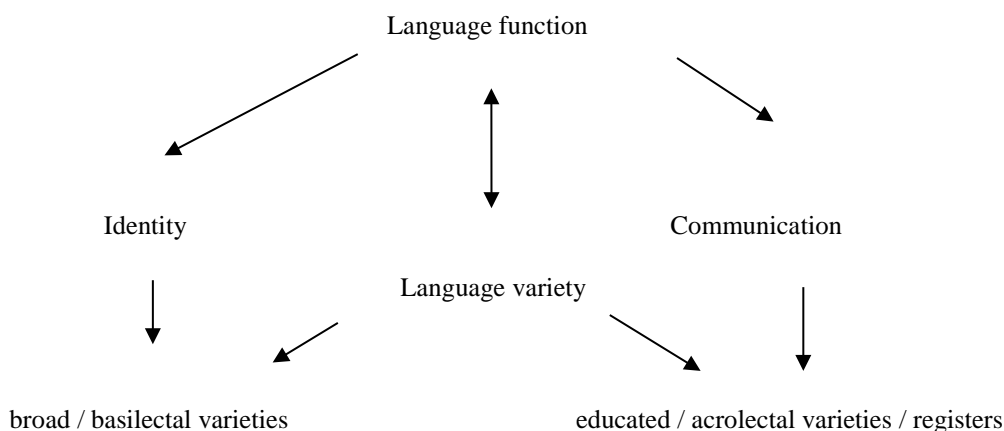
(Jenkins, 2000; adapted from Jenkins, 2009: 147- 148)

Kirkpatrick (2011: 218), referring to his study on English as an ASEAN lingua franca (Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006) claims that these shared phonological features are usually the result of either the inherent physiological difficulty of the sounds (as in the ‘-th’ sounds), or L1 transfer. On the other hand, ELF speakers who come from similar L1s do not need to adjust themselves to the ELF core when communicating among themselves. For instance, if they use /v/ instead of /w/ in their local variety, they do not need to try to produce the /w/ sound to be intelligible. This suggests that rather than conforming to the ELF code, speakers of ELF should first of all adjust themselves to their addressees (Jenkins, 2009: 148). Actually, this conforms to the objectives of ELF which permits non-native varieties as long as intelligibility is ensured. On the other hand, for those speakers who want to preserve their national identities, L1 accent is one of the only means (Jenkins, 2000: 207). In brief, the target model in ELF is a bilingual speaker who has a national identity, that is, speaks with a regional accent; but at the same time has the ability to communicate with another non-native speaker (Graddol, 2006: 87).

Having described English as a lingua franca, it is now necessary to question who owns it. As Norton (1997) puts forward the concepts ‘language’, ‘identity’, and ‘the ownership of English’ are closely related to each other. “If learners of English cannot claim ownership of a language, they might not consider themselves legitimate speakers” (Bourdieu, 1977, as cited in Norton, 1997: 422). Correspondingly, if speakers of ELF do not claim to be the owner of ELF, they cannot count themselves as the legitimate speakers of ELF. People use a language for at least three different purposes: 1) to communicate, 2) to express their identity and 3) to introduce their culture (though related to the second item). In order to achieve these aims, they choose an appropriate language variety (Kirkpatrick, 2007a: 10). Kirkpatrick (2006c;



as cited in Kirkpatrick, 2007a: 11) explains this relationship between the functions and varieties of a language with a continuum presented in Figure 2-7.



**Figure 2-7: The identity-communication continuum**  
(adopted from Kirkpatrick, 2007a: 12)

As can be seen in Figure 2-7, the communicative function is associated with more educated or acrolectal varieties, that is the standard varieties, because intelligibility is the key issue in communication. On the other hand, the broad or basilectal varieties, that is, the informal varieties, are seen as more appropriate for expressing identity. In a similar vein, House (2003) makes a distinction between ‘language for communication’ and ‘language for identification’, and claims that ELF is a language for communication. Similarly, Kirkpatrick (2011: 219) states that ELF should be recognized as a language for communication; and world Englishes (WE) as a language for identification. Speakers who wish to reflect their identities use culturally specific vocabulary, idiomatic expressions, regional accents and strategies that are common in their local communities. However, when their aim is just to communicate, then they exclude local references from their speech for the purpose of intelligibility (Kirkpatrick, 2011: 219).

### 2.2.2. WORLD ENGLISHES

The paradigm of world Englishes (WE) “is most closely associated with the foundational work of Braj Kachru in establishing the field of nativized second-language varieties as a legitimate area of academic study” (Mesthrie, 2006: 273). The salient concepts used in the discussions of world Englishes are ‘language variety’, ‘language variation’, ‘varieties of English’, ‘localized varieties of English’, ‘non-native varieties of English’, ‘second-language varieties of English’, ‘new

varieties of English' (Bolton, 2006: 289). The literature on WE also makes a distinction between 'native' and 'nativised' varieties of English. "Nativised varieties are newer varieties that have developed in places where English was not originally spoken and which have been influenced by local languages and cultures" (Kirkpatrick, 2007a: 5). While the British, American, and Australian English are known as native varieties, World Englishes are those indigenous and nativised varieties of English (Kirkpatrick, 2007a: 3). Thus, Indian English, Hong Kong English, Singaporean English and several others are considered as members of the World Englishes family.

Before moving to the discussion of World Englishes, the common differences between World Englishes and ELF need to be explained. Firstly, while World Englishes is concerned with expressing identity and reflecting regional cultures, ELF is mainly concerned with communication, though it is also possible to reflect identity through ELF. Second, the type of vocabulary they use also differ from each other. While culturally specific vocabulary and idiomatic expressions are very common in world Englishes; they are limited in ELF. Moreover, pronunciation is another area in which world Englishes and ELF differ. (Kirkpatrick, 2011: 219).

Not only can we tell a speaker of American English from a speaker of Indian English by their pronunciation, it is also possible to distinguish a speaker of particular varieties of American and Indian English(es). English as a lingua franca, on the other hand, is characterised by a variety of different pronunciations, as people from different language backgrounds speak English together. This is one area where contact-induced language change is clearly evident.

(Kirkpatrick, 2011: 217-218)

The use of code-mixing, which is considered as an important means of showing a shared identity, is another difference between WE and ELF. Unlike WE, code-mixing does not occur in ELF interactions as ELF speakers do not come from the same L1s. Finally, cultural and pragmatic standards will only be reflected through a WE. For example, when a way of delivering and receiving compliments is culturally accepted, then it will be linguistically reflected in the local variety of English (Kirkpatrick, 2011: 219). Besides this, however, WE and ELF have similar working axioms such as "emphasizing the pluricentricity of English, seeking variety recognition, accepting that languages change and adapts itself to new environments, and observing the discourse strategies of English-knowing bilinguals" (Pakir, 2009: 233).

According to Bolton (2006: 304), one of the major accomplishments of world Englishes so far “has been to challenge the previously inviolate authority of Inner-Circle societies in setting or judging the norms of usage in other English-using societies worldwide”.

### **2.3. RELATED STUDIES ON ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA**

The global spread of English has greatly impacted the interest in ELF research. Studies have been conducted to shed light on written and spoken ELF discourse. While some ELF researchers investigated the lexico-grammar of ELF (Seidlhofer, 2001, 2004; Dewey, 2007a; Cogo & Dewey, 2012; Breiteneder, 2009), others investigated the phonology (Jenkins, 2000; Walker, 2010), and pragmatics of ELF (Björkman, 2011a; Firth, 1996; Firth & Wagner, 1997; House, 1999, 2002; Kaur, 2011; Meierkord 2000; and Mauranen, 2006a, 2006b). Besides these, there have been studies which investigated pre-service and in-service teachers’ (Murray, 2003; Jenkins, 2005a, Llorca, 2005; Young & Walsh, 2010) and students’ (Dalton-Puffer, C., Kaltenboeck, G. & Smit, U., 1997; Timmis, 2002; Groom, 2012) perceptions of ELF. At the present, ELF research is inclined to focus on pragmatic aspects of ELF and investigates the sociolinguistic features of the phenomenon.

On the other hand, in order to identify the nature and characteristics of ELF interactions, several corpus studies, such as Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE), the Corpus of English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings (ELFA), the Corpus of Written English as Lingua Franca in Academic Settings (WrELFA), and the Asian Corpus of English (ACE), have been conducted. Hence, studies on ELF can broadly be grouped into three: descriptive linguistic studies, attitude-based inquiries and corpus-based studies.

The research in ELF began with the phonological, lexical, grammatical, and pragmatic descriptions of ELF interactions. Jenkins’ (2000) “The phonology of English as an International Language” and Seidlhofer’s (2001) “Closing a gap: the case for a description of English as a lingua franca” works are milestones in ELF research as they played a major role in the development of ELF as an independent discipline. Jenkins (2000) aimed to identify the phonological units that are necessary for mutual intelligibility among non-native speakers of English, and proposed the Lingua Franca Core (LFC). Seidlhofer (2001) in her seminal paper, proposed the

need for a systematic investigation and description of ELF. In her later studies, investigating ELF lexico-grammar, Seidlhofer (2004: 220) revealed the following units as emerging patterns in ELF interactions.

- Dropping the third person present tense *-s*
- Confusing the relative pronouns *who* and *which*
- Omitting definite and indefinite articles where they are obligatory in ENL, and inserting them where they do not occur in ENL
- Failing to use correct forms in tag questions (e.g., *isn't it?* or *no?* instead of *shouldn't they?*)
- Inserting redundant prepositions, as in *We have to study about ...*)
- Overusing certain verbs of high semantic generality, such as *do, have, make, put, take*
- Replacing infinitive-constructions with *that*-clauses, as in *I want that*
- Overdoing explicitness (e.g. *black color* rather than just *black*)

Drawing mostly on these emerging patterns, Dewey (2007a) also investigated the lexico-grammatical features of spoken ELF interactions by compiling a 61,234 word corpus. The corpus consists of 42 speech events including not only naturally occurring informal conversations but also semi-formal seminar presentations. The number of participants in the study is 55, with 17 L1s represented. The purpose of the study was to identify the innovative lexico-grammatical structures that emerged in spoken ELF discourse. The findings of Dewey's study, which he later developed in his subsequent works (Cogo & Dewey, 2012), contributed to the studies on the description of ELF lexico-grammar.

Breiteneder (2009) is another researcher interested in ELF lexico-grammar. She specifically investigated the use of 3<sup>rd</sup> –s using the professional-organizational domain of VOICE as database. The findings revealed that in 126 out of 151 occurrences of 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular contexts, the verbs are inflectionally marked, and in 25 contexts they are unmarked. The findings of her study reveal that the use of 3<sup>rd</sup> person –s “follows general principles of language usage that have been observed in numerous varieties of English around the globe and indicate affinities between ELF and various world Englishes (WEs)” (p. 256).

As for the pragmatics of ELF, Firth (1996) in a small scale corpus investigated the telephone conversations of two Danish trading companies. The focus of the study was to examine the use of communicative strategies in ELF interactions. With respect to the findings, Firth (1996: 243) states that “participants demonstrate a remarkable ability to *systematically* and *contingently* – and on the basis of

quintessentially *local* considerations – attend and disattend to a range of anomalies and infelicities in their unfolding interaction”. Besides, Firth puts forward that participants either ‘let it pass’ or pretend that they have understood when actually they do not. Moreover, they tend to tolerate “anomalous usage and marked linguistic behavior”. While turn-taking, sequential relations, and topic management appear commonly in the conversations, ‘other-repair’ and ‘other-completion’ appear less frequently. Finally, Firth notes that even when there are abnormalities in the interactions, participants “*do interactional work* to imbue talk with orderly and ‘normal’ characteristics” (p. 256).

Having worked on spoken ELT interactions, House (1999) and Kaur (2011) conducted research on different pragmatic issues. Investigating the conversations of international students, House proposes that communication breakdowns are not frequent in ELF interactions. At times when they occur, instead of negotiating meanings, ELF speakers tend to change the topic or ‘let it pass’. Kaur, on the other hand, collected 15 hours of spoken ELF interactions and conducted a conversational analysis. The purpose of her study was to investigate the notion of raising explicitness of expression. The participants of the study were 22 international graduate students from 13 different L1s. According to the findings, there is a tendency among ELF speakers in the study to use self-repair practices in order to make corrections, to be more explicit, and to achieve clarity in communication. As Kaur states, “these practices are employed in anticipation of trouble that can occur as a result of the unpredictability and instability that accompany many ELF interactions” (p. 2713).

As for research on ELF attitudes, Timmis (2002) investigated teachers’ and students’ attitudes towards adopting native-speaker norms. He collected approximately 600 questionnaire responses from 45 countries. The findings revealed that there is still a tendency among students (even among those that would not use English to communicate with native speakers) to conform to native-speaker norms. As Timmis (2002: 248) puts forward “while the main motivation of the majority of the students is the ability to communicate, the rather traditional idea of ‘mastering a language’ survives, at least among a minority”. The teachers, on the other hand,

“seem to be moving away from native-speaker norms faster than students are” (p. 248).

In a similar vein, Groom (2012) investigated European NNSs’ attitudes towards the native and non-native varieties of English and the idea of teaching ELF at schools. She collected 127 survey responses from participants representing 22 different L1s. The findings suggest that the participants prefer to speak like native speakers and almost all of them believe that European ELF should not be the variety to be taught at schools in Europe.

A similar study was conducted in the Turkish setting among ELT academia, pre-service and in-service English teachers to explore their attitude towards ELF by İnal and Özdemir (2012). The findings of the study conducted with 300 participants revealed that pre-service teachers embrace ELF significantly more than the academia and in-service teachers. They are inclined to question the validity of the normative perspective to English language teaching and believe that non-native speakers of English can use English for a variety of purposes just as well as native speakers and the way English is taught should reflect the needs and aspirations of non-native speakers who use it to communicate with other non-native speakers.

With respect to the ELF corpora, VOICE (Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English), which is compiled by Barbara Seidlhofer and her team at the University of Vienna (accessible at <https://www.univie.ac.at/voice/>), is the first large-scale corpus consisting of one million word of naturally occurring ELF interactions. The focus of the project is the linguistic description of spoken ELF discourse. The number of ELF speakers in the corpus is 1250, with 50 first languages represented. The corpus is compiled through diverse speech events, such as interviews, press conferences, service encounters, seminar discussions, working group discussions, workshop discussions, meetings, panels, question-answer sessions, and conversations. The domain of these speech events are professional, educational and leisure. In several master’s and doctoral studies on ELF (Bürki, 2013; Holzschuh, 2013; Reiter, 2013; Märzinger, 2012; Bas, 2010; Dorn, 2010; Pitzl, 2011), VOICE have been used as a source of data.

ELFA (the Corpus of English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings) is another large-scale ELF corpus which consists of one million words. The corpus is collected by Anna Mauranen and her team at the University of Helsinki (accessible at <http://www.uta.fi/laitokset/kielet/engf/research/elfa/>). It is a corpus of spoken academic ELF compiled through lectures, seminars, PhD thesis defences, conference discussions and presentations. The domain of the speech events are social sciences, technology, humanities, natural sciences, medicine, behavioural sciences, economics and administration. The number of ELF speakers in the corpus is 650, with 51 L1s represented. The ELFA project consists of two main parts, the ELFA corpus project and the SELF (Studying in English as a Lingua Franca) project. Detailed descriptions of ELFA corpus has been presented in Mauranen (2003, 2006a, 2007a); and Mauranen & Ranta (2008).

WrELFA (The Corpus of Written English as Lingua Franca in Academic Settings), which is also compiled by the ELFA team, is another corpus which aims to investigate the academic ELF discourse. This corpus, however, is based on written academic ELF interactions. It consists of 774,000 words, containing over 400 authors, with 37 L1s represented. The data is gathered primarily through two text types: preliminary examiners' statements for PhD theses, and research blogs in which published papers are discussed.

A more recent large-scale ELF corpus, compiled by Andy Kirkpatrick and his team, is ACE (Asian Corpus of English). It consists of one million words of naturally occurring spoken ELF interactions. The corpus is compiled through interviews, press conferences, service encounters, seminar discussions, working group discussion, workshop discussions, meetings, panels, question-and-answer sessions, and conversations. These speech events contain the domains of education, leisure, professional business, professional organization, and professional research / science (accessible at <http://corpus.ied.edu.hk/ace/>).

There are also small-scale ELF corpora (Dewey, 2007a; Cogo, 2007; Prodromou, 2008) most of which are collected as part of doctoral studies. Dewey (2007a), as presented previously, investigated the lexico-grammatical features of spoken ELF interactions. Cogo (2007) examined the pragmatics of spoken ELF communication. She specifically aimed to analyze the degree of misunderstandings

in ELF interactions, reveal the pragmatic strategies used by ELF speakers to ensure understanding, negotiate meaning, and support communication. The number of participants in Cogo's corpus is 14, with 12 L1s represented. Cogo transcribed and examined 20 out of 50 hours of recorded data consisted of naturally occurring spoken interactions. Thereafter, Cogo and Dewey (2012) combined their corpora to investigate "how pragmatic motives and strategies give rise to lexicogrammatical innovation" (p. 4).

Prodromou (2008) investigated the role of idiomaticity in ELF interactions. He compiled a 200.000 word corpus of ELF communication; but, excluded 40.000 words of the corpus as they included L1 speakers of English. Thus, Prodromou created a 160.000 word subcorpus, which he called SUE (successful users of English). The corpus consists of naturally occurring informal conversations and informal interviews. The number of ELF speakers in the corpus is 42. Prodromou primarily aimed to identify the types of idiomaticity that L2 speakers have difficulty with, and the reasons for avoiding idiomaticity and having difficulty with it. Besides, he investigated whether L1 fluency differs from L2 fluency.

Although there is an increase in the number of empirical studies as presented above, there is still a gap in the description of ELF discourse. In order to fully identify the characteristics of ELF, more corpora studies should be conducted. These studies will provide data for ELT professionals in designing an ELF-oriented pedagogy and materials. This study, aiming to contribute to the growing body of ELF corpora, focuses on investigating the lexico-grammatical features of spoken ELF discourse. The methodology of the study, including the research design, purpose and research questions, setting and participants, data collection and data analysis procedures are presented in the next section.



## CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

This chapter introduces the methodology of the present study. The following subsections, which review the research design, data collection procedure, pilot study, the setting and participants, data collection instruments, procedure and data analysis, explain how this study is conducted.

### 3.1. RESEARCH DESIGN

Supported by the Scientific Research Projects Coordination Unit (BAP) of Istanbul University, this quantitative and descriptive study is an analysis of a small scale corpus of spoken ELF interactions gathered in settings where English is used as a language of communication by non-native English speakers. The corpus of this study is a collection of transcribed recordings of spoken interactions between users of ELF. It consists of 10 hours 47 minutes and 26 seconds of recorded data and 93,913 words of transcribed data. The corpus was compiled by means of 54 speech events, 29 interviews and 25 focus group meetings. The participation in the study was completely voluntary. The restrictive criterion was to be an incoming exchange student who speaks English to communicate with other students. The volunteering participants of the study were 79 exchange students, enrolled in 4 state and 6 foundation universities in Istanbul in the 2012-2013 academic year.

As the main stages of constructing a spoken corpus are 1. recording, 2. transcribing, coding, and mark-up, and 3. management and analysis (Adolphs & Knight, 2010: 3), the recording stage was the data collection phase of this study. The data of spoken interactions were compiled by means of two speech events: the interviews and focus group meetings. Both of these speech events were comprised of naturally occurring conversations. In order to achieve this, the participants were not given any predetermined tasks. As stated in Cogo and Dewey (2012: 29), task-oriented talk

gives the participants the expectation that there is a precise ‘good’ way in which the interaction has to be conducted, and that there are certain rules that speakers need to conform to. It limits the participants’ freedom to go about talking in the way they feel is more natural in a specific context, even when the task is informal.

The data collection period lasted for three months, from March 20<sup>th</sup>, 2013 to June 21<sup>st</sup>, 2013. The second stage was to transcribe the recorded data based on the VOICE spelling and mark-up conventions 2.1. Firstly, all the recorded speech was

transcribed verbatim. Then, the codings and mark-ups were added to the raw transcriptions. Finally, the transcribed data were analyzed to answer the research questions of the study. The detailed explanations on the data collection procedure, the pilot study, the setting and participants, the speech events, and the data analysis procedure are presented in the following sections.

### 3.2. SETTING AND PARTICIPANTS

The population of this study consisted of the incoming exchange students, primarily ERASMUS students, studying at Turkish universities in Istanbul in the 2012-2013 academic year. Hence, the name Corpus IST-Erasmus. In finding participants for the study, the international students' offices at universities, student coordinators for exchange students and social media played a major role. The total number of participants in the research was 79, with 24 first languages (L1s) represented. These L1s were namely Arabic, Azerbaijan, Basque, Bulgarian, Cantonese, Chinese, Czech, Danish, Dutch, French, Galician, German, Greek, Italian, Korean, Lithuanian, Mandarin Chinese, Polish, Portuguese, Slovak, Spanish, Suriname, Turkish, and Ukrainian. Moreover, there were 6 bilingual participants (S36: Turkish and German, S49: Dutch and Suriname, S59: Spanish and Galician, S61: Bulgarian and Turkish, and S62: Bulgarian and Turkish) in the study. Table 3-1 presents the distribution of the participants by L1s.

**Table 3-1: The distribution of the participants by L1s**

<b>Native Languages</b>	<b>No. of Speakers</b>
Arabic	2
Azerbaijan	1
Basque	1
Bulgarian	6
Cantonese	2
Chinese	1
Czech	4
Danish	1
Dutch	7
French	4
Galician	1
German	19
Greek	2
Italian	7
Korean	3
Lithuanian	2
Mandarin Chinese	1
Polish	9
Portuguese	1

Slovak	2
Spanish	3
Suriname	1
Turkish	4
Ukranian	1

The participation in the study was on a voluntary basis without any effect on students' academic records. However, in order to promote the participation in the study, each student was given a certificate of participation by Social Sciences Institute at Istanbul University. As can be seen, students whose L1s were German contributed the most to the study. This high percentage might have been related to the high population of German Erasmus students studying in Istanbul. On the other hand, the participation rates of Polish, Dutch, and Italian speakers were also relatively high, though not to the same extent as German speakers.

The age range of the participants was 19-27 years. They were exchange students enrolled in various undergraduate or graduate programs in Istanbul. In total, the students from 10 universities participated in the study, 4 state and 6 foundation universities. The majority of the participants were from Istanbul University. However, students from Yeditepe University and Bahçeşehir University also showed high participation in the study. Table 3-2 displays the name of the universities and the number of participants from each university.

**Table 3-2: The participation rate of students from universities**

University	State / Foundation	Participants
Istanbul University	State University	33
Yeditepe University	Foundation University	16
Bahçeşehir University	Foundation University	15
Bilgi University	Foundation University	6
Yıldız Technical University	State University	3
Marmara University	State University	2
Sabancı University	Foundation University	1
Istanbul Technical University	State University	1
Arel University	Foundation University	1
Fatih University	Foundation University	1

The study was primarily conducted at Istanbul University campuses. However, some of the speech events were held at three foundation university premises, namely Bilgi University, Yeditepe University, and Bahçeşehir University. Particularly, the international day organizations that took place at these foundation universities contributed immensely to the data collection process (see Appendix B for more detailed information about the participants).

### **3.3. DATA COLLECTION**

The present study was concerned with the description of lexico-grammatical features of spoken ELF discourse. To that end, a corpus of spoken ELF interactions was compiled. The first step in compiling the corpus was to determine the group of participants. As the focus of the study was to analyze the ELF interactions, it was decided that the exchange students, who came from diverse countries and language backgrounds to study in Istanbul, presented an ideal population suitable for the purpose of the study. The immediate step was to launch the study with the incoming Erasmus (European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students) students studying at Istanbul University in the 2012-2013 academic year. In order to conduct the study with the Erasmus students, a written permission was obtained from the International Academic Relations Office on the 7<sup>th</sup> of December 2012. However, in the first month of the data collection period, due to the emerging interest of the Erasmus students from other universities and other exchange students in the study, participation was extended to include other incoming exchange students studying in other universities of Istanbul.

The second step was to organize speech events in which ELF users would come together and use English as a contact language. Interviews and focus group meetings were determined as the primary speech events to allow collection of data for the study. Then, the interview questions, the discussion topics, the participant information sheet, the consent form, and the participant information questionnaire were designed. Before starting the data collection procedure, it was necessary to pilot the study in order to see the possible limitations and make the necessary modifications. The pilot study was conducted with the voluntary participation of 3 Erasmus students. Following the piloting phase, all the required changes and adjustments were made with regard to the data collection instruments and procedures. Then, on 20<sup>th</sup> of March, 2013, the data collection process started and lasted for three months.

#### **3.3.1. PILOT STUDY**

The study was piloted in order to make an assessment of the potential and constraints of the speech events, the data collection instruments that would be used in the speech events, the settings, the technical equipment to be used during the

recording, and the software that would be used to convert the speech into text. It was conducted on 30<sup>th</sup> of January and 4<sup>th</sup> of February, 2013 with the participation of 3 volunteer Erasmus students studying at Istanbul University in the 2012-2013 fall term. The participants were selected among the group of Erasmus students who were attending the Turkish classes offered by the Language Club at Hasan Ali Yücel Faculty of Education (HAYEF). Each participant was informed about the purpose of the study and was provided with the participant information sheet and consent form in which the details of the study were explained.

The pilot study consists of 1 hour 17 minutes 24 seconds of recorded data, and 7524 words of transcribed data. In the study, both of the speech events, the interview and the focus group meeting were tested. The interviews were designed to last for twenty minutes and to be conducted face to face with one participant and the researcher. Focus group meeting, on the other hand, was designed to last for fifteen minutes and to be conducted with three participants. In total, four speech events were conducted; three of them as interviews and one as a focus group meeting.

**Table 3-3: Pilot Study Speech Events and Participants**

	<b>Speech Event Type &amp; Number</b>	<b>Speaker IDs &amp; Native Languages</b>	<b>Setting</b>	<b>Date</b>	<b>Duration</b>
1	Interview 1	S1: Spanish	HAYEF 6	30.01.13	20:37
2	Interview 2	S2: Spanish	HAYEF 6	30.01.13	21:42
3	Interview 3	S3: French	HAYEF A2	04.02.13	20:04
4	Focus Group Meeting 1	S1: Spanish S2: Spanish S3: French	HAYEF A2	04.02.13	15:41

In the interviews, the participants were asked to answer fifteen questions which the researcher prepared specifically for the interview. In the focus group meeting, the participants were given a list of seven discussion topics and asked to choose a topic to discuss with their partners. In the process of testing interview questions and discussion topics during the pilot study, the main concern was to examine whether the topics and interview questions used in the speech events generated enough contexts for the specified lexico-grammatical structures to be analyzed in the study. For example, it was important to examine the number of occurrences of the third person present tense –s, the relative pronouns *who* and *which*, the definite and indefinite articles, the tag questions, the prepositions, the

verbs that denote high semantic generality, such as *do*, *have*, *make*, *put* and *take*, the use of “that” as a replacement for infinitive constructions, and the explicitness, such as “a BMW car” instead of “a BMW”. The results of the pilot study, did, indeed, provide valuable feedback needed for adjustments.

The focus group meetings and the interviews were recorded using a digital voice recorder. At the end of each speech event, the participants were requested to give either written or spoken feedback for the discussion topics and the interview questions. They were asked whether the questions were clear or not and also asked to offer questions and topics to be used in the speech events. After the data collection, the recordings were transferred into several software programs in order to convert the speech into text. However, none of the software was able to capture precisely the speech of the ELF speakers. Therefore, all the recorded data had to be transcribed manually. This showed that the speech events that were to be conducted in the main study had to be limited to a reasonable number and duration.

Based on the feedback provided from the participants, the wording of the instruments was simplified. The unclear questions were replaced with more comprehensible ones. For example, the first interview question “*what is the compulsory school starting age in your country?*” was replaced by “*at what age do children start school in your school?*” Similarly, the question “*what is the age of first exposure to English in your country?*” was replaced by “*at what age do students start to learn English?*” It was also noticed that the time allotted to the interviews was longer than required. The participants answered the interview questions within fifteen minutes; but, in order to hold the conversation for twenty minutes, further questions had to be asked. Therefore, the duration of the interviews was reduced to fifteen minutes as in the meetings. Another limitation of the pilot study was noticed during the transcription phase when identifying the speakers. Though at the beginning of the speech it was easy to identify the speakers as S1, S2, and S3, during the discussions it became quite difficult to tag the speakers. Besides this, one of the participants generally tended to keep silent during the meeting while the other two were participating actively. Thus, the number of participants that would take part in the meetings was reduced to two. Later on when the data collection process started, the necessity of this modification was understood better. As it was already difficult to

arrange meetings with two students on a specific date and time, it would be even more complicated with three students. Finally, after analyzing the content of the transcriptions, it was seen that the contexts which require the use of 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular –s were very limited in the data. Therefore, the discussion topic “*do you think that the global spread of English unites people or divides people?*”, which did not generate enough contexts for 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular –s, was replaced by “*how would you define an ideal partner?*” Similarly, the interview questions “*how would you define a ‘good’ university professor?*”, “*does English have a determining role in the job market in your country? what’s your opinion on that?*”, and “*what do you think about the global spread of English?*” were replaced by “*do you agree with the idea that English is the language of communication in the world?*”, “*can you describe the place you live in Istanbul? is it a hostel, dormitory, or an apartment? do you have roommates?*”, and “*can you talk about your family?*” The next step following the pilot study was to find participants and arrange speech events to collect spoken data for this corpus study.

### 3.3.2. DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

#### 3.3.2.1. SPEECH EVENTS

The study consisted of 54 speech events, resulting in a small scale corpus of spoken ELF interactions. In order to collect ELF language samples, two types of speech events were held, interviews and focus group meetings. The primary objective of these speech events was to encourage the participants to talk as much as possible. Each speech event was piloted and necessary changes were made before the study. The interviews were conducted on a face-to-face basis with one participant. The meetings, on the other hand, were conducted with two participants. During the speech events the language of communication was English. In order to avoid the use of native language, the pairs that would participate in the meetings were selected from different L1s. The speech events were intended to last approximately 15 minutes. Prior to each speech event, the participants were given a participant information sheet and consent form and a participant information questionnaire. All the speech events were recorded using a digital voice recorder. Details of the speech events are presented in Appendix A.

### 3.3.2.1.1. INTERVIEWS

The number of interviews conducted in the study was 29. In the interviews, the participants were asked to answer 15 open-ended questions impromptu. The interview questions were as follows:

- 1) At what age do children start school in your country?
- 2) What is the language of instruction in your schools? Does it change according to the level (primary, secondary, university)?
- 3) At what age do students start to learn English?
- 4) What are the criteria to be accepted to the Erasmus program in your country?
- 5) Do you rely on your English in terms of communicating in a foreign country?
- 6) Do you agree with the idea that English is the language of communication in the world?
- 7) Are you satisfied with your English language proficiency (in terms of grammar, writing, vocabulary, speaking)?
- 8) What are/were your expectations before coming to Turkey (academic, leisure, cultural)?
- 9) What are the difficulties of living and studying in a foreign country?
- 10) Of all the courses you are taking this term, which one interests you the most, and why?
- 11) Have you seen any differences between the university in your home country and the university in Istanbul? Could you please explain (academic, physical, technical, facilities, administrative)?
- 12) Do you speak any other foreign languages besides English? If not, which one would you like to learn?
- 13) Have you noticed any cultural differences between your country and Turkey? Could you please give a few examples?
- 14) Can you describe the place you live in Istanbul? Is it a hostel, dormitory, or an apartment? Do you have roommates?
- 15) Can you talk about your family?



The purpose of these questions was to initiate conversation among the participants. Apart from these, several follow-up questions that extended the discussion of the question matter and/or used the remaining time allotted for the event were asked. Especially when the participants answered the questions very rapidly, other questions had to be asked in order to hold the conversations.

#### 3.3.2.1.2. FOCUS GROUP MEETINGS

The number of focus group meetings conducted in the study was 25. In the meetings, the participants came together to discuss the topic of their choice among the previously arranged topics impromptu. The discussion topics were as follows:

- 1) Should attendance to lessons be obligatory at university level? Why/not?
- 2) Which do you think make better teachers of English - native speakers or non-native speakers of English?
- 3) Do social networks kill “real” relationships? Or do they lead to “more real” friendship?
- 4) Do you think that it is important to attain a Standard pronunciation (American or British accent) or is it sufficient just to be intelligible?
- 5) What interests you most in a foreign culture? (traditions, daily life, food, history etc.)
- 6) Do you think that English can be the language of all cultures?
- 7) How would you define “an ideal partner”?

The participants were prompted with questions when there seemed to be gaps and participants stopped talking. At dead ends, the participants were also allowed to switch to another topic from the list.

### 3.4. DATA ANALYSIS

The data analysis procedure started with the transcription of the recorded data. First of all, all the speech events were transcribed verbatim. This process was performed manually, without the use of any software which converted voice to text.

As stated previously, the existing software programs were not able to properly transcribe the speech of non-native English speakers. Before starting, it was necessary to determine the spelling conventions to be followed in the transcriptions. For example, “*only alphabetic Roman characters are used in the transcript. No diacritics, umlauts or non-roman characters are permitted in the running text: a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z*”. As stated in Adolphs and Carter (2013: 12) “...transcribers cannot be too idiosyncratic, and at the same time there is a need to follow certain transcription guidelines in order to make them reusable by the research community”. As one of the purposes of the study was to contribute to the current research in ELF, it would be better to adopt the conventions of an existing ELF Corpus. Therefore, the transcription conventions of VOICE, one of the largest corpora of spoken ELF, were decided to be used in the study. The spelling conventions are displayed in Table 3-4.

**Table 3-4: Spelling conventions**

<b>1. CHARACTERS</b>	
a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z	Only alphabetic <b>Roman characters</b> are used in the transcript. No diacritics, umlauts or non-roman characters are permitted in the running text.
<b>2. DECAPITALIZATION</b>	
Example: S8: so you really can <@> control my english </@>	<b>No capital letters</b> are used except for marking emphasis (cf. mark-up conventions).
<b>3. BRITISH SPELLING</b>	
British spelling	British English spelling is used to represent naturally occurring ELF speech. The Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary ( <b>OALD</b> ), <b>7th edition</b> , is used as the primary source of reference. If an entry gives more than one spelling variant of a word, the first variant is chosen. If there are two separate entries for British and American spelling, the British entry is selected.
<b>4. SPELLING EXCEPTIONS</b>	
center, theater behavior, color, favor, labor, neighbor defense, offense disk program travel (-l-: traveled, traveler, traveling)	The 12 words listed on the left <b>and all their derivatives</b> are spelled according to American English conventions (e.g. colors, colorful, colored, to color, favorite, favorable, to favor, in favor of, etc.).
Example: S2: we are NOT quite sure if it will REALLY be (.) privatized next year	In addition, <b>all words</b> which can be spelled using either an <i>-is</i> or an <i>-iz</i> morpheme are spelled with <b>-iz</b> (e.g. to emphasize, organizations, realization, recognized, etc.).
<b>5. NON-ENGLISH WORDS</b>	
Example: S1: <L1de> wieso <b>o</b> esterreich? {why austria}	Non-English words are rendered in the standard variant of the original language (i.e.

<p>&lt;/L1de&gt;</p> <p>Example: S3: &lt;LNfr&gt; c'est ferme? {is it closed} &lt;/LNfr&gt;</p>	<p>no nonstandard dialect). The roman alphabet is always used, also in the case of languages like Arabic or Japanese. <b>No umlauts</b> (e.g. NOT österreich), <b>no diacritics</b> (e.g. NOT fermé) and <b>no non-roman characters</b> are permitted.</p>
<b>6. FULL REPRESENTATION OF WORDS</b>	
<p>Example: S7: the students that (.) decide freely to enter (.) this kind of master knows (.) for example that <b>he</b> can (.) at the end achieve (.) sixty credits</p>	<p>Although words may not be fully pronounced or may be pronounced with a foreign accent, they are generally represented in standard orthographic form.</p> <p>Explanation: S7 is Italian and pronounces the <i>he</i> in <i>he can</i> as /ɪ/, swallowing the initial h. Nevertheless, this is regarded as a minor instance of L1 accent and therefore represented in standard orthography (<i>he</i>).</p>
<b>7. FULL REPRESENTATION OF NUMBERS, TITLES &amp; ABBREVIATIONS</b>	
oh/zero, two, three, ... one hundred, nineteen ten, eighteen twenty-seven, ...	Numbers are fully spelled out as whole words. British English hyphenation rules apply.
missis (for <i>Mrs</i> ), mister, miss, mis (for <i>Ms</i> ), doctor, professor, ...	Titles and terms of address are fully spelled out.
et cetera, saint thomas, okay,...	Forms that are usually abbreviated in writing, but spoken as complete words are fully spelled out.
<b>8. LEXICALIZED REDUCED FORMS</b>	
Cos gonna, gotta, wanna	Lexicalized phonological reductions are limited to the four on the left. All other non-standard forms are fully spelled out (e.g. /hæftə/ = <i>have to</i> ).
<b>9. CONTRACTIONS</b>	
i'm, there're, how's peter, running's fun, ... i've, they've, it's got, we'd been, ... tom'll be there, he'd go for the first, ... we aren't, i won't, he doesn't, ...	Whenever they are uttered, all standard contractions are rendered. This refers to verb contractions with <i>be</i> ( <i>am, is, are</i> ), <i>have</i> ( <i>have, has, had</i> ), <i>will</i> and <i>would</i> as well as <i>not</i> -contractions.
what's it mean, where's she live, how's that sound ... let's	Additionally, 's is used to represent <i>does</i> when reduced and attached to a <i>wh</i> -word. It is also used to represent the pronoun <i>us</i> in the contracted form <i>let's</i> .
<b>10. HYPHENS</b>	
Example: S3: more than thirteen years of experience er working in (.) er (.) design and development (.) er of (1) <b>real-time</b> software (.) er for industrial (.) implications Example: S2: we would allow that within er an international <b>cooperation</b> (.)	Hyphens are used according to British English hyphenation rules. The OALD, 7th edition, is used as the primary source of reference.  If an entry gives more than one spelling variant of a word, the first variant is chosen.
<b>11. ACRONYMS</b>	
Example: S10: for the development of joint programmes within the <b>unica</b> networks.	Acronyms (i.e. abbreviations spoken as one word) are transcribed like words. They are not highlighted in any way.
<b>12. DISCOURSE MARKERS</b>	
	All discourse markers are represented in orthography as shown below. The lists

	provided are closed lists. The items in the lists are standardized and may not represent the exact sound patterns of the actual discourse markers uttered.
yes, yeah, yah okay, okey-dokey	<b>Backchannels and positive minimal feedback</b>
mhm, hm aha, uhu	(closed sound-acknowledgement token) (open sound-acknowledgement token)
no n-n, uh-uh	<b>Negative minimal feedback</b>
er, erm	<b>Hesitation/filler</b>
huh	tag-question
	<b>Exclamations</b>
yay, yipee, whoohoo, mm:	joy/enthusiasm
haeh	questioning/doubt/disbelief
a:h, o:h, wow, poah	astonishment/surprise
oops	Apology
ooph	Exhaustion
ts, pf	disregard/dismissal/contempt
ouch, ow	Pain
sh, psh	requesting silence
oh-oh:, u:h	anticipating trouble
ur	disapproval/disgust
oow	pity, disappointment
Example: S3: <L1ja> <b>he:</b> </L1ja>	What are clearly L1-specific discourse markers are marked as foreign words. Due to the wide range of these phenomena in different languages, the L1-list is open-ended. A translation is added whenever this is possible.
Example: SX-m: <L1de> <b>ach ja {oh yes}</b> </L1de>	

VOICE Project. 2007. "Spelling conventions". *VOICE Transcription Conventions [2.1]*. Retrieved June, 21, 2013 from [http://www.univie.ac.at/voice/documents/VOICE\\_spelling\\_conventions\\_v2-1.pdf](http://www.univie.ac.at/voice/documents/VOICE_spelling_conventions_v2-1.pdf)

The second step in constructing a spoken corpus, subsequent to the recording, was "transcribing, coding, and mark-up". The transcription of the recorded data based on the spelling conventions lasted for two months. Then, the coding and mark-up stage began. This stage, the annotated transcription, included the addition of codes and markings to the transcriptions. In this stage again a standard convention, the VOICE mark-up conventions, were followed. However, while the spelling conventions remained the same, the mark-up conventions were adapted to suit the purposes of the research by excluding some of the conventions that referred to domains (such as pronunciation variation and coinages, onomatopoeic noises, spelling out, breath) that remained outside the scope of this study. The mark-up conventions followed in the study was as follows.

**Table 3-5: Mark-up conventions**

<b>1 SPEAKER IDS</b>	
S1: S2: ...	Speakers are numbered according to their IDs assigned to them in the order of their participation in the study.

SS:	Utterances assigned to more than one speaker (e.g. an audience), spoken either in unison or staggered, are marked with a collective speaker ID <b>SS</b> .
SX:	Utterances that cannot be assigned to a particular speaker are marked <b>SX</b> .
SX-f: SX-m:	Utterances that cannot be assigned to a particular speaker, but where the gender can be identified, are marked <b>SX-f</b> or <b>SX-m</b> .
SX-1: SX-2: ...	If it is likely but not certain that a particular speaker produced the utterance in question, this is marked <b>SX-1</b> , <b>SX-2</b> , etc.
<b>2 INTONATION</b>	
Example: S1: that's what my next er slide? Does	Words spoken with rising intonation are followed by a question mark "?".
Example: S7: that's point two. absolutely yes.	Words spoken with falling intonation are followed by a full stop ".".
<b>3 EMPHASIS</b>	
Example: S7: er internationalization is a very IMPORTANT issue	If a speaker gives a syllable, word or phrase particular prominence, this is written in capital letters.
Example: S3: toMORrow we have to work on the presentation already	
<b>4 PAUSES</b>	
Example: SX-f: because they all give me different (.) different (.) points of view	Every brief pause in speech (up to a good half second) is marked with a full stop in parentheses.
Example: S1: aha (2) so finally arrival on monday evening is still valid	Longer pauses are timed to the nearest second and marked with the number of seconds in parentheses, e.g. (1) = 1 second, (3) = 3 seconds.
<b>5 OVERLAPS</b>	
Example: S1: it is your best <1> case </1> scenario (.) S2: <1> yeah </1> S1: okay	Whenever two or more utterances happen at the same time, the overlaps are marked with numbered tags: <1> </1>, <2> </2>,... Everything that is simultaneous gets the same number. All overlaps are marked in blue.
Example: S9: it is (.) to identify some<1>thing </1> where (.) S3: <1> mhm </1>	All overlaps are approximate and words may be split up if appropriate. In this case, the tag is placed within the split-up word.
<b>6 OTHER CONTINUATION</b>	
Example: S1: what up till (.) till twelve? S2: yes= S1: =really. so it's it's quite a lot of time.	Whenever a speaker continues, completes or supports another speaker's turn immediately (i.e. without a pause), this is marked by "=".
<b>7 LENGTHENING</b>	
Example: S1: you can run faster but they have much mo:re technique with the ball	Lengthened sounds are marked with a colon ":".
Example: S5: personally that's my opinion the: er::m	Exceptionally long sounds (i.e. approximating 2 seconds or more) are marked with a double colon "::".
<b>8 REPETITION</b>	
Example: S11: e:r i'd like to go t- t- to to this type of Course	All repetitions of words and phrases (including self-interruptions and false starts) are transcribed.

<b>9 WORD FRAGMENTS</b>	
Example: S6: with a minimum of (.) of <b>participa-</b> S1: mhm S6: <b>-pation</b> from french universities to say we have er (.) a joint doctorate or a <b>joi-</b> joint master	With word fragments, a hyphen marks where a part of the word is missing.
<b>10 LAUGHTER</b>	
Example: S1: in denmark well who knows. @@ S2: <@> yeah </@> @@ that's right	All laughter and laughter-like sounds are transcribed with the @ symbol, approximating syllable number (e.g. ha ha ha = @@@). Utterances spoken laughingly are put between <@> </@> tags.
<b>11 UNCERTAIN TRANSCRIPTION</b>	
Example: S3: i've a lot of very ( <b>generous</b> ) friends Example: SX-4: they will do whatever they want because they are a compan <b>(ies)</b>	Word fragments, words or phrases which cannot be reliably identified are put in parentheses ( ).
<b>12 NON-ENGLISH SPEECH</b>	
Example: S5: <L1de> <b>bei firmen</b> </L1de> or wherever	Utterances in a participant's first language (L1) are put between tags indicating the speaker's <b>L1</b> .
Example: S7: er this is <LNde> <b>die seite? (welche)</b> </LNde> is	Utterances in languages which are neither English nor the speaker's first language are marked <b>LN</b> with the language indicated.
Example: S4: it depends in in in <LQit> <b>roma</b> </LQit>	Non-English utterances where it cannot be ascertained whether the language is the speaker's first language or a foreign language are marked <b>LQ</b> with the language indicated.
<b>13 SPEAKING MODES</b>	
Example: S2: because as i explained before is that we have in the <fast> universities of cyprus we have </fast> a specific e:rm procedure <fast> </fast> <slow> </slow> <loud> </loud> <soft> </soft> <whispering> </whispering> <sighing> </sighing> <reading> </reading> <reading aloud> </reading aloud> <on phone> </on phone> <imitating> </imitating> <singing> </singing> <yawning> </yawning>	Utterances which are spoken in a particular mode (fast, soft, whispered, read, etc.) and are notably different from the speaker's normal speaking style are marked accordingly.  The list of speaking modes is an open one.
<b>14 SPEAKER NOISES</b>	
<coughs> <clears throat> <sniffs> <sneezes> <snorts> <applauds> <smacks lips> <yawns> <whistles> <swallows>	Noises produced by the current speaker are always transcribed. Noises produced by other speakers are only transcribed if they seem relevant (e.g. because they make speech unintelligible or influence the interaction). The list of speaker noises is an open one.
Example: S1: yeah <1> <b>what</b> </1> i think in in doctor levels	These noises are transcribed as part of the running text and put between pointed brackets < >.

S7: <1> <clears throat> </1>	
Example: SX-m: but you NEVER KNOW when it's popping up you never kno:w S3: <coughs (6)>	If it is deemed important to indicate the length of the noise (e.g. if a coughing fit disrupts the interaction), this is done by adding the number of seconds in parentheses after the descriptor.
<b>15 UNINTELLIGIBLE SPEECH</b>	
Example: S4: we <un> xxx </un> for the <7> supreme (.) three </7> possibilities S1: <7> next yeah </7>	Unintelligible speech is represented by x's approximating syllable number and placed between <un> </un> tags.

(adapted from **VOICE Project**. 2007. "Mark-up conventions". *VOICE Transcription Conventions [2.1]*. Retrieved June 21, 2013, from [http://www.univie.ac.at/voice/documents/VOICE\\_mark-up\\_conventions\\_v2-1.pdf](http://www.univie.ac.at/voice/documents/VOICE_mark-up_conventions_v2-1.pdf))

The collected data were transcribed with the help of two professional transcriptionists. Nevertheless, prior to the start of transcriptions, both were trained according to the transcription conventions. Besides, their transcriptions were reviewed one by one in order to check the accuracy of the transcriptions and to see whether the transcription conventions were applied properly. When all the revisions and corrections were made, the transcription of the recorded data was completed.

The next step was the management and analysis of the corpus. First of all, the transcriptions of 54 speech events were transferred into a single file. Thereby, a 93,913 words corpus of spoken ELF was created. The next step was to create a word list of the corpus using the WordSmith Tools 6.0, a lexical analysis software, which was chosen because it has been extensively used in corpora studies. The word list displayed all the words in the corpus according to their number of occurrences. This enabled the researcher to see the most common words in the corpus and thereby make a comparison with other ELF corpora. Then, each lexico-grammatical structure listed in the research questions was analyzed both manually and electronically. The details of the data analysis are presented in the following section.

## CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

Corpus IST-Erasmus consists of 93,913 words of transcribed speech that is obtained from 10 hours 47 minutes and 26 seconds of recorded data. The corpus is analyzed in order to identify the lexico-grammatical features of ELF interactions. It is analyzed in two ways: (1) by means of WordSmith Tools 6.0, a corpus analysis software, and (2) manually. The first step in a corpus analysis is to obtain a word list of all the transcriptions that constitute the corpus. A wordlist displays all the words in a corpus according to their frequency orders, gives the percentages of their occurrences in the corpus, and presents the overall distribution of the words in each text. To this end, the 54 transcription files are converted into text files and uploaded to the software, and thereby the wordlist of Corpus Ist-Erasmus is created. The entire word list cannot be displayed here as there are 3,518 entries; but a word list cloud and the word list of the most frequent thirty words are presented in Figure 4-1 and Table 4-1 respectively. A word list cloud presents the words in a corpus according to their frequencies. Starting from the middle, the most frequent words are given in bigger fonts while the least common ones are shown in smaller fonts.

When a wordlist is created, it is possible to make concordance analyses, examine the collocations and clusters in the corpus, create a keyword list of the corpus by taking a relatively larger corpus as a reference corpus, and compare the wordlist with those of other corpora. However, there is a need for a manual analysis in order to investigate the variations in the use of a specific lexical or grammatical item. That is, for example, if the use of 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s is investigated, all the transcriptions have to be scanned manually. Though, to some extent, the software enables us to see where and how often the 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s appears in the corpus, it cannot list the contexts which require 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s marking. Thus, the uses of zero marking in place of 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s cannot be detected with the software. For this reason, each lexico-grammatical item investigated in the study is also analyzed manually.



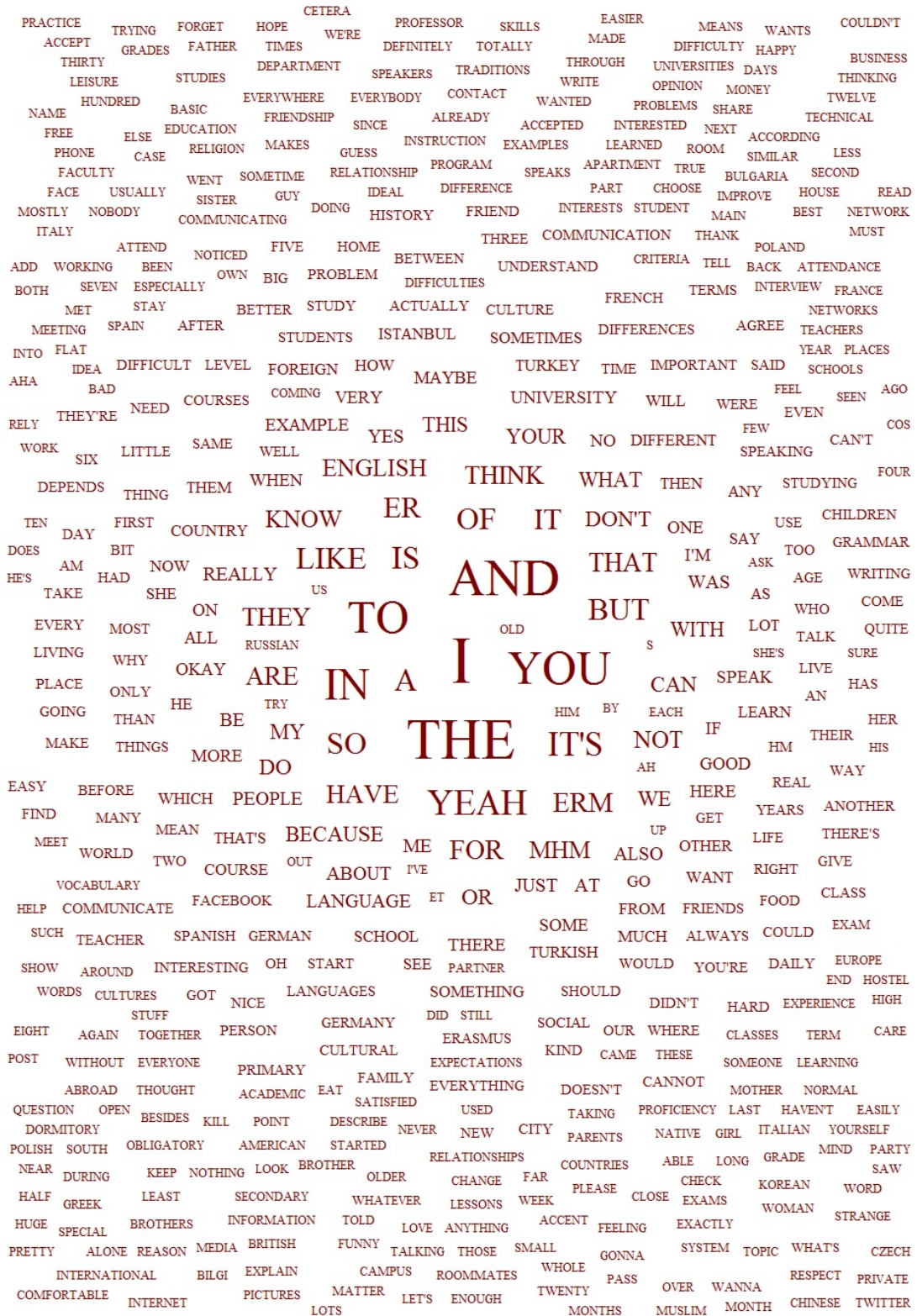


Figure 4-1: Word cloud list – Corpus IST-Erasmus

**Table 4-1: Most frequent 30 words – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

Word	Freq.	%	Texts	%
I	3,672	3.91	54	100.00
THE	3,054	3.25	54	100.00
AND	2,803	2.98	54	100.00
YOU	2,455	2.61	54	100.00
TO	2,248	2.39	54	100.00
IN	2,136	2.27	54	100.00
YEAH	1,577	1.68	54	100.00
IT'S	1,438	1.53	53	98.15
IS	1,360	1.45	54	100.00
A	1,335	1.42	54	100.00
OF	1,277	1.36	54	100.00
SO	1,272	1.35	54	100.00
LIKE	1,245	1.33	54	100.00
BUT	1,225	1.30	54	100.00
IT	1,129	1.20	54	100.00
ER	1,106	1.18	53	98.15
FOR	1,009	1.07	54	100.00
ERM	994	1.06	53	98.15
THAT	988	1.05	54	100.00
HAVE	969	1.03	54	100.00
THINK	968	1.03	54	100.00
THEY	960	1.02	54	100.00
ARE	929	0.99	54	100.00
ENGLISH	770	0.82	43	79.63
KNOW	769	0.82	54	100.00
MHM	761	0.81	50	92.59
NOT	758	0.81	54	100.00
BECAUSE	731	0.78	54	100.00
MY	719	0.77	54	100.00
CAN	704	0.75	54	100.00

In Table 4-1, the left hand column displays the most frequent words that appear in the corpus. The third column gives the frequencies of the words. For example, 'I', which occurs 3,672 times in the corpus, is the most frequent word. In the fourth column the frequencies are displayed in percentages. The last columns give the number of texts in which the words occur, and display the distribution in percentages. Accordingly, almost all the words listed in Table 4-1 appear in all the 54 texts that constitute the corpus.

At this stage, it is important to see whether the wordlist of Corpus IST-Erasmus displays any similarities with the existing ELF Corpora. As Baker (2006: 43) states,

Obtaining access to a reference corpus can be helpful for two reasons. First, reference corpora are large and representative enough of a particular genre of language, that they themselves be used to uncover evidence of particular discourses... Secondly, a reference corpus acts as a benchmark of what is ‘normal’ in language, by which your own data can be compared to.

VOICE is taken as a reference corpus for making comparisons as it is one of the most extensive ELF Corpora and access to the entire corpus is available. First, a wordlist of VOICE was obtained by downloading the 151 texts from [http://www.univie.ac.at/voice/page/download\\_voice\\_xml](http://www.univie.ac.at/voice/page/download_voice_xml) and transferring them into WordSmith. Then, the wordlist was compared with the wordlist of Corpus IST-Erasmus.

**Table 4-2: Most frequent ten words in VOICE**

Word	Freq.	%	Texts	%
<b>the</b>	43 097	3.29	151	100
<b>er</b>	35 289	2.69	151	100
<b>and</b>	25 825	1.97	151	100
<b>to</b>	23 719	1.81	150	99.34
<b>I</b>	22 289	1.70	151	100
<b>you</b>	19 970	1.52	151	100
<b>of</b>	17 896	1.37	149	98.68
<b>a</b>	16 877	1.29	151	100
<b>in</b>	16 839	1.29	151	100
<b>we</b>	15 938	1.22	147	97.35

Table 4-2 presents the most frequent 10 words in VOICE and in Table 4-3, the most frequently used words of the two corpora can be seen in a comparative perspective.

**Table 4-3: Comparison with VOICE - ‘the most frequent 10 words’**

Corpus IST-Erasmus					VOICE				
Word	Freq.	%	Texts	%	Word	Freq.	%	Texts	%
<b>I</b>	3 672	3.91	54	100	<b>the</b>	43 097	3.29	151	100
<b>The</b>	3 054	3.25	54	100	<b>er</b>	35 289	2.69	151	100
<b>And</b>	2 803	2.98	54	100	<b>and</b>	25 825	1.97	151	100
<b>You</b>	2 455	2.61	54	100	<b>to</b>	23 719	1.81	150	99.34
<b>To</b>	2 248	2.39	54	100	<b>I</b>	22 289	1.70	151	100
<b>In</b>	2 136	2.27	54	100	<b>you</b>	19 970	1.52	151	100
<b>Yeah</b>	1 577	1.68	54	100	<b>of</b>	17 896	1.37	149	98.68
<b>it's</b>	1 438	1.53	53	98.15	<b>a</b>	16 877	1.29	151	100
<b>Is</b>	1 360	1.45	54	100	<b>in</b>	16 839	1.29	151	100
<b>A</b>	1 335	1.42	54	100	<b>we</b>	15 938	1.22	147	97.35

As can be seen, the two corpora are very similar in terms of the most frequent ten words. Though their rankings are different, 7 out of 10 most frequent words in the corpora are the same. ‘I, the, and, you, to, in, a’ occur among the most frequent ten words in both corpora. While the pronoun ‘I’ is the most frequent word in the

corpus, in VOICE it ranks 5<sup>th</sup>. This high occurrence of ‘I’ in Corpus IST-Erasmus might be the result of the content of the speech events in which participants mostly talk about themselves. In VOICE, however, the most frequent word is the definite article ‘the’. Similarly, it is very frequent in Corpus IST-Erasmus; however, it ranks 2<sup>nd</sup>. An important difference between the two corpora seems to be the case of pronoun ‘we’. While it ranks 10<sup>th</sup> in VOICE, in Corpus IST-Erasmus it ranks 34<sup>th</sup>.

In order to analyze whether there is variety between ELF and ENL corpora in terms of the most frequent ten words, the wordlist of BNC World (British National Corpus: a 100 million word corpus of English) is taken as a reference. Table 4-4 presents the wordlist of BNC.

**Table 4-4: Most frequent ten words in BNC**

Word	Freq.	%	Texts	%
<b>the</b>	6 055 105	6.09	4 050	99.90
<b>of</b>	3 049 564	3.07	4 040	99.65
<b>and</b>	2 624 341	2.64	4 050	99.90
<b>to</b>	2 599 505	2.61	4 049	99.88
<b>a</b>	2 181 592	2.19	4 045	99.78
<b>in</b>	1 946 021	1.96	4 047	99.83
<b>that</b>	1 052 259	1.06	4 026	99.31
<b>is</b>	974 293	0.98	4 027	99.33
<b>it</b>	922 687	0.93	4 022	99.21
<b>for</b>	880 848	0.89	4 036	99.56

Retrieved December 15, 2013 from  
[http://www.lexically.net/downloads/BNC\\_wordlists/downloading%20BNC.htm](http://www.lexically.net/downloads/BNC_wordlists/downloading%20BNC.htm)

The results reveal that there is no significant difference between the ELF and ENL corpora in terms of the most frequent ten words. Table 4-5 presents the wordlists of the three corpora in a comparative perspective.

**Table 4-5: Most frequent 10 words in ELF and ENL**

Corpus IST- Erasmus	VOICE (ELF)	BNC (ENL)
I	the	the
the	er	I
and	and	you
you	to	and
to	I	it
in	you	a
yeah	of	's
it's	a	to
is	in	of
a	we	that

As can be seen in Table 4-5, 6 out of 10 most frequent words are the same in the corpora, though their rankings differ. The lexical items ‘the’ and ‘and’ appear as the words whose ranking differ the least in the three corpora. On the other hand, ELF corpora present ‘in’ as a frequently appearing preposition whereas there are no prepositions present among the most frequent words of the ENL corpus. Similarly, the discourse markers ‘yeah’ and ‘er’ appear only in the ELF corpora lists.

Although the focus of this study is to analyze the lexico-grammatical structures, it is also considered necessary to give some basic information about *the content* of the corpus. To this end, a keywords list is created by comparing the wordlists of two corpora, the largest one serving as the reference. Table 4-6 displays the keywords list of Corpus-Ist Erasmus.

**Table 4-6: Keywords list – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

Key word	Freq.	%	Texts
I	3,672	3.91	54
TURKISH	260	0.28	44
MY	719	0.77	54
LIKE	1,245	1.33	54
IN	2,136	2.27	54
ISTANBUL	180	0.19	43
ENGLISH	770	0.82	43
FACEBOOK	158	0.17	17
TURKEY	219	0.23	45
THINK	968	1.03	54
THEY	960	1.02	54
SCHOOL	271	0.29	44
IT'S	1,438	1.53	53
AND	2,803	2.98	54
COUNTRY	283	0.30	45
ME	427	0.45	54
ARE	929	0.99	54
SOMETIMES	181	0.19	39
FOREIGN	176	0.19	43
YOUR	543	0.58	53
REALLY	477	0.51	50
FOR	1,009	1.07	54
KNOW	769	0.82	54
SPEAK	332	0.35	43
LEARN	226	0.24	44
REAL	122	0.13	20
COURSES	119	0.13	34
SO	1,272	1.35	54
AGE	116	0.12	33
DON'T	671	0.71	54

This keywords list is made by taking VOICE as a reference corpus. Table 4-6 displays only the 30 keywords in Corpus-Ist Erasmus. The words in the list are not the most frequent words in the corpus; but the words which appear unusually frequently. As can be seen, the list gives a sound clue about the content of the spoken interactions that constitute the Corpus-Ist Erasmus. The participants of the study are incoming Erasmus students who, in the scope of the study are asked to describe themselves and their universities in their home countries and talk about their impressions of Istanbul and host universities. Moreover, in the meetings participants were asked to reflect on topics such as ‘attendance to lessons at university level’, ‘native versus non-native English teachers’, ‘social networks’, ‘perceptions towards attaining a standard pronunciation’, ‘foreign cultures’, ‘English as the language of all cultures’, and ‘ideal partners’. Thus, the words that appear in the keywords list have emerged as a result of interactions based on these issues.

In order to present a better profile of the gathered corpus, it is a good idea to list the most frequent *content words* that appear in the corpus. Table 4-7 displays the most frequent 30 content words in Corpus IST-Erasmus.

**Table 4-7: Most frequent content words – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

<b>Content Words</b>	<b>Freq.</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Texts</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>like</b>	1 245	1.33	54	100
<b>have</b>	969	1.03	54	100
<b>think</b>	968	1.03	54	100
<b>English</b>	770	0.82	43	79.63
<b>know</b>	769	0.82	54	100
<b>what</b>	611	0.65	54	100
<b>really</b>	477	0.51	50	92.59
<b>people</b>	476	0.51	54	100
<b>language</b>	410	0.44	44	81.48
<b>one</b>	388	0.41	54	100
<b>when</b>	380	0.40	52	96.30
<b>university</b>	336	0.36	40	74.07
<b>speak</b>	332	0.35	43	79.63
<b>maybe</b>	330	0.35	51	94.44
<b>all</b>	325	0.35	52	96.30
<b>here</b>	323	0.34	49	90.74
<b>good</b>	314	0.33	54	100
<b>very</b>	302	0.32	46	85.19
<b>example</b>	292	0.31	51	94.44
<b>country</b>	283	0.30	45	83.33
<b>school</b>	271	0.29	44	81.48
<b>go</b>	270	0.29	50	92.59
<b>then</b>	261	0.28	48	88.89
<b>Turkish</b>	260	0.28	44	81.48
<b>other</b>	238	0.25	53	98.15

<b>learn</b>	226	0.24	44	81.48
<b>different</b>	225	0.24	49	90.74
<b>Turkey</b>	219	0.23	45	83.33
<b>course</b>	209	0.22	46	85.19
<b>something</b>	208	0.22	48	88.89

As can be seen, the most frequent content words listed in Table 4-7 suggest the subject matter of the speech events, which could be the focus of another study. The present study investigates the lexico-grammar of ELF interactions and primarily addresses the following research questions:

*Does English as a lingua franca reveal any variations from standard ENL forms with respect to:*

1. the use of 3<sup>rd</sup> person present tense -s?
2. the use of relative pronouns ‘who’ and ‘which’?
3. the use of definite and indefinite articles?
4. the use of tag questions?
5. the use of prepositions?
6. the use of verbs that denote high semantic generality?
7. the use of infinitive constructions?
8. the degree of explicitness?

#### **4.1. THE USE OF 3<sup>rd</sup> PERSON PRESENT TENSE –S IN CORPUS IST-ERASMUS**

The use of 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular zero in place of the 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s is very common in ELF interactions (Seidlhofer, 2004; Breiteneder, 2009; Cogo and Dewey, 2012; Dewey, 2007a). Cogo and Dewey (2012: 49) state that “it is simply not the case that 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s is being ‘dropped’, but rather that 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s and 3<sup>rd</sup> person zero are competing variants in ELF interactions”. Breiteneder (2009: 258) states that “[i]t is the idiosyncratic nature of the ‘3<sup>rd</sup> person –s’ together with the social importance it seems to carry in some countries and its disappearance in others, that makes it so intriguing, suggesting that this feature has a symptomatic significance beyond its apparent triviality”.

The case of 3<sup>rd</sup> person zero marking is also very common in Corpus-IST-Erasmus. It reveals a total of 728 verbs in 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular forms. The 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular –s represents 80%; whereas the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular zero represents 20% of

all verbs in 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular forms. Table 4-8 presents the number of occurrences of 3<sup>rd</sup> person –s and 3<sup>rd</sup> person zero markings in the corpus.

**Table 4-8: The use of 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular verbs – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

The use of 3 <sup>rd</sup> person -s & zero			
3 <sup>rd</sup> person –s		3 <sup>rd</sup> person zero	
Main Verbs	Aux. Verbs	Main Verbs	Aux. Verbs
<b>478</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>139</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>583</b> (80%)		<b>145</b> (20%)	

In order to investigate the case of 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular zero marking in Corpus IST-Erasmus, the occurrences of 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular marking were identified. The identified structures were then classified as 3<sup>rd</sup> person –s and 3<sup>rd</sup> person zero marking. Then the occurrences of each 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular verbs were counted. The results reveal that the occurrence of present simple tense verbs combined with 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular subjects is 728 in total. Out of these 728 occurrences, 583 of them are inflectionally marked, and 145 of them remain unmarked. The occurrences of 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular verbs are further categorized as main verbs and auxiliary (*does*, *doesn't*, *has got*, and *hasn't got*) verbs. It reveals that out of 617 main verbs in 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular verb forms, the occurrence of 3<sup>rd</sup> person –s is 478, and the occurrence of 3<sup>rd</sup> person zero is 139. Besides this, out of 111 auxiliary verbs in 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular present forms, 105 of them are inflectionally marked (*does*, *doesn't*), and 6 of them are unmarked (*do*, *don't*). With respect to the distribution of the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular markings, the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular –s marking appear in each speech event in the corpus. The 3<sup>rd</sup> person zero marking, on the other hand, occur in 42 out of 54 speech events. The samples of zero marking can be seen below. The complete list of 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular verbs that occur in the corpus is displayed in Appendix E.

*Cases of 3<sup>rd</sup> person zero marking*

TIME1 (S1: Greek)

160 S1: we ha- we just you know this kind of stuff **happen** (.) in old cities especially  
161 the house is really really really old (1) and made of erm (.) er wood and it's

T8INT5 (S11: German)

165 everything: and she: (.) she went to me with er to the mobile shops and things  
166 like this so and we go out and she **show** me istanbul and (.) that's nice to live

T14ME4 (S17: Italian)

166 S17: o:h i have got a two sisters (.) the smaller one erm she's seventeen years old  
167 and of course she **use** facebook a lot (.) for everything for for (.) er read about his



T17INT11 (S23: Bulgarian)

175 (.) for erasmus one day when he (1) **go** to the university i I WILL TELL HIM do  
176 erasmus because it's a good thing (1) and yeah that's:

T20INT14 (S26: Italian)

58 S26: yes i think so <@>my girl my girlfriend always **say** no no no it's better  
59 french why english english is more complex but</@>

T27INT18 (S36: Turkish / German)

190 S36: but from time to time i force my mom to speak with me german because she  
191 were (.) erm (1) that employees she **work** with (.) they speak not a good german

T37ME14 (S50: Lithuanian)

9 everything (.) so it makes me: to SEE that there is different style of life which (.)  
10 really (.) **interest** me so much a:nd also for example different kind of language

T40INT24 (S56: French)

154 er:m</slow> (1) german at school but they don't speak together for example (1)  
155 my father: **speak** little bit (1) english and my mother: she can understand but (1)

T53ME24 (S77: Danish)

64 that's a really really good part of it but i think it **become** problematic when (.)  
65 when (.) when people just (.) when u:se it because it's so normal and you just you

T54INT29 (S79: Czech)

16 subjects (1) but for example phillip also **study** in another university in czech  
17 public and they can choose (1) also in english

The results are in line with Breiteneder's (2009) study, which consists of 43,000 transcribed words. In the study, there are 151 occurrences of 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular verb forms; 126 of them are inflectionally marked, and 25 of them are unmarked. In other words, the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular –s occurs 83%, and the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular zero occurs 17% of all verbs in 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular present forms. In Dewey's (2007a) ELF Corpus, which consists of 61,234 transcribed words of spoken discourse, the occurrence of zero marking in 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular verb forms, is even more extensive. While the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular –s occurs 48%, the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular zero occurs 52% of all verbs in 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular present forms.

To provide insight into the ratio of the occurrences of 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular –s and 3<sup>rd</sup> person zero, it is important to examine the linguistic contexts in which the verbs occur. Firstly, the 3<sup>rd</sup> person zero seems to be less affected by the linguistic context in which it appears compared to 3<sup>rd</sup> person –s. That is, the occurrences of 3<sup>rd</sup> person zero marking, as main verb, is 139 in the corpus, with 58 different verbs. However, the same level of variety does not appear for 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular –s, as it occurs 478 times, with only 85 different verbs. In order to validate this preliminary observation, the most frequent 10 verbs that take 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular –s in the corpus

are identified. It is interesting that half (50%) of all cases of 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s occurring in main verbs, can be accounted for by only 6 verbs out of 85 verbs. These verbs are respectively *depends*, *interests*, *has*, *speaks*, *makes*, and *means*. Similarly, in Dewey (2007a: 86) ELF Corpus "... half of all cases of 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s occurring in main verbs can be accounted for by only 4 verbs: *has*, *means*, *looks*, and *depends*". It seems that many of the instances of 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s in main verbs are part of prefabricated chunks or fixed expressions, repetitions, or predetermined linguistic contexts.

**Table 4-9: Most frequent 10 verbs that take 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

Verb	Frequency
depends	73
interests	48
has	38
speaks	36
makes	28
means	17
knows	13
seems	12
wants	12
comes	11

For example, out of 478 occurrences 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s marking as main verb, 'depend' is the most frequent verb that takes 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular -s in the corpus. It appears 73 times with the ratio of 15%. The unmarked form of the verb, on the other hand, appears only 2 times, each uttered by the same speaker (S35: Polish). This high incidence of 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s with the verb 'depend' seems as a result of co-occurrence patterns. Table 4-10 displays some examples from the concordance of 'depends'.

**Table 4-10: The concordance of ‘depends’ – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

N	Concordance
1	do children start school in your country it <b>depends</b> sometimes it depends on the level
2	in your country it depends sometimes it <b>depends</b> on the level of the education and
3	start school in the age of seven or six it <b>depends</b> on the birthday when the birthday
4	are at the age of six or seven and erm it <b>depends</b> most of the time you have to erm
5	some who start earlier or a bit later it <b>depends</b> erm on the birthday as well so
6	start school at seven six or seven years it <b>depends</b> on which part of the year they are
7	class mhm and this starts maybe at five it <b>depends</b> on the parents when they want to
8	if i have one i mean if i prefer one or it <b>depends</b> also from the experience you
9	the what age years night nine mhm but it <b>depends</b> also it depends also which what
10	night nine mhm but it depends also it <b>depends</b> also which what kind of
11	primary secondary university may it <b>depends</b> some university in italy but not
12	to study in valenciano and then also it <b>depends</b> if you study in some part of spain
13	levels it at all levels it's german but it's it <b>depends</b> because erm there are some
14	you can start at the age of five so it <b>depends</b> on the ch child on the child yes
15	in your schools well it's like er it's also <b>depends</b> what kind of university it is some
16	just english language and maybe france it <b>depends</b> on the school mhm and there's i'm
17	english eleven years old maybe twelve it <b>depends</b> yeah it depends what are the
18	old maybe twelve it depends yeah it <b>depends</b> what are the criteria to be
19	formally but for me it was pretty easy just <b>depends</b> on the faculty so your faculty has
20	good level of english mhm of course it <b>depends</b> on you if you want to study you
21	speak to you in german and french so it <b>depends</b> actually what the parents want
22	age do students start to learn english it <b>depends</b> also for me i started like studying
23	students start to learn english well erm it <b>depends</b> but not foster to learn english
24	also and at university it yeah kind of <b>depends</b> on what field of study you are
25	they then it's easy for you but it always <b>depends</b> so they do not ask any english
26	erm i started at the age of nine but erm it <b>depends</b> i think now it's earlier i think
27	sixty credits for be erasmus and also it <b>depends</b> on on the what is asking the
28	program in your country well erm it <b>depends</b> on the faculty you are in my
29	but i'm not i don't know exactly so it <b>depends</b> on which school sometimes they
30	go you have to have a good english but it <b>depends</b> by university in which you go for

The concordance of ‘depends’ shows that the most common collocates of the verb ‘depends’ are ‘it’ and ‘on’. For example, out of 73 instances of ‘depends’, 51 of them collocates with ‘it’ (e.g. ‘it depends’), 39 of them collocates with ‘on’ (e.g. ‘depends on’) and 27 of them collocates with both ‘it’ and ‘on’ (e.g. it depends on). It seems that ELF speakers perceive ‘it depends’, ‘depends on’ and ‘it depends on’ as fixed phrases. The following sentences taken from the corpus are just a few of the examples that might support this assumption.

T17INT11 (S23: Bulgarian)

13 S23: of course **it depends on** you if you want to study (.) you <2>gonna do</2>  
 56 me (1) because (.) back in bulgaria (1) the thing that: (.) **make** me confused and  
 57 **make** me feel: (1) depressed is not the word <fast>but close to depressed</fast>

T22ME8 (S30: Italian)

5 don't know if i have one i mean if i prefer one or (.) **it depends** also: from the  
 79 only it it **generate** like some: inequality (1) a kind of inequality

T30ME10 (S40: Dutch)

47 S40: but i think **it depends on** a person because erm (2) yeah you have like older

60 S40: and he **act** like ten years younger than me so @@@

T38ME15 (S52: Ukrainian)

55 so (.) they: just (1) yeah (1) can kill them (1) but **it depends on** the: on the person

75 CANNOT BE the language of all culture (.) because every culture **have** their

As can be seen in the extracts taken from the corpus, speaker 6, 23, 30, 40, and 52 use the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular -s marking for the verb 'depend' shortly before they use 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular zero for the verbs 'use, make, generate, act, exist'. Consequently, it can be assumed that 'it depends', 'depends on', and 'it depends on' function as prefabricated chunks in the interactions and therefore restrict any variation of the word 'depend'.

It is also important to note that the appearance of 'interests' as the second most frequent verb that takes 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular -s is not very surprising. The linguistic contexts in which the verb 'interest' occurs, are predetermined and therefore restricts any other variants of 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular marking. It exists both in the interview questions and among the discussion topics used in the speech events.

**Interview Question 10:**

Of all the courses you are taking this term, which one interests you the most, and why?

**Discussion Topic 5:**

What interests you most in a foreign culture?

The following extract supports the assumption that participants mostly use the marked forms of the verbs in predetermined linguistic contexts, while they tend to use the unmarked forms for the same verbs in other linguistic contexts. For instance, speaker 50 in meeting 14 initiated the conversation by reading the discussion topic they had chosen from the list and used the marked form of the verb 'interest'. Then, however, the same speaker used the unmarked form of the same verb.

T37ME14 (S50: Lithuanian)

S50: so: the question is (.) why **interests** you mo- (.) what **interests** you most in foreign culture traditions daily life food history blah blah blah et cetera so: (.) for me for example the reason why i came to turkey istanbul because i do believe that istanbul is like er erm main thing for (.) er traditions like and culture because it's totally different than i do have in my own country like lithuania (.) because for example i'm christia:n a:nd i do belie- i do behave different (.) and here it's like (.) you can see girls who cover their face and different clothe:s and everything (.) so it makes me: to SEE that there is different style of life which (.) really (.) **interest** me so much a:nd also for example different kind of language

Moreover, the use of the marked form of the verb ‘interest’ as part of the predetermined interview questions also increased the number of -s marking.

T37INT1 (Researcher & S3: Spanish)

130 R: okay (.) er of all the courses you are taking this term  
 131 S3: mhm  
 132 R: which one **interests** you the most  
 133 S3: mhm

Finally, there were also some instances of repetitions in the corpus which multiplied the occurrence of 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular -s marking. The speakers simply repeated the researcher or the other participants in the interactions.

T24INT15 (Researcher & S33: Arabic)

124 R: okay (1) er:m (2) of all the courses you are taking this term at 125 university  
 125 which one **interests** you the most (1) which course (1) which class <11>**interests**  
 126 you</11>  
 127 S33: <muttered to himself><11>which class</11> **interests** me the  
 128 most</muttered to himself> (1) there is a (1) two classes that **interests** me the  
 129 most first one (.) was financial management (.) because i want to study in finance

In this extract, speaker 33 simply repeats the question that is posed to him. Besides, shortly after the repetition, ‘interests’ appears again in the same sentence but this time with a plural subject. This supports the assumption that the speakers tend to adhere to the verb forms used by the previous speakers in the interactions, which results in an increase in the ratio of the occurrences of the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular s.

On the other hand, there is a tendency among ELF speakers to overgeneralize the 3<sup>rd</sup> person –s in contexts where it is not required. The number of unnecessary use of –s is 30 in the corpus. Their occurrences are not added to the total number of -s marking since the focus of the study is to investigate the contexts which require 3<sup>rd</sup> person verb forms in present simple tense. However, it is important to draw attention to overgeneralization of 3<sup>rd</sup> person –s with a few examples.

T3ME2 (S4: Mandarin Chinese)

150 and just open it and (1) and sit (.) er in front of the computer (.) and and waiting?  
 151 when will the notification **shows** up (.) yeah so (.) before? i used to do that (.)

T20INT14 (S26: Italian)

85 a:nd my university my (.) business administration is good (1) the teacher are  
 86 really professional they: **speaks** very well in english (.) a:nd (1) and

T26INT17 (S35: Polish)

134 S35: and the culture is different (1) the: fami- families: are different (3) like in  
 135 my country (.) lots of people **wants** to: (1) have a (1) high grade in (1) business

T52ME24 (S75: Basque)

29 S75: but you know what's happen (1) in the model in which we are (1) in which  
30 the final exams **takes** too much weight (.) of the: (1) mark of the course (.) like

T21ME7 (S27: German)

103 S27: but sometimes you just get you meet the person once and then you're friend  
104 on facebook (.) and now in erasmus they always **posts** some stuff in their mother

As can be seen in the examples 3<sup>rd</sup> person –s is combined with plural subjects in simple present contexts. Moreover, it is used in contexts which are not in present simple tense as in the last extract.

Finally, when the prefabricated chunks, predetermined expressions, and repetitions are excluded from the overall statistics, the ratio of the morphologically marked 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular verbs reduces. Besides, the occurrence of 3<sup>rd</sup> person zero marking is quite remarkable in the corpus. Thus, in line with ELF literature (Cogo & Dewey, 2012, Seidlhofer, 2004), it can be said that 3<sup>rd</sup> person zero is an emerging variant for 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular verbs in present simple tense in ELF interactions.

#### 4.2. THE USE OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS ‘WHO’ AND ‘WHICH’ IN CORPUS IST-ERASMUS

The lexico-grammatical studies suggest that the use of pronouns, ‘*who*’ and ‘*which*’, in ELF interactions differs considerably from those in ENL interactions. Cogo and Dewey (2012: 73) state that “[t]he importance of *which* relative to other pronouns, particularly in contrast to *who*, appears to be different in ELF than it is in ENL”. Comparing their data with the demographic component of BNCB (ENL corpus), Cogo and Dewey propose that while ‘*who*’ is the most common pronoun in ENL, in ELF it is ‘*which*’.

In line with Cogo and Dewey (2012: 73), ‘*which*’ appears more commonly than ‘*who*’ in Corpus IST-Erasmus. It appears 198 times and ranks 88<sup>th</sup> in the corpus. The relative pronoun ‘*who*’, on the other hand, appears 118 times and ranks 125<sup>th</sup>. In terms of their distribution, ‘*which*’ is also universal. It appears in 50 out of 54 speech events, with the percentage of 92.59.

**Table 4-11: The frequencies of ‘who’ and ‘which’ – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

Pronoun	Ranking	Frequency	%	Texts	%
Which	88	198	0.21	50	92.59
Who	125	118	0.13	36	66.57

In Table 4-12 below Corpus IST-Erasmus is compared with an ENL corpus (BNCB demographic component, a 900,000+ words of spoken corpus, adopted from Cogo and Dewey, 2012) and an ELF corpus (Corpus A, Dewey, 2007a) with respect to the frequencies of *'who'* and *'which'*. As can be seen, the ELF corpora differ from ENL corpus in terms of the rank order of the pronouns. While *'who'* is the most frequent pronoun in ENL, it ranks after *'which'* in ELF corpora.

**Table 4-12: 'Who' and 'which' in ENL and ELF**

Pronoun	BNCB (demographic) <b>ENL Corpus</b>	Corpus A (Dewey) <b>ELF Corpus</b>	Corpus IST-Erasmus <b>ELF Corpus</b>
	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency
<b>who</b>	1020	57	118
<b>which</b>	956	77	198

When the concordance of *'which'* is examined, it is seen that there is indeed a deviation from ENL norms in Corpus IST-Erasmus as proposed in ELF literature. As Cogo and Dewey (2012: 74) state there is “an extension in the use of *which* to communicate a function ordinarily served only by *who*”. Similarly, as shown in the concordance lines below, ELF speakers appeared to substitute *'which'* for *'who'* in relative clauses where the reference is made to a human.

Concordance of *'which'*

- 1 they are students at the same university **the girl which** came with me we
- 2 not there's no tourists i think i'm the only **guy which** is with blond hair
- 3 depends on now the the amount of **people which** is speaking this language
- 4 just depending maybe on the **people which** the communication between the
- 5 english but it's very basic and my **sister which** is who is er one year old
- 6 a bit yes and no erm **which** do you think make **better teachers of english**

There are also some instances of repetitions in the corpus which might have also increased the frequency of *'which'* to some extent in the corpus.

Concordance of *'which'* (repetitions)

- 1 we are watching the movies **which which** are from the past from the history
- 2 my prejudices as well the prejudices **which which** is like yeah which i have
- 3 yeah sure **which which** other language should it be like okay there are of
- 4 yeah i think it's the the the thing **which which** is the easiest for me
- 5 university depends wih university **which which** course or professor but
- 6 erm experiencing the the daily life **which which** may be a little bit different

On the other hand, the extension in the use of *'which'*, is also observed in clauses where there is no need to distinguish the referent as having special properties. As Yule (1998: 252, as cited in Cogo and Dewey, 2012: 74) puts forward, the function of *'that'* in ENL is to neutralize the distinction between human (*'who'*) and

non-human (*'which'*) referents in relative clauses, and also *'that'* is accepted as the more likely form in contexts where it is not necessary to mark or distinguish the features of a referent. Moreover, in spoken ENL *'that'*, and also *zero* relative, tends to be more common than *'which'* in subject relative clauses. In ELF interactions; however, there is a tendency to use *'which'* in such cases.

Concordance of *'which'*

- 1 teacher is reading just slides about what is ethics we are not making any
- 2 activities **which** we should do so then i'm
- 3 it depends on the country again if you go to any er country **which** used
- 4 to be an english colony it's very helpful
- 5 for example traditions it's like er different kind of food **which** you can taste
- 6 and er th ha have a look how it how to cook

As can be seen in lines 2, 3, and 5, *'which'* occurs in restrictive (defining) relative clauses where an ENL speaker would most probably prefer to use *'that'*, as there is no need to distinguish the nouns (*activities, country, food*) as having specific properties. In fact, the nouns in the relative clauses convey a relatively generic meaning. As stated in Larsen-Freeman (2000: 134), “we can delete relative pronouns if they function as objects in relative clauses” in ENL. In lines 2 and 5, the relative pronouns function as direct object and therefore can be omitted according to ENL norms. There is, however, a tendency to use the relative pronoun *'which'* abundantly in such cases in ELF.

Contrary to this, there are also instances in the corpus where *'that'* has been used in place of pronouns which convey specific meaning...” as observed in Cogo and Dewey (2012: 75),

Concordance of *'that'*

- 1 i will have to improve my language skills according to the area **that** i will
- 2 be working in for example i don't know maybe business
- 3 time and appointments or that's i think really is a cultural difference to to
- 4 turkey or to istanbul **that** everyone yeah goes on the street with a smile and
- 5 to it's it's different there yeah

As can be seen in the examples, the pronoun *'that'* is used in relative clauses where there is a need to specify the noun. The preferred ENL form in line 1 would be *'which'* as there is a reference to a specific area in which the speaker will be working, and in line 4, it would be *'where'* as there is a reference to a specific place.



As a result, the concordance analyses presented above suggest that in Corpus IST-Erasmus there are variations from the established ENL norms with respect to the use of relative pronouns, as proposed in ELF literature (Cogo & Dewey, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2004). Besides, the emerging patterns observed in the ELF interactions are also in line with Dewey (2007a) and Cogo and Dewey (2012).

#### 4.3. THE USE OF DEFINITE AND INDEFINITE ARTICLES IN CORPUS IST-ERASMUS

Previous studies in ELF lexico-grammar mark that the use of definite and indefinite articles in ELF interactions differs from ENL norms. In order to see whether such variations do also occur in Corpus IST-Erasmus, an in-depth analysis was carried out. First of all, the frequencies of the definite (*the*) and indefinite (*a, an*) articles are identified and compared with those of other ELF corpus (VOICE) and also with an ENL corpus (BNC World Corpus).

**Table 4-13: ‘A’, ‘an’, ‘the’ in ENL and ELF Corpora**

Corpus	Article	Ranking	Frequency	%	Texts	%
BNC World ENL Corpus	<b>a</b>	5	2 181 592	2.19	4 045	99.78
	<b>an</b>	5	338 743	0.34	3 942	97.24
	<b>the</b>	1	6 055 105	6.09	4 050	99.90
VOICE ELF Corpus	<b>a</b>	7	16 877	1.29	151	100.00
	<b>an</b>	7	1 866	0.14	135	89.40
	<b>the</b>	1	43 097	3.29	151	100.00
Corpus IST-Erasmus ELF Corpus	<b>a</b>	8	1 335	1.42	54	100.00
	<b>an</b>	8	110	0.12	42	77.78
	<b>the</b>	2	3 054	3.25	54	100.00

The results reveal that the frequency orders of ‘*definite*’ and ‘*indefinite*’ articles are quite similar in ENL and ELF corpora. ‘*The*’ appears as the most frequent item in BNC World Corpus and VOICE, and as the 2<sup>nd</sup> most frequent item in Corpus IST-Erasmus. Regarding the frequency of articles used, ‘*the*’ appears as the most commonly used article in all the three corpora. The distribution of ‘*the*’ among the texts is even in the corpora. It appears in all the texts in VOICE and Corpus IST-Erasmus, and in 4,050 out of 4,054 texts in BNC World Corpus. The indefinite articles ‘*a, an*’ also have close frequency rankings in ENL and ELF corpora. However, although the appearance frequency of ‘*a, an*’ and ‘*the*’ is quite similar in ENL and ELF corpora, it is necessary to examine whether the *use* of these articles is also similar.

In order to investigate whether there are any variations from standard ENL forms in the use of articles, all the noun phrase (NP) contexts that appear in the corpus are scanned. The NP contexts that consist of deviant forms are identified. First, for each NP context, the required article(s) is determined. Then, by comparing the required articles with the articles actually provided by the participants, the frequency and type of variations in the use of articles are detected. The results reveal that there are variations from standard ENL forms in the use of *a*, *an*, *the*, and *zero article* ( $\emptyset$ ) in Corpus IST-Erasmus. The degree of variation, however, differs according to the type of the article.

Overall, in NP contexts that require *a*, *an*, *the*, and  $\emptyset$ , the most frequent variation in the corpus is observed in the use of ‘*an*’. When the NP contexts which require an indefinite article are analyzed, it is seen that variation is more common in ‘*an*’ compared to ‘*a*’. In 58 out of 110 occurrences (52,7%), ‘*an*’ deviates from standard ENL forms. Although there are three emerging variations - ‘*a*’, ‘*the*’, and ‘ $\emptyset$ ’-, in contexts which require ‘*an*’, ELF speakers mainly opted for either ‘*a*’ (41%) or ‘ $\emptyset$ ’ (55%) for ‘*an*’. The rate of ‘*the*’ substitution for ‘*an*’ is very low, at a rate of 3%. The following examples have been randomly chosen to illustrate the variations observed in the corpus.

*‘a’ substitution for ‘an’*

T8INT5 (S11: German)

78 S11: hm erm concerning living? it's difficulties is of course (.) finding **a** (.)

79 **apartment** because it's like erm: (.) it's not that easy if you don't know someone

T29INT20 (S38: Dutch)

21 <yawning>book</yawning> on school where we learnt it and e:r there was **a**

22 **english teacher** and she was (.) teaching us

T11INT8 (S14: Polish)

218 S14: er i live in **a apartment** with two roommates er apartment it's three three

219 rooms in total (.) it's in e::r o:ld part of city in fatih in fener it's er i don't think it's

*‘ $\emptyset$ ’ substitution for ‘an’*

T5ME3 (S7: Czech)

134 and the cars and the buses the it's everywhere and it's really (.) er **unsleeping**

135 unsleeping er (.) town

T8INT5 (S11: German)

88 the language in my case it's like okay i can't join the lessons that's very sad

89 actually but i can go to the professors and ask for **extra: task** erm so i can write a

T11INT8 (S14: Polish)

38 language was german (1) and at this: level i didn't have another language and  
39 then i went to **art school** where for some strange reason <fast>they decided that

The variation in the use of 'a' is also very common, at a rate of 21%. 285 out of 1335 occurrences of 'a' in the corpus display variations. Unlike 'an', 'the', and 'Ø', the variations in the contexts which require 'a' is wide. That is to say, five variations emerge in 'a' contexts: 'an', 'the', 'Ø', 'one', and 'some'. However, the use of 'Ø' in place of 'a' is very significant, at a rate of 88%. This shows that when ELF speakers deviate from the ENL forms in the use of 'a', they tend to omit the article.

*'an' substitution for 'a'*

T8INT5 (S11: German)

82 want to pay this but i need it i need a flat or something like this so i think it's (.  
83 one of the difficulties of living in in **an foreign country** (.) erm (2) of course the

T43ME18 (S60: Arabic)

140 (1) i can keep contact with her like (1) on social network it's that's not kill **an** (.  
141 **real relationship** (.) it's keeping relationships (.) but <5>maybe</5>

*'the' substitution for 'a'*

T8INT5 (S11: German)

104 S11: yeah it's like in our (.) germany is so organiz- organ- organized so  
105 everything has everything had **the date** everything had the time and erm when i

T51INT28 (S74: Polish)

90 for example scientists that are coming to turkey from many countries (.) and they  
91 are giving **the speech** during our classes they pre preparing some presentations

*'Ø' substitution for 'a'*

T3ME2 (S4: Mandarin Chinese)

140 R: yeah unhealthy isn't it <clears throat> do you have any (.) sisters or brothers  
141 S4: i have **brother** but older one and he's not that addicted? to social networks

T20INT14 (S26: Italian)

91 S26: yes i have **museum card** but my friends or my girlfriend they wanna see for  
92 example *hagia sophia* or *topkapi* o:r *dolmabahce*

*'one' substitution for 'a'*

T41ME17 (S58: Lithuanian)

58 S58: <7>for *example* you didn't know once in a while my friend was in **one**  
59 **party** (1) a:nd the owner of this party said (.) why you always on the phone (1)

T42INT25 (S59: Spanish/Gallician)

119 to avoid that (1) for example er you can find people (1) one e:r <slow>**one man**  
120 (.) holding the: (1) the arm (.) of another man</slow> (.) you can't find that in

*'some' substitution for 'a'*

T6INT3 (S9: Portuguese)

211 i'm i i am not so quiet how you can see @ <@>so i'm all the time talking</@>  
212 and when i'm in **some place** i like people can ta:lk and so all the time i'm i have

T38ME15 (S53: Chinese)

38 (1) er (.) also there is **some ca- club** (.) on social networking (.) and (.) it's easy  
39 to announce some news and get some information from the social networking

When the use of the definite article is examined, it is seen that *'the'* deviates from the standard ENL norms in 297 out of 3054 occurrences, at a rate of 9,7%. Only two variations emerge in *'the'* contexts: *'a'* and *'Ø'*. ELF speakers substituted either *'a'* or *'Ø'* for *'the'*. It is important to note, however, that the rate of *'a'* substitution for *'the'* is not high, only at a rate of 2,3%, while the rate of *'Ø'* substitution is very significant at a rate of 97,6%. Similar with the variations in the use of *'a'*, it seems that ELF speakers prefer to omit, when they deviate from the standard ENL forms in the use of *'the'*.

*'a' substitution for 'the'*

T20INT14 (S26: Italian)

77 S26: i am here since two months and i try (1) not every but (.) two maybe three  
78 times **in a evening** to listen some movie (.) but

T30ME10 (S40: Dutch)

47 S40: but i think it depends **on a person** because erm (2) yeah you have like older  
48 guys who (1) act like a child but you also have

T44ME19 (S63: German)

49 S63: uhu okay but (.) how is it for you at the university (1) do you: erm (1) speak  
50 there in english now or: write **a tests** or the exams in english or in turkish

*'Ø' substitution for 'the'*

T1ME1 (S2: Polish)

114 compare i don't know trabzon e:r **with pontium kingdom?** (.) which used to be  
115 there or: **byzantium empire** or **ottoman empire** or the er greek cities (.)

T4INT2 (S6: German)

39 S6: yeah but usually i would say (1) **latest age** is ten  
40 R: hm latest ten

T17INT11 (S23: Bulgarian)

15 S23: we:ll (1) erm: it depends but not foster to (.) learn english: from **first grade**  
16 (.) as they start primary school

The use of *'Ø'* also varies from standard ENL forms, with the frequency of 100. When speakers deviate from the standard forms, they tend to use *'a'* or *'the'*. Though *'an'* appears as another variant form of *'Ø'*, its use is very limited (3%). On

the other hand, while the use of 'a' in place of 'Ø' is 33%, the use of 'the' is 64%. This shows that it is more common among ELF speakers to substitute 'the' for 'Ø'. It must also be noted that there is a tendency to overuse 'the' in 'Ø' contexts.

*'a' substitution for 'Ø'*

T5ME3 (S8: Slovak)

169 S8: and you also realize that that the distinction between europe and asia is just a  
170 **man-made** er there's no such thing as europe and asia there's just eurasia and

T14ME4 (S17: Italian)

165 R: mhm what about you

166 S17: o:h i have got a **two sisters** (.) the smaller one erm she's seventeen years old

T17INT11 (S23: Bulgarian)

10 this: (.) how to say luck (.) to go to university and have a **good teachers**? (.) you

11 get: really good: level of english

*'the' substitution for 'Ø'*

T23ME9 (S32: Spanish)

94 cerrahpasa in the place i live (.) you can see lot of children (.) playing in the

95 streets and for example **in the spain** (.) now it's not that common that (1) you see

T28INT19 (S37: German)

114 S37: o:h (1) the: (1) i think **the studying** is not the: (.) so difficult because at bilgi

115 university everything is in english (1) but **the living**: erm: (.) for me if you really

T6INT3 (S9: Portuguese)

1 R: interview three? (.) okay at what age do children start school in your country?

2 S9: er actually they change it's **the two years ago** (1) i think it's at SIX but i don't

#### 4.4. THE USE OF TAG QUESTIONS IN CORPUS IST-ERASMUS

Tag questions in ELF interactions constitute another grammatical unit that requires examination with respect to possible variations from the standard ENL forms. As Seidlhofer (2004: 220) states, one of the characteristics of ELF interactions is “[f]ailing to use correct forms in tag questions (e.g., *isn't it?* or *no?* instead of *shouldn't they?*)”. In order to investigate whether the ELF interactions in Corpus IST-Erasmus do also include such non-standard tags, all the transcriptions are scanned, both manually and electronically. It is surprising that in Corpus IST-Erasmus, a 93,913 word corpus, the use of tag questions is very few.

As Carter, Hughes, and McCarthy (2000: 184) state:

Tags are essential feature of grammar in use in informal and intimate contexts of interaction and are particularly appropriate to contexts in which meanings are not stated but are negotiated and re-negotiated.

Although this corpus consists of informal conversations and there is negotiation of meaning in most interactions in the corpus and this interaction warrants the use of tag questions for coherence, the frequency of tag questions is still very low. The following conversation is selected to illustrate the interaction of the speech events and how well different points of the constructed dialogue between the participants called for the use of tag questions.

T21ME7 (S27: German S28: Turkish)  
 26 S28: school friends are real friends (1) they say them see them every day (.)  
 27 mostly five times in the week (1) but (.) now in the virtual world (.) for example  
 28 facebook you (.) for example (1) you see a nice a beautiful woman  
 29 S27: YOU DO THAT?  
 30 S28: N<4>O NO</4>  
 31 S27: <4>no umeit</4> <5>@@@</5>  
 32 S28: <5>no for example this is for example and (1) you think</5> o:h maybe i  
 33 can be friend with them  
 34 S27: yeah it  
 35 S28: this this idea  
 36 S27: you don't have four hundred real friends <6>on facebook</6>  
 37 S28: <6>yeah yes</6>  
 38 S27: but i think that it (.) could support (1) cos if you are already real friends

As evident there are no tag questions used in this conversation. A native speaker of English, on the other hand, would most probably use tags in lines 29 and 36. Instead of “you do that”, “you don’t do that, **do you?**” would be more common in an ENL interaction. Similarly, line 36 requires a tag question at final position as “you don't have four hundred real friends on facebook, **do you?**”

On the other hand, there are also cases where the use of tag questions are conforming to the standard ENL forms. They are; however, limited to the following examples. As can be seen, in each case, the same tag question is used: ‘*isn't it?*’ and each tag question is provided by the same ELF speaker (*R: the researcher*).

T3ME2 (S5: Polish, R: Turkish)  
 137 S5: =i'm i'm here and you know and i mean i can see that those children like  
 138 children okay teenagers (.) if they were cut off from the internet they just would  
 139 not live and i think that that is <@>unhealthy</@> @@  
 140 R: yeah unhealthy **isn't it** <clears throat> do you have any (.) sisters or brothers

T15ME5 (S19: Italian, R: Turkish)  
 76 S19: <@>all day and all night</@> but erm: (1) the daily life of turkey (.) is  
 77 erm: is so differ- is so different than the italian people for example (1) the hour  
 78 for dinner (.) in in turkey (.) the: the person have a dinner erm: (.) so early seven  
 79 seven half past seven (.) in italy it's different (.) i eat i ate i ate erm: in the dinner  
 80 eat (.) half past eight o'clock (.) and  
 81 R: too late <14>**isn't it**</14>

T26INT17 (S35: Polish, R: Turkish)  
 39 S35: it's not that high (.) it's like (.) er four point zero  
 40 R: mhm (.) what is the highest grade  
 41 S35: five point zero  
 42 R: five point zero okay it is great **isn't it** it's good

Although ELF speakers do not prefer to use standard tag questions in Corpus IST-Erasmus, they use variant tag forms, which do also function as a tag in ENL. For instance, in line with Seidlhofer (2004: 220), ‘no’ emerges as a tag question in the corpus. The following examples illustrate the use of ‘no’ as a variant tag form.

T15ME5 (S19: Italian S20: Bulgarian)  
 117 S19: which town have you been in bulgaria  
 118 S20: i live in plovdiv <21>but</21>  
 119 S19: <21>it's not</21> capital province **no**  
 120 S20: no in the second <22>of the biggest</22>

T16ME6 (S21: Italian S22: Bulgarian)  
 45 S22: yes but <slow>this is er (.) for their re<7>ligion</7></slow>  
 46 S21: <7>yeah i know i know</7> (.) i'm not catholic i'm in europe catholic also  
 47 no  
 48 S22: NO i'm christian

T21ME7 (S27: German S28: Turkish)  
 111 S28: yeah this is an (.) personal jealous @@  
 112 S27: <@>yeah</@> (1) sometimes you see weird pictures on facebook (1) you  
 113 think <19>no</19>  
 114 S28: <19>yeah</19> i mean i'm i am: now at facebook (1) but i post (.) not  
 115 mostly private=

T45ME20 (S64: German/Polish S65: Polish)  
 230 S65: <49>a:h</49> (1) our university is called international university but (.)  
 231 people <@>don't speak english</@>=  
 231 S64: =not everyone **no**  
 233 S65: just i er as people i met (.) from (.) turkey like THIRTY percent can speak

As can be seen, in each example ‘no’ functions as a tag. For example, in T15ME5 the use ‘no’ in “it's not</21> capital province **no**” actually implies the meaning “it's not</21> capital province, **is it?**” There are also a few instances in the corpus where ‘or’ functions as a tag.

T16ME6 (S21: Italian S22: Bulgarian)  
 279 S21: it's your own house **or** i don't know  
 280 S22: <LNtr>yurdum</LNtr>  
 281 R: dormitory  
 282 S22: dormitory  
 283 S21: aha dorm (.) erm (.) no i haven't been in dormi- dormitory here i don't like

T51INT28 (R: Turkish, S74: Polish)  
 138 R: are all of them studying at istanbul university <8>or</8>  
 139 S74: <8>no</8> (1) one of them was studying (.) at mimar sinan university (1)  
 140 the other one (.) was already graduated (1) and the one that we're living (.) right

Moreover, *rising intonation* also serves as an interrogative marker in ELF interactions as in ENL. Instead of an overt tag question, ELF speakers sometimes prefer to use a rising intonation as illustrated in the following extract.

T21ME7 (S27: German S28: Turkish)  
 27 mostly five times in the week (1) but (.) now in the virtual world (.) for example  
 28 facebook you (.) for example (1) you see a nice a beautiful woman  
 29 S27: YOU DO THAT?  
 30 S28: N<4>O NO</4>  
 31 S27: <4>no umeit</4> <5>@@@</5>  
 32 S28: <5>no for example this is for example and (1) you think</5> o:h maybe i  
 33 can be friend with them

Furthermore, the discourse markers in ENL, such as ‘*okay*’, ‘*right*’ and ‘*you know*’, do function as a tag question. For example, as Crystal (1988: 47) points out, when used at the end of the sentence, ‘*you know*’ “often acts as a kind of tag question – as a check that the listener is understanding what is being said: *He’s bought a BMX – you know?*”. As the occurrence of discourse markers is very significant in Corpus IST-Erasmus, the concordances of the most common ones are analyzed to see whether they do also function as a tag question. Firstly, the most common discourse markers in Corpus IST-Erasmus are ‘*okay*’ (379) ‘*you know*’ (275), ‘*I mean*’ (124), and ‘*right*’ (108). As can be seen, appearing in 379 contexts in the corpus, ‘*okay*’ is the most frequent discourse marker. Among these, however, only ‘*right*’ functions as a tag in the corpus. In 23 (21%) out of 108 occurrences, it serves as a tag. For instance, in T39ME16, ‘*right*’ is substituted for ‘*don’t you*’ and in T53ME25 for ‘*isn’t it*’.

T39ME16 (S54: Korean S55: German)  
 33 S54: =face to face (.) so that is real relationship (.) real conversation  
 34 S55: yeah  
 35 S54: i think conversation in relationship is really important  
 36 S55: but you still you still do it although you have facebook **right**  
 37 S54: yes <6>yes</6>

T53ME25 (S77: Danish S78: German)  
 172 S78: but (.) another aspect on this question (1) is about the professional networks  
 173 (1) you know like xing or: linkedin or (1) what they use in denmark linkedin  
 174 **right**  
 175 S77: yeah it must be=

It is also important to note that tag questions are manifold in ENL. As Holmes (1995: 79) states they “differ in polarity, in intonation, in syntactic derivation, and in lexical form”. In order to identify the functions of tag questions, a number of taxonomies have been proposed (Holmes, 1995; Algeo, 2006; Tottie and



Hoffmann, 2006). In Holmes' (1995: 80) taxonomy, tag questions are classified as *epistemic modal, challenging, facilitative, and softening*. *Epistemic modal tags* are used to express uncertainty. Their primary focus is the correctness of the information in the interaction; thus, they are also called *referential tags*. On the other hand, those that focus on the feelings of the addressee are called *affective tags*.

Epistemic Modal Tags

(20) *Young woman recounting school experiences to her friend.*

I did my exams in sixty three was it

(21) *Husband searching in newspaper for information says to wife.*

Fay Weldon's lecture is at eight isn't it

(Holmes, 1995: 80)

The use of tags in the examples shows that the speaker is not certain about the accuracy of the information. Such *modal tags* are used either to ask for information or for confirmation. Secondly, the '*challenging tags*' are defined by Holmes (1995: 80) as "... confrontational strategies. They may pressure a reluctant addressee to reply or aggressively boost the force of a negative speech act".

Challenging Tags

*Superintendent to Detective Constable during interview criticizing the Constable's performance.*

A: ..... you'll probably find yourself um before the Chief

Constable, okay?

B: Yes, Sir, yes, understood.

A: Now you er fully understand that, don't you?

B: Yes, Sir, indeed, yeah.

(Thomas 1989: 152, as cited in Holmes 1995: 81)

'*Facilitative tags*' function as a positive politeness strategy and invite the addressee to carry on the conversation. As can be seen in the extract below, with the use of a tag question the teacher encourages the child to speak.

Facilitative Tags

*Primary school teacher to five year-old.*

Mrs. Short: here's a pretty one what's this one called Simon?

Simon: mm/ erm [3 seconds pause]

Mrs. Short: see its tail/ look at its tail// it's a fantail  
isn't it.

Simon: mm a fantail.

(Holmes, 1995: 82)

'*Softening tags*', on the other hand, display negative politeness. As Holmes (1995: 82) points out they are "used to attenuate the force of negatively affective utterances such as directives, ... and criticisms".

### Softening Tags

*Older brother to younger brother who has just stepped on the cat's bowl and spilled her milk all over the floor.*

that was a really dumb thing to do wasn't it

(Holmes, 1995: 82)

Looking at Corpus IST-Erasmus with these functional categories, it is seen that there appear contexts which require all the *epistemic modal, challenging, facilitative, and softening tag questions*. However, ELF speakers are seen not to prefer to use tag questions in these contexts, as presented in the following extracts.

T17INT11 (S23: Bulgarian, R: Turkish)

85 R: so you don't have agreement with english language teaching

86 <5>department</5>

87 S23: <5>n-n</5> NO (1) only with the russian and i don't know why nobody told

88 us (.) it was so confusing but we decided to stay here because it's an opportunity

In this extract, the topic is Erasmus agreements between universities and the researcher asks the speaker to talk about them. Wanting to be certain about the fact that there are agreements in effect, the researcher needs confirmation. According to Holmes' (1995) taxonomy, in line 86, an *epistemic modal tag* could have been used (*so you don't have agreement with english language teaching <5>department</5>, do you?*). An ELF speaker herself, the researcher omits the use of an epistemic modal tag question here. Notably, the question she directed to her speaker is one that she had not pre-planned to ask; on the contrary, one that arose in the flow of the conversation.

Furthermore, in the following extract, speaker 21 invites speaker 22 to contribute to the conversation. In the course of conversation, there appears a need for a *facilitative tag question* in line 248 (*i don't think you are such interesting in football, are you?*). However, the speaker chooses not to use it.

T16ME6 (S21: Italian S22: Bulgarian)

246 R: today you have an important match

247 S21: yes (.) there is fenerbahce versus lazio i don't think you are such  
248 interesting <44>in football</44>

249 S22: <44>yeah</44> <45>yeah</45> so much

250 S21: <45>o:h yeah?</45> <46>@@@</46>

251 S22: <46>by the way</46> yeah

252 S21: yeah last game was galatasaray versus <47><un>xxx</un></47> you know

Consequently, although a variety of contexts emerged in the corpus for the use of tag questions, ELF speakers preferred not use them. On the other hand, at times when speakers do use them, they tend to prefer using 'no', 'or', 'rising

*intonation*’, and *right*’. However, generalizations cannot be made due to the limited use.

#### 4.5. THE USE OF PREPOSITIONS IN CORPUS IST-ERASMUS

ELF literature suggests that the use prepositions by ELF speakers display variations from standard ENL forms. As Seidlhofer (2004: 220) puts forward “[i]nserting redundant prepositions, as in *We have to study about...*” is an emerging pattern in ELF interactions. Such variations in the use of prepositions are also observed in Corpus IST-Erasmus. Besides, there are novel collocations formed with prepositions. To start with, the most common prepositions that occur in the corpus are as follows.

**Table 4-14: The most common ten prepositions – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

Preposition	Ranking	Frequency	%	Texts	%
to	5	2 248	2.39	54	100
in	6	2 136	2.27	54	100
of	11	1 277	1.36	54	100
for	17	1 009	1.07	54	100
with	36	584	0.62	54	100
about	42	464	0.49	53	98.15
at	47	415	0.44	53	98.15
on	60	333	0.35	53	98.15
from	75	240	0.26	54	100
between	157	93	0.10	37	68.52

Table 4-14 displays the most common ten prepositions that appear in the corpus. As can be seen, *to* is the most frequent one, appearing in 2248 contexts in the corpus. The most frequent ten prepositions in ENL, on the other hand, are respectively, *to*, *of*, *in*, *at*, *on*, *for*, *with*, *from*, *about*, and *by* (Carter et al., 2000: 218). Except for the preposition *by*, the most frequent ten prepositions in ENL and ELF are similar, though their frequencies differ. While *between* appears 157 times, *by* appears only 57 times in Corpus IST-Erasmus.

The concordance analyses of these prepositions reveal that there are indeed redundant uses of prepositions in the corpus as proposed in ELF literature. For example, in the following extracts, the prepositions *to* and *about* in lines 111 and 187 are used redundantly.

T20INT14 (S26: Italian)  
111 cetera but (.) it's good to: it's sympathetic to **ask to** the person who walks in the

T39ME16 (S54: Korean)  
186 S54: =<slow>or something like that if someone posted bad feeling (.) maybe  
187 other friend misunderstood (.) **misunderstand about** her or him like this</slow>

According to Cogo and Dewey (2012: 56), the redundant uses of the prepositions in ELF can be indicative of “the extension of an already existing pattern”. That is, for example, in ENL varieties the verb ‘ask’ takes ‘to’ in a context like ‘I would ask **to** play with her’ (ask + to + infinitive + somebody); but, not in a context like ‘I would ask her for your address’ (ask + somebody + for + something). In contrast to this, in ELF interactions, ‘to’ appears in the latter context as well. As can be seen in the following examples, ELF speakers tend to generalize the function of ‘to’ in an already existing structure to zero contexts.

T14ME4 (S17: Italian)  
106 care about it if they want to know something i **ask to** a person i don't need

T31INT21 (S41: French)  
145 next to it (.) there was (1) a woman (1) and when he **asked to** the (.) to the guy in

Another key aspect of preposition use in Corpus IST-Erasmus is the tendency to substitute alternative prepositions for the standard forms. For example, in T37ME14 and T16ME6 below, ‘to’ is substituted by ‘with’ and ‘of’, respectively. On the other hand, in T31INT21, ‘to’ is used in place of ‘in’ and in T38ME15 in place of ‘with’ or ‘in’.

T37ME14 (S50: Lithuanian)  
100 S50: i guess this is the most thing which worries me (.) <slow>all like  
101 most</slow> (1) i hope it's something **happens with** my future husband if i'm  
102 gonna have one @@

T16ME6 (S22: Bulgarian)  
123 S22: <slow><19>everybo</19>dy **respect (.) of** him</slow>

T31INT21 (S41: French)  
24 S41: the toefl s- score (1) score that you have to reach to to (.) to **participate to**  
25 the erasmus program but (.) i think that's it

T38ME15 (S53: Chinese)  
30 classmate (.) and it will **help you to**: about your relationships an:d (.) and i also

The substitution of the prepositions is observed even after the verbs that the prepositions collocate with. For example, ‘go’ is among the most common collocates of ‘to’ in the corpus (‘go to’). The concordance analysis reveals that there are

instances of substitutions even after 'go'. While in T8INT5 below, 'to' is substituted by 'in', in T52ME24 it is substituted by 'at'.

T8INT5 (S11: German)

16 go there and if you could **go in** french kindergarten in germany and then they  
17 speak to you in german and french so: it depends actually what the parents want

T52ME24 (S76: Italian)

123 open (.) for all the people (1) if i don't want come (2) i don't want if i don't  
124 want to **go at** university (1) there is one (.) other things to do (1) and=

The concordance analyses also reveal that in a reverse manner the prepositions are omitted in places where it should be used. For example, in line with the findings of Cogo and Dewey (2012), 'to' is omitted after the verb 'listen', which is a strong collocate of 'to' in ENL varieties. The concordance of 'listen' and 'listening' shows that in 8 out of 11 contexts in the corpus, 'to' is omitted.

T20INT14 (S26: Italian)

71 S26: i i need to learn more and i have to: be able to **listen** (.) english because my  
77 S26: i am here since two months and i try (1) not every but (.) two maybe three  
78 times in a evening to **listen** some movie (.) but

T27INT18 S36: Turkish/German)

73 **listen** native turkish speakers (.) and learn some: (1) er and get better in turkish

T54INT29 (S79: Czech)

22 english because we are always singing songs and (1) just er **listening** something

The omission of 'to' is not restricted to the verb 'listen'; there are other 'to' requiring verbs which are not used with it. This is seen frequently in the corpus. For example, the following extracts display the omission of 'to' after the verb 'go'.

T48INT26 (S70: Korean)

79 S70: yeah i think because (.) when you go anywhere: (1) or some (1) if you **go**  
80 **india**: or korea:n and japanese or china or europe in europe (.) they can speak (.)

T40INT24 (S56: French)

158 okay in english (.) and she's learning polish also because she want to **go erasmus**  
159 there (.) a:nd (1) yeah like that (1) what can i say i <@>don't

However, although there is omission in the last extract, "...*she want to go Erasmus there...*", the preferred ENL form might not be always 'to', depending on the speaker's intention it can also be 'for'.

The variability observed in the use of 'to', is also seen in the use of other prepositions in the corpus. For example, the variability in the use of 'on' is also very common. Besides its redundant uses, there are cases where 'on' is substituted for the standard form.

*The redundant use of 'on'*

T20INT14 (S26: Italian)

136 education (.) you the teacher is really: (.) competitive okay **respect on** italian for  
137 me (.) you are younger (.) than italian and you speak english (.) and not so much

*The substitution of 'on' for 'to'*

T28ME15 (S52: Ukrainian)

48 just e:r (1) **responding on** some: (.) i don't know of (1) advertisement com-  
49 mercials or: (.) what other people just (.) just posted or: (.) told about you so:

*The substitution of 'on' for 'in'*

T20INT14 (S26: Italian)

194 and for this reason you wanna come again and again **on july** we wanna go maybe

T27INT18 (S36: Turkish / German)

192 so she's been a high level **on german** when she moved to germany (.) to live

*The substitution of 'on' for 'at'*

T29INT20 (S38: Dutch)

114 countries had for example we had it of (.) about south africa: the apartheids (1)

115 and we really learn (.) more than i (1) learnt **on on my school** about it

While the examples above basically indicate that there is a tendency among the ELF speakers to insert 'on' in non-obligatory contexts, the following extracts illustrate the substitution of 'on' by other prepositions in obligatory contexts. It is usually substituted by 'in' or 'at' in the corpus.

*The substitution of 'in', 'by', and 'at' for 'on'*

T2INT1 (S3: Spanish)

99 S3: mhm erm: **it depends in** the country but i think we are speaking @ about  
100 turkey?

T20INT14 (S26: Italian)

32 had to go you have to have a good english (1) but **it depends by** university in  
33 which you go for example istanbul is e:r b one level

T13INT10 (S16: German)

37 S16: erm it's also **it depends at** whi- whi- which university you are and to which  
38 city you want to go for me it was quite easy i only had er (.) little talk with my

These examples are chosen specifically because they are very telling. That is, *it + depends + on* is a very common collocation in ENL and also in ELF. However, the variability in the use 'on' occurs even after this pattern.

Another preposition which displays extensive variability in its use from the standard ENL norms in the corpus is 'about'. The following extracts present the

redundant uses of ‘*about*’ and also the use of ‘*about*’ in place of the standard prepositions.

*The redundant use of ‘about’*

T52ME24 (S75: Basque)

109 giving a buddy (1) and not (1) and maybe you **consider about** that because it's:  
110 (1) okay (1) big percentage of the people pass the: (.) course without it then into

*The substitution of ‘about’ for ‘in’*

T2INT1 (S3: Spanish)

92 have good good weather for travel (.) around turkey (.) and also about the  
93 language i was **interested about** learning turkish (1) but i'm no:t studying too

*The substitution of ‘about’ for ‘of’*

T22ME8 (S30: Italian)

20 S29: =<1>perception</1>=  
21 S30: =**perception about** that i like it because is always very different from (.) i

*The substitution of ‘about’ for ‘to’*

140 in germany in school and not in university and it's really interesting to see how  
141 the (.) turkish students **react about** that because (.) erm the teachers said that (.)

In addition to describing the variability observed in the corpus, it is also necessary to display the innovative preposition use in ELF interactions. For example, one of the emerging patterns observed in the corpus is formed with the preposition ‘*about*’.

*discuss + about*

T45ME20 (S65: Polish)

210 S65: =yeah i was also discussing about it with my friends

T1ME1 (S1: Greek)

3 S1: <1>okay</1> so today: we are gonna discuss about what interests US more in a  
4 foreign culture?

T41ME17 (S58: Lithuanian)

84 S58: =yeah e:r discussed about some photos and all events=

As can be seen in the extracts above, the speakers use the preposition ‘*about*’ together with the verb ‘*discuss*’, where the preferred form in ENL would be no preposition between verb and object, as in ‘I was also *discussing it* with my friends’. In line with Cogo and Dewey (2012), the appearance of ‘*discuss + about*’ is very common in Corpus IST-Erasmus. Thus, it can be considered as an emerging pattern in spoken ELF discourse. Besides, there is some degree of systematicity in the use of

this pattern. As stated in Cogo and Dewey (2012), ELF speakers tend to generalize an already existing pattern to other contexts. In this sense, the first pattern, ‘*discuss about*’, might be the extension of the ENL pattern ‘*have a discussion about*’. In 4 out of a total of 6 occurrences in the corpus, the verb ‘*discuss*’ combines with the preposition ‘*about*’. Therefore, as Cogo and Dewey (2012: 58) put forward, this can be interpreted as “an extension of the noun-preposition combination (*discussion about*) to the verb class”.

Another emerging pattern formed with ‘*about*’ in the corpus is ‘*difficulties about*’. In ENL varieties, the noun ‘*difficulty*’ takes either ‘*in*’ or ‘*with*’ depending on the context (i.e. ‘have difficulty **in** doing something’ or ‘have difficulties **with** something’). However, as can be seen in the following extracts, speakers tend to substitute ‘*about*’ for ‘*in*’ and ‘*with*’ respectively.

T6INT3 (R: Turkish)  
136 R: okay any **difficulties about** studying

T49INT27 (S71: Azerbaijan)  
72 communicate with peoples that's why i began to (2) to speak in turkish and now i  
73 haven't got any **difficulties about** it and (.) but a little bit **difficult was about** (.)

Resonating Cogo and Dewey (2012), besides the grammatical reasons there are also semantic reasons for ELF speakers’ tendency to extend the use of a preposition. That is, speakers tend to overgeneralize a preposition when the words have similar connotations. In this respect, since ‘*problems*’ and ‘*difficulties*’ denote the same thing, the use of ‘*about*’ in ‘*problems about*’ (although the standard form is ‘*have a problem with something*’, it is also very common to say ‘*have a problem about something*’) might have been extended as ‘*difficulties about*’, though in ENL the standard form would be ‘*difficulties in*’ or ‘*difficulties with*’.

There are also emerging patterns formed with other prepositions in the corpus. In the following extracts, the emerging patterns formed with ‘*with*’ are exemplified. As can be seen, ‘*with*’ is combined with ‘*different*’ (different with) and ‘*difference*’ (difference with) in contexts where the required ENL form would be ‘*different from*’ and ‘*difference in*’, respectively.

T5ME3 (S7: Czech)  
48 i think that er that daily life is not so (.) **different with** er the daily life in europe  
49 (1) of course you can find some (.) some things and er but er before i came here i



T29INT20 (S38: Dutch)

158 muslims here a:nd er (2) yeah it's for example the the boys the mens are (.) erm  
159 (1) are (.) how do you say they are **different with** each other they are kissing

T48INT26 (S70: Korean)

107 S70: no actually (1) it is case by case you know some: classes big some classes  
108 small (.) korean too so i i (.) i think it is not that big **difference with** this

T11INT8 (S14: Polish)

183 think the difference of: programs are made differently so the **difference with** the  
184 <@>attitudes towards psychoanalysis</@> i have also much more classes in

Consequently, as exemplified in the extracts taken from the corpus, the redundant use of prepositions is quite widespread as suggested in ELF literature. Besides, there is a general tendency among ELF speakers to omit the prepositions or substitute alternative ones in place of the standard forms. Finally, in line with the previous lexico-grammatical studies (Cogo & Dewey, 2012), there are also innovative preposition uses in Corpus IST-Erasmus as presented in the examples above.

#### 4.6. THE USE OF VERBS THAT DENOTE HIGH SEMANTIC GENERALITY IN CORPUS IST-ERASMUS

Another hypothesis that is put forward regarding the ELF communication is that there is a tendency to overuse certain verbs of high semantic generality, which are namely, 'do', 'have', 'make', 'put', and 'take' (Seidlhofer, 2004: 12). In order to see whether Corpus IST-Erasmus provides evidence for this hypothesis, an in-depth analysis of these verbs was performed.

**Table 4-15: Verbs that denote high semantic generality – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

Verb	Ranking	Frequency	%	Texts	%
<b>Have</b>	20	969	1.03	54	100
<b>Do</b>	32	639	0.68	54	100
<b>Get</b>	116	131	0.14	37	68.52
<b>Make</b>	177	78	0.08	31	57.41
<b>Take</b>	180	76	0.08	31	57.41
<b>Put</b>	699	10	0.01	6	11.11

Table 4-15 presents the total number of appearances of each verb in the corpus. Overall, the use of the verbs with high semantic generality in Corpus IST-Erasmus is in line with ELF literature. With the exception of 'put', the appearance of the verbs is quite high. Especially the occurrence of 'have' and 'do' is very frequent and also very universal (100%) in terms of their distribution. They appear in each 54 speech events. Additionally, 'get' is the 3<sup>rd</sup> most frequent verb, appearing in 37 out of 54 speech events.

The results are also in line with Dewey’s (2007a) ELF Corpus. The verbs appear in the same frequency order, though the frequencies differ in number, Corpus IST-Erasmus being slightly extensive.

**Table 4-16: Verbs with high semantic generality in Corpus IST-Erasmus & ELF Corpus**

Corpus IST-Erasmus			ELF Corpus (Dewey, 2007a)		
Word	Ranking	Frequency	Word	Ranking	Frequency
Have	20	969	Have	21	479
Do	32	639	Do	23	433
Get	116	131	Get	111	68
Make	177	78	Make	136	51
Take	180	76	Take	135	45

In both corpora, ‘have’, ‘do’, ‘get’, ‘make’, and ‘take’ are seen in the same frequency orders. In Dewey (2007a), the frequency of ‘put’ is not given; therefore, this verb is excluded from the comparisons. As can be seen, in addition to Seidlhofer’s (2004) initial hypothesis, ‘get’ also emerges among the most frequent verbs that have semantic generality in the corpora.

Comparing their corpus (the ELF Corpus A (Dewey, 2007a)), with BNCB (demographic component), Cogo and Dewey (2012: 70) state that the distribution of the five verbs with high semantic generality differ in ELF and ENL. In BNCB, the verbs ‘make’ and ‘take’ are reversed, which means that ‘take’ appears more frequently than ‘make’ in BNBC. In order to examine this, Corpus IST-Erasmus was compared with BNBC.

**Table 4-17: Verbs with high semantic generality in Corpus IST-Erasmus & BNCB**

Corpus IST-Erasmus				BNCB – Demographic Component			
Word	Ranking	Freq.	% of texts	Word	Ranking	Freq.	% of texts
<b>Have</b>	20	969	100	<b>Have</b>	19	7754	100
<b>Do</b>	32	639	100	<b>Do</b>	22	7240	100
<b>Get</b>	116	131	68.52	<b>Get</b>	24	4746	100
<b>Make</b>	177	78	57.41	<b>Take</b>	137	1150	100
<b>Take</b>	180	76	57.41	<b>Make</b>	164	857	96.67

(adapted from Cogo & Dewey, 2012: 71)

Unlike BNCB, in Corpus IST-Erasmus, there is no significant difference between ‘make’ and ‘take’ in terms of their order of frequency, though ‘make’ foregoes ‘take’. The former appears 78 times and ranks 177<sup>th</sup>, and the latter appears

76 times and ranks 180<sup>th</sup> in the corpus; however, both occurring in 57.41% of the texts.

As Cogo and Dewey (2012: 70) point out “...there is a substantial difference in the overall importance of the word *get*, which has a far higher frequency in the BNC data relative to the size of the corpus than it does in the ELF data”. In BNCEB, ‘*get*’ ranks 24<sup>th</sup>, whereas in ELF corpora it ranks relatively low, 111<sup>th</sup> in the ELF Corpus A (Dewey, 2007a) and 114<sup>th</sup> in Corpus IST-Erasmus.

The frequencies of the verbs that have high semantic generality are firstly given without the lemmatized forms of the verbs. A lemma is defined as a “set of lexical forms having the same stem and belonging to the same major word class, differing only in inflection and/or spelling” (Kucera, 1982:1, as cited in Baker, 2006: 55). When the lemmatized forms (e.g. *get*, *gets*, *getting*, *got*, *gotten*; *have*, *has*, *having*, *had*) are added, the total number of occurrences of the verbs that denote high semantic generality increases. Moreover, the rank order of ‘*make*’ and ‘*take*’ is reversed, though there is no significant difference in their frequencies.

**Table 4-18: Frequencies of the verbs that denote high semantic generality – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

Verbs	<b>Have</b>	<b>Do</b>	<b>Get</b>	<b>Make</b>	<b>Take</b>
Frequencies	have: 969	do: 639	get: 131	make: 78	take: 76
	has: 77	does: 47	gets: 6	makes: 31	takes: 5
	having: 12	doing: 47	getting: 15	making: 11	taking: 49
	had: 108	did: 40	got: 60	made: 21	took: 7
	-	done: 6	-	-	taken: 4
Total Frequencies	1166	779	212	142	141
Ranking in Corpus IST-Erasmus	15	24	81	107	110

As Cogo and Dewey (2012: 70) state, an innovative use of ELF reveals itself in collocations and fixed expressions formed with the verbs that have high semantic generality. The concordance analyses reveal that there are also instances of novel collocations and fixed structures formed with the verbs that have high semantic generality in Corpus IST-Erasmus.

To begin with, the concordance of ‘*have*, *has*, *having*, and *had*’ displays that the most common collocations and clusters formed with the verb ‘*have*’ in Corpus IST-Erasmus are similar to ENL forms. These are, respectively, ‘*have problem*’,

'have expectations', 'have time', 'have the feeling', 'have experience', 'have difficulty', and 'have contact'. Some examples from the collocation 'have the feeling', are provided below.

**Table 4-19: The concordance of 'have, has, having, had'–  
Corpus IST-Erasmus**

and yes even if it's not like that you <b>have the feeling</b> and yeah it can be a problem an ideal
i deactivated sometimes if i if i <b>have the feeling</b> this will be too much now as question
so more than half a year and erm i <b>have the feeling</b> that i can survive here without turkish
so in my case it's helping a lot but i <b>have the feeling</b> that the one that the relationships that it
i don't speak turkish but i always <b>have the feeling</b> that that people are fighting not fighting
had conversation the partner of now i <b>had the feeling</b> that he wa didn't say it directly but i
but i'm not mhm mhm so i always <b>had the feeling</b> yeah but i think they would say yeah oh
university is more like school i <b>have the feeling</b> like i'm sitting in a classroom with a lot
like this but in germany it's like i <b>have the feeling</b> that womans are woman are always
it's not like you know these people i <b>have this feeling</b> these people are all connected with

The use of 'have' as an auxiliary (e.g. it **has** been quite useful), and as a modal verb (e.g. we **have to** study) do also contribute to the frequency of the verb in the corpus. It ranks 1<sup>st</sup> among the verbs that have high semantic generality; however, the appearance of 'have' in novel collocations and fixed expressions is not as frequent as 'do', 'make', and 'take'. Yet, there are also innovative uses formed with 'have'.

*Collocations with 'have'*

T29INT20 (S38: Dutch)

80 S38: e:r my expectations (.) were a little bit different i thought (.) because (.)  
81 turkish people in holland they are more conservative (.) and they have @  
82 <@>yes</@> @ they **have (1) all headscarves** and they are (.) more

T50ME23 (S73: French)

95 (1) some people have friends from the states (.) no money every (.) month and (.)  
96 because the attendance is not obligatory they they can just **have the money** and

T54INT29 (S79: Czech)

79 <slow>really (1) l:ove going to this to this course</slow> (1) but other courses is  
80 because i **have this department** in in istanbul (.) is not the same like in my

In the first example 'have' collocates with 'head scarves', which is not very common in ENL. A native speaker of English would most probably prefer to use 'wear' instead of 'have', and say 'they all wear head scarves'. In line 96 'have' collocates with 'the money', which appears frequently in ENL, but not in such a context. It is more common to use 'get' in this sentence, as the speaker means that the students usually receive some money from their universities when they go for

Erasmus. Finally, as can be seen in line 80, there is a tendency to overgeneralize ‘have’ in contexts where it is not suitable.

The 2<sup>nd</sup> most frequent verb that has high semantic generality in the corpus is ‘do’. The use of ‘do’ as an auxiliary verb (*do, does, don’t, doesn’t*) and the use of emphatic ‘do’, constitute a great majority of the uses of ‘do’ in the corpus. The extract below contains samples of emphatic ‘do’.

**Table 4-20: The emphatic ‘do’– Corpus IST-Erasmus**

and culture because it's totally different than i do have in my own country like lithuania
so properly do you have brothers or sisters i do have brother he speaks english and that's
a friend list yeah sure since since i'm here i do have uhu sisters or brothers do you have no
of us trying to keep space because it's like we do have our private spaces like distance and
networks are here to stay because they they do help a lot like erm i think also good

Moreover, the most common collocations with ‘do’ show similarity with ENL forms as in ‘have’. These collocations, respectively, are as follows: ‘do this’, ‘do something’, ‘do exam’, and ‘do nothing’. The appearance of ‘do’ in novel collocations and fixed expressions; on the other hand, is more extensive than the other verbs. The novel collocations formed with ‘do’ are listed below.

*Collocations with ‘do’*

T7INT4 (S10: German)

- 26 no: other people who wants to go to istanbul so it was very easy for me (.) but  
 27 when there many other people who want to go and **do erasmus** you have to: er i

T9INT6 (S12: German)

- 148 S12: i'm rea- EXTREMELY happy and very much surprised by er the language  
 149 center especially that all the **instructions are done** in turkish (.) erm and (1) very

T51INT28 (S74: Polish)

- 114 the fact that he has this job in poland (.) when somebody's **doing tiring job** (.)  
 115 that he doesn't like at all he's: showing that for example (.) when you go to the

As can be seen one of the novel collocations formed with ‘do’ is ‘do Erasmus’. It is important to note here that the word ‘Erasmus’ does also collocate with ‘make’, with the same frequency (is explained in the description of the verb ‘make’). In line 149, the pattern ‘instructions are done’ is commonly expressed in ENL as ‘instructions are given’. Similarly, the overuse of ‘do’ can also be observed in line 114, where a native speaker would likely prefer to say ‘having a tiring job’ instead of ‘doing tiring job’.

When we look at the use of ‘*get*’ in collocations and fixed expressions, it is seen that ‘*get, gets, getting, and got*’ are frequently combined with the following words or phrases (given in order of frequency): ‘*get to know*’, ‘*get better*’, ‘*get used to*’, ‘*get information*’, ‘*I got it*’ and ‘*got married*’. The examples listed below are taken from the concordance of ‘*get, gets, getting, and got*’ when they collocate with ‘*to know*’.

**Table 4-21: The concordance of ‘*get, gets, getting, and got*’ – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

or yeah cultural erm first of all i wanted to <b>get to know</b> the university's everyday life but
the most of my or my biggest interest is to <b>get to know</b> the language so i think the turkish
know these kind of things because you just <b>get to know</b> what are the important things in
and i think it's a very good cultural topic to <b>get to know</b> the aesthetic and yeah cultural
it really depends on the professors and i <b>got to know</b> it like on a on a like very it was
than germans but i i don't know the people i <b>got to know</b> in in turkey or turkish people i
i was in argentina for one year and i <b>got to know</b> the language there yeah would
are erasmus and we are here for travelling <b>get to know</b> the culture et cetera et cetera so
social cultural erm i came to turkey to <b>get to know</b> the turkish culture on the
much yeah but for example maybe if you just <b>get to know</b> people and they invite you for
i got to know in in turkey or turkish people i <b>got to know</b> they are very they're very yeah

The concordance results indicate that the most frequent collocations formed with ‘*get*’ are also found very often in ENL. However, there are also some variations from the standard forms, though some of which appear to be idiosyncratic.

#### *Collocations with ‘get’*

T12INT9 (S15: German)

64 R: mhm okay what are the difficulties of living and studying in a foreign country  
 65 S15: <high pitched>er:m (1) **gets basically**<high pitched> **to communication** the  
 66 like (.) for me it all goes to down to languages so: (.) it's really annoying if you

T52ME24 (S75: Basque)

114 know like in a crisi:s money: now is not really abundant (.) we should **get care of**  
 115 about resources and don't waste (.) money=

141 S75: <7>yeah</7> (1) but what i'm telling you is to (.) **get out the exams** (.) to  
 142 make continuous evaluation by paper works essays (.) you know (.) to make (1)  
 143 teachers to evaluate you every week (.) not just one exam **get out the fucking**  
 144 **exams** (.) we don't need that

T39ME16 (S55: German)

139 S55: =<27>is</27> not the: (.) the way of (1) **getting friends** or to become a  
 140 friend <28>er this is</28> yeah

T7INT4 (S10: German)

74 is what very (.) this is very this needs so much time and (1) yeah just to: to: get  
 75 your to **get a fla:t** and to get the transportation to the country and everything

T53ME25 (S78: German)

155 S78: you know we are also getting old but erm (.) i forgot this (1) when you  
 156 when you **get sit** with a friend of groups (1) back in the days (.) you sit there and

T27INT18 (S36: Turkish/German)

39 S36: e:r no actually it's more like if there's place in the university you wanna go  
40 to (.) a:nd you **get write** a motivation letter (1) and they accept you (1) that's it i

In the examples provided above, 'get' is used in contexts where the standard ENL forms would be 'relate' (relates basically to communication), 'take' (take care of), 'forget about' (forget about the exams) or 'abolish' (abolish the exams) 'become' (becoming friends) or 'make' (making friends), and 'rent' (rent a flat). In lines 156 and 40, where 'get' is combined with another verb in the sentences ('get sit', 'get write'), the overuse of 'get' is more obvious. In fact, it seems that 'get' emerges as an emphatic structure in ELF interactions.

As for the use of 'make', the concordance analysis suggests that the most frequent collocations and clusters formed with 'make, makes, making, and made' in the corpus are 'make sense', 'make it', 'make me feel', 'make a lot of', 'made of', and 'make mistake(s)'. These collocations of 'make' are also very frequent in ENL. Samples from the most frequent combination, 'make + sense', are presented in Table 4-22.

**Table 4-22: The concordance of 'make + sense' – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

yes next to the slides so it <b>makes sense</b> but things like maths also i think no
i think er for language courses it <b>makes sense</b> to go because you can learn also
as you think yes so it was me <b>makes sense</b> to get a new picture of this country so
just learn everything by slides so it <b>makes sense</b> to go to i think it depends which
the informations in the slides so it <b>makes sense</b> for example i think er for language
now than i so i can i think you it's it <b>makes sense</b> to learn a language quite early and
next to what er professor saying it <b>makes sense</b> yes but everyone should know for
so it's doesn't make it doesn't <b>makes much sense</b> and we are losing our connections we
time mhm yeah but it doesn't make a lot of <b>sense</b> for them yeah of all the courses you

On the other hand, some of the collocations of 'make' in Corpus IST-Erasmus do not exist in ENL. For example, the combinations presented below are not typical and common in ENL. Instead of these combinations, an ENL speaker would most probably prefer to use 'do a sport', 'it takes a lot of time', 'did a good exam' or 'had a good exam', 'cause a problem', and 'gossip'.

#### **Collocations with 'make'**

T2INT1 (S3: Spanish)

158 it's (1) also er good to **make a sport** while you study is good and for example

247 earning lot of <@>money</@> then and e:r er i miss her @@ is **it makes a lot of**

248 time i (.) i don't see her (1) you know also my brother he is living in (.) in my

T52ME24 (S75: Basque)

47 they have about you then they give you (.) any score (.) not just because you  
48 **made a good** exam or bad exam

T36ME13 (S49: Dutch / Suriname)

118 usually i'm always happy (1) look i do i don't like to **make a problem** (.) or for  
119 small thing (.) i hate it

T53ME25 (S78: German)

127 S78: and then then was o:h a:h you play bowling cannot **make any gossip** or  
128 anything about that=

In lines 158 and 48, 'make' is being extended to cover the expressions that are usually combined with 'do' in ENL. On the other hand, there is another innovative collocation that is composed both with 'make' and 'do'. As can be seen in the following examples, 'Erasmus' is in collocation with either verb. This suggests that there is a certain degree of free variation between 'make' and 'do' in ELF. As Cogo and Dewey (2012: 72) state "the relative importance of the two words may become very different in ELF interactions than is currently the case in ENL".

**Table 4-23: The concordance of 'make + erasmus' – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

and the funny thing is he also <b>made erasmus in germany</b> at my university so he
don't know english but actually i <b>made erasmus not for</b> my academic career so i don't
a lot of people want to go erm want to <b>make erasmus here and</b> they don't have time to

**Table 4-24: The concordance of 'do + erasmus' – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

he go to the university i i will tell him <b>do erasmus because it's</b> a good thing and yeah
many other people who want to go and <b>do erasmus you have</b> to er i think you have to
do you have any greek friends here <b>doing erasmus erm well</b> there are not many greeks
erm well there are not many greeks <b>doing erasmus here and</b> in cerrahpasa there is no
right you are i've met like seven girls <b>doing erasmus or eight</b> and all of them are all of

Finally, with respect to the use of 'take', it is seen that the most common collocations and clusters formed with this verb in the corpus are also very frequent in ENL. The concordance of 'take, takes, taking, took, taken' shows that 'take course(s)', 'take care (of)', 'take long', 'take part (in)', and 'take classes', are among the most frequent collocations and clusters formed with these verbs. The following sentences display samples from the combination of 'take + care (of)'.

**Table 4-25: The concordance of 'take + care (of)' – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

and yeah but yeah you can see if that person is <b>taking care of itself</b> so yeah you can decide if you
true true the stuff i post i'm always always make <b>take care of that</b> that information i share and then
yeah pets but our lovely landlord really <b>took care of that</b> and he just put some kind of
to be what comfortable secure erm but i think <b>take care of yourself</b> yes take care of yourself but
secure erm but i think take care of yourself yes <b>take care of yourself</b> but i think that it's not for
cell phones er nobody gives er yeah nobody take <b>took care about how</b> many friends do you have in



However, there is also evidence of untypical, unique collocations of ‘take’, which are not usually found in ENL.

*Collocations with ‘take’*

T40INT24 (S56: French)

108 low like (1) e:r i don't want to: be: show off or like that but er i don't study so  
109 much because it's erasmus life (.) but i **took grade** like (.) ninety percent (.) but (.)

T44ME19 (S62: Bulgarian / Turkish)

164 R: any plans for future  
165 S62: for future first the first thing: to: (1) dip- (1) to **take diploma**

TIME1 (S1: Greek)

177 S1: the cat escaped we had a cat because we had one little mouse (.) so we  
178 decided to **take a cat** as a pet i: should explain that in order to er (2) get rid (.) of

T35ME12 (S46: German)

49 you are like sometimes in the bad mood and you (.) **take facebook** and then (.)  
50 you see just they're making party and because that's are the pictures you'd see on

T27INT18 (S36: Turkish / German)

163 S36: in turkey (1) they get (.) more arrogant and they look down in the students  
164 and they don't speak with you they don't **take even time** for you not even like (.)

For example, for the lines 109 and 165 presented above, the most common collocation in ENL would most probably be ‘have + grade’ and ‘get + diploma’ (or ‘receive + diploma’. Since the literal connotation of ‘take’ is ‘to obtain’, the speakers tend to prefer ‘take’ over ‘have’ and ‘get’ (or ‘receive’) respectively. But, these expressions are still comprehensible compared with the uses of ‘take’ in lines 49 and 164. The tendency to overuse ‘take’ is more evident in lines 49 and 164 where ENL speakers would most probably prefer to use ‘open’ and ‘have’ (or ‘give’) respectively.

#### **4.7. THE USE OF INFINITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN CORPUS IST-ERASMUS**

Another emerging pattern in ELF lexico-grammar is proposed to be the use of *that* as a replacement for infinitive constructions. As Seidlhofer (2004: 220) puts forward, ELF speakers replace “infinitive-constructions with *that*-clauses, as in *I want that*”. To investigate the use of infinitives to such end, the corpus has been thoroughly examined.

To begin with, there are various functions of *infinitives* (to + verb) in a sentence. They can function as a subject (e.g. *It would take months to travel to Mars.*), subject complement (e.g. *His dream was to sail around the world.*), noun

complement (e.g. *I don't understand the need to take a ten-minute break.*), adjective complement (e.g. *They were pleased to meet you.*), and direct object (e.g. *Paco hopes to see the play.*) (Frodesen & Eyring, 2000: 318).

When forming noun complements, *infinitives* can be a complement to abstract nouns. That is, they follow certain abstract nouns listed in Table 4-26.

**Table 4-26: Abstract nouns followed by infinitives in ENL**

advice	permission	request*
appeal	plan	requirement
command	preparation	suggestion*
instruction	proposal	tendency
motivation	recommendation*	decision
order	reminder	desire
opportunity	possibility	refusal
way	wish	need

\*These nouns may take either a that-clause or an infinitive as a complement.

(adapted from Frodesen & Eyring, 2000: 374)

In adjective complements, *the infinitives* follow certain adjectives listed in Table 4-27.

**Table 4-27: Adjectives followed by infinitives in ENL**

afraid	disappointed	pleased
amazed	eager	proud
anxious	eligible	ready
apt	(un)fit	reluctant
ashamed	fortunate	sad
bound	glad	shocked
careful	happy	sorry
certain	hesitant	sure
content	liable	surprised
delighted	likely	upset
determined		

(adapted from Frodesen & Eyring, 2000: 318)

The verbs that are followed by infinitives are listed in Tables 4-28 and 4-29, respectively.

**Table 4-28: Verbs followed by infinitives in ENL – List A**

The verbs in this list may also take gerunds if an actual, vivid or fulfilled action is intended. (Example: Julia hates being late.)			
<b>Verbs of Emotion</b>		<b>Verbs of Choice or Intention</b>	
care	loathe	agree	plan
desire	love	choose	prefer
hate	regret	decide	prepare
like	yearn	deserve	propose
		expect	refuse
		hope	want
		intend	wish
		need	

<b>Verbs of Initiation, Completion, and Incompletion</b>		<b>Verbs of Request and Their Responses</b>	
begin	manage	demand	swear
cease	neglect	offer	threaten
commence	start	promise	vow
fail	try		
get	undertake		
hesitate			
<b>Verbs of Mental Activity</b>		<b>Intransitive Verbs</b>	
forget	learn	appear	seem
know how	remember	happen	tend
<b>Other Verbs</b>			
afford (can't afford)	continue		
arrange	pretend		
claim	wait		

(adopted from Frodesen & Eyring, 2000: 456)

**Table 4-29: Verbs followed by infinitives in ENL – List B**

<b>List B</b>			
object + <i>to</i> + verb (Example: She reminded us to be quiet)			
<b>Verbs of Communication</b>		<b>Verbs of Instruction</b>	
advise	permit	encourage	teach
ask*	persuade	help	train
beg*	promise*	instruct	
challenge	remind		
command	require		
convince	tell		
forbid	warn		
invite	urge		
order			
<b>Other Verbs</b>		<b>Verbs of Causation</b>	
expect*	prepare*	allow	get
trust	want*	cause	hire
		force	
*Can follow pattern A also.			

(adopted from Frodesen & Eyring, 2000: 457)

In order to examine whether the tendency to replace infinitive use with ‘*that*’ as proposed by Seidlhofer (2004: 220) exists in Corpus IST-Erasmus, the concordance of ‘*that*’ is analyzed. The concordances of nouns, adjectives, and verbs that require infinitives in ENL are also examined to see whether infinitive constructions in ELF vary from the standard ENL norms.

The results indicate that ELF speakers in this study do not replace “infinitive-constructions with *that*-clauses.” Many contexts have emerged in the corpus,” which require infinitive structures; however, there are only three instances where *infinitive structures* are substituted by *that clauses*. These are presented in the following extracts.

T7INT4 (S10: German)

67 S10: yeah i thought like (.) **I EXPECTED that turkish people love** eating and that  
68 (.) becomes that came true so @@@@ <@>i love eating too very

69 <6>good</@> @@</6>

T4INT2 (S6: German)

58 (.) because for me it's (1) <fast>feels kind of strange going to a foreign  
59 country and</fast> (.) **expecting that everyone has to** (.) to speak english and  
60 for me it's kind of (1) being polite to (1) to at least (.) try some basic (.)  
61 conversation in the (.) languages er the country's language

T36ME13 (S49: Dutch/Surinamy)

177 S49: cos it actually rare because (.) we i think we ALL NEED it like that we  
178 **want that** someone to search for our limits

In T7INT4 line 67, the required structure is '*to expect somebody to do something*'. According to ENL norms, the verb '*expect*' in the sentence should be followed by an *infinitive* not a *that clause*. Similarly, in T4INT2 line 59, the standard ENL form would be '*expecting everyone to have to ...*'. Also, in the last extract line 178, '*want*' is followed by a *that clause*, where the standard ENL form would be '*want someone to search*'.

On the other hand, the use of '*that*' is very common in the corpus. It appears 988 times and ranks 19<sup>th</sup> in the wordlist. The most common collocates of '*that*', with their frequencies are presented in Table 4-30.

**Table 4-30: The most common collocates of that – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

Collocations	Frequencies
think that	100
like that	68
know that	43
not that	33
idea that	31
say that	27
about that	21

Additionally, as an example, a part of the concordance of '*that*' is given in Table 4-31. The concordance of '*that*' reveals that the substitution of '*that*' in place of infinitive structures is not an emerging pattern in Corpus IST-Erasmus. ELF speakers tend to supply the standard *infinitive forms* when required.

T7INT4 (S10: German)

60 S10: hm (.) erm (1) <slow>i didn't: have many expec- expectations</slow> (.)  
61 before coming to turkey? (.) i just thought it would be very different (.) but i  
62 don't know many turkish people i just know few peop- turkish people in my  
63 country? so it was like big **surprise to come** here (.) an:d (.) yeah

For example, in T7INT4 line 63, the adjective '*surprise*' should be followed by an *infinitive* to form an adjective complement. As can be seen, the ELF speaker uses the standard infinitive structure, '*to + verb*' (*to come*) after the adjective.

**Table 4-31: The concordance of ‘that’ – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

N	Concordance
196	with the job he has it's like he respects the <b>fact that</b> he has this job in poland when somebody's
197	the internet mhm mhm yes i agree with the <b>fact that</b> erm it helps er relationships with people
198	not my case hm i think it's and thanks to the <b>fact that</b> i'm not blond for example yeah can you talk
199	i don't have problems with it and the <b>fact that</b> i have certificate makes me su er make me
200	ready to go to school or not and if erm you <b>fail that</b> test you may start at the age of seven or if if
201	it could be language barrier mhm by i don't <b>feel that</b> it's a problem for me and also money
202	to korean culture i don't know that but i <b>feel that</b> that situation because wedding is so similar
203	know when you we when we go abroad we <b>feel that</b> we can't speak very well with other people
204	conversation the partner of now i had the <b>feeling that</b> he wa didn't say it directly but i felt that he
205	don't speak turkish but i always have the <b>feeling that</b> that people are fighting not fighting with you
206	more than half a year and erm i have the <b>feeling that</b> i can survive here without turkish and just
207	game because then you don't have to the <b>feeling that</b> you have to learn a language and that is it's
208	my case it's helping a lot but i have the <b>feeling that</b> the one that the relationships that it sort of
209	this but in germany it's like i have the <b>feeling that</b> womans are woman are always treated well
210	<b>feeling that</b> he wa didn't say it directly but i <b>felt that</b> he want to say yeah but you are still a
211	holding the the arm of another man you can't <b>find that</b> in spain in spain it's like more sexual thing
212	are real care about me and by the vote i <b>find that</b> so many people are follow me to secretly so
213	on the networking but with these votes i <b>find that</b> some people are real care about me and by
214	it's like more sexual thing and here you can <b>find that</b> er between er between er men they hold er
215	and for yourself so that is the perfect partner <b>for that</b> time but yeah i think that ideal partner should
216	advanced yes do they make a proficiency test <b>for that</b> no it's er like is depend of country mhm but
217	yeah that one is like the perfect one for you <b>for that</b> time too at that moment yeah yes and it gives
218	really interacting every in every culture and <b>for that</b> is easy for me new er know new people and
219	students mhm is there an average grade <b>for that</b> hm yes there is but i don't remember okay no
220	as an erasmus student what were the criteria <b>for that</b> no criteria erm the the toefl yeah toefl the
221	in the class and you give some you get marks <b>for that</b> so it's different it's like a school level it's
222	the speaking have weird accent but except <b>for that</b> i think it's normally fine what were your
223	be high okay what is the average grade <b>for that</b> it should be at least what there is there is no
224	i know it's a hard thing to say and i'm sorry <b>for that</b> but yeah they should really teach some new
225	it's a really good example yeah also don't <b>forget that</b> we are in istanbul also and you can see

Apart from the concordance of ‘that’, all the nouns, adjectives, and verbs that require *the infinitive* are scanned in order to make an in-depth analysis of the use of infinitives in the corpus. The abstract nouns which require infinitives in the corpus, with their frequencies, are ‘*advice (1), need (1), opportunity (4), possibility (5), and way (19)*’. Except for the noun ‘way’, ELF speakers use the standard infinitive forms as illustrated below.

T17INT11 (S23: Bulgarian)

174 S23: and (2) maybe one day when he's in university i'll give him the **advice to go**:  
175 (.) for erasmus one day when he (1) go to the university i I WILL TELL HIM do

T14ME4 S18: Czech

121 S18: <@></7>**and it's**</7> it's it's a bit frustrating when i'm apart from facebook i  
122 really feel **the need to read** it</@> and then i come: let's say after two days (.)

T24INT15 (S33: Arabic)

97 S33: we have the **opportunity to discover** ourselves and discover the others  
98 R: okay have you been to another country as an erasmus

T22ME8 (S30: Italian)

188 S30: <30>**and al- yes**</30> and also i mean is a grant (.) so:: maybe people that:  
189 don't have the **possibility to: go** to maybe language course or something like that

Variations from the standard ENL forms occur only after the noun ‘way’. For example, in 19 out of 76 occurrences, the noun ‘way’ requires an *infinitive structure*. In 10 out of 19 cases, the ELF speakers supply the standard infinitive form. In 2 cases; however, the infinitive structures vary from the standard form. Besides, in 7 cases, the noun ‘way’ is followed by an *ellipsis* rather than an *infinitive*. The following two examples, display the variations. As can be seen, in each case the infinitive ‘to’ is substituted by ‘of’.

T2INT1 (S3: Spanish)

76 S3: <fast>yeah yeah yeah</fast> <fast>no no i'm not satisfied i have to improve  
77 more</fast> study more because you know **the way of improve** er of me is  
78 speaking (.) and then i just i should study

T39ME16 (S55: German)

139 S55: =<27>is</27> not the: (.) **the way of (1) getting** friends or to become a  
140 friend <28>er this is</28> yeah

In T37ME14 line 124 below, speaker 51 uses an ellipsis while discussing the best ways to learn a foreign language.

T37ME14 (S51: Bulgarian)

120 S50: have do you have experience like this  
121 S51: e:r yes i have an experience in spai:n (.) because er my uncle is there so i  
122 spent couple of: summers there  
123 S50: mhm  
124 S51: and i think it's: **the best way**  
125 S50: it's same to me (.) for sure  
126 S51: i've also studied e:r spanish in school before (.) but it didn't help me: so  
127 much when i: got there: (.) e:r the result came (.) easier: and faster

The fuller form here would be ‘*and I think it’s the best way to learn a language*’. However, as Carter et al. (2000: 162) state:

In informal conversations complete sentences are not always used, especially if the meaning is already clear. For example, a speaker might say ‘Any chance of a lift?’ instead of ‘Is there any chance of a lift in your car?’ This process is known as ellipsis.

The ellipped forms are not less correct than the full forms, and thus cannot be counted as a deviant form. As Carter et al. (2000: 162) state: “the fuller forms are likely to be used in more formal contexts of English than in informal conversations”. As this corpus consists of informal speech, it is highly possible that most of the infinitive structures are ellipped.

The adjectives which require infinitive structures in the corpus, with their frequencies, are ‘*afraid (5), glad (1), happy (1), ready (3), and sure (1)*’. There is no

variation in the use of infinitives following the adjectives ‘*glad*’ and ‘*happy*’. However, variations are observed after ‘*afraid*’, ‘*ready*’, and ‘*sure*’.

T17INT11 (S23: Bulgarian)

53 weather so i thought what the hell <@>am i doing here</@> (.) it was so  
54 different (.) the the whole atmosphere was different (.) and that was (.) just once  
55 that (2) **ready for (1)** <@>**going back** home</@> @ it was such a big shock for

T30ME10 (S40: Dutch)

147 S40: i am not **sure know** if it is going to work but (1) we'll see i think (.) also the  
148 (1) er technical (1) improvements of internet and stuff (.) they can help

For example, in line 55 above, the speaker uses ‘*for*’ following the adjective, where the standard form would be ‘*ready to go back*’. Also, in line 147, *the infinitive* is totally replaced by another structure.

The use of infinitives after the verbs of emotion, ‘*like (13)*’ and ‘*love (2)*’; the verbs of request and their responses, ‘*offer (2)*’; and the intransitive verbs, ‘*seem (5)*’ and ‘*tend (2)*’ does not show variation from the standard forms. These verbs are followed by *the infinitive* when required.

T1ME1 (S2: Polish)

8 S2: well i **like to eat** but er (.) food is like something special in travelling in my  
9 opinion first of all you are doing summer okay for example in india you have

T41ME17 (S57: Dutch)

79 together because (1) before social networks you had to **wait to tell** (.) stuff  
80 because you couldn't communicate=

However, following the verbs of initiation, completion, and incompleteness; the verbs of mental activity; the verbs of choice or intention; the verbs of communication; the verbs of instruction; and the other verbs, variations are noted, though not for all. For example, ‘*begin (1)*, ‘*manage (2)*, ‘*try (51)*, ‘*forget (4)*, ‘*choose (4)*, ‘*expect (1)*, ‘*hope (5)*, ‘*plan (6)*, ‘*prepare (1)*, and ‘*refuse (1)*’ are followed by the standard *infinitive* forms when required. On the other hand, variations are observed following the verbs listed in Table 4-32.

**Table 4-32: The variations following the verbs that require infinitive – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

Verbs	Number of standard infinitive use	Number of variations in infinitive use	Number of contexts that require infinitive
start	19	1	20
learn	5	1	6
decide	6	1	7
need	21	2	23
prefer	5	1	6

want	189	36	225
help	5	2	7
forbid	-	1	1
expect	3	2	5

The variations following these verbs are mainly in the form of omission. ELF speakers tend to omit *to* in the infinitive constructions.

T22ME8 (S29: German)

141 S29: and they can never you know when you're sitting in the in the bus or  
142 something like this and in another country and (.) you you **want talk** about

T6INT3 (S9: Portuguese)

93 maybe (.) i think speaking is not so good but the other (.) vocabulary i think is er  
94 (.) i know some a lot of vocabulary but still (.) i **need improve**

Another tendency is to omit *the verb* that is required after *to* in the infinitive structures. In T38ME15 line 30 below, the required structure following '*help*' is 'object + *to* + verb'. However, the speaker omits the verb after *to*, where an ENL speaker might use a verb like '*strengthen*' as in 'it will help you to strengthen your relationships'.

T38ME15 (S53: Chinese)

29 hello to: a maybe your elementary school classmate or your junior high school  
30 classmate (.) and it will **help you to:** about your relationships an:d (.) and i also

As can be seen in Table 4-32, variations in the use of infinitives are most common following the verb '*want*'. The overall tendency after '*want*' is to omit '*to*'; however, there are also a few instances where *the verb* is omitted as in T9INT6.

T9INT6 (S12: German)

115 S12: erm well i first i **want to** erm (.) my my aim is to achieve b one level in  
116 turkish by the end of this (.) and then maybe work on my French

To sum up, although variations from standard ENL forms are observed in the use of infinitive structures, there are just three instances of *that* replacement for the infinitive forms in the corpus. Thus, unlike Seidlhofer (2004: 220), the replacement of *that* for the infinitive constructions is not an emerging pattern in Corpus IST-Erasmus.

#### 4.8. EXPLICITNESS IN ELF INTERACTIONS IN CORPUS IST-ERASMUS

Another characteristic of ELF communication is over-explicitness, e.g. "*black color* rather than just *black*" (Seidlhofer, 2004: 220). In order to investigate whether explicitness is also widespread in this corpus, the transcriptions are reviewed again.



Indeed, the results reveal that over-explicitness is an emerging pattern in spoken ELF discourse. ELF speakers in this study do also attempt to make the meaning more explicit in the speech events. As in Cogo and Dewey (2012: 110) the speakers are “exceptionally listener-oriented in talk”. The following extracts illustrate the over-explicitness observed in the interactions.

T8INT5 (S11: German)

156 S11: mhm (.) erm: i live in a: erm (.) flat share? a: little apartment i share it with  
 157 a (.) **turkish girl** and it's in nisantasi? (.) erm it's a nice area i like it but erm i  
 158 found it o:ver a friend because a fellow student went to istanbul in two thousand  
 159 and nine and she erm heard that i need a apartment and she told me  
 160 <imitating>yeah</imitating> i know (.) a nice girl and maybe she is searching  
 161 for a flatmate (.) and so: erm she have had a free room and then we erm wrote at  
 162 facebook and so we LIKED each other and she said <imitating>yeah you can  
 163 move</imitating> (.) into my flat and so we share this flat (.) and erm it's nice  
 164 living with her and it's so (.) good that she's a **turkish girl** and she can help me in  
 165 everything: and she: (.) she went to me with er to the mobile shops and things  
 166 like this so and we go out and she show me istanbul and (.) that's nice to live  
 167 <12>with her</12>

In this extract, an Erasmus student is talking about the process of finding a housemate. Although in 157, the student states that she shares the flat with a ‘*Turkish girl*’, in line 164 she uses the same expression again, though it would be appropriate to just say ‘it’s so good that she’s Turkish’. As can be understood, the speaker’s main concern is that her housemate is *Turkish*, not that she is a *girl*. Thus, the use of the word ‘*girl*’ following the word ‘*Turkish*’ shows the tendency for over-explicitness. Also, the use of ‘*meat*’ following ‘*pork*’ in line 41 in T16ME6, the use of ‘*school*’ preceding ‘*children*’ in line 2 in T17INT11, the use of ‘*language*’ following ‘*English*’ in line 39 in T19INT13, the use of ‘*country*’ following ‘*the other one*’ in line 36 in T37ME14, the use of ‘*language*’ following ‘*azerbaijani*’ in lines 171 and 175 in T49INT27, are just a few of the over-explicit forms attested in the corpus.

T16ME6 (S21: Italian)

39 S21: yeah i don't like **meat** here so much (.) because i like  
 40 S22: why  
 41 S21: i like you know **pork meat** so: you cannot find here <6>easily</6>  
 42 S22: <6>@@@</6>@@  
 43 S21: actually when i: came back italy for for a while i: come here again with  
 44 some (.) you know sausage real sausage @  
 45 S22: yes but <slow>this is er (.) for their re<7>ligion</7></slow>

T17INT11 (S23: Bulgarian)

1 R: interview eleven (1) okay at what age do **children** start in your school  
 2 S23: back in bulgaria er **children** our **school children** start school at seven six  
 3 or seven years it depends on which part of the year they are born some parents  
 4 prefer to send them erm: (.) a bit: late: than usual

T19INT13 (S25: German)

33 R: <4>mhm yeah i</4> understood so maths courses history they are all in  
34 german  
35 S25: yes  
36 R: <5>okay</5>  
37 S25: <5>every</5>thing is in german i think it should be offered to be in **english**  
38 (.) for knowing the parents decide okay maybe my children (.) should be learning  
39 the **english language**=  
40 R: =mhm=  
41 S25: =much more (1) so but (1) it depends on the school and then the education  
42 system

T37ME14 (S50: Lithuanian)

33 in the street where is: some place (.) m:aybe five people would stop and they will  
34 try to help you so (.) what i'm trying to say: tha:t (.) this is the most important  
35 thing for me when you're going to different country because you can see  
36 differences between your own **country** and **other one country** (.) so: it's nice i like

T49INT27 (S71: Azerbaijani)

169 S71: mhm (1) my (.) they are five (1) in my family father mother me (.) my sister  
170 and brother and i'm the (1) older than them and erm we are speaking in  
171 **azerbaijani language** but (1) sometimes i say to my mother to speak with me in  
172 russian because her russian is (1) like russian or russian yes that's why i don't  
173 want (.) to: have accent (1) and that's why i speak with her russian (.) or for (1)  
174 n:ot to be in accent (1) in my speaking russian but (1) exactly we speak in (.)  
175 **azerbaijani language** and (1) now i <@>miss them so much</@>

Besides this, there is another emerging pattern of explicitness in the corpus, which does not appear in ENL varieties. That is, ELF speakers tend to use an additional subject following a relative clause. As can be seen in lines 7 and 9 in T4INT2, and in line 16 in T12INT9, the relative clauses '*some children who are little bit slow at learning*', '*the students who are at the age of seven and five*', and '*people who study economics*' are followed by the subject pronoun '*they*', which is not permitted in ENL.

T4INT2 (S6: German, R: Turkish)

5 S6: but there are some cases for example i was (.) really <fast>interested in  
6 going to school so there are possibilities to go there</fast> with (.) at the age  
7 of five or (.) for **some children** <fast>**who are little bit slow at learning they**  
8 can also start at</fast> s:even but i think six is still the usual (.) age  
9 R: mhm but er **the students who are at the age of seven and five they** are not  
10 included in the same class  
11 S6: yes they are they are

T12INT9 (S15: German)

14 R: mhm (1) what are the criteria to be accepted to the erasmus program in your  
15 country  
16 S15: that differs a lot so **people who study economics they** have to really have  
17 to have good grades and then to apply to it formally but for me it was pretty easy

The same pattern is also observed in reduced relative clauses, as presented below. In line 126 in TINT9 and in line 67 in T21M37 respectively, '*some of the girls i met here*' and '*my neighbor in harbiye*' are followed by subject pronouns.

T12INT9 (S15: German)

125 S15: erm: yeah there are a few but less than i would expect so: erm (1) i think it  
126 really depends: so **some of the girls i met here they** stay at home all the time (.)

T21M37 (S27: German)

66 S27: =experience yeah (.) erm (1) ye:s i know then it's weird cos (.) **my neighbor**  
67 **in harbiye he** said that he always checks who likes his pictures and who doesn't

As can be seen, though not permitted in ENL varieties, ELF speakers combine relative clauses with subject pronouns for the sake of explicitness. Moreover, unlike ENL, there is high degree of explicitness in ELF interactions attained through the repetition of same words or phrases in subsequent clauses. For example, in line 288 in T18INT12, the speaker uses the word 'urology' in succeeding clauses, where an ENL speaker would most probably use the subject pronoun 'it'.

T7INT4 (S10: German)

145 S10: <15>hm</15> i sp- i: spea:k french? i had (.) i learned french in school (.)  
146 and i think i was quite good at it but i forgot a lot now and i also had **italian** but  
147 **italian** just a little bit not very good er of course now i learn turkish (.) and that's:

T18INT12 (S24: Greek)

209 S24: and: (.) also the (.) i know it's a poor **neighborhood** but i also like the  
210 **neighborhood** because (.) it's there's life in it and some power for example

287 S24: erm yeah as i told we take circles of internships let's say like er (.) i just  
288 for example i just finished my **urology** and i had the exam for **urology**=

T32INT22 (S42: Dutch)

103 R: mhm (.) of all the courses you are taking this term which one interest you the  
104 most (1) which course  
105 S42: erm: (.) i think **ecommerce** (1) because **ecommerce** is: (1) a course (.) that's  
106 really e:r (1) contemporary it's talks about nowadays issues (.) about the internet

T54INT29 (S79: Czech)

104 S79: yes: it's especially about religion (1) because for example here i'm (.) i  
105 really miss **the pork** (1) because (.) muslims people (.) not eating **the pork** and (1)  
106 and i'm now (1) three months before erm (.) three months erm (1) without **pork**

On the other hand, explicitness is also attained through the use of *fronting structures*. In fact, these structures are also widespread in ENL. As Carter et al. (2000: 159) put forward “[p]reposing or fronting identifies for a listener that a place, person, or event is important. It is common in spoken English in the form of heads, but some forms of fronting are also used in written English”. The following sentences illustrate the use of *heads* in ENL.

*John, he's nice.*

*The man from Leeds we met on holiday, his sister...*

*The results, they are interesting.*

*My friend, Janet, her sister has just emigrated to Brazil.*

*That leather coat, it looks really nice on you.*

(Cartel et al., 2000: 156,169)

However, as Cogo and Dewey (2012: 110) state “[t]he degree to which speakers in ELF put this to use, though, does appear to be a distinctive interactional feature”. The following extracts illustrate the same situation in Corpus IST-Erasmus.

T2INT1 (S3: Spanish)

159 about er **the secretary service of the universities** <@>my hometown</@>  
160 university **they** are working all all the days and the secretary you can ask

T3ME3 (S5: Polish)

162 good thing to do so (.) like **lot of my friends they they're** musicians they promote  
163 their music also through facebook so like i just you know through links for like

T7INT4 (S10: German)

202 OLDER? (.) **my brother he** studies physics and my sister becomes er (.) like  
203 kind- in the kinder- she works in the kindergarten (.) hm (1) so but they are (.)

T8INT5 (S11: German)

183 not english and erm (.) so: erm yeah we actually just speak in german (.) **my**  
184 **sister she** is: erm nineteen and right now she's living in new zealand (.) so she

T11INT8 (S14: Polish)

76 S14: =e:r only when i spoke with foreigners because **local people** don't **they** don't  
77 really knew english all that much

T14ME4 (S17: Italian)

166 S17: o:h i have got a two sisters (.) **the smaller one** erm **she's** seventeen years old  
167 and of course she use facebook a lot (.) for everything for for (.) er read about his

In each of these extracts, the *subjects* are followed by *subject pronouns*. For example, in line 184 in T8INT5, the subject pronoun ‘*she*’ is used subsequent to the subject, as in ‘*my sister she is: erm nineteen...*’. There are also several cases in the corpus where the reverse occurs; that is, *pronouns* are followed by *subjects*. As presented in the extracts below, in order to ensure comprehension, speakers use overt subjects, ‘*the topic*’, ‘*christians*’, ‘*Istanbul*’, ‘*little children*’, ‘*people*’, after the pronouns. It is obvious that speakers attempt to make the meaning more explicit for the listener.

T4INT2 (S6: German)

67 S6: er okay like here in turkey (.) er:m (.) with most of them <slow>i (.) do  
68 speak (.) english</slow> especially if **it** (.) **the topic** is about (.) erm (.) yeah  
69 <fast>related to courses because</fast> (.) my vocabulary (.) is not as

T6INT3 (S9: Portuguese)

114 here they are more religious than in spain and they are and then it's there is  
115 different there is muslim men and **the others christians** so maybe that's: (.) a  
116 different culture

T7INT4 (S10: German)

124 S10: hm: (.) <slow>first one it's SO: much more big</slow> **it's HUGE istanbul**  
125 **university** in my university we have like (.) i think we have f:ive thousand

T13INT10 (S16: German)

7 S16: yeah it changes in the primary school there's when i was in school it was  
8 only: german up to now **they little children** also have some english courses=

T51INT28 (S74: Polish)

73 S74: the biggest difficulty for us is the cultural difference (1) because (.) in here  
74 (1) women covers themselves (.) and in europe we don't so sometimes (1) **we:**  
75 **people** pay attention to us (.) even (.) though (.) we are not wearing for example

Furthermore, *repetitions* are also very frequent in the corpus. ELF speakers, as illustrated with the following extracts, tend to repeat their utterances either to make sure that the listener understands or to emphasize the arguments made in the discourse.

### *Repetitions*

T2INT1 (S3: Spanish)

150 don't like e:r <fast>i don't like too much from istanbul university that you don't  
151 have</fast> e:r (1) **too much space** for **too much space** for **practice sport** (1) for  
152 **practice sport** yeah (.) you know you don't ha:ve a football fie:ld you don't have  
153 the **spa:ce** you don't have <fast>**too much space** for **practice sport** that i think is  
154 important also for the students</fast> and for example in my hometown

T23ME9 (S31: Polish)

72 S31: <loud><3>children</3></loud> yes and (.) **national** (.) **national holiday** and  
73 they are children and we think hm: like in poland (1) it could be (.) like if there is  
74 **national holiday** (.) about (.) it was about making the (.) **national holiday** is like  
75 **national holiday** (.) it's really pathetic

T24INT15 (S33: Arabic)

89 S33: yes is it the first time (.) i: i chosed also turkey because (.) i knew that there  
90 was good weather @@ <@>so it's really good</@> to live in turkey (1) as today  
91 is a really good day (.) and: (1) i also wanted (.) to: to discover this (1) cultural  
92 **turkish culture** (1) **turkish culture**

Finally, as in Cogo and Dewey (2012: 110), “emphatic reference through frequent use of phrases” is also observed in Corpus IST-Erasmus. In particular, the extensive use of ‘*right now*’ is salient, as presented in Table 4-33.

Consequently, in line with the previous studies (Dewey, 2007a; Cogo & Dewey, 2012), the tendency for over-explicitness is an emerging pattern in Corpus IST-Erasmus. The use of over-explicit forms, e.g. ‘*pork meat*’; the use of additional subjects in relative clauses, e.g. ‘*people who study economics they*’; the high degree of explicitness attained through repetitions, e.g. ‘*i think ecommerce because ecommerce is*’; the use of fronting structures, e.g. ‘*my brother he studies*’; and repetitions are the primary means for ensuring explicitness in the corpus.

**Table 4-33: The concordance of ‘right now’ – Corpus IST-Erasmus**

N	Concordance
130	or not hm that's fine just enjoy yourself yeah <b>right now</b> and we'll you will see yeah are we done no almost
131	a child it was fourth class at primary school right <b>right now</b> it's first class of primary school what are the
132	up the the relationship with friends i mean we're <b>right now</b> in turkey and i'm from france and it's really useful
133	already graduated and the one that we're living <b>right now</b> with is also graduated and working and he was he
134	it was a flat apartment then we moved to sisli and <b>right now</b> we are living close to istiklal caddesi we all this
135	that's not our thing right now it's just we have fun <b>right now</b> we'll see what will happen when i'm going back
136	dig into spanish which becomes quite quite popular <b>right now</b> and i think in the future it will be chinese and
137	him as well so that's not yeah that's not our thing <b>right now</b> it's just we have fun right now we'll see what will
138	were too much different but i don't know because <b>right now</b> i have a turkish boyfriend and when i'm going back
139	was a child we were starting school at seven mhm <b>right now</b> it has changed and the children start going to school
140	they think yeah mhm that was good at all mhm my <b>right now</b> is different also what do you think the daily life you
141	there is one other things to do and but okay and <b>right now</b> the system is easy now i am agree i am agree what
142	beneficial to to your education you are following <b>right now</b> hm you have to proof it prove yeah you have to
143	a lot of time and it's not really something i can do <b>right now</b> so maybe at one point but it's not like i really really
144	at one point but it's not like i really really need it <b>right now</b> yeah yeah your writing skills i think they're okay
145	speak in german my sister she is erm nineteen and <b>right now</b> she's living in new zealand so she can speak english
146	what age do children start school in your country <b>right now</b> there is er reform of education and this is some of
147	but from what i've heard sometime ago for example <b>right now</b> er english is not even the er most used er language
148	turkey mhm and er since i'm writing my thesis <b>right now</b> and my thesis is about er the events of september
149	is much higher than hers and at here university <b>right now</b> they have worry about english teacher from what
150	age do children start school in your country erm <b>right now</b> they're about five years old and six months so this
151	that is one of the most interesting courses i follow <b>right now</b> mhm have you seen any differences between your

## CHAPTER V: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the discussion of the findings, the pedagogical implications of the study, and suggestions for further ELF research.

### 5.1. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

This corpus-based study was intended to examine the lexico-grammatical features of spoken ELF interactions. The primary focus of the study was to investigate the lexico-grammatical units that have been outlined in ELF literature (Seidlhofer, 2004: 220; Cogo and Dewey, 2012: 48), namely:

- ‘Dropping’ the third person present tense –s
- ‘Confusing’ the relative pronouns *who* and *which*
- ‘Omitting’ definite and indefinite articles where they are obligatory in ENL, and inserting them where they do not occur in ENL
- ‘Failing’ to use correct forms in tag questions (e.g., *isn’t it?* or *no?* instead of *shouldn’t they?*)
- Inserting ‘redundant’ prepositions, as in *We have to study about ...*
- ‘Overusing’ certain verbs of high semantic generality, such as *do*, *have*, *make*, *put*, *take*
- ‘Replacing’ infinitive-constructions with *that*-clauses, as in *I want that*
- ‘Overdoing’ explicitness (e.g. *black color* rather than just *black*)

The following section will summarize the answers the research yielded to the previously formed questions and interpret the findings in light of the relevant ELF literature. There are eight sub-sections, each representing the research questions of the study.

*Research Question 1:*

*Does English as a lingua franca reveal any variations from standard ENL forms with respect to the use of 3<sup>rd</sup> person present tense -s?*

The findings of this study suggest that zero marking for 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular present tense verbs is an emerging pattern in spoken ELF discourse as proposed in the previous studies (Seidlhofer, 2004; Dewey, 2007a; Breiteneder, 2009; Cogo and Dewey, 2012). According to the results, the number of contexts which require 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular verb marking in the corpus is 728 in total. While the occurrence of the 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s marking in these contexts is 583, the occurrence of the 3<sup>rd</sup> person zero marking is 145. In other words, 80% of the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular verb forms are inflectionally marked, and 20% of them are unmarked. Besides this, the 3<sup>rd</sup> person –s usually appears in prefabricated chunks, repetitions, and predetermined linguistic contexts, indicating that the speakers' use of 3<sup>rd</sup> person –s marking is more often the result of using an already given, marked grammatical item. On the other hand, the speakers tend to use the unmarked forms in contexts that are unique. Also, they tend to overgeneralize the 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s in non-obligatory contexts. Finally, it is also important to note that the omission of 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s marking in required contexts does not affect the intelligibility in interactions among ELF speakers as there seemed to be no evidence of communication gaps.

The tendency to drop the 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s marking might be interpreted with the markedness theory in second language acquisition. As Ellis (1997: 70) puts forward markedness refers to “the general idea that some structures are more ‘natural’ or ‘basic’ than other structures. In typological linguistics, unmarked structures are those that are common in the world’s languages”. For instance, as stated in Gass and Selinker (2008: 179):

If we consider words denoting professions, avocations, or societal roles, we see that male terms are the basic ones (e.g., *actor, poet, host, hero*), whereas the female counterparts have suffixes added on to the male term (*actress, poetess, hostess, heroine*). The male term is taken to be the basic one (unmarked) and the female term is the marked derivative.

As Ellis (1997: 70) puts forward “learners acquire less marked structures before more marked ones”. The unmarked units are easier for second language learners to acquire. Also, as Gass and Selinker (2008: 180) state for a second language learner whose NL structure is more marked than the TL structure, the



acquisition will be easier compared to a learner whose NL structure is less marked. In terms of markedness, the 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s is the morphologically marked form, and the 3<sup>rd</sup> person zero is the unmarked form. Thus, the tendency among ELF speakers to drop the 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s might result from its marked nature. It is, however, not possible to make generalizations just on the basis of markedness. The marking system for 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular verbs in ELF interactions can be influenced by other factors. As any standard English focused teaching prescribes the 3<sup>rd</sup> person –s marking as a rule, whose absence (in the learners’ minds) does not necessarily cause a lapse in meaning, the learners’ discovery of this may lead to a casual use where meaning making is not based on grammatical form.

*Research Question 2:*

*Does English as a lingua franca reveal any variations from standard ENL forms with respect to the use of relative pronouns ‘who’ and ‘which’?*

The findings indicate that there are indeed variations from standard ENL forms in ELF interactions with respect to the use of *who* and *which*. In line with Seidlhofer (2004: 220), “[c]onfusing the relative pronouns *who* and *which*”, appears to be an emerging pattern in Corpus IST-Erasmus. First of all, there is an extension in the use of *which* to contexts requiring *who* or *that*. In fact, unlike ENL, *which* appears more common than *who* in Corpus IST-Erasmus, as in Cogo and Dewey (2012: 73). The extension of *which* usually appears in contexts where the reference is made to a human, and where there is no need to distinguish the referent as having special properties. Besides, even when it is possible to delete *which* according to the ENL norms, it is overtly used. On the other hand, although the syntactic structure of the relative clauses that appear in the corpus conforms to the standard ENL norms, there are variations in the type of the relative pronouns used in the required contexts. It seems that it is more important for the ELF speakers to specify the referent using a relative clause than to attend to use the standard pronoun, either *who*, *which*, *that*, or *zero*, in obligatory contexts. However, as Cogo and Dewey (2012: 80) put forward the interpretation that “in ELF ‘anything goes’ lexicogrammatically” is not plausible. In order to understand whether the variations in the use of *who* and *which* are systematic, the corpus should be as representative as possible of the relative clauses. Since this is a small scale corpus study, the number of relative clauses is not

sufficient to investigate the systematicity in the variations. Evidence for systematicity could be extracted from bigger size corpora studies. In particular, corpora based on written ELF interactions would serve better in understanding the complex nature of relative clauses. Finally, it is also important to remark that, as in the case of 3<sup>rd</sup> person -s, variations from the standard ENL norm in the use of the relative pronouns do not affect the intelligibility in ELF communication.

*Research Question 3:*

*Does English as a lingua franca reveal any variations from standard ENL forms with respect to the use of definite and indefinite articles?*

The findings of this study suggest that there are variations from standard ENL forms not only in the use of *definite* and *indefinite* articles, but also in the use of *zero* articles. Among these, however, the most common variation occurs in the use of the indefinite article ‘*an*’. Although three variant patterns emerge, ‘*a, the, Ø*’, ELF speakers usually substitute either ‘*a*’ or ‘*Ø*’ for ‘*an*’. On the other hand, in the contexts which require the indefinite article ‘*a*’, five variant forms emerge: ‘*an, the, Ø, one, some*’. The general tendency, however, is to substitute ‘*Ø*’ for ‘*a*’. Furthermore, in the contexts which require the definite article ‘*the*’, two variant patterns emerge: ‘*a, Ø*’. However, the rate of ‘*Ø*’ substitution for ‘*the*’ is much more significant. Finally, variations are also observed in ‘*Ø*’ contexts. Although three variant forms emerge, ‘*a, an, the*’, the most common tendency is to use ‘*the*’ in place of ‘*Ø*’. Besides, it is also common to substitute ‘*a*’ for ‘*Ø*’.

To sum up, in line with Cogo and Dewey (2012: 61), when ELF speakers in Corpus IST-Erasmus deviate from the standard ENL forms in the use of definite and indefinite articles, they usually prefer to omit the article. However, as Cogo and Dewey (2012: 61) state, “indefinite and definite articles tend to be no less significant in lingua franca spoken discourse than in ENL”. That is, the appearance frequency of the articles is quite similar in ENL and ELF corpora. Thus, as Cogo and Dewey (2012: 62) put forward, “it is not the case that the indefinite and definite article is used less in ELF, but that the article system is being employed differently”.

*Research Question 4:*

*Does English as a lingua franca reveal any variations from standard ENL forms with respect to the use of tag questions?*

The findings indicate that the occurrence of *tag questions* in Corpus IST-Erasmus is quite rare. While contexts that required the use of tag questions, e.g. *epistemic modal, challenging, facilitative, and softening tag questions*, emerged in the corpus, ELF speakers preferred not to use them. Besides, at times when they did, instead of overt tag questions, they preferred to use ‘no’, ‘or’, ‘rising intonation’, and ‘right’. Consequently, as the frequency of the *tag questions* is very limited in Corpus IST-Erasmus, so is what can be stated regarding whether or not there are any variations from standard ENL forms with respect to the use of tag questions. On the other hand, in order to examine whether the omission of tag questions is typical of spoken ELF interactions, further corpus studies should be conducted.

*Research Question 5:*

*Does English as a lingua franca reveal any variations from standard ENL forms with respect to the use of prepositions?*

The findings reveal that, in line with the ELF literature, there are variations from standard ENL forms with respect to the use of *prepositions* in Corpus IST-Erasmus. Although the most commonly used prepositions, e.g. ‘to, of, in, at, on,...’, are the same in ENL and ELF corpora, there are variations in the way these prepositions are used in ELF. First of all, as proposed by Seidlhofer (2004: 220) and Cogo and Dewey (2012: 48), “[i]nserting ‘redundant’ prepositions, as in *We have to study about ...*” is also an emerging pattern in Corpus IST-Erasmus. For example, in the sentences “*it's good to: it's sympathetic to ask to the person who walks in the...*” and “*other friend misunderstood (.) misunderstand about her or him...*”, the prepositions ‘to’ and ‘about’ are used redundantly. As Cogo and Dewey (2012: 56) suggest, the redundant uses of prepositions can be explained by the extension of an already existing grammatical unit. For example, the use of ‘to’ in the grammatical structure: ‘ask + to + infinitive + somebody’ (*I would ask to play with her*), is extended as “*if they want to know something i ask to a person...*”. Furthermore, there are also semantic reasons for the redundant uses of the prepositions. ELF speakers tend to extend the use of a preposition in a standard ENL pattern to another

pattern when the words used in these two patterns have similar connotations. For instance, *'problems'* and *'difficulties'* have similar connotations. Therefore, ELF speakers tend to extend the use of *'about'* in *'problems about'* as *'difficulties about'*.

Besides inserting redundant prepositions, ELF speakers also tend to omit the prepositions in obligatory contexts, as in "*listen native turkish speakers*". Moreover, they substitute the standard prepositions in given contexts by other prepositions. For instance, in the sentence "*just e:r (I) responding on some: (.) i don't know of (I) advertisement*", *'to'* is substituted by *'on'*. Finally, in line with Cogo and Dewey (2012: 57), the innovative preposition uses is also widespread in Corpus IST-Erasmus. *'Discuss about'*, *'difficulties about'*, *'different with'*, *'difference with'*, *'interested to'* are among the most salient ones.

*Research Question 6:*

*Does English as a lingua franca reveal any variations from standard ENL forms with respect to the use of verbs that denote high semantic generality?*

The findings indicate that there are variations from standard ENL forms in the use of the verbs that denote high semantic generality. In line with Seidlhofer (2004: 220) "[o]verusing certain verbs of high semantic generality, such as *do, have, make, put, take*" is very typical of the ELF interactions in Corpus IST-Erasmus. The most common verbs which denote high semantic generality in the corpus are, respectively, *'have'*, *'do'*, *'get'*, *'make'*, *'take'*, and *'put'*. ELF speakers tend to overuse these verbs and construct novel collocations that do not exist in ENL. The use of *'do'* in *'instructions are done in turkish'*, and *'i even did a spanish course at university'*; the use of *'get'* in *'when you get sit with a friend of groups'*, and *'the way of getting friends'*; the use of *'make'* in *'also er good to make a sport'* and *'cannot make any gossip'* are just a few examples of the overuse of the verbs in the corpus. It is also interesting that the novel collocations formed with these verbs do not result in miscommunication or misinterpretation in the ELF interactions.

*Research Question 7:*

*Does English as a lingua franca reveal any variations from standard ENL forms with respect to the use of infinitive constructions?*

The findings of this study suggest that “[r]eplacing infinitive-constructions with *that*-clauses”, as Seidlhofer (2012: 220) puts forward, does not appear to be an emerging pattern in Corpus IST-Erasmus. Although the occurrence of the contexts that require infinitive constructions is widespread in the corpus, there are only three cases where the infinitive structures are replaced by *that*. There are, however, variations from the standard ENL forms with respect to the use of *infinitives*. The variations are observed not only after the *nouns* but also after the *adjectives* and *verbs* that require infinitives. Firstly, the omission of *to* in the infinitive constructions, particularly after the verbs, seems to be an emerging pattern (e.g. ‘you *want talk* about ...’, and ‘but still i *need improve* ...’). Besides, there is tendency to omit the verb that comes after *to* in the infinitive structures (e.g. ‘i first i *want to* erm my my aim is ...’ and ‘it will *help you to:* about your relationships ...’). Finally, the variations observed after nouns and adjectives, on the other hand, are usually in the form of *substitution*. That is, *to* is usually replaced by *of* or *for* in the infinitive constructions, as in ‘because you know the *way of* improve er ...’, and ‘*ready for* going back home ...’.

*Research Question 8:*

*Does English as a lingua franca reveal any variations from standard ENL forms with respect to the degree of explicitness?*

The findings of this ELF corpus suggest that there are variations from standard ENL forms with respect to the degree of explicitness in the interactions. As proposed by Seidlhofer (2012: 220) “[o]verdoing explicitness (e.g. *black color* rather than just *black*) is typical of spoken ELF interactions. First of all, ELF speakers tend to make the meaning more explicit for the listeners. They repeat the same expressions in subsequent sentences, as in “i share it with a *turkish girl* ... it's so good that she's a *turkish girl* ...”. Besides, as suggested in ELF literature, they use over-explicit forms, such as ‘*pork meat*’ rather than just ‘*pork*’. Moreover, unlike ENL, there is a tendency in ELF interactions to add an extra subject following a relative clause, e.g. “people who study economics *they* have to ...”. Furthermore, the

use of fronting structures, which also appear in ENL, is widespread in the corpus, e.g. “*my brother he studies physics ...*”. Finally, explicitness is also attained through repetitions, as in “too much space for too much space for practice sport for practice sport yeah ...”, and through emphatic reference, e.g. ‘*right now*’.

## 5.2. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

In light of this study and previous corpus studies in ELF, it is considered important to examine the current practices in English language teaching and suggest pedagogical implications for teaching and learning English as an international language. First of all, as discussed in the previous section, the findings of this study mostly support the previous studies in ELF lexico-grammar. Besides, it reveals some novel characteristics of ELF lexico-grammar.

The international use of English as result of an unprecedented spread is becoming particularly common among nonnative speakers (Crystal, 1997; Graddol, 1997). In line with the previous corpus studies, this corpus study, which comprises of nonnative speakers’ spoken interactions, reveals that there are variations in the form and use of English as a lingua franca. Following other phonological, pragmatic variations, these lexico-grammatical variations, suggest serious changes first in the teaching of English and second in English Language Teacher Education. The findings of these studies pose possible avenues of change in the teacher training programs around the world. Courses focusing on ELF and World Englishes and their integration into English language pedagogy could be considered as imperative so that prospective and in-service English teachers will be aware of the characteristics of ELF interactions, know how English as an international language is actually used and use these contexts in their teaching. Thereby, they can better address the needs of their learners who learn English for international communication and will use it mostly with nonnative speakers. As Seidlhofer (2004: 227) puts forward:

While in a traditional foreign language teaching framework it has been possible to rely on fairly clear and stable norms and goals, these certainties have been called into question by the recognition of the global lingua franca role English has to serve.

The findings of empirical studies, on the other hand, cannot or should not always prescribe what is to be taught. But, it is necessary that language pedagogy “refer to, but not defer to, linguistic descriptions (Seidlhofer, 2004: 225). However,

the majority of the current practices in ELT still insists on teaching mainly the standard varieties of English and has limited incorporation of ELF to ELT curriculum. Although there is a continuous increase in the use of ELF around the world, the teaching approaches, materials, and the assessment is still ENL-oriented. Native speakers are seen as the norm providers, while ELF speakers' present or future communication contexts are disregarded (Jenkins, 2012: 487). As Seidlhofer (2011: 172) puts forward "in the present globalized world, it is inappropriate to insist that standard ENL should enjoy privileged status as an international means of communication". With the increase in the number of empirical ELF studies, it has and will become more possible "to move from programmatic statements to realizations in teaching practice" (Seidlhofer, 2004: 225).

Besides identifying the emerging patterns observed in ELF interactions, it is also important to reveal how these variant forms operate and are strategically employed in communication. It would be pedagogically meaningless to prescribe the ELF patterns without describing their functions, as form has followed function in the context of ELF. An appropriate ELF pedagogy would be one that reflects the learners' reality and focuses on the learning process. Besides, the criterion for selecting which English to be taught should be based on the assessment of whether the language suits the local context rather than the assessment of its appropriacy according to the ENL norms (Seidlhofer, 2011: 198-199).

McKay (2002, 2010) is one of the scholars who suggest theories for teaching English as an international language (which McKay uses in place of ELF). Towards a socially sensitive EIL pedagogy she suggests the following principles:

- Foreign- and second-language curricula should be relevant to the local linguistic ecology
  - EIL professionals should strive to alter language policies that serve to promote English learning only among the elite of the country
  - EIL curricula should include examples of the diversity of English varieties used today
  - EIL curricula need to exemplify L2-L2 interactions
  - Full recognition needs to be given to the other languages spoken by English speakers
  - EIL should be taught in a way that respects the local culture of learning
- (McKay, 2010: 111-113)

The majority of the ELF communications involve non-native speakers who interact with other non-natives. Thus, English language pedagogy should primarily

address the needs and aspirations of non-native speakers (Graddol, 2006: 87). The curricula should include plenty of authentic NNS-NNS interactions. Thereby learners will realize that English is a means of communication not only with speakers from the Inner Circle but also from diverse geographical and cultural boundaries (McKay, 2010: 112). The use of ELF interactions in ELT materials might also allow us “to project more pedagogically realistic and sociolinguistically relevant goals for ELT” (Matsumoto, 2011: 110). At present, although there are settings that combine the local with the global needs and aim to produce their own language teaching materials to cater to those needs, it seems likely that these are few in number. Specifically, when one investigates the coursebooks with EIL claims, one sees that those claims are only partially fulfilled (Solhi, 2014).

The social and educational settings in which English is taught and learned have become heterogeneous as a result of globalization, migration, and spread of English. Therefore, while designing an EIL-oriented pedagogy, it is also important to consider the diverse social contexts (McKay, 2010: 113). As Seidlhofer (2011: 175) puts forward “[w]hat decisions teachers will make for particular learners with their particular needs will always be a local matter that a general book about ELF cannot (or rather, should not) address”. Besides, an ideal EIL pedagogy should encourage bilingualism, acknowledge new Englishes, and address the needs and language learning habits of the local context (McKay, 2010: 113). In a similar vein, an ideal ELF speaker, as Graddol (2006: 87) puts forward “is not a native speaker but a fluent bilingual speaker, who retains a national identity in terms of accent, and who also has the special skills required to negotiate understanding with another non-native speaker”.

Seidlhofer (2011: 197-198) also proposes principles of an ELF-oriented English language pedagogy. She states that conformity to the ENL norms is not indispensable for communication in ELF interactions. Those NNSs who are seen as ‘failed’ learners according to the ENL norms can achieve communicative competence and use English effectively. Thus, there are two ways: One way is to insist on teaching a competence that learners do not require for communication and that they can hardly achieve. The other way is to set more realistic and attainable objectives that meet the needs of language users. The first option means to maintain



the ENL-oriented pedagogy which expects all speakers of English to attain native-speaker competence. However, “this is in effect a pedagogy predicated on failure, with vast numbers of people who put their learning to use in ELF stigmatized as incompetent and relegated to the limbo of interlanguage” (p. 97). The second option, on the other hand, would be to abandon the ENL-oriented pedagogy and adopt a pedagogy that prioritizes the effective use of the language. The objective should be to enhance learners’ communication skills. The language forms L2 speakers use should be assessed with respect to their functional effectiveness rather than their correspondence to the ENL norms. Learners should be able to use strategies for successful communication (Seidlhofer, 2011: 197-198).

Moreover, Sifakis (2007) suggests that teachers of English should “become immersed in ELF, become fully aware of its primary and secondary features, and actively reflect on the issues that emerge by relating them to their own experiences, beliefs and teaching contexts” (p.370). To this end, he suggests a framework for the education of ELF teachers. The purpose of this framework is to transform ELF teachers’ views and attitudes towards ELF by raising their consciousness of the nature of ELF, and the challenges in ELF pedagogy. The framework is adapted from Mezirow’s (1978, as cited in Sifakis, 2007: 361) transformative adult learning model, and is grounded in five-phases: preparation, identifying the primary issues of ELF discourse, raising awareness of secondary issues in ELF discourse, ELF and pedagogy, and formulating an ELF action plan.

On the other hand, Elder and Davies (2006) who have taken interest in the ways of assessing ELF put forward two different models. Their first model is similar to the TOELF and IELTS tests which assess English as a foreign language based on Standard English. However, unlike these international tests, this model allows test accommodations in the test delivery system so as to make it more convenient and fair for the users of ELF. To give an example for test accommodations “...c) Use interlocutors (either examiners or other candidates) who are expert NNS/ELF users and therefore have experience in ELF contexts and know how to adjust their speech in ways familiar to test takers...” (p. 289). On the other hand, in their second model ELF is seen as a single code in its own right and its assessment is based on strategic competence rather than linguistic accuracy. Elder and Davies (2006) emphasize that

ELF oriented assessment would reveal the genuine representations of target language use domains and will reduce the anxiety felt by ELF users who have to adhere to the rules of Standard English. On the other hand, they state that ELF oriented tests would also have a washback effect on teaching since the syllabus would be designed according to the ELF speakers' communicative needs, rather than to the native speaker norms. However, they also emphasize avoiding the quick assessments of ELF until it has been fully described.

Finally, although ELF scholars suggest principles for an ELF-aware pedagogy, they also stress the fact that their role is not "to tell teachers what to do, but that it is for ELT practitioners to decide whether/to what extent ELF is relevant to their learners in their context". Besides, ELF researchers strongly prioritise learners' choice in deciding which English to learn. However, prior to this it is significant to raise the learners' awareness of the sociolinguistic factors employed in the worldwide spread of English (Jenkins, 2012: 492).

### **5.3. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

In order to investigate the use of a specific grammatical unit, contexts adequate in number and content should emerge in the corpus. For instance, as stated previously, the appearance of tag questions in Corpus IST-Erasmus is too limited to reveal the characteristics of tags in ELF interactions and to understand whether there are any variations from standard ENL forms or not. Therefore, future corpus studies should be extensive enough to generate a wide range of contexts for the use of tag questions.

On the other hand, this corpus study is based solely on spoken ELF interactions. Thus, in order to be able to make generalizations regarding the key aspects of ELF lexico-grammar, corpus studies based on written interactions and digital media should also be conducted. Also, in this way comparisons can be made between the spoken and written ELF interactions. Furthermore, in future corpus studies, apart from the lexico-grammatical structures examined in this study, other lexico-grammatical units, such as *tenses*, *modals*, *passives*, *if-constructions*, should also be investigated. Finally, more empirical studies are needed to fully reveal the characteristics of ELF lexico-grammar.

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## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A: SPEECH EVENTS

**The ELF Corpus**  
**Recorded Data: 10hrs – 47 mins – 26 secs**  
**Transcribed Data: 93,913 words**

	<b>Speech Event</b>	<b>Speaker IDs &amp; Native Languages</b>	<b>Setting</b>	<b>Date</b>	<b>Record Duration</b>
1	Focus Group Meeting 1	S1: Greek S2: Polish	IU HAYEF	20.03.13 13:16	10:48
2	Interview 1	S3: Spanish	IU HAYEF	21.03.13 15:20	16:57
3	Focus Group Meeting 2	S4: Mandarin Chinese S5: Polish	IU HAYEF	26.03.13 11:57	12:21
4	Interview 2	S6: German	IU HAYEF	26.03.13 14:11	14:10
5	Focus Group Meeting 3	S7: Czech S8: Slovak	IU HAYEF	26.03.13 15:35	13:06
6	Interview 3	S9: Portuguese	IU HAYEF	28.03.13 15:02	14:02
7	Interview 4	S10: German	IU Language Center	03.04.13 17:06	12:35
8	Interview 5	S11: German	IU Language Center	03.04.13 17:28	14:06
9	Interview 6	S12: German	IU Language Center	04.04.13 18:24	10:01
10	Interview 7	S13: German	IU Language Center	04.04.13 18:46	14:43
11	Interview 8	S14: Polish	IU HAYEF	08.04.13 13:56	16:17
12	Interview 9	S15: German	IU HAYEF	09.04.13 13:16	11:40
13	Interview 10	S16: German	IU HAYEF	10.04.13 11:40	13:13
14	Focus Group Meeting 4	S17: Italian S18: Czech	IU HAYEF	10.04.13 15:25	11:56
15	Focus Group Meeting 5	S19: Italian S20: Bulgarian	IU HAYEF	11.04.13 17:57	11:53
16	Focus Group Meeting 6	S21: Italian S22: Bulgarian	IU HAYEF	11.04.13 18:15	12:06
17	Interview 11	S23: Bulgarian	IU HAYEF	11.04.13 18:34	13:11
18	Interview 12	S24: Greek	IU HAYEF	12.04.13 16:29	16:41
19	Interview 13	S25: German	IU HAYEF	19.04.13 11:27	15:07
20	Interview 14	S26: Italian	IU HAYEF	22.04.13	12:44

				12:59	
21	Focus Group Meeting 7	S27: German S28: Turkish	IU HAYEF	25.04.13 12:31	10:53
22	Focus Group Meeting 8	S29: German S30: Italian	IU HAYEF	25.04.13 12:49	11:37
23	Focus Group Meeting 9	S31: Polish S32: Spanish	IU HAYEF	25.04.13 14:45	10:08
24	Interview 15	S33: Arabic	IU HAYEF	26.04.13 11:42	13:05
25	Interview 16	S34: German	IU HAYEF	26.04.13 14:27	10:35
26	Interview 17	S35: Polish	IU HAYEF	03.05.13 11:24	11:01
27	Interview 18	S36: Turkish German	IU HAYEF	03.05.13 12:00	11:22
28	Interview 19	S37: German	IU HAYEF	03.05.13 15:46	12:08
29	Interview 20	S38: Dutch	Bilgi University	13.05.13 14:11	11:02
30	Focus Group Meeting 10	S39: Czech S40: Dutch	Bilgi University	13.05.13 14:24	10:37
31	Interview 21	S41: French	Bilgi University	13.05.13 15:35	11:16
32	Interview 22	S42: Dutch	Bilgi University	13.05.13 16:07	10:39
33	Interview 23	S43: Slovakian	Bilgi University	13.05.13 18:16	11:23
34	Focus Group Meeting 11	S44: French S45: Dutch	Yeditepe University	14.05.13 12:10	10:05
35	Focus Group Meeting 12	S46: German S47: Dutch	Yeditepe University	14.05.13 12:36	10:03
36	Focus Group Meeting 13	S48: German S49: Dutch/Suriname	Yeditepe University	14.05.13 13:08	10:26
37	Focus Group Meeting 14	S50: Lithuanian S51: Bulgarian	Yeditepe University	14.05.13 13:37	10:07
38	Focus Group Meeting 15	S52: Ukrainian S53: Chinese	Yeditepe University	14.05.13 14:13	11:03
39	Focus Group Meeting 16	S54: Korean S55: German	Yeditepe University	14.05.13 14:47	10:06
40	Interview 24	S56: French	Yeditepe University	14.05.13 15:34	10:58
41	Focus Group Meeting 17	S57: Dutch S58: Lithuanian	Yeditepe University	14.05.13 16:01	10:49
42	Interview 25	S59: Spanish/Galician	Bahcesehir University	16.05.13 13:40	11:54
43	Focus Group Meeting 18	S60: Arabic S61: Bulgarian/Turkish	Bahcesehir University	16.05.13 14:17	12:05
44	Focus Group Meeting 19	S62: Bulgarian/Turkish S63: German	Bahcesehir University	16.05.13 14:53	12:43

45	Focus Group Meeting 20	S64: German/Polish S65: Polish	Bahcesehir University	16.05.13 15:29	10:16
46	Focus Group Meeting 21	S66: Italian S67: Cantonese	Bahcesehir University	16.05.13 16:40	10:22
47	Focus Group Meeting 22	S68: Korean S69: Cantonese	Bahcesehir University	16.05.13 17:03	11:29
48	Interview 26	S70: Korean	Bahcesehir University	16.05.13 17:24	10:20
49	Interview 27	S71: Azerbaijan	IU HAYEF	12.04.13 17:01	14:01
50	Focus Group Meeting 23	S72: Polish S73: French	IU HAYEF	23.05.13 14:29	10:18
51	Interview 28	S74: Polish	IU HAYEF	23.05.13 14:41	10:13
52	Focus Group Meeting 24	S75: Basque S76: Italian	IU HAYEF	29.05.13 14:24	11:23
53	Focus Group Meeting 25	S77: Danish S78: German	IU HAYEF	10.06.13 15:49	11:56
54	Interview 29	S79: Czech	IU HAYEF	21.06.13 16:07	12:57



## APPENDIX B: PARTICIPANTS OF THE STUDY

	<b>Country</b>	<b>Nationality</b>	<b>Native Language</b>	<b>Gender</b>	<b>Speech Event</b>
S1	Greece	Greek	Greek	F	Focus Group Meeting 1
S2	Poland	Polish	Polish	M	
S3	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	M	Interview 1
S4	Taiwan	Taiwan	Mandarin Chinese	F	Focus Group Meeting 2
S5	Poland	Polish	Polish	F	
S6	Germany	German	German	M	Interview 2
S7	Czech Republic	Czech Republic	Czech	M	Focus Group Meeting 3
S8	Slovakia	Slovak	Slovak	M	
S9	Spain	Bissau-Guinean	Portuguese	F	Interview 3
S10	Germany	German	German	F	Interview 4
S11	Germany	German	German	F	Interview 5
S12	Germany	German	German	M	Interview 6
S13	Germany	German	German	F	Interview 7
S14	Poland	Polish	Polish	F	Interview 8
S15	Germany	German	German	F	Interview 9
S16	Germany	German	German	M	Interview 10
S17	Italy	Italian	Italian	F	Focus Group Meeting 4
S18	Czech	Moravian	Czech	M	
S19	Italy	Italian	Italian	M	Focus Group Meeting 5
S20	Bulgaria	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	F	
S21	Italy	Italian	Italian	M	Focus Group

S22	Bulgaria	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	F	Meeting 6
S23	Bulgaria	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	F	Interview 11
S24	Greece	Greek	Greek	M	Interview 12
S25	Germany	German	German	M	Interview 13
S26	Italy	Italian	Italian	M	Interview 14
S27	Austria	Austrian	German	F	Focus Group Meeting 7
S28	Germany	German	Turkish German	M	
S29	German	German	German	M	Focus Group Meeting 8
S30	Italy	Italian	Italian	F	
S31	Poland	Polish	Polish	F	Focus Group Meeting 9
S32	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	F	
S33	France	Moroccon	Arabic	M	Interview 15
S34	Germany	German	German	M	Interview 16
S35	Poland	Polish	Polish	F	Interview 17
S36	Germany	German	Turkish German	M	Interview 18
S37	German	German	German	M	Interview 19
S38	Netherlands (Holland)	Dutch	Dutch	F	Interview 20
S39	Czech Republic	Czech	Czech	F	Focus Group Meeting 10
S40	Holland	Dutch	Dutch	F	
S41	France	French	French	M	Interview 21
S42	Netherlands (Holland)	Dutch	Dutch	M	Interview 22
S43	Slovakia	Slovak	Slovak	M	Interview 23
S44	France	French	French	M	Focus Group Meeting 11
S45	Netherlands (Holland)	Dutch	Dutch	F	
S46	Germany	German	German	M	Focus Group

					Meeting 12
S47	Netherlands (Holland)	Dutch	Dutch	M	
S48	Germany	German	German	F	Focus Group Meeting 13
S49	Netherlands (Holland)	Suriname	Dutch Suriname	M	
S50	Lithuania	Lithuanian	Lithuanian	F	Focus Group Meeting 14
S51	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	F	
S52	Poland	Ukrainian	Ukrainian	M	Focus Group Meeting 15
S53	Taiwan	Taiwan	Chinese	F	
S54	Austria	Austrian	German	M	Focus Group Meeting 16
S55	South Korea	Korean	Korean	F	
S56	France	French	French	F	Interview 24
S57	Netherlands (Holland)	Dutch	Dutch	M	Focus Group Meeting 17
S58	Lithuania	Lithuanian	Lithuanian	M	
S59	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	M	Interview 25
S60	Morocco	Moroccon	Arabic	M	Focus Group Meeting 18
S61	Bulgaria	Bulgarian	Bulgarian Turkish	M	
S62	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	Bulgarian	F	Focus Group Meeting 19
S63	Germany	German	German	F	
S64	Germany	German	German Polish	M	Focus Group Meeting 20
S65	Poland	Polish	Polish	F	
S66	Italy	Italian	Italian	F	Focus Group Meeting 21
S67	Hong Kong China	Chinese	Cantonese	F	
S68	South Korea	Korean	Korean	F	Focus Group Meeting 22
S69	Hong Kong China	Chinese	Cantonese	F	
S70	Korea	Korean	Korean	F	Interview 26

S71	Azerbaijan	Azerbaijani	Azerbaijan	F	Interview 27
S72	Poland	Polish	Polish	F	Focus Group Meeting 23
S73	France	French	French	F	
S74	Poland	Polish	Polish	F	Interview 28
S75	Spain	Basque	Basque	M	Focus Group Meeting 24
S76	Italy	Italian	Italian	M	
S77	Denmark	Danish	Danish	F	Focus Group Meeting 25
S78	Germany	German	German	M	
S79	Czech Republic	Czech	Czech	F	Interview 29

## **APPENDIX C: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET**

### **AND CONSENT FORM**

#### **PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET**

This doctoral research project, which is supported by the Scientific Research Projects Coordination Unit (BAP) of Istanbul University in Turkey, aims to describe the lexico-grammatical features of English as a Lingua Franca. To this end, it seeks to compile a corpus of naturally occurring spoken interactions. The study is currently being conducted with the voluntary participation of incoming exchange students studying in Istanbul in the 2012-2013 academic year.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Participation involves attending focus group meetings or interviews which will take place at university campuses in İstanbul. While focus group meetings will be conducted with two participants, the interviews will be conducted face to face with one participant. Each of these speech events will take a maximum of 15 minutes. You can participate in either a focus group meeting or an interview. During the sessions, your spoken interactions will be recorded with a digital voice recorder.

Any personal information that you provide will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for academic purposes only. The data from this research project will be published and presented at conferences but you will be given a pseudonym, and all identifying information (e.g. name of the institution you study) will be removed from the research reports. If you agree to take part in this study, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign the following consent form.

If you decide to take part you will still be free to withdraw at any time without any penalty and excuse. However, the data you have provided until then will still be used and included in the research project. Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at any time.



## APPENDIX D: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

**Speech Event Type:** 1) Interview 2) Focus Group Meeting

**Speech Event Number:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Speaker ID:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Date:** \_\_ / \_\_ / 2013

**Location:** \_\_\_\_\_

*Your personal information will remain entirely confidential.*

### I. PERSONAL INFORMATION

**Name:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Surname:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Country:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Nationality:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Female / Male** (please circle)

**Age:** \_\_\_\_\_

**University (in Ist.):** \_\_\_\_\_

**(in home country):** \_\_\_\_\_

**Department:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Undergraduate / Graduate (MA, PhD)**

**Telephone Number:** \_\_\_\_\_ / \_\_\_\_\_

**E-mail address:** \_\_\_\_\_ / \_\_\_\_\_

**Address:** \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

### II. LINGUISTIC INFORMATION

**Native Language:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Medium (Language) of Education:**

**Primary School:** \_\_\_\_\_

**High School:** \_\_\_\_\_

**University:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Age of first exposure to English?** \_\_\_\_\_

**Place of first exposure to English?** \_\_\_\_\_

**Do you speak any other foreign languages besides English?** \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX E: THE 3<sup>RD</sup> PERSON SINGULAR VERBS

Speech Events	3 <sup>rd</sup> person -s	3 <sup>rd</sup> person zero	3 <sup>rd</sup> person -s Aux	3 <sup>rd</sup> person zero Aux
T1ME1	interests(2), focuses, means, happens(2), looks, sounds	happen	doesn't(2)	-
T2INT2	depends(3), sounds, interests, knows, has, makes	-	doesn't	don't
T3ME2	helps(5), kills(2), gives, makes, tends, does, posts	kill, graduate, take	does not, doesn't	don't
T4INT2	starts, becomes, depends, has, feels, seems(8), speaks(2), says, interests(2), uses	have	-	-
T5ME3	interests, has	interest, think	doesn't	-
T6INT3	interests, has	study	does(2)	-
T7INT4	starts, depends, needs, connects, interests, speaks, has(2), knows, becomes, studies, works, tries	-	does	-
T8INT5	depends(6), interests(2), has, starts	have, show	does	-
T9INT6	depends(3), studies, interests	-	has (got)(2)	-
T10INT7	depends(3), starts, accepts, gets, interests, seems, knows, has	-	-	-
T11INT8	looks, makes, speaks(2), works, interests, believes, comes(2), means, has, knows, says	-	does(2), doesn't(2)	-
T12INT9	differs(3), depends(7), has(2), speaks(8), gets(2), goes sucks, comes, interests, rents, cooks, does, orders(3), keeps, knows, works, lives	have(2), live	does, doesn't(3)	-
T13INT10	changes, makes(2), depends, understands, has, tries, interests, tells, goes, works, speaks(2), helps(2), stays, says	-	does doesn't(4)	-
T14ME4	has(2), speaks(2), leads, kills, lets,	speak, take, use, let,	has (got), does	-



	means, gives, makes, lives			
T15ME5	interests	say(3), have(4), know, close(2), drink(2), prepare(2)	doesn't	-
T16ME6	interests, has	want, respect	-	-
T17INT11	depends(3), changes, interests, looks	foster, make(2), go, have, speak	does	-
T18INT12	depends, interests, works, speaks, comes, plays, speaks(2), lives, teaches, studies	wear	does	-
T19INT13	depends(9), matches, starts, happens, interests, seems(2), tries, has	have, try	does	-
T20INT14	depends(4), loves, walks, interests, speaks(3), knows, comes(2), works(2), talks, has	understand, work, say, respect, have(2), stay, study, get, come	does(2)	-
T21ME7	texts, does, checks, likes, kills, makes, sees(2), shows, goes, has	want, kill	doesn't(5)	-
T22ME8	interests(2), depends, speaks, wants(2), shows, has	generate, represent	doesn't(3)	-
T23ME9	interests, sounds, makes, shows, seems	show	doesn't(3)	-
T24INT15	depends(5), helps, interests(4), means(2), studies, takes, speaks	-	does(2)	-
T25INT16	interests, makes, wants	visit, talk	does, doesn't	-
T26INT17	means, interests	depend(2), live, speak	-	-
T27INT18	corrects, depends, interests, cares, annoys, happens, gets	work	does	don't(2)
T28INT19	takes, interests(3), speaks(3)	-	-	-
T29INT20	interests, happens	-	does	-
T30ME10	understands, sounds, acts, depends(2), works, exists, has	let, understand, accept, act, fit	doesn't(4)	-
T31INT21	becomes, wants(2), means, looks	interest	doesn't(2), does	-
T32INT22	falls, starts, graduates, grows, talks, forces, knows(2), speaks	interest, speak(2)	doesn't(2)	-
T33INT23	depends(6), spends, speaks(4), needs(2), takes, interests, suits	-	-	-
T34ME11	makes(2), likes(2), cares, jokes, leads,	switch, make	-	-

	depends, has(2), shows, interests			
T35ME12	creates(3), connects, means, makes(4), depends(2)	kill, read(2)	doesn't(3)	-
T36ME13	shows, depends(2), has(3), feels, gives, needs, makes, wants, thinks, likes, feels	treat(2), want(2), need, find, respect, try, make, feel(2)	doesn't(5)	-
T37ME14	interests(2), makes(2), attracts, has, depends, spends, worries, happens, means(2)	interest	doesn't(5), does	-
T38ME15	depends(4), leads, goes	lead, exist, have(2), interest	doesn't(2)	-
T39ME16	kills(2), keeps, sees, wants, comes, helps, starts	say, know, post(2), misunderstand, have	-	-
T40INT24	means, knows, interests, has	speak(2), look, learn, want	doesn't(2), does	-
T41ME17	gets, knows, has(2), depends, interests, makes, affects, creates, holds(2), does	communicate, look, use	-	-
T42INT25	interests, speaks, comes, wants	finish, speak	does(2)	-
T43ME18	does(2)	make, speak	does(2), doesn't(2), does not	-
T44ME19	looks, makes(2), behaves, kills(4), leads(2), means	have	-	-
T45ME20	makes(6), means, depends(2), interests	want	-	-
T46ME21	comes(2), knows(2), keeps, has(2), means(2)	stuck	doesn't(2)	-
T47ME22	means, works, has, sounds	affect, attract, kill, translate	doesn't	-
T48INT26	interests, buys	use, make, want(2), come	does	don't
T49INT27	interests	know(2), have	does(2)	-
T50ME23	interests, wants	-	-	-
T51INT28	interests, invites, has(4), respects, speaks(2), does(2)	-	doesn't(4), does	-
T52ME24	depends(3)	know, happen	doesn't	-
T53ME25	does(3), means, posts, comes, transcends, becomes(2), loses, wants, has(2), reaches, kills, alters, changes, makes	use, become(3), kill	doesn't(2), does(2), does not	-
T54INT29	helps, interests, knows, wants(2), takes	study, like, want	does, doesn't(2)	don't

## APPENDIX F: TRANSCRIPTIONS

### Transcription 1

Title: Focus Group Meeting 1

Record Date and Time: 20.03.2013 13:16

Record Duration: 10:48

Setting: IU HAYEF Office 6

Speaker IDs and Native Languages: S1: Greek S2: Polish

</teiHeader>

- 1 R: meeting one? (7) what interests you most in a foreign culture? such as  
2 traditions daily life food or history (4) okay what do you <1>think about</1> it?  
3 S1: <1>okay</1> so today: we are gonna discuss about what interests US more  
4 in a foreign culture?  
5 S2: yes  
6 S1: and i think that (.) definitely the most interesting thing is the tradition and  
7 definitely the food (.)  
8 S2: well i like to eat but er (.) food is like something special in travelling in my  
9 opinion first of all you are doing summer okay for example in india you have  
10 spicy in poland you have cabbage and potato food in greek you have (1) strange  
11 food e:r (.) but still food is like something extra IN MY OPINION the BEST  
12 IMPORTANT the MOST IMPORTANT thing in travelling is like knowing the  
13 mentality of people how do they act? how theirs life is different (.) er compared  
14 with our lives  
15 S1: yes i will agree but i i just want to say that in order to understand the  
16 mentality the mentality you totally need to know the food (.) when you see what  
17 (.) people eat you can understand what they think maybe it's the reflection of  
18 their own culture  
19 S2: i totally totally agree but food is like only one er part of that it's not the whole  
20 thing  
21 S1: yeah it's not the whole thing like another thing may:be (.) can be: the history  
22 (.) related to a  
23 S2: <2><coughs></2>  
24 S1: <2>cert</2> cul- a certain culture  
25 S2: of course history focuses on everything so e:r (.) just to give an example  
26 actually greece is a very good example  
27 S1: yeah it's a really good <3>exam</3>ple  
28 S2: <3>yeah</3>  
29 S1: a:lso don't forget that we are in istanbul also and you can see history  
30 EVERYWHERE it's like an open museum here  
31 S2: yeah but my point is that you cannot understand greece (.) without knowing  
32 er (.) well (.) the history let's say three thousand years (.) ago and one hundred  
33 years ago including that the turkish influence on turkey which was quite big (.)  
34 so if you don't know like the only one hundred of years last one hundred of years  
35 you: not get the country now  
36 S1: DEFINITELY i'll agree but i want to say that if you see (.) how people (.) react  
37 with their food you can totally? understand what they are thinking for instance if  
38 you check greek salad (.) if you see how much oil (.) greeks put in their salad you  
39 will understand why today they are in crisis  
40 S2: <@>yes absolutely absolutely</@> (1) e:r <4>but</4>  
41 S1: <4>it was</4> a joke

42 S2: yeah <5>yeah</5>  
43 S1: <5><@>yeah</@></5>  
44 S2: really? @  
45 S1: @@@  
46 S2: what about the food we are in turkey (.) <6>we have</6>  
47 S1: <6>mhm</6>  
48 S2: what here <LNtr>kebab kebab</LNtr> everywhere <LNtr>kebab</LNtr> in:  
49 fifty kinds of: versions how to prepare them how to eat them (.) and actually the  
50 most common opinion i heard everybody?=  
51 S1: =mhm=  
52 S2: =is claiming that <LNtr>kebab</LNtr> in his country is better than here (.)  
53 so: it means that people like me seem they're all <LNtr>kebabs</LNtr> (1) or  
54 just (.) it's a (.) big mystery for me WHY they don't use sauce (.) in  
55 <LNtr>kebabs</LNtr> here  
56 S1: why they don- they don't use sauce but do you have <LNtr>kebabs</LNtr>?  
57 in poland?  
58 S2: o:h yeah we have a lot  
59 S1: really?  
60 S2: yeah  
61 S1: o:h because we don't have any <LNtr>kebabs</LNtr> in greece  
62 S2: it was like the: (.) one of the main points <fast>of taking the turkish course to  
63 come back to my town to order <LNtr>kebab</LNtr> in turkish way and then  
64 have fun of between the window they don't know</fast> (.) what respond but  
65 actually i can do that now  
66 S1: <@>yeah i can see</@> that's quite interesting actually  
67 S2: <7>yeah</7>  
68 S1:<7> yeah</7> and e:rm: about daily life? i think that it's also really really  
69 important (.) like (.) what you can see when: just having a simple walk on the  
70 street or (.) what you can: understand by just seeing people when they talk to  
71 each other how they are like their relations and all that stuff  
72 S2: it's like the best thing i realized HERE (.) how (.) LOVELY QUIET my country  
73 is  
74 S1: @  
75 S2: because in poland people talk to each other here people shout to each other=  
76 S1: =and they touch each other definitely  
77 S2: o:h yeah the private space doesn't doesn't exist here i i thought that in:  
78 <fast>spain it's a problem but here it's even worse</fast> it's my friend my friend  
79 all the time  
80 S1: all the time well to be honest i didn't have any kind of problem with that?  
81 because (.) erm (.) in greece we're just not? like this? not that (.) open but (.) in a  
82 way (.) but er maybe yes sometimes it's a bit hard when they touch you  
83 especially on the metro or the yeah  
84 S2: YE:AH you are a woman so you probably think about it differently (.) er i  
85 don't have such problems here @@ but for example my friend was blonde (1)  
86 YE:S she had problems like that especially in buses and especially in  
87 FACEBOOK because everybody was e:<8>r trying to chat to her</8>  
88 S1: <8>yeah that's another problem</8> that's true  
89 S2: <9>yeah yeah</9>  
90 S1: <9>that's true</9> yeah  
91 S2: it is a thing that my friends they told me (.) er two girls when they came here  
92 to pay me a visit in december (.) i have noticed that before but er when they are  
93 walking on the street let's say on istiklal (.) then a lot of me- men they were  
94 doing like this strange face impression and <un>xx<10>x</un> i</10>=  
95 S1: =<10>@</10>=  
96 S2: =don't know how to say that in english (.) they don't do that in my direction

97 because well i am not a woman e:r  
98 S1: yeah  
99 S2: yeah but probably you've noticed that  
100 S1: not that (.) obviously? because i am not blonde with blue eyes and sometimes  
101 they think that i am turkish so they don't like mess with me?  
102 S2: <11>@@</11>  
103 S1: <11>but defi</11>nitely it happens  
104 S2: <12>yeah</12>  
105 S1: <12>it</12> happens (1) yes (.) a:nd we shouldn't of <slow>course</slow>  
106 (1) forge:t e:rm as far as turkish culture is concerned and foreign cultures are  
107 concerned (.) e:rm the civilization? like (.) what you can see here and  
108 S2: it's the problem with this piece of ground where turkey is right now e:r  
109 turkey (.) as turkey is here for like er seven eight hundred years before?  
110 <fast>before that there are a lot of different civili<13>zations</13>  
111 S1: <13>exactly</13>  
112 S2: was like a mix is like iran</fast> there are five big empires and every empire  
113 was huge i- i- in the period of the time (1) er so it's travelling for turkey (.) just  
114 compare i don't know trabzon e:r with pontium kingdom? (.) which used to be  
115 there o:r byzantium empire or ottoman empire or the er greek cities (.)  
116 association in: (.) ancient times it's like huge mix of everything  
117 S1: this is why i love istanbul definitely istanbul more than (.) oth- another city  
118 because (1) it's the city of contradiction you can see everything you can see (.)  
119 like (.) a <LNtr>cami</LNtr> and ten meters after you can see a a russian  
120 church and ten meters after you can see something totally irrelevant (1) i really  
121 really like this kind of contradiction (.) in one city  
122 S2: yeah actually in istanbul is even too big because er (.) it's: <fast>what used to  
123 be a problem and actually it's still a problem to me</fast> you are just walking?  
124 through the district and then you are just take a turn left and turn to a place where  
125 buildings are totally DEVASTATED so you don't know that you're in slums  
126 or somewhere (.) er so it's that just like one minute? and you can er go fo-  
127 from the very good district? it's very bad place  
128 S1: yeah that's <14>>true</14>  
129 S2: <14>yeah</14> actually  
130 S1: that's true yes yes definitely  
131 S2: you know where <@>i live so</@> <15>@@@</15>  
132 S1: <15>yeah yeah</15>  
133 S2: i live in tarlabasi <@>so</@> @  
134 S1: yeah so i can totally understand what you are talking about it can be really  
135 dangerous  
136 S2: <fast>no? no no no</fast>  
137 S1: okay it can be really really like (.) i remember (.) er we were together in your  
138 party actually (.) when we came to: the: the district? (.) and it was night it was  
139 very dark and it was like a ghost city  
140 S2: o:h <@>yeah</@> tarlabasi at night looks (.) hilarious but actually it's the  
141 interesting thing <fast>'cos it's about the day life</fast> (.) i was shocked when  
142 it was like two weeks ago (.) i was in my home tarlabasi? and then (.) ni:ne p.m.  
143 maybe eight p.m. it was saturday people started to gather on the street they put  
144 big speakers on the street and they just started i think it was turkish wedding  
145 <16>yeah</16>  
146 S1: <16>a:h</16> maybe a:h i see yeah it sounds really interesting  
147 S2: yeah i just have to left home i had to left home after two hours because the  
148 music was too loud and the guy sang in this way la la la like the indians: north  
149 america (.) it was interesting for first hour then yeah  
150 S1: but you are really lucky that you're living in tarlabasi because you are having  
151 the chance to experience the really really (.) truth turkish culture AND (.) AND

152 (.) they say that until like (.) summer? maybe tarlabasi will be gone (.) because  
153 you know they are having this kind of renovation (.) pro:ject so i think you are  
154 really lucky (1) to experience that  
155 S2: comparing to the rest places i slept (.) in: during last during the last half year  
156 (.) yeah (.) i have water all the ti:me i don't have cockroa:ches i don't have mi:ce by  
157 the way how are your mice (.) <17>in your ho- home</@>  
158 S1: <17>@@</17> @ <@>we have no mice any more</@>  
159 S2: <@>not any more</@>  
160 S1: we ha- we just you know this kind of stuff happen (.) in old cities especially  
161 the house is really really really old (1) and made of erm (.) er wood and it's  
162 normal to have this kind of (.) visitors (.)  
163 S2: <18>pets</18>  
164 S1: <18>some</18>times (.) yeah pets (.) but? our (.) lovely landlord really took  
165 care of that and he just put some kind of poison? (.) so we have no no pets any  
166 more  
167 S2: <19>cats</19>  
168 S1: <19>unfor</19>tunately  
169 S2: cats still don't want to live in the home?  
170 S1: no no pets  
171 S2: no pets  
172 S1: no pets  
173 S2: yeah  
174 S1: no pets  
175 S2: actually sometimes i'm sometimes i'm thinking what (.) what did happen to  
176 these cats  
177 S1: the cat escaped we had a cat because we had one little mouse (.) so we  
178 decided to take a cat as a pet i: should explain that in order to er (2) get rid (.) of  
179 er the mouse but the cat was really small and wild so it was like all the time  
180 hidden (.) under the:  
181 S2: @@@  
182 S1: the chairs and the couches so one day we open the window and the cat just  
183 escaped  
184 S2: i am not surprised it was like the home with thirty people twenty people (.) er  
185 loud place so it's not for like for a <20>small kitten</20>  
186 S1: <20>yeah</20> and he was so sma:ll and  
187 S2: actually small mices were bigger mice were bigger than the cat so  
188 S1: no it was just really really small one (.) a baby mouce  
189 S2: yeah the first one then (.) more of them came  
190 S1: i know i've just seen one  
191 S2: adam caught THREE in his room  
192 S1: i'm i don't know (.) i have no idea  
193 S2: you try to forget  
194 S1: yeah maybe  
195 S2: @@@ okay

## Transcription 6

Title: Interview 3

Record Date and Time: 28.03.2013 15:02

Record Duration: 14:02

Setting: IU HAYEF Dean's Office

Speaker ID and Native Language: S9: Portuguese

</teiHeader>

- 1 R: interview three? (.) okay at what age do children start school in your country?  
2 S9: er actually they change it's the two years ago (1) i think it's at SIX but i don't  
3 know maybe it's before now (.) i'm not sure about it i think three or six (.) it's  
4 between (.) that's ages  
5 R: what is the language of instruction in your schools does it change according to  
6 the level? primary secondary university level?  
7 S9: i thin:k spanish?  
8 R: mhm  
9 S9: e:r but er can you repeat e:r question  
10 R: mhm er what is the language of instruction in your schools? for example in  
11 primary school it is  
12 S9: yes it's in primary it is spanish and english and secondary is e:r is spanish and  
13 english or french if you choose french if you want and in the university (.) you  
14 can choose as well  
15 R: mhm  
16 S9: i guess english or spanish <1>in my case it's spanish or english</1>  
17 R: <1>okay for example in</1> primary school is english as a foreign?  
18 language? <2>or</2>?  
19 S9: <2>yes</2> foreign  
20 R: foreign  
21 S9: yes  
22 R: but for example maths (.) history er  
23 S9: <3>spanish</3>  
24 R: <3>courses</3> are not taught in english  
25 S9: <4>no no</4>  
26 R: <4>they are</4> taught in?  
27 S9: in spanish  
28 R: in spanish right?  
29 S9: yes  
30 R: aha this is the same for secondary school?  
31 S9: yes  
32 R: at university? level?  
33 S9: at university level is bit is if you want you can choose between spanish or  
34 english  
35 R: mhm  
36 S9: in my case i choose spanish and english so i have some like five or more  
37 courses in english  
38 R: mhm  
39 S9: yeah they they are taught o:n all of them in english  
40 R: so you say that at university level=  
41 S9: =yeah=  
42 R: =the instruction can be in english  
43 S9: yes exactly  
44 R: at what age do students START to learn english in your country?  
45 S9: so: in my case it is er i: start at six (2) but i know that now they start before?  
46 (2) in: er in er three or (.) or four (.) they start to study english because it's

47 because they know that it's getting (1) is is really bad in spanish english @  
48 <@>is for spanish english is very bad</@> so they are (.) trying to (.) to start  
49 before than six  
50 R: okay (1) erm what are the criteria to be accepted to the erasmus program in  
51 your country  
52 S9: erm i don't know if in is all university in spain the same but in my university  
53 completely er we have to: you have to have some er some credit top credit (1) to  
54 to (.) to be er to have the option of do it (.) and the:n you have to: (1) learn spani-  
55 er english or french (1) or german one of the the language you have to do one  
56 exam (.) to do it  
57 R: language ex<5>am right</5>  
58 S9: <5>yes one</5> foreign yes  
59 R: mhm  
60 S9: but my in my case i didn't (.) do it because i: a- as i said before i have my my  
61 courses are in english (.) so (1) that is er is the same (.) that i have another  
62 language er foreign language  
63 R: yeah so if you take english courses?=  
64 S9: =yes you don't need to do the exam  
65 R: good (3) er do you rely on your english in terms of communicating in a  
66 foreign COUNTRY  
67 S9: @ i told you before come not not exactly i was with like (.) i think? er e:r i  
68 don't have a good eng- my english is not good but i would try to do it so i will i  
69 will go there and try to improve my english @ <@>so but now i'm</@> i'm  
70 more or less rel- rely in that's (.) maybe er it's getting better </6>@</6>  
71 R: <6>mhm</6> mhm now you feel=  
72 S9: =yes i feel conf- i feel conf- confident by myself lots of friends but now i feel  
73 better @  
74 R: do you agree with the idea that english is the language of communication in  
75 the world?  
76 S9: a:h yes i agree but i think spanish as well <7>@ @ @ @ </7>  
77 R: <7>@ @ @ @ </7>  
78 S9: @ <@>i think if you know spanish you have a good opportunity in the  
79 world yes</@> (.) but english of course definitely is the (.) is the first one  
80 R: mhm (.) are you satisfied (.) with your english language proficiency (.) e:r one  
81 by one in terms of grammar writing vocabulary and speaking can <8>you</8>  
82 S9: <8>er</8>  
83 R: compare them  
84 S9: e:r i don't know but i think it's not so so good (.) but  
85 R: what is not so good?  
86 S9: my my my english maybe=  
87 R: =<9>aha</9>=  
88 S9: =<9>in</9> in term of grammar (1) is a is a little bit better if writing as well  
89 but speaking <clucks> maybe i have some mis- mistake (.) because i have to  
90 translate i thinking in spanish and then i translate (.) and then i speak  
91 R: mhm  
92 S9: and maybe some- sometime i i change the WORD or something (1) yes  
93 maybe (.) i think speaking is not so good but the other (.) vocabulary i think is er  
94 (.) i know some a lot of vocabulary but still (.) i need improve  
95 R: okay (1) what were your expectations before coming to turkey  
96 S9: @ (2) e:rm i don't kn:ow exactly but (1) aha okay (.) academical? (1) ac-  
97 academically i think it's er (1) er i thought that maybe the same than in spa:in or i  
98 don't know or a bit less or bit more er i didn:t know it exactly but when i came  
99 here i realize that (.) maybe in spain (.) it's a bit more difficult (1) for example for  
100 study i need like two two: (.) weeks more (.) than here (1) because we have more  
101 more e:r how to say (.) more topics (1) and er the credits is small than here so



102 maybe that why we see more (.) more topics  
103 R: mhm so you give importance to your readings  
104 S9: yes yes (.) er i think  
105 R: what about leisure? (.) partying @ those kind of social activi<10>ties</10>  
106 S9: <10>e:r</10> i think it's the same because <@>spanish people they like  
107 really really like party<@> and here i (.) i see that's turkey's people like party  
108 music dancing (.) they are they are singing all the time everywhere when i go  
109 when we go out and i think it's the same  
110 R: mhm  
111 S9: yes  
112 R: any cultural expectations  
113 S9: er it's really different because er (1) er in term of religion religion maybe they  
114 here they are more religious than in spain and they are and then it's there is  
115 different there is muslim men and the others christians so maybe that's: (.) a  
116 different culture  
117 R: yeah  
118 S9: mhm  
119 R: yeah (.) okay so what are? the difficulties of living in a foreign country or  
120 studying in a foreign country  
121 S9: for me: just the only thing that i: i had difficulty for (.) because i can't see my  
122 family (1) was the only: thing that the other i because i i'm really interacting  
123 every in every: (.) culture and for that is easy for me new er know new people  
124 and but be (.) far away from my family that's it's a bit hard  
125 R: is this the first time?  
126 S9: e:r y:es er long time  
127 R: such long time  
128 S9: yes it the first time  
129 R: <11>hm</11>  
130 S9: <11>but</11> i think i'm getting use @@@ <@>yeah</@>  
131 R: how long have you been here now?  
132 S9: e:r i think seven month  
133 R: HM?  
134 S9: hm yeah (1) and i nee- i (.) and i i have to stay three month more  
135 <@>so</@>  
136 R: okay any difficulties about studying  
137 S9: N:O not exactly (1) for me (.) maybe because i all time (.) er worry about do  
138 my my projects so my prepare my exams (.) so for me it's not difficult and i I  
139 didn't have any problem  
140 R: mhm so of all the courses you are taking this term which? one interests you  
141 the most and why  
142 S9: er behavior science  
143 R: WHAT?  
144 S9: behavior science  
145 R: <12>mhm</12>  
146 S9: <12>i:t's</12> about e:r organizational behavior (.) and er study the behavior  
147 of people:e i think it's very interesting because you you can you can learn about  
148 how people (.) er behave and how people (.) erm er attitude or or they personality  
149 or (.) or i mean (1) it's er human (.) for the: (.) <13>the: stud- study</13> human  
150 er human behavior so  
151 R: <13><un>xxx</un></13> <14>mhm</14>  
152 S9: <14>i think</14> it's good  
153 R: mhm (.) okay (1) have you seen any differences between your university and  
154 e:r the university in istanbul (.) could you please give a few examples (.) it can  
155 be academic difference physical technical  
156 S9: er maybe academic er what i say i said before (.) spain in spain is more

157 difficult (.) and er <slow>physical<slow> (1) er it is same i think a- at the end it's  
158 a it's a university and technical: (1) i don't know i think in spain we have more:  
159 (.) maybe more: (1) infrastructure  
160 R: what?  
161 S9: inf-i don't know <@>in spanish it's <LNsp>infraestructura</LNsp></@> but  
162 in english a:h okay equipment  
163 R: mhm <15>mhm</15>  
164 S9: <15>yes</15> erm (.) and there most facilities  
165 R: <16>social activities <un>xx</un></16>  
166 S9: <16>i think is the same yes is the</16> same is the same (1) and  
167 administrative the same <@>i @@@ think @@@@ i think it's the same as well  
168 (.) they work</@> people who work there (1) they have the same er attitude i  
169 don't know i THINK it's the same (.) the only thing i can see different is between  
170 academic and (.) and technical  
171 R: mhm do you speak any other foreign languages besides english.  
172 S9: yes i speak portuguese (1) and er fulani (1) and creole portuguese that is e:r  
173 part of portuguese (.) so: (.) and and spanish (.) is i can't count spanish?  
174 R: <17> mhm</17>  
175 S9: <17>yeah</17> <18>that's all</18>  
176 R: <18>mhm</18> mhm  
177 S9: i hope to learn more @  
178 R: mhm which one would you like to learn?  
179 S9: french or german  
180 R: french or german  
181 S9: yeah  
182 R: do you know turkish  
183 S9: no @<19>@</19>  
184 R: <19>@ @ @</19>  
185 S9: <@>i really bad with the @@ with the word i can't remember the word=  
186 R: =<20>word</20>=  
187 S9: =<20>when</20> someone told me somewhere i have to i have to repeat it's  
188 one again again again to to remember and then i forget i don't know what  
189 happened with=  
190 R: =hm=  
191 S9: =turkish i have learn it but i don't think so</@>  
192 R: er have you noticed any cultural differences between your country and turkey  
193 could you please give a few examples (1) cultural differences  
194 S9: e:r religion i <21>think</21>  
195 R: <21>religion</21>  
196 S9: yes erm: (1) yes i think: (.) that's the first one and (2) maybe: (1) hospitality  
197 (.) maybe that is the same but here (.) they are more (.) open er than in spain  
198 <fast>in spain is open er spanish people is open but maybe here is more</fast>  
199 (.) and er what else erm (2) i don't:  
200 R: okay <22>that's okay that's okay no</22>  
201 S9: <22>i no i i'm not er i can't think</22> of another one more  
202 R: can you describe the place you live in istanbul is it a hostel dormitory or  
203 apartment do you have roommates  
204 S9: yes i live in apart- er apartment with flatmate one turkish girl @ but we speak  
205 in sp- in english @ (1) yeah  
206 R: mhm so where does she study  
207 S9: aha she study the same economics (.) <slow>in my in the in my university  
208 we have we go in the same university</slow>  
209 R: mhm (.) can you say something about her personality  
210 S9: hm she is a bit quiet (.) i i hope to try to talk to her all the time (.) @ because  
211 i'm i i am not so quiet how you can see @ <@>so i'm all the time talking</@>

212 and when i'm in some place i like people can ta:lk and so all the time i'm i have  
213 to try (.) to to close to her but she's so quie:t all the time and she (.) maybe is is a  
214 (.) she's a quiet than me and i i'm i'm so nervous that and so i have to talk to her  
215 all the time @  
216 R: mhm FINALLY er can you talk about your family  
217 S9: er yes er my (.) i'm from spain and my parent but then my parents are from  
218 guinea-bissau (1) e:rm i born in guinea-bissau but i'll i: grew up in the spain (.)  
219 since erm (.) i'm sixteen (1) a:nd er:m what else er  
220 R: your do you have sisters or <23>brothers</23>  
221 S9: <23>a:h ye</23>s have one sister old sister and old brother  
222 R: she she is studying  
223 S9: no she is married and <slow>she has three children girls<slow> @ and my  
224 brothers he's twenty-five (.) and then twenty-two so we are just a f- a small  
225 family @@ we're not so big=  
226 R: =<24>mhm</24>=  
227 S9: =<24>an</24>d erm what else maybe yes i have most of my family: (.) in  
228 around europe (.) i have some of them in portuga:l in engla:nd (1) and no in  
229 france <@>i don't know if i have someone in france but maybe i have</@>  
230 because we have i have a lot of cousin and uncles and aunts (1) so yeah so  
231 R: <25>mhm</25>  
232 S9: <25>or some</25>thing i have to say something else  
233 R: mhm okay thank you  
234 S9: @@ you're welcome

Transcription 23

Title: Focus Group Meeting 9

Record Date and Time: 25.04.2013 14:45

Record Duration: 10:08

Setting: IU HAYEF Dean's Office

Speaker IDs and Native Languages: S31: Polish S32: Spanish

</teiHeader>

1 R: meeting nine  
2 S31: what intere- interests you (1) the most in a foreign culture traditions daily  
3 life food history et cetera  
4 S32: well i think for me it's just like (.) to learn a foreign culture the (.) m:ost  
5 important thing is just to see the day life of the people because in that way you  
6 just can see what this (.) the real life for them because if you are just (.) like  
7 going to the: erm (2) typical places like a touristic places you just (.) get to know  
8 the (.) touristic things but not just how people live in in this new culture that  
9 you're trying to (.) to learn (.) and this (.) and also of course the language and  
10 food but it's like everything <1>is <@>together</1> i don't know </@> @  
11 S31: <1>@@</1> yeah foo- food and food and language are (.) both in daily  
12 life (.) <@>actually you can meet them all  
13 S32: yeah  
14 S31: and here's about touristic pla- touristic places this is like (1) touristic places  
15 are made sometimes only for (.) customer and they're not like (.) really in this  
16 culture but they cannot for they can be (1) for example in turkey they can be (1)  
17 made more like (.) foreign places like izmir which is (.) one of the most (.)  
18 touristic places but actually when: (.) i when i was there it was like not turkey (.)  
19 because in other places i <slow>feel totally different and in izmir</slow> it  
20 doesn't matter if i have short (.) skirt or short (.) <@>trousers</@> (.) e:rm and  
21 about (.) traditions  
22 S32: mhm  
23 S31: what do you think about traditions because daily life (.) <slow>i don't think  
24 they show traditions so much</slow>  
25 S32: yeah but for example maybe if you just get to know people and they invite  
26 you for example to their family (.) home and this and then you just see for  
27 example how they cook and how are they behaving while they are having (.)  
28 dinner and this (.) these kinds of things i mean and you can see (.) the way they  
29 they do the dinners and and i don't know all the traditions that they: made i don't  
30 know i think is (.) good way just when you: (.) know someone that's close that  
31 they invited you to their home (.) and this is really cool when you just (.) can see  
32 S31: yeah yeah maybe you're right it also i was in: (.) my friend's house in turkey  
33 before before i was here they said that <imitating>o:h my god i cannot stand this  
34 toilet</imitating> i just cannot i just don't know how i should (.) use it you know  
35 this washing ha:nds and everything no toilet paper i don't know <fast>and i came  
36 to istanbul first time and i said i: don't know what they mean about the toilet this  
37 is like <@>normal <1>toilet</@></fast> @@@</1>  
38 S32: <1>yeah @@</1> yeah yeah  
39 S31: i don't know but then (1) when we were going back to poland one guy (1)  
40 erm invited us to his: to his house it was the beginning (.) the end of ramadan and  
41 the beginning of <LNtr>bayram</LNtr> (1) and he said (.) we came came there  
42 and we were we went to the toilet it was (.) sixth floor or something in a block  
43 and (.) i went to the toilet facing this hole and i thought hm really they they were  
44 they were right actually (1) before i was two times before (.) in turkey and i  
45 didn't notice it i i think actually they at like at home (.) there is there will be  
46 always normal toilet but it wasn't like this so maybe yeah i mean (.) you are right

47 that (.) if you don't meet people (1) and you cannot attend not attend but (.) be in  
48 their life (.) this is like  
49 S32: yeah  
50 S31: you don't know actually what is it but also history (.) because history (2) is  
51 good to: show not to show but to understand=  
52 S32: =yeah=  
53 S31: =why is it like this  
54 S32: yeah and also i mean (1) i like <fast>when just in day life sometimes you  
55 can see like some typical dances that they are doing i mean i don't know they  
56 make like one kind of roman and they just i don't know i think when you just  
57 know these kind of things like typical dances and this</fast> (.) and also for  
58 example (1) two days ago it was their <LNtr>bayram</LNtr> for children and  
59 this (1) so <fast>it's also good to know these kind of things because you just get  
60 to know</fast> what are the important things in: (1) here for example i don't  
61 know that that day is very important for the children (.) and this (.) and (1) i don't  
62 know  
63 S31: yeah and the this the (1) the way they think (.) like (.) er for example when  
64 we were <fast>wondering <imitating>o:h tomorrow is  
65 <LNtr>bayram</LNtr></imitating></fast> but we don't know actually what will  
66 be this holiday about hm hm okay so let's check and (.) i i said <fast>i don't  
67 know maybe they will make republic this day is it possible</fast> hm now  
68 <fast>they they made it in october okay so i don't know</fast> (.) and we check  
69 it and it was like <LNtr>bayram</LNtr> i mean the holiday of (1) <@>what was  
70 it (.) <2>about</2></@>  
71 S32: <2>children</2> <3>yeah</3>  
72 S31: <loud><3>children</3></loud> yes and (.) national (.) national holiday and  
73 they are children and we think hm: like in poland (1) it could be (.) like if there is  
74 national holiday (.) about (.) it was about making the (.) national holiday is like  
75 national holiday (.) it's really pathetic  
76 S32: <4>@@@</4>  
77 S31: <4>a:nd</4> you know all (.) flags and everyone is sad about the history  
78 because they so many people <@>died (1) in history past time</@> and we are  
79 not thinking about (1) children (.) and dances but here it was totally different like  
80 in poland  
81 S32: yeah  
82 S31: something else  
83 S32: yeah and <fast>also for example it was (.) kind of surprising like</fast> (.)  
84 they they bought here like (1) really huge flags everywhere (.) like (.) i don't  
85 know they were like big (.) size really big (.) size you know like houses so many  
86 of them (.) and it's like there's like really <un>xxxx</un> for example in spain  
87 now is like not really good scene when people just saw their spanish flag and this  
88 but here's like (.) everywhere and i don't know and (.) it was really good i mean it  
89 was like good feeling all the day i don't know and i just wake up that day hearing  
90 the music from one school that was close to me at the beginning it was like  
91 <imitating>why it's so early for this music</imitating> and this but then (.) it  
92 was cool because it was just you can hear like all the children (.) like laughing  
93 and this and also for example it's one thing i like a lot about turkey because in  
94 cerrahpasa in the place i live (.) you can see lot of children (.) playing in the  
95 streets and for example in the spain (.) now it's not that common that (1) you see  
96 (1) people i mean children (.) playing in the streets because it's like (.) maybe  
97 their parents thinks that it's not that safe so maybe they're just playing at home  
98 and playstation and this but here you can really see (1) some things that for  
99 example in spain it's not that common to see and (.) also for example the- there's  
100 always one man (.) passing by with a car kind of car no like <LNtr>eskici  
101 eskici</LNtr> and he just asking for old things and i i really like these kind of

102 things like living in a quarter you know like you can feel like (.) real life there  
103 and it's always (1) sounds and also of course the cats everywhere (.) now i think I  
104 will miss a lot just the cats like (1) yes meowing (1) every day i don't know it's  
105 this in  
106 S31: yes that's why also yesterday i was on the bazaar on market (1) near fatih on  
107 fatih this carsamba bazaar but (1) and yes and (1) now it's made so it's the  
108 weather is not so cold it's warmer (.) and there were a LOT OF a lot of (.) you  
109 know how it's called tourists @ <@>there was a lot of tourists</@> there (.) i  
110 didn't i i was before on tarlabasi but i haven't met so much (1) an:d: yesterday it  
111 was really a lot because maybe because of the weather and also they: were  
112 always with a guide (.) they they wasn't alone it was like (.) older people i mean  
113 <5>not older</5>  
114 S32: <5>yeah yeah</5>  
115 S31: <@>middle aged</@> (.) from england or somewhere (.) a:nd: they were  
116 with a guide so (1) i think they really also appreciate like daily life makes it (1)  
117 show the culture best (.) but what about this flag in (.) in spain why (.) why you  
118 shouldn't  
119 S32: i don't know it just like people doesn't like it so much these days i don't  
120 know they (.) they just kind of (.) try to connect it with (.) the past you know so  
121 and it's like (.) it's not (.) that they really: (.) like it (.) if you show it it's like only  
122 people can show it maybe when sup- support things and these kind of things but i  
123 don't know (.) an:d (1) i don't know but here it's like everywhere is like (.) in  
124 every place <slow>for every little party</slow> that they have it's like (.) they  
125 just celebrate with lot of flags everywhere so it's cool that you just can (.) show it  
126 (.) without being called something i don't know  
127 S31: yeah but here also i think it's important it's history you know wi:th in:  
128 understanding the culture (.) because when i'm with my friends (1) she has seen  
129 the (.) the flag she said <imitating>o:h my god (.) like in america (1) everywhere  
130 the big flags</imitating>  
131 S32: <6>yeah yeah yeah</6>  
132 S31: <6>you know</6> the the national the: (1) the nationality which (1)  
133 appeared here in turkey this is like actually new one and also in (1) in america so  
134 they are trying i think in similar way (1) to erm (2) to show it that like they are  
135 together and they are one (2) an:d they try try to show it like in america actually  
136 how how to say there is no american real american <7>like there for  
137 example</7>  
138 S32: <7>yeah yeah yeah yeah yeah</7> but there is some american flags  
139 everywhere like you can feel overwhelmed or something <@>just like  
140 <8>@@</8> all the flags</@> <9>everywhere</9>  
141 S31: <8>yeah</8> <9>so they're</9> creating their their nationality  
142 some<10>how</10>=  
143 S32: =<10>yeah</10> yeah yeah=  
144 S31: =using this flag also (.) and here i think it's similar (1) big flags are  
145 everywhere  
146 S32: yeah but this'll yes you are right about their history because when you learn  
147 all their history about ataturk and everything and how (.) everything was (1) you  
148 just you can understand and also the (1) <LNtr>bayram</LNtr> that (.) are here  
149 like (1) i don't know yeah it's (.) the important thing is just (.) everything i think  
150 it's like (.) the traditions <@>and daily life</@> and history is like (.) the way to  
151 understand (.) the culture and (1) yeah  
152 S31: yes (.) i (.) and about FOOD (.) i (.) thought (1) that food can really show  
153 you (1) who are (2) with who which culture is this culture culture connected like  
154 here it's connected with greece (.) and doesn't matter what turkish people are  
155 saying about the <@>greece (.) the food and the music are similar</@> in  
156 turkey and in greece and this shows that actually they are (.) i don't know kind of

157 brothers i don't know <@>want to <11>make it</11>  
158 S32: <11>yeah like</11>  
159 S31: really one but (.) it seems like this</@>  
160 S32: yeah they are really related all their food and everything yeah you're right  
161 (.) like mediterranean and this (.) yeah

Transcription 27

Title: Interview 18

Record Date and Time: 03.05.2013 12:00

Record Duration: 11:22

Setting: IU HAYEF Dean's Office

Speaker ID and Native Language: S36: Turkish/German

</teiHeader>

- 1 R: interview eighteen (1) okay at what age do children start school in your  
2 country  
3 S36: in my (.) country  
4 R: <1>mhm</1>  
5 S36: <1>the</1> people (.) the children starts to go to school when they are six  
6 or seven  
7 R: mhm  
8 S36: but actually (1) they changed it so now also children go: to school when  
9 they get (.) five (.) sometimes  
10 R: mhm (1) this is the same in turkey @  
11 S36: okay  
12 R: what is the language of instruction in your schools does it change according to  
13 the level  
14 S36: erm: (.) yeah (1) in the primary school it's (.) in (.) in when i: got to school it  
15 was (.) german in secondary school also german but in secondary school (.) you  
16 have to lear:n erm another foreign language  
17 R: mhm  
18 S36: i learned english (1) and if you go on the high level of the high school like  
19 (.) the last three years (.) you have to learn the second foreign language for me it  
20 was spanish (.) i did not learn it but i tried but it didn't worked out (1) but still it's  
21 (.) erm: (.) work you have to do there (1) and if you go to the university (.) it's  
22 normal like (.) erm that german is one of the big scientifical language  
23 R: mhm  
24 S36: so you can just stand with german (.) you actually don't really need (.)  
25 english if you make your (.) master degree even though you've some english  
26 seminars (1) but you can: er go to english seminars like me i had my (.) bachelor  
27 (.) seminars in english  
28 R: mhm  
29 S36: and had also english seminars just to improve my english (1) so: (.) that's:  
30 the difference from it like  
31 R: okay (.) so since english is your (.) er native language one of those native  
32 language i'm not going to ask when <2>you started to learn</2>  
33 S36: <2>i'm not german</2> german (.) turkish are my <3>native</3> languages  
34 R: <3>yeah</3> so at what age do students start to learn english  
35 S36: erm i start with: around eleven (1) but now they start with four or five (1)  
36 before (.) they start with school (.) they start sometimes with english  
37 R: mhm (.) what are the criteria to be accepted to the erasmus program in your  
38 country (2) any criteria  
39 S36: e:r no actually it's more like if there's place in the university you wanna go  
40 to (.) a:nd you get write a motivation letter (1) and they accept you (1) that's it i  
41 think there's no special: (.) thing you've they have to be agree even if there's no  
42 agreement you can fix up agreement  
43 R: mhm  
44 S36: so  
45 R: er do you rely on your english in terms of communicating in a foreign country  
46 S36: yeah (.) why not (.) i do actually i think my english is not that bad



47 R: yeah  
48 S36: a lot of people tell me that i'm pretty good in english  
49 R: mhm (.) do you agree with the idea that english is the language of  
50 communication in the world  
51 S36: yes just definitely (.) definitely i mean i can speak with a lot of people i live  
52 in a house with different er people from different countries like polish people (1)  
53 just one other german people there're also erm: (2) at the moment not but  
54 sometimes spanish people canadian people french people (1) whatever a lot of  
55 nationalities i can speak with all of them (.) it's nice  
56 R: erm are you satisfied with your english language proficiency  
57 S36: erm: it's okay: i would like to be better especially like in u:h may have some  
58 problems with my (1) writing  
59 R: mhm  
60 S36: erm i'm really: happy: that my pc corrects the failures i do  
61 R: mhm  
62 S36: erm: i: try to improve my vocabulary (1) and the most i'm happy with my  
63 speaking skills i think they're higher than my writing <4>skills</4>  
64 R: <4>yeah</4> yeah (2) what were your expectations before you coming to  
65 turkey academic social cultural  
66 S36: erm: (1) i came to turkey: (1) to: get to know the turkish culture (1) on the  
67 academical level i have: thought that it would be nice to go to the university  
68 maybe i've some nice classes (.) but actually the university has not be my first  
69 aim (.) i want to travel around whatever because i the points i'll make here (.)  
70 actually i did them already in germany  
71 R: mhm  
72 S36: i did more so i've more free time (1) and it's like i (.) listen to this: classes to  
73 listen native turkish speakers (.) and learn some: (1) er and get better in turkish  
74 R: mhm  
75 S36: cultural yeah (.) what should i say in germany there's a turkish culture  
76 because there're a lot of turkish foreigners (1) but it's different than from turkey  
77 (.) expected that (1) but i have not been (1) sure about it and i wanted to know  
78 what kind of difference it is (.) because turks in germany they live (2) on erm (1)  
79 differently they have like their own space  
80 R: <5>mhm</5>  
81 S36: <5>a f:e</5>nce around them <6>they</6>  
82 R: <6>they</6> do not interact with german people  
83 S36: it depends of the on the area like where i came from (1) they less (1) where  
84 i moved to study (.) more  
85 R: hm  
86 S36: so: it's different from that point  
87 R: mhm  
88 S36: hm  
89 R: what are the difficulties of living and studying in a foreign country  
90 S36: language (.) i study in turkish: but actually i'm not on the scientific level  
91 of turkish so: (1) i have some problems to understand my lecturers if they're  
92 speaking (.) about (1) some stuff (1) and even through my (.) fellow students (1)  
93 they: just (.) speak turkish (.) i have sometimes the feeling they also don't speak  
94 turkish because they can (.) cannot understand erm (.) not answer my questions=  
95 R: =<7>mhm</7>=  
96 S36: =<7>about</7> the stuff we do (1) so: after (.) three weeks of intensive  
97 studies i actually gave i've gave up about (1) following the lessons  
98 R: mhm (1) okay of all the courses you're taking this term which one interests  
99 you the most and why  
100 S36: the most and why (1) erm: (2) <slow>actually there's like to have been two  
101 courses (.) psychology (1) social psychology?</slow> <8>i think so</8>

102 R: <8>mhm</8>  
103 S36: and catastrophe management but actually i skipped catastrophe  
104 management because i have to choose between (.) once evening activity  
105 activities with the erasmus people  
106 R: mhm  
107 S36: choose their morning activity in class so: i skip that no choice @@  
108 R: @@  
109 S36: and the other course like social psychology (.) it's: it's interesting because  
110 it's more (1) on academical level for my point of view  
111 R: mhm have you seen any differences between your university and istanbul  
112 university  
113 S36: o:h yeah (1) too big (.) istanbul university is more like school (.) i have the  
114 feeling like i'm sitting in a classroom with a lot of students (.) not in university  
115 area (1) we have no in germany we have no attendance (.) i can go to the classes  
116 or not (.) i don't get homeworks it's like (.) teachers tell me tell us like this is the  
117 homework (1) you should do it (.) because it's preparation for the accent (.) so  
118 you do it for yourself to prepare yourself on the accent and you do not have or  
119 not (.) or you're going the classes or not (.) you make you prepare yourself for the  
120 for the courses or not nobody cares (1) you're independent  
121 R: mhm but here  
122 S36: here it's like you have to do your homework you have to <9>go to  
123 classes</9>=  
124 R: =<9>otherwise @</9>  
125 S36: you have to: take your attendance in the cla:ss and you give some you get  
126 marks for that (.) so it's: (1) different it's like (1) a school level (1) it's: annoying  
127 for me actually even through and also like they're (.) they are <slow>not using  
128 books (1) like (.) it's like</slow> o:h i've made this experience and now you  
129 should learn it it's like (.) what (1) <@>why (1) it's like</@> you have no proof=  
130 R: =mhm=  
131 S36: =of thing (.) it's=  
132 R: =mhm=  
133 S36: =annoys me  
134 R: yeah okay (1) do you speak any other foreign languages besides english  
135 S36: erm: (2) i tried to learn spanish (.) but after eight years of trying @@ i think  
136 i will give up on that and when i go  
137 R: eight years <10>you said</10>  
138 S36: <10>yes</10> yes i start in tenth grade of school  
139 R: mhm  
140 S36: now i'm twenty-five so <@>eight years so</@>  
141 R: @@  
142 S36: so er (1) so i think when i go back to germany i will try to learn french @  
143 R: @ (.) okay (1) have you noticed any cultural differences between your country  
144 and turkey  
145 S36: yeah (.) the main: difference is: the behavior of the people if SOMETHING  
146 HAPPENS (.) like (1) two gu:ys getting: in a fight with each other (1) and  
147 like (.) they they can't hit each other because (.) in the moment they're screaming  
148 each other (.) and they lift their fists (.) they will be at least like fifty people (.)  
149 who just grab them and stop them and say like <imitating>o:h please brother (1)  
150 he don't wanted like that it's an accede:nt you don't <11>want i:t</11>  
151 R: <11>@@@</11>  
152 S36: you know we're all frie:nds (.) <@>let us </12>live in  
153 peace</12></@ </imitating>  
154 R: <12>lay lay</12>  
155 S36: it's so typical turkish you know in germany it's like (.) they're fighting each  
156 other people stand there and they wait (.) <@>just</@> <13>@@@</13>

157 R: <13>wow @@</13>  
158 S36: it's that's like one of the main difference also like if you go somewhere that  
159 like erm (1) er something it's also different like in germany if the people gets on  
160 a higher level on a academical level (1) they get more: nicer (.) more more  
161 relaxed  
162 R: mhm  
163 S36: in turkey (1) they get (.) more arrogant and they look down in the students  
164 and they don't speak with you they don't take even time for you not even like (.)  
165 thirty seconds and you have to run behind them on the corridors and try to get  
166 them (.) <slow>that's: different i don't like that</slow>  
167 R: mhm (.) okay (1) can you describe the place you live in istanbul  
168 S36: o:h (.) i: live in the existanbul house it's kind of shared house with three:  
169 hostel rooms so: you like you can be like erm have to count five fifteen (4) fifty-  
170 five people in the house  
171 R: <14>really</14>  
172 S36: no <14>fifty</14> seven people in the house  
173 R: are all of them erasmus students  
174 S36: no no no  
175 R: <15>@@@</15>  
176 S36: <15>fifteen of them</15> are could be our erasmus  
177 R: fifteen  
178 S36: fifteen (.) and  
179 R: <16>but</16>  
180 S36: <16>we</16> just six at the moment (.) and the rest is just people who: get  
181 in the house and lived there for: a while it's also hostel (.) so (1) it's interesting so  
182 i met canadian people: american people:  
183 R: mhm  
184 S36: indian people: (.) syrian people  
185 R: yeah  
186 S36: all all kind of people  
187 R: yeah can you finally talk about your family what languages do they speak  
188 S36: my: family at home we speak (.) turkish  
189 R: mhm  
190 S36: but from time to time i force my mom to speak with me german because she  
191 were (.) erm (1) that employees she work with (.) they speak not a good german  
192 (1) so she's been a high level on german when she moved to germany (.) to live  
193 there in his twenty-one (1) but she lost her skills (1) she fall on a lower level (1)  
194 a:nd (.) so i force her from time to time to speak with me german she don't likes  
195 it but <17>no</17>  
196 R: <17>yeah</17>  
197 S36: it's it's like i think she has to because i (.) i can see (.) how she gets  
198 better while we speak  
199 R: mhm (2) thanks a lot  
200 S36: you're welcome

Transcription 40

Title: Interview 24

Record Date and Time: 14.05.2013 15:34

Record Duration: 10:58

Setting: Yeditepe University

Speaker ID and Native Language: S56: French

</teiHeader>

1 R: interview twenty-four (1) okay at what age do children start school in your  
2 country  
3 S56: er around three (1) or four years old (1) because we are going to:  
4 kindergarten (.) then there is a primary school around (.) six seven (.) then (1) er  
5 co- er college (.) college @  
6 R: mhm what is the language of (.) instruction in your school  
7 S56: french  
8 R:french  
9 S56: only french  
10 R: mhm mhm (.) at what age do students start to LEARN english  
11 S56: er it was in: er (1) middle school (1) so it <slow>means around e:r</slow>  
12 (1) i need to calculate @@ i guess around twelve years old (1) yeah twelve  
13 R: okay (1) what are the criteria to be accepted to the erasmus program in your  
14 country  
15 S56: e:r it was not so difficult (.) actually: (.) in my department i'm studying  
16 sociology (.) nobody asked for: erasmus (.) it's bit <@>strange</@> @@ but so  
17 you just need to have a good grades (.) e:r (1) more than because we our grade is  
18 on twenty (.) er zero is the: e:r (.) less one and twenty the best one (.) we you  
19 have to:: you're not e:r have to be: in the average of (.) twelve or more (.)  
20 minimum twelve on twenty minimum twelve (.) then e:r you have to write  
21 motivation letter (1) and e:r say yeah i want to do that because it's good for my  
22 study: and (.) have a: (.) nice (.) profile like that only that  
23 R: so it's easy (.) right  
24 S56: yeah it was easy (1) just NO (.) it's easy to be accepted if you have the  
25 grades (.) but (.) <1>there is so:</1>  
26 R: <1>to have that</1> grade is (.) difficult maybe  
27 S56: erm: (1) but it was okay because i study: when i enter university (.) i knew  
28 that i wanted to go abroad (.) so: i study well  
29 R: mhm  
30 S56: just <2>to have the grades</2>  
31 R: <2>so your grades</2> are high  
32 S56: it's not so bad  
33 R: mhm  
34 S56: and e:r but the administration stuff is really really problematic o:h my god i  
35 <@>cry so much @@ <3>every</3></@>  
36 R: <3>here?</3> (.) in tur<4>key?</4>  
37 S56: <4>no:</4> in france  
38 R: in france  
39 S56: there is so many problem every time  
40 R: @  
41 S56: with administration stuff  
42 R: do you rely on your english in terms of communicating in a foreign country  
43 do you think that (.) you can easily communicate  
44 S56: i have no choice @@ yeah (.) i think yes (1) maybe: it's it's difficult for  
45 american people maybe to understand me (.) but (1) with the basic english it's  
46 okay

47 R: so nonnative speakers can understand you?  
48 S56: yeah yeah (.) also native but i guess some (.) sometime because of my  
49 accent (.) it's difficult for them o:r i use some strange words @ like that but yeah  
50 yes i think it's okay  
51 R: do you agree with the idea that english is the language of communication in  
52 the world  
53 S56: yes i think so (.) i think so  
54 R: do you think that it will change in the future  
55 S56: no i think it will stay english (.) becau:se only NOW for example in france  
56 (1) only now o:r five years ago (.) they noticed that it's so important and now  
57 they are creating some class to improve english because (.) french level in  
58 english is so bad (1) everybody knows that or so like in spain in italian (.) and so:  
59 they are creating some class (.) an:d i think they: (.) only thinks about english or  
60 some people say maybe chinese will be (.) e:rm (1) important to learn (.) some  
61 people are trying to learn chinese  
62 R: yeah you're right (2) are you satisfied with your english language proficiency  
63 (.) your grammar writing vocabulary and speaking  
64 S56: e:rm: (2) i think i can understand very well (1) but (1) i: @@@ (4) i think i  
65 can understand very well but e:r write is okay i mean my teacher here specially  
66 doesn't (1) e:r it's not problems they can understand me (.) but (1) yeah i (.) i  
67 think we can notice that i'm not e:r (.) when they write er read my papers they  
68 can notice i'm not american o:r english person because (1) i write (.) like i think  
69 and i'm thinking maybe sometime in french and then i translate in english in my  
70 mind so yeah  
71 R: okay (.) what were your expectations before coming to turkey (1) academic  
72 leisure or cultural  
73 S56: e:r (.) just i wanted to visit it (.) turkey (1) to eat <@>foo:d</@> @ to meet  
74 some people (.) to meet erasmus stude:nt to meet turkish people (.) and because  
75 i'm studying sociology and anthropology it was so interesting for me to see  
76 different cultures (.) just like that the music everything (.) everything (.) and the  
77 way of life (1) e:r i don't know i just wanted to be open-minded an:d e:rm (1)  
78 meet with lots of people and discover new things like that but i didn't think that i  
79 will do that or i will do: just be: (.) <@>carpe diem @ like that</@> @@  
80 R: what are the difficulties of living in a foreign country  
81 S56: er i think (.) language can be a problem (.) becau:se er in turkey not  
82 everybody speak in english (.) so: for example in the bu:s sometimes i have lot  
83 lots of (.) problem if i: lost my sta:tion (.) bus sta:tion and i want to open the  
84 door: i don't know how to say: (.) or this kind of (.) little thing:s (1) e:rm (1) this  
85 kind of little things e:r (.) remember you that you are foreigner: like people come  
86 to talk to you in the station (.) but you cannot answer so you just think  
87 <imitating>yeah i cannot understand <@>you i'm sorry</@></imitating> but (.)  
88 i don't speak your language (.) an:d like that (1) but: (.) NO (.) turkey: people are  
89 really nice i think very helpful (.) so: it's nice to live here  
90 R: of all the courses you are taking this term which one interests you the most  
91 S56: e:rm: (1) i think it could be my gender lesson (1) because (.) teacher is very  
92 open-minded and we can talk about everything (.) and it's interesting because er  
93 my teacher (.) e:r (1) we talk ab- lot about turkey (1) and he has very (.) critical  
94 point of view about turkey (.) so we can say EVERYTHING (1) without limits  
95 (1) this is nice  
96 R: yeah (2) have you seen any differences between your university and yeditepe  
97 university could you please give (1) exam<5>ples</5>  
98 S56: <5>yes</5> (1) firstly: in france my university is public we don't have  
99 private university all of them are public=  
100 R: =REALLY=  
101 S56: =i guess yes (.) so: this is first point (.) a:nd e:r i think the level is more low

102 here lower (.) here (.) because e:r people come to: study in english (1) but some  
103 of them (.) doesn't speak english (.) also my english is bad but i try to study to  
104 make effort to understand something (.) but they: just they are waiting fo:r the  
105 teacher translating (.) in turkish (1) a:nd because of that we: lose some times a:nd  
106 they: (1) they don't want also to study maybe: (1) a bit lazy i think i don't know  
107 maybe it's only in yeditepe i have no idea (.) but e:r i noticed that level is so  
108 low like (1) e:r i don't want to: be: show off or like that but er i don't study so  
109 much because it's erasmus life (.) but i took grade like (.) ninety percent (.) but (.)  
110 for them it's so difficult (1) so: i guess the level is not the same (.) we don't have  
111 same expectation in university or something like that  
112 R: do you speak any other foreign languages besides english  
113 S56: er i learn german at school (1) and russian: (.) in high school  
114 R: would you like to learn one more (.) language  
115 S56: i'm learning turkish @@  
116 R: @  
117 S56: <@>i'm really bad</@> (1) e:r but YEAH i would like to: first e:r firstly i  
118 wanted to improve my english (.) like now i can speak (.) e:r it's okay (1) i would  
119 like to improve my russian and maybe learn italian  
120 R: okay have you noticed any cultural differences between your country and  
121 turkey (.) can you give a few examples  
122 S56: yeah i think there is SO much (.) e:r (1) almost about everything: for  
123 example about religion (.) like e:r (.) france and turkey are: (1) secular country (.)  
124 but (1) come on in turkey you cannot wear whatever you want you cannot dress  
125 er with everything you want (.) in my country i can wear (.) just (.) normal dress  
126 (.) nobody will look at me it's just normal (.) but here (1) i for example i'm living  
127 in icerenkoy (.) when i'm going from my flat to the bus with just a dress (.)  
128 everybody look at me like there is problem or something like that (.) so i think  
129 (1) yeah people CHECK YOU and because maybe because of religion or  
130 something like that i have no idea  
131 R: yeah  
132 S56: i cannot judge also (.) e:r yeah there is lots of e:r (1) difference also people  
133 are more (.) e:rm (2) kin- kind and friendly with you you ask maybe for help they  
134 will help you it's normal (.) they come with you sometimes i'm (.) asking for  
135 way: they will come with me until i found the bus station or something like that  
136 (.) in my country nobody will do that maybe some people will er (.) give some  
137 indications (.) but (1) they are not coming with you to show the pla:ce or: (.)  
138 sometimes they PAY for me in the bus i don't know people are really friendly (.)  
139 yeah this is i think this is cultural (1) @  
140 R: can you describe the place you live in istanbul  
141 S56: er i'm living with a turkish turkish flatmate in icerenkoy (1) it's a: (1)  
142 <slow>small</slow> flat not so small there is a: (1) one living room one kitchen  
143 (.) is room bathroom my room (1) and corridor (.) so it's enough for two person  
144 R: what about your (.) flatmate  
145 S56: what about my flatmate  
146 R: yeah what does she study  
147 S56: he's studying mathematic (.) in yeditepe also (1) e:rm yeah is nice we are a  
148 little bit different but it's okay i'm i don't spend so much time at home because  
149 with erasmus life i've lots of friends we make lots of party or dinner or like that  
150 (.) so: i just come to: sometimes study: or (1) sleep and (.) <@>live like  
151 that</@> (1) it's nice  
152 R: can you talk about your family what languages do they speak  
153 S56: e:r my family: (.) my parents speak <slow>french (1) they learn  
154 er:m</slow> (1) german at school but they don't speak together for example (1)  
155 my father: speak little bit (1) english and my mother: she can understand but (1)  
156 she's so bad i think nobody can understand <@>her when she's speaking</@> (.)

157 and my sister: she learn also: e:rm (1) like me german and english (.) and she's  
158 okay in english (.) and she's learning polish also because she want to go erasmus  
159 there (.) a:nd (1) yeah like that (1) what can i say i <@>don't  
160 R: <6>thank you</6>  
161 S56: <6>about them</6> yeah

Transcription 53

Title: Focus Group Meeting 25

Record Date and Time: 10.06.2013 15:49

Record Duration: 11:56

Setting: IU HAYEF Office 6

Speaker IDs and Native Languages: S77: Danish S78: German

</teiHeader>

1 R: meeting twenty-five  
2 S77: okay so (1) i chose (1) the third question (1) because it made me think of  
3 erm: (1) another issue around this (.) discussion of what social media does to:  
4 relationships and your way of interacting (1) and having contact because (.)  
5 recently i've been watching (1) my my brother on facebook you know of course  
6 he's he's fifteen or sixteen (.) and he: in a different way has grown up with  
7 facebook (.) and this social media without may be (1) being alert to what it  
8 means (2) in a sense that (.) that he is become it's always been SO normal to him  
9 (.) that he doesn't think (.) twice before (.) he: posts something for example you  
10 know (.) he: (1) and i don't know if this comes with (1) being so experienced  
11 with having this sort of communication or just be it being so normal (1) o:r if it's  
12 just him and his behavior but i (.) i see it in general (1) that people tend to just  
13 post whatever you know you don't have the same filter as if you are in the real  
14 world (.) you know (.) you sit in front of another person (1) and you might not  
15 wri- you might not tell this person o:h i was throwing up all day <1>i hope  
16 tomorrow will be better but</1>  
17 S78: <1>@@@</1>  
18 S77: i see these things and i see my brother posting things that i think (1) would  
19 you say this? (1) if you sat if you were sitting in front of another person (1) i  
20 thought this i think this is quite (1) a big issue  
21 S78: so you say that social media is used to (1) disclose information you now (1)  
22 brought back directly (.) isn't isn't this more like (.) you've more open  
23 communication with your friends and your (1) friends facebook friends  
24 S77: yeah and your friends' parents and your friends working like it's it's  
25 S78: do you do you add your parents on facebook <2>@@</2>  
26 S77: <2>no i don't but</2> people do (1) you know  
27 S78: why why is=  
28 S77: =i don't know that's a whole different discussion (1) my (.) my point being  
29 (1) that i think it's it's very problematic (1) that it is become SO EASY just to  
30 burst out whatever is on your mind=  
31 S78: =yeah=  
32 S77: =like people could do whatever they want to do but i think it's a  
33 <slow>weird way of communicating</slow>  
34 S78: i don't know (1) <3>i don't know</3>  
35 S77: and i think <3>that people</3> don't THINK what they are (.)  
36 COMMUNICATING (.) now to everybody i was asking this to my brother  
37 without being too rude (.) but do you think all of your three hundred friends want  
38 to <4>know</4>  
39 S78: <4>@@</4>  
40 S77: how it was (.) you know for you to go to the toilet  
41 S78: a:h yeah  
42 S77: it's picking issues in a more (1) critical way (.) i feel=  
43 S78: =that's true no when i (.) see this question (1) it's for me (1) for me  
44 personally i use facebook (.) of course everyone use facebook=  
45 S77: =mhm=  
46 S78: =to communicate with my friends=



47 S77: =<5>of course</5>=  
48 S78: =<5>not like</5> i post things this is my breakfast (1) i'm at (.)  
49 ortakoy <LNtr>kahve iciyor</LNtr> whatever (1) i don't know i just can use this  
50 to to connect with them easily you can create groups (1) you can make group  
51 chats or whatever if you have more friends to meet (1) or even we used them (.)  
52 social medias for (1) study works=  
53 S77: =yeah (.) in that (.) in that sense it's very efficient and i like that part of it (.)  
54 i also use it for my activism and my (.) social work of course because it's a very  
55 very easy way to get contact with people (.) but i also think it transcends that  
56 when it then becomes (.) a medium where a medium where you can (.) where  
57 you can just burst out everything without critically thinking about (.) who: is this  
58 gonna REACH (.) what does it gonna have of CONSEQUENCES (1) to my  
59 CLOSE RELATIONSHIPS but also in the periphery  
60 S78: hm (.) yeah  
61 S77: it's: (1) i think that this sort of (1) easy access that we now (.) appreciate  
62 when we use it for (.) organizational work or study groups all these things that  
63 are really really efficient (.) erm: (1) i think that (2) it is (2) it loses i think that's  
64 that's a really really good part of it but i think it become problematic when (.)  
65 when (.) when people just (.) when u:se it because it's so normal and you just you  
66 (.) yeah use it for anything  
67 S78: can i can i ask you how old are you  
68 S77: i'm twenty-four  
69 S78: twenty-four okay (.) because i'm twenty-five so  
70 S77: yeah  
71 S78: yeah when was the first time you had contact with social media was  
72 eighteen (.) seventeen <6>eighteen</6>  
73 S77: <6>yeah</6> seventeen maybe i i can't remember when i got facebook but i  
74 i: i it must have been  
75 S78: i mean the whole chatting stuff and  
76 S77: o:h well earlier than (.) messenger and all these <7>things it</7> must have  
77 been  
78 S78: <7>yeah yeah</7> <un>xxx</un> around  
79 S77: maybe fourteen or something when i in the beginning of puberty (1) i guess  
80 when it became interesting for me to (.) communicate with other people of  
81 course (1) and you wanted  
82 S78: because you said your brother growing up with this social (.) media  
83 networks (1) since he was i don't know six <8>or wha</8>tever  
84 S77: <8>mhm</8> (.) yeah  
85 S78: yeah maybe this is a (.) big effect on that (1) that you have  
86 S77: i think so (.) i think it's (2) i think it's problematic that many people don't  
87 think about what it is that they are doing (1) because you sit by yourself in front  
88 of the screen you can of course (.) see: that other people are doing a posting  
89 things but when you're sitting with yourself (.) not sitting (.) in front of people  
90 where you think o:h o:h my goodness this this can actually EFFECT (1) you  
91 know you can't help but think (1) TWICE before you speak when you sit in a  
92 social=  
93 S78: =yeah yeah that's true=  
94 S77: =in a group (1) you know=  
95 S78: =yeah you don't stand up and make this (.) strange joke and then o:h (.) can  
96 have directly the reflection of the (1) attendance and not (1) just a click (.) and i  
97 don't know when i would grow up (1) this this data security in my mind (1)  
98 therefore i'm <9>not posting that much</9>  
99 S77: <9>the (.) the what</9>  
100 S78: data security  
101 S77: yeah

102 S78: you know (.) i'm not posting anything <10>on</10> facebook=  
103 S77: =<10>no</10>=  
104 S78: =address i know it's okay i don't give (.) telephone number i don't share on  
105 facebook you know (1) and=  
106 S77: =i'm also very critical about (.) my whole use of facebook i'm also (1) and  
107 in: (.) in general social media because maybe i'm over sensitive because of some  
108 of the activism that i do i don't want you know=  
109 S78: =yeah=  
110 S77: =my information out there and i think (.) so (.) my brother maybe i'm  
111 maybe i'm also (.) like <11>he can do whatever maybe i'm getting older (.) he  
112 can do whatever he wants to</11>  
113 S78: <11>@@@@@@ <coughs></11>  
114 S77: but to me it's very problematic because it also has a different of course it  
115 has a different consequence for me (2) posting things like this because i know  
116 that maybe (1) different from him of course (2) other peo- this what i post might  
117 reach other people (.) you know (1) or other me ooph i don't know=  
118 S78: =that's true that's true=  
119 S77: =other contacts where it can have bigger consequences that (.) i don't know  
120 the segment that my brother (.) reaches=  
121 S78: =that's true true the stuff i post i'm always always make (.) take care of that  
122 (.) that information i share (1) and then not normal information it's not it's not  
123 something like i say yeah i'm now at (.) la la la meeting (1) maybe it's a political  
124 meeting and then i cannot find another politic party or whatever you know (1) it's  
125 more like so yeah i go playing bowling (1) that's it you <12>know</12> @@@  
126 S77: <12>yeah</12>  
127 S78: and then then was o:h a:h you play bowling cannot make any gossip or  
128 anything about that=  
129 S77: =no no=  
130 S78: =bowling is bowling (.) it's quite boring  
131 S77: so i guess we using it as simple infor<13>mation</13>  
132 S78: <13>yeah</13> exactly  
133 S77: yeah  
134 S78: but when i'm away i also check on my my facebook wall (1) some notes  
135 which i'm posting on the (.) what is (1) really less (.) maybe once maybe once or  
136 twice per month=  
137 S77: =yeah=  
138 S78: =up to like that (.) but i also have another friends that are posting every hour  
139 (1) every shit i'm (.) i'm not even reading what they're posting (.) erm lots of  
140 thing i just skip skip skip and i don't care about that  
141 S77: but that's when i also think it becomes interesting (.) also we got in this  
142 question you know does it=  
143 S78: =kills real=  
144 S77: =kill real relationships (1) i don't know (.) but it at least alters (1) and  
145 changes your way of communicate (.) communicating it doesn't maybe  
146 necessarily kill off ALL relationships but it does something to your  
147 communication (1) especially if <@>you have to sit down every hour</@> or  
148 every like (1) twice an hour to post what you're doing (.) it makes you detached  
149 from what you're actually doing i see this all the time i see people on the: and i  
150 also have my own <14>phone you know and i'm</14>=  
151 S78: =<14>@ <@>yeah i know</@></14>=  
152 S77: =constantly checking (.) i'm thinking (1) WHY am i doing this it really does  
153 (1) maybe not kill off your relationships but it does something to: (.) the focus  
154 you have in your real (.) world  
155 S78: you know we are also getting old but erm (.) i forgot this (1) when you  
156 when you get sit with a friend of groups (1) back in the days (.) you sit there and

157 talk=  
158 S77: =yeah=  
159 S78: =nowadays (.) you see that at least once an hour (.) no one is talking  
160 everyone is playing with a cell phone=  
161 S77: =yeah exactly=  
162 S78: =hey guys when my cell phone is shit (.) come on (.) talk with me (.) i  
163 cannot play  
164 S77: it's interesting=  
165 S78: =yeah it's really interesting  
166 S77: and again it's unproblematic (.) you know people don't THINK about it (.)  
167 it's not that i feel better or worse not doing it but i think it's (.) what is critical is  
168 that you they don't think about it (.) you just do it (.) like you just (.) post on  
169 facebook whatever is on your mind=  
170 S78: =yeah that's true that's true  
171 S77: yeah  
172 S78: but (.) another aspect on this question (1) is about the professional networks  
173 (1) you know like xing or: linkedin or (1) what they use in denmark linkedin  
174 right  
175 S77: yeah it must be=  
176 S78: =mostly=  
177 S77: =for your (.) professional:=  
178 S78: =yeah exactly (.) this is also a kind of social network (1) and i think this is  
179 just a upgraded (.) telephone book i don't <15>know (.) you know</15>  
180 S77: <15>mhm do you</15> think that's a GOOD (.) way of communicating in  
181 that sense  
182 S78: i don't know last time i got (.) internship offer over there=  
183 S77: =yeah=  
184 S78: =they just say hey someone send you a mail okay and check the profile  
185 that's interesting give me a call=  
186 S77: =yeah=  
187 S78: =(listen not) this one=  
188 S77: =but in that way i think it's also very sufficient i'm not saying that it's just  
189 bad i'm just saying you should i'm=  
190 S78: =be careful <16>@@</16>=  
191 S77: =i'm just <16>i'm just</16> calling for a bit of <slow>critical usage of it  
192 like erm aware use it</slow> like like everything else you do (1) you know  
193 S78: yeah yeah i mean i saw pictures (1) i had better not saw @@@=  
194 S77: =yeah=  
195 S78: =from a friend but this is this is their matters=  
196 S77: =yeah=  
197 S78: =and er=  
198 S77: =and that is exactly what you think this is your matter you should really (.)  
199 <17>you know</17>  
200 S78: @@ <17>i know</17> (.) are you sure you're going to post this (1) i mean  
201 for me it's okay you know i don't care what they are doing but  
202 S77: no and it's not about policing here i also i can just (.) choose not to look at it  
203 i can choose not to look at these things (.) of course with my brother <18>i  
204 have</18> an issue because i feel (.) <19>you know</19>=  
205 S78: =<18>yeah</18> (1) yeah <19>your brother</19>=  
206 S77: =yeah i i would like to tell him like think about what you say (.) i would  
207 have said that also had we been sitting with other people like just (.) think about  
208 what you're saying when you saying this  
209 S78: yeah  
210 S77: so but but in general of course i can just i could just leave (.) <slow>you  
211 know facebook or yeah</slow>

212 S78: really did you try i have friends had tried to leave facebook for a month (1)  
213 and they were so happy when they returned  
214 S77: @@@@  
215 S78: seriously they cannot live without facebook it's like (.) go out meet people  
216 (1) but erm (1) another point i was going to talk about is  
217 S77: is it good?  
218 S78: enough (1) yeah okay

## **AUTOBIOGRAPHY**

Serap Önen, who was born in Bludenz, Austria in 1979, completed primary education between 1986-1992 in Istanbul. Then, she went to her hometown Sakarya where she finished her secondary and high school education. Between 1997-2002, she attended the Department of English Linguistics at Hacettepe University and received her Bachelor's degree. She started her teaching career at Sakarya University Foreign Languages Department as a lecturer. In 2004, she got married and then started to work at Pamukkale University, Foreign Languages Department. She received her master's degree in English Language Teaching from Bilkent University, MATEFL, in 2007.

In 2008, she started to work as an instructor for the Department of English Language Teaching at Istanbul University, Hasan Ali Yücel Faculty of Education. She was admitted to the Ph.D. program in English Language Teaching in 2009. She finished her doctorate studies in 2014 with a dissertation titled as "Lexico-grammatical Features of English as a Lingua Franca: A Corpus-based Study on Spoken Interactions". Mrs. Önen speaks Turkish, English, and German.