Studying the Linguistic Ecology of Turkey:

A Comparison of University and Post-secondary Vocational School Students

Dissertation zur Erlangung des Grades der Doktorin der Philosophie (Dr. phil.) an der

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ACE	Asian Corpus of English	3
ASEAN	The Association of Southeast Asian Nations	3
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills	90
CALP	Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency	90
CEFR	Common European Framework	43
CEM	Cumulative Enhancement Model	95
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning	42
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching	41
CoHE	Council of Higher Education	46
CP	Complementiser Phrase	95
CUP	Common Underlying Proficiency	90
CV	Curriculum Vitae	265
DMM	Dynamic Model of Multilingualism	93
ECTS	European Credit Transfer System	49
EF	Education First	84
EFL	English as a foreign language	1
EGAP	English for General Academic Purposes	47
EGP	English for General Purposes	47
EHEA	European Higher Education Area	49
EIL	English as an International Language	2
ELF	English as a lingua franca	1
ELFA	English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings	3
ELT	English language teaching	2
EMI	English-medium instruction	5
EOP	English for Occupational Purposes	47
EPI	English Proficiency Index	83
ESAP	English for Specific Academic Purposes	47
ESL	English as a Second Language	59
EU	European Union	1
GE	Global Englishes	73
GPA	Grade Point Average	138
IELTS	International English Language Testing System	271
IP	International Posture	111

L1	first language	92
L2	second language	92
L3	third language	93
L4	fourth language	178
LFC	Lingua Franca Core	3
MoNE	Ministry of National Education	11
TEYLs	Teaching English to Young Learners	40
TMI	Turkish Medium Instruction	53
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language	85
TOEFL IBT	The Internet-based Test of English as a Foreign Language	85
VOICE	Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English	77
WE	World Englishes	2

1 Introduction

Multilingualism continues to be an important global issue in today's world and is defined as simply counting the extraordinary number of languages in the speaker's repertoire (Berthele, 2020). This global phenomenon has led to an unprecedented situation as there are more multilingual than monolingual individuals in the contemporary world (Potowski & Rothman, 2011; Rothman & Halloran, 2013). In the same way as increasing multilingual individuals parallels the social, linguistic, and cultural changes derived from geographical mobility, the globalization issue has contributed to a growing interest in multilingualism.

In an age characterized by globalization, an evident consequence is the rise of English to the status of a universal language (Crystal, 1997). English is fast becoming an important language in business, science, technology, and education. Many individuals study English as a foreign language (EFL), and a growing number use English as a lingua franca (ELF) in their communication in various domains. This ever-increasing number of English speakers includes 1.452 billion individuals worldwide who are either native or second language speakers according to the data from *Ethnologue* (Eberhard et al., 2022). Furthermore, seventy-five countries recognize English as an official or semi-official language (Todorova & Todorova, 2018). Likewise, English is one of the official or working languages for international organizations such as the United Nations and the European Union (EU) (Selvi, 2019). Considering daily life, English is also common for successful communication in multilingual contexts (Canagarajah, 2006). After all, it is not a stable variety, and its unprecedented expansion is not limited to the places where it is exclusively used as a formal or semi-formal language in society (Kirkpatrick, 2020; Seidlhofer, 2001b). At no point in world history has a language developed such a specific role in international communication as the English language (Dewey, 2007). Additionally, the significant role and status of the English language has accelerated today due to global patterns of immigration, social media, virtual mobilities, and digital opportunities provided by the web environments (Selvi, 2019). It has also become a language of contact between people–from tourists, and immigrants to the international arenas of business, politics, and academia, which evidently paved the way for the universal victory of English.

The term ELF stands for "English as a lingua franca", which refers to the use of English by speakers of different first languages (Seidlhofer, 2001b). This appearance of English on the world stage and its role as lingua franca has its unique place in many countries' individual and societal dimensions. Intriguingly, observing the reasons related to historical, political, and cultural issues provides importance for characterising the role of English in a particular territory. For this purpose, analysing the functions of English in its specific context is worthy of empirical research in order to understand the actual cases that are unique to a particular country. Crystal (2004: 19) gives detailed reasoning, demonstrating what we can find in many world areas:

> [...] English is the medium of a great deal of the world's knowledge, especially in such areas as science and technology. And access to knowledge is the business of education. When we investigate why so many nations have in recent years made English an official language or chosen it as their chief foreign language in schools, one of the most important reasons is always educational – in the broadest sense.
>
> (Crystal, 2004: 19)

Overall, the unprecedented and rapid spread of English has acted as the crucial determinant of countries' educational policies and observing the unique role of English in a particular country has compelled researchers to rethink the theoretical and pedagogical ways they can address International English and the broader communities in which it is used.

Together with the Global Englishes paradigm involving implications for English language teaching (ELT) (see Galloway, 2017; Rose et al., 2021), there have also been many previous attempts to define the role of English. These include World Englishes (WE) (Kachru, 1985, 1992), English as an International Language (EIL) (Matsuda, 2017), and many other terminologies that have been covered in detail in the ELF section of the present study (see section 4.1). The reconceptualisation attempts by many scholars from different sociolinguistic perspectives demonstrate the need for one standard, universal code for ELF. However, Baker and Jenkins (2015: 193) claimed that "there seems to be a high degree of consensus that ELF is *not* a variety of language and hence there can be no "universal code" hypostatised" (emphasis in italics in original).

Furthermore, the fluid nature of ELF makes describing the situation more challenging despite an urgent need for the description of this new English and a conceptualization resulting from the distinct manifestation of English (Berns, 2005). In this way, English will not be tied to its native speakers, and it will be able

to serve as a standard model for teaching English as a lingua franca and teacher education. This will create opportunities for English teachers who are expected to become the "competent and authoritative users of ELF" (Seidlhofer, 2001b: 152). Considering native and non-native speaker issues in terms of ELF pedagogy and even designing the teaching materials, this conceptualization will significantly contribute to the English language teaching field. Multiple corpus studies have been conducted to understand the complicated nature of ELF. In chronological order, this area of research was initiated by Jenkins' (2000) Lingua Franca Core (LFC) related to phonological data and then continued with Seidlhofer's (2001a) Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English or VOICE. These were among the pioneering fieldwork projects regarding corpus studies in ELF. Next, Mauranen's (2003) English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings (ELFA) corpus contributed to the ELF focus in the literature. Following these studies, Kirkpatrick's ELF study (2009) related to The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) is another type of study worth mentioning in the literature review of the ELF corpus because this particular corpus has tended to take a much more communicative view of ELF rather than concentrating on the developing role of English in the educational contexts of ASEAN: "Brunei, Myanmar, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, the Philippines, Thailand, Singapore, and Vietnam" (Kirkpatrick, 2020: 725). It is known as Asian Corpus of English (ACE). In section 4.2, they are covered in detail.

This has no doubt stimulated interesting but, at the same time, controversial debates about the source of norms and the status of English in its many varieties, which are commonly called WE (Kachru, 1985). In this respect, Kachru (1992) proposed that three circles exist to divide the English-using world: the *Inner Circle*, *Outer Circle* and *Expanding Circle*. Due to the unparalleled spread of English, the conceptualizations of the degree of diffusion in diverse contexts and its range of functions are necessary and he examined the movements and the spread of English, beginning with English-speaking populations. While doing this, he focuses on the historical context of English, the status of the language and the functions in various regions organizing around three concentric circles (Kachru, 1985). According to Kachru, the *Inner Circle* includes native English-speaking countries such as the UK, the USA, and Canada. The *Outer Circle* consists of the former colonies such as India, Africa, and Nigeria. Finally, the *Expanding Circle* includes countries such as China, Japan, and Turkey. Specifically, he proposed these concentric circles, indicating the different ways the language has been acquired and utilized. Even though not all countries fall neatly into these categories, many do, and it is a widely recognized model, as highlighted by Crystal (1997). One of the chief functions of the model, according to Kachru, is to portray the nature of the spread of English, which he compares to the effect of a stone dropped into a pool of water. Upon entering the water, the stone creates ripples which grow as they

travel across its surface. For a language as widely spread as English, the first stage of diffusion occurs in the centre (entry point of the stone), with native speaker varieties; the second, *Outer Circle*, constitutes locales affected by colonialism; and the third, *Inner Circle*, represents the wide diffusion of English primarily through modern means of travel, technology, and business, as well as education and other globalization processes. Accordingly, Figure 1.1 illustrates *Three Circles Model* by Kachru (1985).

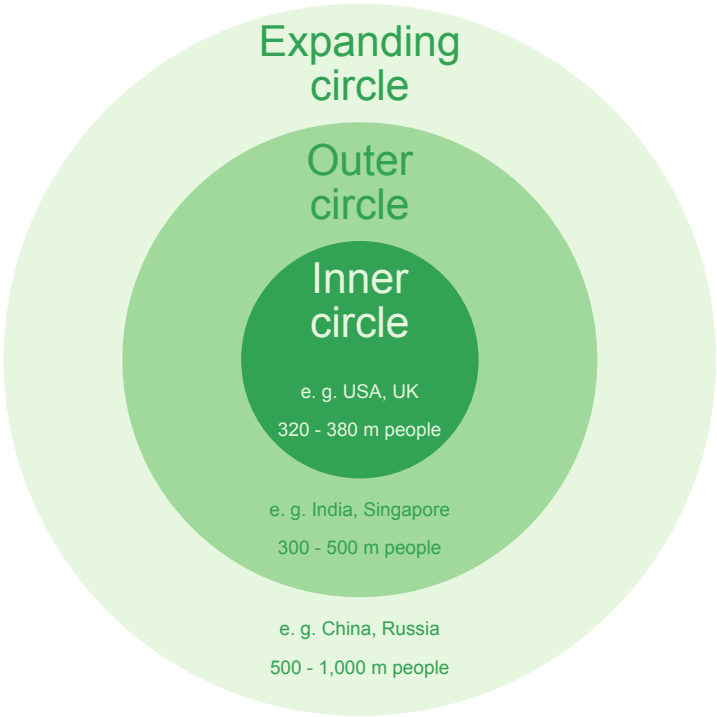


Figure 1.1: Three Circles Model (adapted from Kachru, 1985)

Building upon this widely recognized model, the spread of English has gained a genuinely global status, and it has achieved a special recognition in every country (Crystal, 1997). In addition to the use of English by native speakers, the global status of English refers to two significant roles: an official language status of the country in specific domains such as government, law, and education, and further, a language that has priority status in the foreign language teaching policy of the country without any official status (Kachru, 1985). The latter context mainly refers to Turkey, where the status of English is regarded as a foreign language, and English learning is only confined to schools. This Expanding Circle setting, where English is becoming more widely utilized as a teaching language in schools and institutions (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020), occupies an increasingly important place with its speakers, and makes English the most important foreign language according to the Kachruvian typology of World Englishes. Thus, research in this field are constantly gaining momentum focusing on the current role of English in Expanding Circle countries.

In Turkey, English is a widely taught foreign language (Bayyurt, 2013; Kirkgöz, 2009) and English language education is a significant issue in Turkey's educational reforms and language policies. Turkey is an officially monolingual country and has no colonial past (Bear, 1985). What makes Turkey notable for research is that "the English language achieves neither intranational communication nor the basic communicational goals in Turkish society, and yet it is the sine qua non for every educated Turkish citizen" (Selvi, 2014: 1). Taking the current situation of English language knowledge further, Karakaş (2013) described this vague status in relation to the position of the English language in the Turkish national education system by illustrating English-medium instruction (EMI) in the nation and opposite views for English language education regarding a threat to one's language and culture. König (1990: 157) explains the situation carefully: "it is not on the way to becoming a second language in Turkey; it certainly is a foreign language but is the second most useful language after Turkish as it is all over the world today". Briefly, these studies might give us an idea about the role of English in Turkey and indicate that there is no consensus in terms of the ideal role of English in the country (Arik, 2020; Selvi, 2011; Üzüm, 2007). Hence, after constant educational and political reforms in terms of language teaching in the nation and immigration into the country in the last decades, the current language profile of the country is worthy of empirical research as well as the status of English.

Furthermore, Turkey's context supports the notion of "Non-native Englishes" by Kachru (1982). Concerning this notion and the rise in the universal status of English worldwide, Turkey is a good example because the planned and unplanned spread of English within the nation is easily observed (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998). On the one hand, the educational policies of the country and the place of English in the Turkish education system are the examples of the planned spread of the English language. On the other hand, the influxes of borrowing from the English language into the domains of everyday life affect the unplanned spread of English into the Turkish language and social life (Arik, 2020; König, 1990). In other words, this unplanned spread is not the entire replacement of the Turkish language with English in the country. It is, instead, the spread of English through the Internet and media starting from the late 80s in Turkey (Acar, 2004) as well as the spread via the Internet affecting the whole world (Crystal, 2013).

The role of English for educational purposes has its role in the country's history, starting with the post-war period of the Second World War. In terms of geographical place, Turkey has territories in both Asia and Europe, which enables the country to serve as a cultural bridge between the two continents. This function of a cultural bridge requires international communication and the necessity of a foreign language. On the contrary, political affiliations such as NATO membership and the aims of becoming a member of the EU also play a vital role in the necessity

of this kind of foreign language. As a result, the growing importance of English as a global language has been considered by the Turkish government to take action in its educational policies. The main reason is that the official monolingualism in the nation is not sufficient for the country's future (Arik, 2020).

Approaches to foreign language education and teaching strategies have undergone several revisions since the 1980s (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; Kirkgöz, 2009; Selvi, 2021). These modifications had an impact on the number of schools around the country. Even though many English language schools have been formed, English has never played the role of a second language in Turkey as it does in other West Asian nations. The sole motivation for learning English in Turkey has been to improve work chances for the young generation (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998). In Berns' words (2005: 87), it is a common opinion: "know English, have work, earn money", reflecting the situation in many Expanding Circle countries such as Turkey. As a result, instead of being used in official settings, learning English in Turkey might be considered a part of the Westernization processes, which served as the justification for educational reforms in foreign language education. Taken together, and when analysing the growing impact of English due to educational reforms and Westernization movements, one particular domain of use is essential: higher education.

Due to its apparent paradoxical status and the need for further research on the status of English in the Turkish context, the present study aims to explore and collect information about university students' linguistic repertoires, self-reported proficiency levels, and attitudes towards English and Turkish. The analyses address the issues of the sociolinguistic description of language repertoires among university students based on their self-assessments to create a typology of the current linguistic ecology. While focusing on the discrepancies between these study cohorts, namely bachelor and associate degree students, the present study aims to determine the role of English among university students and understanding of the Turkish sociolinguistic profile regarding the topic of "World Englishes".

In order to seek answers to research questions in the current study, the collected data refers to the academic year of 2018-2019, and the survey was conducted at two state universities in Turkey: İstanbul University and Bursa Uludağ University. Two groups of study cohorts have been included: comprising students from a Bachelor's Degree and students of Post-secondary Vocational Schools. Respectively for data collection, the digitalized version of the questionnaire used by Leimgruber et al. (2018) and Siemund et al. (2014, 2021) was used via an online platform (SosciSurvey Version 3.1.06).

The current research focuses on providing a detailed account of the spread of multilingualism within the specific national context of Turkish higher education.

Linguistic repertoires at the tertiary level of education, considering the study cohorts, were discovered, and self-reported proficiency levels supplemented these findings for each language in the students' repertoires, including both written and oral skills. Additionally, attitudes towards English and Turkish were analyzed with standard qualitative background information (age, gender, and citizenship). A more detailed description of the current research design is provided in the following subsections.

The present study involves 10 chapters, excluding the introduction and conclusion. Following this introductory chapter, the theoretical part of the current research and a comprehensive review of the literature consists of three parts. The first part deals with the sociolinguistic profile regarding the term multilingualism, linguistic profiles in Turkey, educational policies and reforms from the Ottoman Empire until today. In order to explore the role of specific foreign languages and relating to the languages of minority groups in the country, we will look at important historical events and reforms in foreign languages, especially the English language, in the second part. We will also elaborate on English medium instruction and the debates around it. Its final section reviews studies that include World Englishes and the spread of English in Turkey, as well as the uses of English with examples.

Chapter 4 introduces the notion of English as a lingua franca, starting with the explanation of the term, which is of fundamental importance to understanding the use of English in Turkey. Next, it provides an overview of corpus studies on ELF and further addresses the note of the Turkish sociolinguistic context while outlining the perceived benefits of being an ELF speaker.

Chapter 5 discusses English proficiency levels in Turkey and attempts to show Turkey's place in world rankings in terms of English proficiency. After this, linguistic models surrounding proficiencies that are relevant to the present research are explored to disambiguate issues regarding additional foreign language learning and proficiency levels.

Chapter 6 outlines the concept of an attitude, first on a general level, and then on a specific level of language attitudes. Next, the previous and current research on positive and negative language attitudes and attitudes in educational contexts are discussed. Finally, the chapter summarises previous language attitude research in the Turkish setting, and in particular, the higher education domain.

Chapter 7 introduces the methodology of the study with an overview of participants, data collection, data collection instruments and data analysis. It also explicates the research aims, objectives and research questions alongside the

research design adopted in the current study. Lastly, it addresses matters of reliability and validity.

Chapter 8 focuses on the analysis of the data and the presentation of the findings. First, the results of analyses regarding the demographic background of participants and the socio-cultural and socioeconomic background of participants' families are presented. The next section of results presents the extent of multilingualism among university students, focusing on language profiles. Then, the quantitative data on the proficiency levels of each language in the participants' repertoire are described. Likewise, self-reported proficiency ratings are presented based on students' linguistic profiles, including bilingual, trilingual and quadrilingual individuals. The proficiency section of the results also includes self-reported proficiency rankings of the languages considering oral and written skills. Afterwards, students' attitudes towards English and Turkish are presented with regard to the outcomes related to the relationship between attitude and gender, age and citizenship variables. The final part of the results consists of the qualitative data findings from the interviews, and it presents the interview data findings according to the identified themes, while offering a discussion of the qualitative data results.

Chapter 9 provides a discussion and concludes the dissertation with an extended summary of the findings in the order of research questions. Chapter 10 mentions the shortcomings of the present study and gives a synopsis of its limitations.

Chapter 11 includes an outlook that offers suggestions for further research, and this chapter highlights the contributions of the research and possible implications. Finally, the present study finishes with Chapter 12, the conclusion section of the thesis with the significant and practical findings for the key stakeholders.

2 Background and Motivation

Observing the unique role of English in various countries around the world, the major aim of this study is to investigate the sociolinguistic reality of English in Turkey with its place in the Expanding Circle (Kachru, 1992) and broaden the understanding of users and uses of English at the tertiary level education. The current status of English at the higher education level is explored by referring to general language profiles, proficiencies and language attitudes.

In an attempt to contextualize the Turkish sociolinguistic setting, one of the key issues addressed is the existing sociolinguistic profile among university students. Yet, it is not easy to describe precisely how the situation is in the Turkish context. Prior to commencing, it is notable to put the situation in the words of Selvi (2011: 197), who explains the paradoxical case in the nation:

> “[…] understanding the sociolinguistic profile of Turkey is not an easy task, and requires a set of interdisciplinary tools and perspectives. […] The unconventional nature of the context brings its own characteristics such as contradictions in policies, differentiating between US policies and symbolic value of English, linguistic creativities in the form of Englishized Turkish business naming, and the possession of traits of both Expanding and Outer Circles (Kachru, 1992). Finally, no matter what circle it belongs to, being a global phenomenon which has a wide spectrum of local impacts […], English will always be a part of the problem (i.e. perceived degeneration or loss of Turkishness, Turkish language and culture) as well as part of the solution (i.e. modernization and Westernization), in the Turkish sociocultural context.”
>
> (Selvi, 2011: 197)

Concerning the Turkish context, Selvi (2011) states a vital controversy in the nation, which is likely to continue for some time and he serves as a model for many sociolinguists working on a hotly debated topic. The controversy of the situation in the Turkish sociolinguistic context has been explicitly mentioned in his words referring to English as being part of the problem and at the same time, the solution.

What is meant by controversy here is that English has been the focus of several educational reforms affected by modernization and Westernization movements since the beginning of the Republican period. However, many debates have arisen around English medium instruction concerning the perceived degeneration in the Turkish language and culture. These debates pertaining to educational reforms and English medium instruction will appear in section 3.4.4. What Selvi (2011) points out in his study is that the role of English is unique in the nation as being the widely taught foreign language leaving other languages such as German and French behind (Bayyurt, 2013) and also, it is unique since English is regarded as "a linguistic sine qua non for every educated citizen in the country" (Selvi, 2021: 218).

Additionally, it has a rising role and status considering the educational reforms in the country. This rising role also created a more paradoxical and entangled situation with the ongoing criticisms around English-medium education (see Kamasak and Ozbilgin, 2021). Apart from that, English is given a significant place in the country's language policies with its major role instead of being listed as one of the foreign languages in the national curriculum alongside German and French (Kirkgöz, 2009). This trend in education is remarkably more visible in Turkey where English is the only foreign language that has become a compulsory subject at all levels of education (Kirkgöz, 2009). In this regard, she further claims that no country shows a stronger tendency for English than Turkey among Expanding Circle countries (Kirkgöz, 2009).

In her description of Turkey's sociolinguistic context in particular, Arik (2020: 12) draws attention to the significance of the role of English, in general, as follows:

> "English serves no regulative function in Turkey and its creative function is limited to borrowing and nativisation, with some exceptions. The interpersonal function of English can be observed more in workplaces (for example, international business), tourism sector, and media. The most common and central role English plays in Turkey is its instrumental function, both in education and academia."
>
> (Arik, 2020: 12)

For the role of English, this means that English is not only limited to creative function with Englishized Turkish business naming (Selvi, 2011). In addition, the interpersonal and instrumental functions of English in the country are emphasized, which will be covered with more examples in section 3.5.2. Furthermore, Dogancay-Aktuna (1998: 37) highlights the exclusive role of English in the Turkish

context as the most studied foreign language for better job opportunities and this use of English in the educational domains points to the instrumental function (Bamgbose, 2003; Berns, 2005). Seemingly, this instrumental function describes the ideal role of English in Turkey best by representing the opportunities and advancements in science and technology, which is also regarded as one of the specific features of Expanding Circle countries (Bamgbose, 2003).

Although there are many studies about the role and status of English in the Turkish educational settings (see section 3.3 for a comprehensive review of literature), the main issue here is to redefine the significance of the English language in the Turkish higher education settings because we can argue that English proficiency is highly appreciated in Turkey; however, its significance at the tertiary level education still remains vague. This vague status means different views among scholars and policymakers as they are far from a consensus about the ideal status of English in education (Üzüm, 2007). For instance, on the one hand, some scholars favour English-medium instruction considering the cognitive and linguistic abilities that bilingual education fosters and the internationalization of higher education (Kamasak & Ozbilgin, 2021). On the other hand, some scholars are against this type of education, thinking that it ultimately complicates the comprehension of subjects, and in-class participation (Kirkgöz, 2014) and creates a gap in society with the danger of English becoming the language of intellectuals (Zok, 2010). These contrasting views are also the cause of ongoing debates (the debates surrounding English-medium instruction will be explained in more detail in section 3.4.4).

Moving on to the parental factor concerning the status of English, Kiziltepe (2000) reports for the specific situation related to the favourability of English from the parent's perspective. According to her findings, being bilingual, especially in one of the European languages, is admired in Turkey by families due to the job opportunities that foreign language knowledge creates. According to Ahmad (1993), the parents support foreign language education for their children's future. Additionally, policies by the government and educational reforms by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) strongly support new curriculum innovations for the English language at schools (Selvi, 2014). As a result, English has become the most widely taught language in the country (Bayyurt, 2013; Kirkgöz, 2009). Considering its current educational environment, it can be concluded that the impact of globalization can be seen clearly in the adoption of English as a compulsory subject at all levels of education, which is also supported by the parents due to the aforementioned opportunities English creates for their children.

After summarizing the role of English in Turkey, it is essential to set the scene for the long history and background of foreign languages that played an important role and it is equally important to mention the unique reforms and events briefly

to understand the strength of English in the nation better (see section 3.2.1 for further details). Starting from the early periods of the Ottoman Empire and in Republican Turkey, the following languages have played an effective role: Arabic, Persian, French, German, and English. Due to being the language of the Quran, Arabic was the dominant language.

Additionally, Arabic was the medium of instruction for teaching science subjects such as chemistry, physics, and mathematics and medicine. Persian kept the same amount of prestige as the Arabic language because of Sufism, which is a mystical movement in Islam that aims to discover divine love and understanding through a direct, personal experience of God. With the expansion of the Empire into Europe, the control of trade routes and the desire for economic power, France and the Ottoman Empire built a close relationship against Britain during the eighteenth century. Thus, French became the first western language to be taught in order to transfer the military technology of the era. A similar trend was observed in the case of the German language with the start of political, military and commercial relations between Turkey and Germany. German kept its popularity until the early 1900s thanks to boarding schools opened in İstanbul and in some parts of Anatolia. Furthermore, the German lifestyle and cultural values kept its popularity among the elite in İstanbul. Therefore, these historical anecdotes might be a good indicator that multiple languages in the Empire played a crucial role and foreign languages were first introduced into the country via religion, education, or trade purposes.

In the Republican Turkey era starting in 1923, the first years were devoted to the standardization of teaching and the purification of the Turkish language as it is the only official language of the nation. Regarding education, there were many reforms and these are covered in section 3.3.2. In the end, Arabic and Persian were banned and French and German kept their dominance in the education system until the Second World War when the post-war era led to economic and technological developments in Turkey. Following this, globalization and Westernization boosted the need for learning English. Likewise, the increasing development of technology brought faster means of communication during this period such as the Internet. Acar (2004) states that it was during this period that the unplanned spread of English gained momentum since the Internet was associated with English content, which amounted to 90-95 per cent of the information available. She further adds that Turkey's participation in the global economy, and high tourist mobility, which means high tourism income, contributed to the increase in English use (Acar, 2004). Last but not least, with the spread of private channels, the mass media brought opportunities for more international content such as American movies, and the advertisement of American products and shows.

Furthermore, the Turkish government played a major role in the rising pop-

ularity of English through reforms in education, which are discussed in section 3.3.2. The Turkish government has, therefore, been faced with the urgent need to cope with the growing importance of English as a global language in view of the fact that monolingualism might not be the simplest policy in the 21st century. In sum, English has become the most popular foreign language in Turkey today and this victory of English compared to other languages has also achieved unique importance in the upper strata of society since it is regarded as the symbol of elitism (Zok, 2010).

To understand the emergence of English, it is better to describe the linguistic ecology in Turkey. In Republican Turkey, it has long been recognised that Turkey is a monolingual country with Turkish being the official language (Bear, 1985). Yet, the sociolinguistic profile seems multilingual due to the great influx of the multi-ethnic Ottoman Empire. Figure 2.1 by Izady (2021) indicates that Turkey's linguistic makeup is relatively divergent.

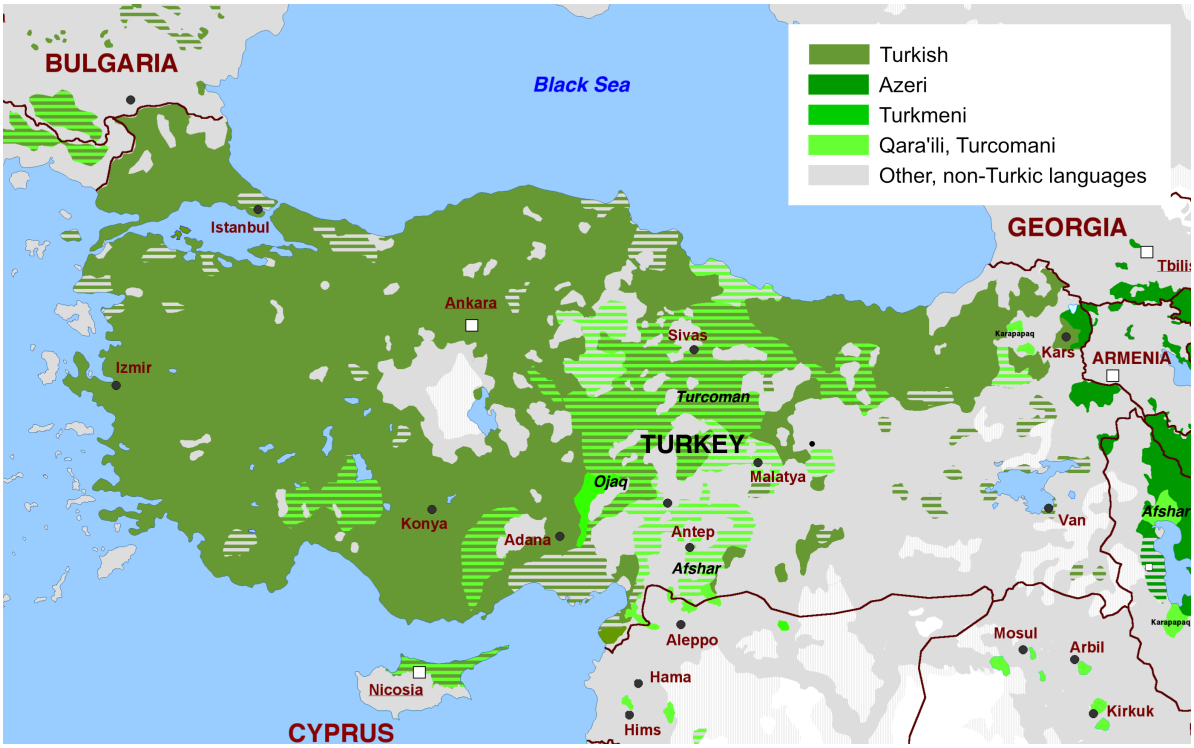


Figure 2.1: Turkic People and Languages of Middle East and Vicinity (adapted from Izady, 2021)

Compared with other multilingual communities in the world, Turkey has a unique linguistic makeup. Consistent migrations from Central and East Asia have contributed to the richness of the languages in the country. According to a study by Konda (2006)[1] titled "Who are we?", which provides the only detailed statistics

[1]KONDA Research and Consultancy is an anonymous Turkish consultancy company that specializes in public opinion polling and research established in 1986.

in the field, Turkish is spoken by 84,54 % of people, followed by Kurdish-Zaza with 12,98 % speakers and Arabic spoken by 1,38 % of the population. There are 'other' languages such as Armenian, and Hebrew spoken by 1,11 % of people. Although there is a big diversity among languages involving minority languages, none of these languages achieved a major role like the English language, which has a foreign language status, indeed. Interestingly, English has this major role as the most common foreign language in the nation through schooling starting in 1950s and its presence has been the main issue for many researchers to identify its role in terms of social, historical and linguistic phenomena and also the multifaceted factors behind. Thus, the impact that English has created in the history of foreign language education is a crucial thing to present within the Turkish educational context while highlighting a chronological sequence of historical developments and making specific references to the educational system (see section 3.2.1).

Even though there are minority groups in Turkey, Turkish is the country's sole official language. Therefore, all children are educated in Turkish regardless of their L1 (Yağmur, 2001). For this reason, Turkey is a good example in the Expanding Circle where English acts with a restricted range of functions and characteristics that are quite different from English in the institutionalized Outer Circle countries. Yet, it is believed that conservative language policies regarding "one nation-one language" policy in Turkey create (normative) monolingualism in the nation and therefore, linguistic diversity is not valued in these contexts like Turkey (Karakaş, 2013). This situation may also be the triggering point of linguistic nationalism at a more critical level as English language learning is believed to be the cause of colonization of the mind in the Turkish context (Kamasak et al., 2020) (see section 6.5 for linguistic nationalism).

Furthermore, concerning Expanding Circle countries, it is hard to make generalizations since the role of English may differ in each country. For example, although the Turkish case resembles the case of the German context, which is another Expanding Circle country, English in Germany has a stronger interpersonal function since it is the language of contact with other European nations, and ultimately, English draws more attention from German people with the primary goal of interacting with their European counterparts (Berns, 1988). This circumstance is exactly what makes the current study special: the variation in the role and status of English can be observed even among the countries in the Expanding Circle, which shows that more research is needed in these domains. Evidently, individual differences exist among countries based on their linguistic and socio-cultural situations. Therefore, prompted by the lack of discussion and research on the sociolinguistic profile of Turkey, the present study provides an up-to-date description of the Turkish setting where many questions are waiting to be answered in terms of the current status and the role of English. Overall, the time is right

to develop research to contribute to the existing literature on Expanding Circle settings with the Turkish sociolinguistic context.

Although the terms and roles attributed to English have been searched in different parts of the world, Expanding Circle countries have been the focus of research in comparably fewer studies, which are, in general, limited to East Asian countries such as Japan (Berns, 2005, 2019). Repeatedly in the literature, there are examples of studies concentrating on Outer Circle countries, including the Singaporean context (Bolton et al., 2017; Leimgruber et al., 2018), to name a few. Multiple instances of such a trend for Outer Circle countries do not exist for Expanding Circle settings even though it is fast growing in terms of users and uses. To be more specific, the sociolinguistic profile and the role of English in Turkey are not yet explored but are represented in a few studies (Arik, 2020; Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998; Dogancay-Aktuna & Kiziltepe, 2005).

Conspicuously absent from the studies related to Expanding Circle countries, the Turkish sociolinguistic context will serve as a focus considering the terms and the roles referring to English in the current study. For example, Berns (2019) reports that between 1998 and 2018, there only five studies focusing on the sociolinguistic profile of English in Turkey were published whereas this number is twenty for the Japanese context, which is another Expanding Circle setting. Similarly, the representation of Germany is with ten studies although it is claimed to be a frequently studied context (Berns, 2019). As a result, Turkey needs to be fairly represented in the literature so that we can have an empirical knowledge base to check the accuracy and the reliability of the theoretical frameworks and assumptions in terms of policy and practice in Expanding Circle countries (Arik, 2020). With the present study, we will reach a better understanding of the function of English in Turkey and address the gaps in the literature.

Answers to these sociolinguistic issues are investigated from the perspective of the higher education domain. It is of primary importance to discuss general language background, proficiency levels and language attitudes among university students, which is an under-researched context in Turkey at the moment (see Arik, 2020). In addition to the rising popularity of English in Turkey, it has a special role recognized in tertiary level education as a result of multilingual university settings. In the country, higher education institutions increasingly offer international (English-medium) study programs under internationalization policies (e.g. Bologna process, more about that can be found in section 3.4.2) (British Council, 2020; Coleman, 2006). In the end, the purpose of internationalization of tertiary level education is twofold: firstly, it aims to produce multilingual professionals who can cope with their multiple language capacities and multicultural expertise in the global marketplace. Secondly, it is based on the belief

that the national education system should be available to international students (Kirkpatrick, 2011). Obviously, in these international university settings, students are likely to have a diverse linguistic background and repertoire, ranging from monolingualism to bilingualism or even multilingualism. As a consequence, there can be no doubt that the distribution of languages and proficiency levels varies greatly. Following the ambivalent opinions regarding the role of English in Turkey and the internationalization of higher education, the present study adds new insights into this field in one particular domain of use: the tertiary level education.

Although only five studies until 2018 (Berns, 2019) and one further publication by Arik (2020) have been carried out in the Turkish sociolinguistic context, to the best of our knowledge, no single study exists which uses a mixed-methods research design as it is the case in the present study. To address the gaps in the literature, this study will explore linguistic profiles among university students concerning their study cohorts and the languages in their repertoire. To examine whether there is a significant difference between different cohorts, we will investigate the extent of multilingualism, and self-reported proficiency levels for the languages in their repertoire through an online questionnaire. In addition, part of the aim of the present study is to find out students' attitudes towards English and Turkish as there are few studies in this regard. Turkey is a monolingual country and the shift from being primarily monolingual individuals into becoming multilingual learners with different language learning experiences until the tertiary level is worthy of empirical attention.

In conclusion, the main aim of the current research is to provide the sociolinguistic profile in Turkey, focusing on tertiary level education while contributing more to the rapidly growing field of Expanding Circle users and uses. With the above research rationale and aims in mind, this research is structured around the following research questions, which will be answered in the discussion:

1. **How widespread is multilingualism in Turkey among university students in relation to their degrees?**

2. **Is there a relationship between the extent of multilingualism and university students' self-reported language proficiency in Turkey?**

3. **What are the attitudes of students towards English contrasting the two different degrees?**

4. **What are the major linguistic patterns found among university students in Turkey? (Bilingualism or multilingualism)**

5. **What are the perceived benefits of being a multilingual speaker of English as a lingua franca compared to a monolingual speaker from the perspective of university students in Turkey?**

While seeking answers to the above research questions, the notion of English as a Lingua Franca needs further explanation and specification in the present study. Jenkins (2014) argues that classifying English speakers according to the Three Concentric Circles by Kachru (1992) is challenging because it is hard to categorize speakers purely belonging to the Inner, Outer, or Expanding Circles. Alternatively, she suggests a fourth category for individuals who speak English as a lingua franca and since the mid-1990s, it has become more common to use the term English as a Lingua Franca (Jenkins, 2014). Concerning the Turkish sociolinguistic environment where English is largely used as a tool for international contact with other ELF speakers, it is of fundamental importance to discover the ELF notion because it may provide a basis for English use in Turkey due to interactions with both non-native speakers and native speakers (a more detailed explanation can be found in section 4.1).

Last but not least, as a researcher, I have experience in English language teaching at the tertiary level, which involves my growing interest in the sociolinguistic profile of English among university students in Turkey. Concerning the Turkish sociolinguistic context, the departure point of my inspiration was these two questions: Where are we now? and Where do WE go from here?

3 Multilingualism and English in Turkey: A Sociolinguistic Profile

The previous background chapter has attempted to underline the need for research considering the Turkish sociolinguistic context, which supports the notion of non-native Englishes. Concerning this non-native English setting, this chapter gives an account of the multilingualism and bilingualism terms and then briefly touches upon the Turkish setting in terms of multilingualism. In order to understand the sociolinguistic profile in Turkey, it is of primary importance to provide information on the linguistic makeup of the country and the linguistic environment where many languages, in particular Western languages, had a major role in history. Therefore, this chapter presents the linguistic background of the country, language policy and planning, and the reforms in foreign language education during the Ottoman era and the Republican Turkey period. In addition to the past and current developments of foreign language education in the nation, we will introduce the Turkish setting with a focus on World Englishes regarding the issues that concern the terms, roles, and uses of English in the country.

3.1 Terminology: Multilingualism and Bilingualism

Multilingualism has been a global, societal, and ever-intriguing phenomenon with new developments in all areas of life, and it has been primarily concerned with describing the exceptional amount of language and linguistic variability at the speaker's disposal. The fundamental issue is to explore this current phenomenon with some clear definitions from the outset. Unquestionably, the significance of the studies and the definitions related to that field have gained much broader and universal attention in our era characterized by globalization because there are more multilingual individuals than monolingual ones in the world (Potowski & Rothman, 2011; Rothman & Halloran, 2013). To see the globalization effects on multilingual repertoires, one can consider, for example, the current case with English and its omnipresence as the most widespread language (Crystal, 2009). This is to be expected that English is the common school subject and language

medium of instruction at schools and universities in the international area (see Kirkpatrick, 2011; Sussex and Kirkpatrick, 2012).

In examining the basic definition of multilingualism, it is arguably hard to find one. However, it can be seen in the literature that there are many definitions of this term depending on the researchers' background and academic interests (see Berthele, 2020; Franceschini, 2009; Pfenninger and Singleton, 2019). The definitions can vary from multilingualism being a presence of a number of languages in one country or community, which is a societal phenomenon in this sense, to having the ability to speak several languages, which can be regarded as a personal level in another sense. Whether it is related to the societal or individual level, all these definitions share an interest in the unlimited variety of interconnections across languages, users, and contexts as well as in examining language repertoires.

In its simple terms, multilingualism may be based on the assumption of systematic investigation within the multilingual system with language categories. However, linguists seem to have had a hard time defining what counts as a language or a dialect since drawing lines between language or dialect groups is challenging because individuals' use of language varies so much, depending on places, situations, speakers' biographies, and so on. Blommaert (2010) is one example that argues that multilingualism should be investigated by treating languages as dynamic, employable resources rather than traditionally defined languages. Among a wide range of theories and perspectives on the language repertoire of speakers, Berthele (2020) proposes a view on such linguistic repertoires based on how humans categorize the natural and social world in real life and labels it with the term 'natural category' suggesting that just as in the category of birds, there are more typical individuals than the others are in real life. That is why it does not simply mean that "language" or "multilingualism" is universally accepted in the same way. He further explains that languages and language competencies are culturally shaped, which can only serve as natural categorization explaining the principles of category formation rather than its specific features and dimensions to describe prototypes and category membership (Berthele, 2020). For instance, an individual who is proficient in reading and writing in English, German and French would be a multilingual person and also, a person who can solely read and write German but can read English and understand some French may be multilingual, yet a less prototypical multilingual (Berthele, 2020). With regard to multilingualism, Franceschini (2009: 34) suggests that "multilingualism is a product of the fundamental human ability to communicate in a number of languages. Operational distinctions may then be drawn between social, institutional, discursive and individual multilingualism" by emphasizing the distinctions. These studies above outline critical points for

multilingualism as a field of inquiry. From a broader view, it has also been an interest for various researchers to narrow definitions between the approaches related to counting languages in the repertoire to analyze language acquisition and use and the meaningful counts of languages grounded in theoretical reasoning. To date, several studies have investigated multilingualism as a scholarly term and concluded that it implies the ability to use more than two languages in its simple and empirical operationalization (Berthele, 2020; Franceschini, 2009).

Offering another definition, Haugen (1956: 9) defined multilingualism as "a kind of multiple bilingualism". With its different dimensions such as forms, appearances and key features, it leads us not to look for only one definition for the study of multilingualism but to include the definition of bilingualism while seeking one. Thus, over the course of the current study, the definitions of bilingualism and multilingualism, which can provide for our understanding of linguistic profiles, are central to the study context of the present research.

By drawing attention to the main conceptual issues, one could argue that bilingualism is typically addressed within the field of multilingualism, which shows a need to be explicit about exactly what is meant by the word bilingualism. According to Bloomfield (1933: 56), bilingualism was defined as "native-like control of two or more languages", which caused tensions about the norms for "native-like" competence because the extent of the linguistic categories was not clear enough in order to identify the native-like competence. While Mackey (1962: 51-52) treated bilingualism as a "behavioural pattern of mutually modifying linguistic practices" under the four characteristics such as degree, function, alternation, and interference, Diebold (1961) defined the term in a modified version and stressed the importance of contact with the potential models in L2 and the skill to use these in the native language environment. Moreover, Grosjean (2008: 10) defined bilingualism as "the regular use of two or more languages (or dialects), and bilinguals are those people who use two or more languages (or dialects) in their everyday lives". With all these definitions, it can be seen that the inclusion of languages explicitly in bilingualism terms refers to diverse linguistic repertoires including at least two languages (or dialects). In response to the definition needs for bilingualism, Bialystok (2001) suggests that bilingualism is experienced by every adult at some phases of life and the crucial point further stressed is the distinction between the proficiency levels of two languages in the language repertoire. The proficiency level in two languages might be an indicating factor to call a person 'bilingual' or not. After referring to native-like competence, regular use of two languages and the proficiency level factor, it has, naturally, been a thorny issue to define who the real bilingual person is while competing definitions can also change over time and space.

Having defined bilingualism briefly to account for the field of multilingualism,

it is also essential to focus on the different dimensions of multilingualism and make a distinction between the two concepts: individual and societal multilingualism (Cenoz, 2013). We need to clarify the difference between these two terms to contextualize linguistic diversity in two different forms. As human language is a collective phenomenon (Andrews, 2014), individual multilingualism refers to the ability of a person to acquire and use several languages and it relates to the more personal sphere in that way. This multilingualism notion involves an individual's ability to master and use two or more languages and deals with language-related abilities, and the representation of these languages in the mind as well as the neurological processes taking place in the brain (Kecskés & Albertazzi, 2007). When it is viewed as a societal phenomenon, the term societal multilingualism refers to the institutional dimensions, contexts, circumstances, and manners of language use in various communities and groups. The status and roles of the languages in a given society established a frame for researchers. According to Edwards (2007), the language policies and practices, the social opportunities that this specific language brings in certain multilingual contexts and how these things change with time are the matters of societal linguists.

Given the various definitions, we have to acknowledge that some terms in the field of multilingualism are time-dependent, and changes can be seen in social existence. For instance, from a demographic point of view in our global era, the number of children growing up with more than one language has also increased in number and significance (Wei, 2007), and growing globalization makes the terms such as user, environment, and language change regarding the notion of multilingualism (Aronin & Singleton, 2012). Therefore, these changes are likely to end in different kinds of multilingualism terminology. Fundamentally, this terminology can be better understood when one can associate international mobility, diversity and technological innovation we are witnessing with the current form of multilingualism.

Moreover, it is important to note that beyond these changes, continuous technological advances in our era and communication technologies play a significant role in linguistic practices. In many parts of the world, the increasing role of globalization and its worldwide effects have brought many changes to the new forms of societies in terms of social, cultural and linguistic settings. These newly emerged sociocultural and linguistic developments are accompanied by greater mobility in our era. As a result, present-day mobility is primarily international and "[has] greatly benefited from the possibility of virtual communities, cultural networks that link the ideas and practices of different groups across vast distances" (Dewey, 2007: 337). These present-day mobilities have also been characterized by unpredictability and complexity in our era, so diversity term itself is not as it used to be in the past. In the end, rapidly changing social and demographic patterns have

been framed by multicultural and multilingual diversity.

Besides social and demographic patterns, there are other variables such as age, gender, high immigration percentages, international labor market and computer-assisted communication among the contributors to multilingual diversity. These interplaying variables and factors have been conceptualized under the notion of 'super-diversity' which was defined by Vertovec (2007: 1024) as the "dynamic interplay of variables among an increased number of new, small, scattered, multiple-origin, transnationally connected, socio-economically differentiated and legally stratified immigrants". The super-diversity notion is an issue transcending the many areas of social sciences. It has already changed conventional concepts and methodologies in terms of sociolinguistic contexts, which have been dominated by buzzwords like multilingualism, mobility, diversity, and heterogeneity in the current world already. Given these considerations, we can conclude that the definition of multilingualism is constantly evolving and it is an emerging phenomenon affected by globalization; therefore, it is still challenging to find one exact definition for it.

Furthermore, through the contextual lens of multilingualism, the main issue is the global need for the interaction between different language groups and social contexts including the latest notions such as super-diversity, individual and societal multilingualism. In this regard, De Swaan (2001) highlights the importance of multilingualism, which is believed to keep humanity together although it is separated by many different languages. In a sense, preserving human unity may be associated with promoting multilingualism. This has been seen in the case of Continental Europe which is a good example of promoting multilingualism and linguistic diversity with its Action Plan 2004-2006 (European Commission, 2003). As this Action Plan 2004-2006 (European Commission, 2003) very clearly demonstrates that knowing English alone is insufficient, and it is crucial to urge European individuals to have practical knowledge of three languages counting their mother tongue.

If we take Turkey as an example of promoting multilingualism, which would be more relevant for the present study, it is important to remember that many languages played an effective role, including Arabic, Persian, French, German, and English throughout history. In Republican Turkey now, the country is monolingual and the official language is Turkish. Unlike some European countries where English is the third language for some individuals, as is the case of native Finnish speakers learning Swedish as the second language and then English as the third, English is the second language for the majority of Turkish people (Dogancay-Aktuna & Kiziltepe, 2005). Thus, the Turkish context is different from those of multilingualism and bilingualism definitions mentioned above. In this case, according to Dogancay-Aktuna and Kiziltepe (2005), a suitable notion for

the Turkish context is Hartmann's (1996: 48) "achieved bilingualism", which "is being embraced by growing numbers of people who require it for their daily communicative functions or who consider that they, or their children, have a potential need for it". In addition, achieved bilingualism refers to the Turkish context "where the underlay of school English later tends to develop naturally" (MacKenzie, 2012). In other words, achieved bilingualism is partly characterized by institutionally learned school bilingualism, unlike naturally acquired bilingualism defined previously in this section.

In the present study, the sociolinguistic context is Turkey, and we will reflect upon the Turkish-English achieved bilingualism. This type of bilingualism is expected in Turkey's context, as Dogancay-Aktuna and Kiziltepe (2005) suggested, since English is a widely taught foreign language in the nation (Bayyurt, 2013; Kirkgöz, 2009). Starting with multilingualism in the language history of the country, language education policies and reforms with a focus on the English language will be explored in the next sections.

3.2 Multilingualism in Turkey

This section provides the history of multilingualism in Turkey and is divided into two subsections. The first part reviews the language history and the introduction of English into the country, while highlighting the linguistic diversity since the Ottoman Era (see section 3.2.1). Given such importance to linguistic diversity in the nation, a considerable number of research in terms of language policy and planning is described, including specific examples in the Turkish context (see section 3.2.2).

3.2.1 Language History

Concerning the language history in Turkey, language policies related to teaching Turkish and foreign languages have a long history in the nation. Needless to say, these language policies have been shaped due to various factors such as political, geographical, and religious reasons since the early times. According to Bilmez (2021), following Turkish, which is the official language, the languages spoken refer mainly to English and French as foreign languages acquired through schooling. Yet, Turkey has a very rich repertoire in terms of the languages spoken by minority groups and dialects (Konda, 2006), as mentioned earlier (see Chapter 2). The source of this richness dates back to early times. The country has a rich linguistic makeup as a direct result of immigration from the periphery to the

center in the 20th century. Hence, the direct answer to multilingualism in Turkey is hard to find, as Schroeder (2021: 43) explains:

> Turkey is a multilingual country, in several respects. There are millions of speakers of recognized and unrecognized minority languages, partly regionally bound, but due to internal migration also throughout the country. Increasingly, there are migrants and refugees from other countries, in particular, and most dramatically, Arabic-speaking refugees which came in the course of the Syrian war.
>
> (Schroeder, 2021: 43)

Today, there is a strong shift in minority languages due to the high internal and external immigration rates throughout the country. Especially, the Arabic language gains popularity considering the current linguistic profiles in certain parts of the country because of the Syrian war. In general, society has been shaped by linguistic super-diversity in large cities, particularly in the western regions. Hence, Turkish has become the lingua franca in informal public areas, at least in the western part of the country, again due to this linguistic diversity (Schroeder, 2021). Ultimately, this existing diversity has contributed to educational issues and policy developments.

In Turkey, the notion of linguistic diversity dates back to the Ottoman Empire. In the Ottoman era, foreign language learning became a necessity since the Empire spread around the world and became one huge territory. Referring to the big empire, the dominant language was Arabic as it is the language of the Quran. Crystal (1987) explains the role of Arabic, to a large extent, with religion since classical Arabic is closely associated with religion and the language of the Quran is considered to provide miraculous proof of the reality of Islam.

Driven by the complex linguistic landscape, with Arabic in the chief role, the first introduction of English into the Ottoman Empire was made via British trade. Traders preferred to have Greek interpreters (translators) instead of using each other's language (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998). Another important event in the Ottoman Empire in terms of English making its way into the territories was the right given to Christian missionaries to teach within the borders of the Empire. During those times, although there was no specific and direct government policy for the spread of English schools within the Empire, English schools were run efficiently and effectively (Luk, 2006).

These two specific examples concerning the journey of English in the Ottoman Empire may be considered important events that the language policy of the country plays a crucial role in, and it requires careful planning starting from

when a language is first introduced into the country. Thus, before we move to Turkish history in detail, considering languages and language teaching since the Ottoman Empire era, we will look at the definition of language policy and its role in education to gain a better understanding of the historical events in Turkey.

3.2.2 Language Policy and Planning

In the relevant literature, many scholars try to explain language policies from various perspectives. In a broad sense, Corson (1990: 151) is one example, describing more elaborately that language policy is "a set of nationally agreed principles which enables decision makers to make choices about language issues in a rational, comprehensive and balanced way". Therefore, language policies are predicated on the view that they are "in the form of clear-cut labelled statements in official documents" of national constitutions or language law (Spolsky, 2004: 11). This type of easily recognized form of a rule may be highly relevant and helpful for many nations worldwide because governments are in favour of maintaining the privileged status of their national language, which has a unique role in nearly all domains of society. However, the most complex one, the school domain, requires a carefully planned form of rules because the primary feature of this specific language policy is related to how to teach the official language, which is mandatory and a priority in the national education system (Spolsky, 2004). Hence, the national language is a forcing factor in the educational domain, and the nationwide implementation with carefully planned rules and clear-cut labelled statements plays a considerable role in language policy and planning.

In Spolsky's (2007) proposal of language policy, a constitution or a law determining the official language in the nation is the most obvious form of language management, which is a major part of policy planning. On the contrary, this set of rules is challenged at the stage of policy planning in foreign language education because influences of external and international factors can play a big role. For example, as suggested by Cummins (2001), linguistic, cultural and religious diversity can be threatening to the identity of some societies. That is why educational policies are crucial and should be designed to eliminate this kind of threat. It should be noted, especially from the language policy management perspective, that many nation states declare a single official language in their constitutions to avoid this type of threat, which may be caused by the linguistic diversity in the country.

The question of to what extent other languages are welcomed in terms of the medium of instruction in schools is also part of this language policy management. Turkey will serve as an example here, as cited in Yağmur (2001: 11-12) that

the Turkish Constitution guaranteed the issue of languages in the educational domain:

> “No language other than Turkish shall be taught as a mother tongue to Turkish citizens at any institutions of training or education. Foreign languages to be taught in institutions of training and education and the rules to be followed by schools conducting training and education in a foreign language shall be determined by law. The provisions of international treaties are reserved.”
>
> Section 42 (9) of the Constitution of the Republic of Turkey

Article 42 of the Turkish Constitution clarifies that mother tongue instruction in any other language than Turkish is not permitted in public or private institutions. However, instruction in modern foreign languages, such as English, French, and German, is acceptable in public and private institutions. There are English, French, and German medium schools where the core disciplines (e.g. physical sciences and maths) are taught in these languages. The widespread consensus is that teaching these foreign languages in schools contributes to Turkey's modernization and Westernization process (Yağmur, 2001).

Concerning language policy management, one of the components of policy and planning for the school domain is in terms of foreign language education. Liddicoat (2004) suggests that governments should make deliberate choices because foreign language planning in education is a key dimension of the relationship between language and social life. According to Kırkgöz (2017), in language policy, these choices related to foreign language education need to be contextualized in social, geographical and historical settings. As to the contextualization of the settings, Ferguson (1997) also highlights the unique nature of language planning activities within their sociolinguistic contexts. It is due to the fact that when linked to sociolinguistic settings, countries have their unique sociohistorical background and sociolinguistic settings that have an impact on their language practices. In other words, these unique settings have different language practices, beliefs, efforts, and implementations. For instance, the importance given to foreign language planning might differ from country to country regarding the use and status of a specific language (e.g. English). As a result, the correct assumption would be to simply claim that language policy and planning in the country mostly depend on the sociolinguistic settings considering the ethnic background of the nations.

In the theoretical framework of ethnic composition, countries worldwide are divided into three categories (Van den Branden & Lambert, 1999). The first category includes linguistically homogeneous countries where the majority of the

population speaks one language, such as Turkey. The second category is dyadic countries where there are two or three relatively same proportions of ethnolinguistic groups such as in Belgium or triadic as in Singapore. As a third category, it comprises countries with a large number of resident ethnic groups referring to mosaic societies such as India. In this regard, Lambert (1994) points out that language planning in homogeneous societies like Turkey tends to pay attention to corpus policy and the purification of the current or traditional language of the country. The terminology of homogeneous must be approached with some caution here because we refer to Republican Turkey with officially monolingual status, unlike the linguistically rich composition of the Ottoman Empire.

The great examples of this kind of policy were seen in the attempts during the Republican Turkey period, and it is widely expressed in the section related to Republican Turkey (see section 3.3.2). If we want to provide a brief reason here, we can say that it was an urgent need for social advancement to increase low literacy due to the change from the Arabic language of the Ottoman Empire to the Turkish language with the new language reform (Ünver-Lischewski & Sallaberger, 2018). As Van den Branden and Lambert (1999) draw our attention to the language planning process in homogeneous societies like Turkey, language purification was also one of the steps related to this change with an aim of preserving the Turkish language from the effects of foreign languages (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004). As a result, "the purification and modernisation of Turkish in Atatürk's Turkey" can be given as an example of this kind of purification policy in homogeneous societies (Van den Branden & Lambert, 1999: 4).

Taken together, it seems that language policy is about decision-making at the national level and then planning the educational steps accordingly, in particular, foreign language education due to its major role against the national language. Therefore, examining the outcomes of micro-level practices of macro-level decision making has always been crucial for researchers. The next section addresses the Turkish context with reference to major reforms that were regulated by social, cultural, and economic circumstances of the era within the sociolinguistic background of the country. Grounding in the Turkish sociolinguistic context, the following sections also provide information on the development of language acts and policies by acknowledging the modernization effects of the relevant time period. Specifically, we will look at history of foreign language teaching, the reforms, and curriculum innovations in Turkey.

3.3 History of Foreign Language Education in Turkey

In terms of geographical location, Turkey is located as a bridge between Asia and Europe and is situated in proximity to the Middle East and Africa. Located at the intersection of Europe and Asia, this transcontinental context holds 3 % of its territories in Europe while 97 % of the country is in Asia. The strategically geopolitical location serves as a cultural bridge between the West and East, which borders eight countries. Thus, this strategic location has a vital impact on Turkey's foreign policy and political affiliations, and from an international perspective, it also brings pressure to bear concerning the English language to keep up with the latest developments around the world (Arik, 2020).

The most important thing in determining the omnipresence of the English language in Turkey is the policy and planning of foreign language education. It is typically English language education that gained popularity at an unexpected pace in the country (see Chapter 2) and this seems to happen mainly due to two reasons. Firstly, Turkey has a population of 85 million people and almost 25 million of the population is under the age of 18 (World Population Review, 2022). This group under the age of 18 represents the school years until high school graduation and the national education system has to ensure that this young population is able to access a high-quality foreign language education that involves the English language to keep up with the modern world at the international level (Arik, 2020; Kirkgoz, 2007). Secondly, the English language has its popularity due to political affiliations such as becoming a NATO member in 1952 and ongoing negotiations for full membership of the EU, which officially started in 1987. Hence, from these educational and political perspectives, designing foreign language education policies has been the main issue of the Turkish government in order to spread English through schooling and enhance English language learning and teaching in the country.

Consequently, the steps taken by the government have considerable influence on the foreign language education policy and planning in Turkey, and English has become the most common foreign language taught at schools (Bayyurt, 2013; Kirkgöz, 2009; König, 1990; Selvi, 2021). "Today, the use of the term "foreign language" synonymously with English reaffirms the undisputed status of English—a linguistic sine qua non for every educated citizen in the country" (Selvi, 2021: 218). Yet, it is important to mention again that the specific role of English in Turkey is restricted to schools as a foreign language solely since the country is officially monolingual. That being the case, still, the remarkable manifestation of English is found to be true in many sociolinguistic studies aiming to identify the ideal role of English in terms of social, historical, and linguistic phenomena (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; Dogancay-Aktuna & Kiziltepe, 2005; Selvi, 2011).

In summary, the journey of English in the Turkish context appears to generate a relatively unique path to the present, and therefore, giving a chronological sequence of historical developments and making specific references to the curriculum innovations are highly crucial. In the next section, we will provide the historical basis for foreign language education in terms of language policy and planning and discuss foreign language education in the chronological order of events and turning points. With these aims, the history of foreign language education described is twofold: before the Republican period in section 3.3.1 and the Republican Turkey era in section 3.3.2.

3.3.1 Before the Republic

Globally speaking, English has a wide spectrum of impacts in the world (Crystal, 2009), as well as in the Turkish sociolinguistic context (Arik, 2020; Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998). In this specific sociolinguistic setting, a chronological evaluation is needed regarding the history of the English language and curriculum renovations in the education system.

When the chronology of events is checked, it is obvious that the introduction of the English language into the nation and many implementations dates back to the Tanzimat Period[1], the second half of the 19th century (Kirkgoz, 2007). After that period, foreign language instruction was conducted using European methods, whereas education prior to Tanzimat was based on religious principles. In the case of the Ottoman Empire, the first introduction of English was during that period, and it was also during that era when English language education was put into the national education system. Indeed, the Tanzimat period can be marked as the beginning of the Westernization movements in the education system of the Empire, as well as the transition era from the Ottoman Empire to the Turkish Republic (Kirkgoz, 2005; Üzüm, 2007).

With the effects of Westernization movements, the linguistic landscape of the Ottoman Empire turned out to be a linguistic battleground, which was mainly affected by Western languages. At first, learning French and shortly thereafter, learning German gained importance (Boyacioğlu, 2015). The establishment of close relations with France and the fact that French was the language of diplomacy,

[1]The reform initiatives that were launched in November 1839 were known as Tanzimat (Regulation). The word Tanzimat comes from a root that means order. Tanzimatists want to reunite East and West and reconstruct the state. In order to restore the authority of the national government over the provinces and establish a new system of centralized administration and secular laws, their primary goal was to first build a modern national army (Ahmed, 2021) In terms of the education system, it signals the start of the Westernization movements (Kirkgoz, 2007).

philosophy, and science made the French language popular during this time. In addition, the early French instructions were given in military training institutions in 1773 and French was part of the curricula of the Medical School and the School of Political Sciences. Most importantly, the successful implementation of French teaching was in Mekteb-i Sultani in İstanbul (Galatasaray University today), which started solely the French language-based curriculum in 1869 (Shaw, 1977). In the end, the great influence of the era suddenly made French a language, which was frequently used and learned among intellectual people.

Later, commercial contacts were developed between the Ottoman and British Empires. This was the start of the fall of the French language effect, while the rise of the English language. Moreover, with the treaty of commerce between the United States of America and Turkey, the formal relations paved the way for the promotion of English medium instruction. Following this radical change from French to English, the first educational institute with foreign language education was Robert College, which was opened in 1863, followed by Üsküdar American College in 1871 (Minifie, 1998). These two colleges were both English medium schools that also taught Arabic since English would have been a neutral lingua franca among students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

Furthermore, missionaries were also allowed to set up schools during this period. As a result, Italian, British and German schools were founded after American schools. In terms of missionary schools in the education system, the first schools opened were French, German, English, Italian, and American schools (Demircan, 1988). Those schools were allowed to choose and implement their own curriculum until the foundation of Republican Turkey in 1923 when education was secularized with a ban on Arabic and Persian teaching policy of the Empire along with other reforms about missionary schools (Demirel, 2003; Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998).

In conclusion, starting with the language of the Quran, which was Arabic, the history of languages shows that there were also French and English during the Ottoman period. French was on the stage due to Westernization movements, and finally, it was English during the period that refers to the fall of the Ottoman Empire. That period was, at the same time, the rise of the Turkish Republic. With the foundation of the Republic of Turkey in 1923, the new Law of Unification of Education was declared on 3rd March 1924 according to which the Ministry of Education became responsible for the educational domain of the country in order to maintain a secular education system (Eren, 2021). After this date, Turkish became the main medium of instruction in all educational institutions in the nation. Arabic and Persian, which used to be the popular languages during the Ottoman Period, were replaced by French, English, or German as a second language taught at schools.

Thus so far, we have briefly covered the plurality of the linguistic situation in the Ottoman period, which appears to be a significant aspect of the Empire. The next section will present the monolingual Turkish Republic and the linguistic characteristic of the Turkish sociolinguistic setting during the Republican period.

3.3.2 Republican Turkey

From the beginning of the Republican Turkey period, Atatürk, as the founder of the Turkish Republic, went through many reforms in the national, social, cultural, and educational domains after the fall of the Ottoman Empire. The main component of those reforms was Westernism.

Regarding all reforms, the Turkish Language Reform was proven to be the most influential reform aimed at standardizing and modernizing the Turkish language (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004). This significant historical reform included a body called the 'Turkish Language Association' to purify the national language and, primarily, preserve it from the effect of other foreign languages. Concerning the Turkish language reform, the standardization of oral and spoken languages was among the implementations of the purification process to provide equality in terms of educational opportunities in society. In other words, the purification attempts were prioritized to create an opportunity for every individual in the nation to learn how to read and write quickly because the change in language use, which means a transition from Arabic to Turkish, caused illiteracy for the majority of the population. Additionally, the main reason for this purification was the fact that the Ottoman Empire "did not have a solid language policy and standardised education" (Üzüm, 2007: 33). Thus, the transition period from the Ottoman Empire to the Turkish Republic required many linguistical reforms. Since setting standards for national languages is described as one of the most critical domains in language policy attempts according to Spolsky (2004, 2007) (see section 3.2.2), this period can be assumed to be crucial regarding the transition from the Arabic language to contemporary Turkish and setting standards for the Turkish language in newly founded Republican Turkey.

Another major reform shortly after the beginning of the Republican period was Alphabet Reform in 1928 when the schools were secularized, and the alphabet was changed from Arabic to Latin (Brendemoen, 2003). As a result of these two reforms symbolizing the new direction in which the country was heading, the communicative and educational needs of the society started to be met through the Turkish language. These reforms were aimed to reduce the illiteracy level of the community, which was almost 90% at the time (Zok, 2010). In order to create a new national identity, language unity, and modernization, Turkey went

through extensive language reforms for general language planning from 1920 to 1930. Wright (2004: 53) describes the extent of the changes through the lens of language planning and policy in Turkey as follows:

> That this radical piece of planning was successful was perhaps due to the levels of literacy among the Turkish population at the same time. It was a change that did not affect the majority, although it was a massive blow to the small class that was literate and that became, in effect, illiterate overnight.
>
> (Wright, 2004: 53)

Needless to say, there was an obvious need to maintain unity and reduce the discrepancy among its citizens, who were literate but suddenly became illiterate due to the Turkish language and alphabet reforms. Therefore, one of the great concerns of reformists was language during those times.

Moreover, in those years, the reforms included changes in the educational domain, and one of those significant changes was related to foreign languages. Foreign language planning generally had Western languages, and English was not necessarily prioritized over other languages during the planning process. In opposition to this planning process, some political and linguistic nationals were worried that teaching foreign languages would weaken Turkish culture and overshadow the mother tongue (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998). Finally, it was not until the Second World War that English became the centre of language teaching, which is still a favourite in Turkey and all parts of the world (Demircan, 1988; Kirkgöz, 2009; Selvi, 2021).

The start of English spread in the non-colonized areas of the world had a significant impact on the Turkish sociolinguistic context. Gradually, English started to take place in the country's education system, as it had the role of "the language of international diplomacy to become the lingua franca for trade, banking, tourism, popular media, science, and technology" in monolingual areas of the world (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998: 25). Corresponding to the emergent role and benefits in these areas mentioned, English became a crucial part of language planning starting from the post-Second World War era in Turkey. Figure 3.1 summarizes the chronological development and relative importance of foreign languages in the nation according to the years stated.

As shown in Figure 3.1, English had precedence over other foreign languages throughout the time in Turkey. Accordingly, Dogancay-Aktuna (1998) explains that the first significant phase of English spread began through schooling in the 1950s when the Ministry of Education officially introduced English medium education. Like many other countries, English-medium schools in Turkey are

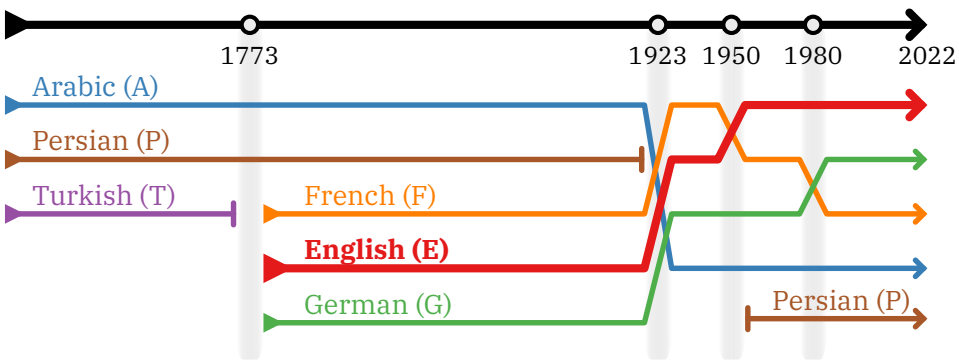


Figure 3.1: Chronological development and relative importance of foreign languages in Turkey (adapted from Demircan, 1988: 116)

classified into two categories: public and private, and run by both the state and the private sector. At the secondary education level, the first state school with an English medium, the so-called Anatolian High School[2], was opened in 1955 (Kirkgoz, 2005). Anatolian high schools had a special status compared to other state schools, which meant a special centralized test for admission to these schools. In other words, these English-medium schools required exam-based entrance, and after graduating from primary school, students could take the central exam and continue their education at these secondary schools. The school period was seven years, including the first year mainly for English language education (preparatory year), which is, still, a model for tertiary level education in the country today (Selvi, 2021).

It should be noted that although these education institutions involved the name of high school in the original wording, the education started with Grade 6 after the primary school graduation. The traditional system at Anatolian High Schools supported English medium education by including the first year as the English preparatory year followed by a three-year secondary level and an additional three-year for high school level education. After the establishment of these schools, with curriculum innovations, certain subjects like Maths and Science were taught in English. Consequently, concerning the Turkish education system, the outcomes of these English-medium schools precisely showed that effective and planned exposure to English in the curriculum could be supportive of higher levels of English language proficiency after graduating from these schools (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998).

[2]According to Selvi (2021), these schools have been the backbone of English medium education in the nation until the early 2000s, and Turkish had to be adopted for social science classes (such as geography, sociology, and history), whereas English had to be used for natural science courses (e.g. science and mathematics) in these schools due to the linguistic division of labor in the curriculum. These institutions implemented a required one-year term of intensive academic language preparation in order to continue this practice.

Due to the high-quality English language education, there was such a high demand for these prestigious and special educational institutions. In the meantime, the government took an action to open private Anatolian high schools all around the country in addition to the state ones in the mid-1980s (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011). For instance, even though there were 12 Anatolian high schools in 1974, this number increased to 1457 in 2001. However, later in 2005, these schools were abolished with the new reform to standardize English education for all citizens of the nation because as an expected consequence, there were significant differences in terms of English language proficiency levels between the students who graduated from these Anatolian high schools and the students who studied in the Turkish-medium instruction (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011). Although there was a steady upward trend for English medium education in the country, the aim of standardizing English language education paved the way to the closing of a chapter related to Anatolian high schools with a reform covered in detail in section 3.4.1.

Fundamentally, the combination of English-medium instruction and high proficiency outcomes played a significant role in the increase of importance attached to foreign language education in the nation, so this huge impact can be seen in the total number of foreign language enrollments, particularly for the English language, as Figure 3.2 displays according to the years between 1950 and 1990.

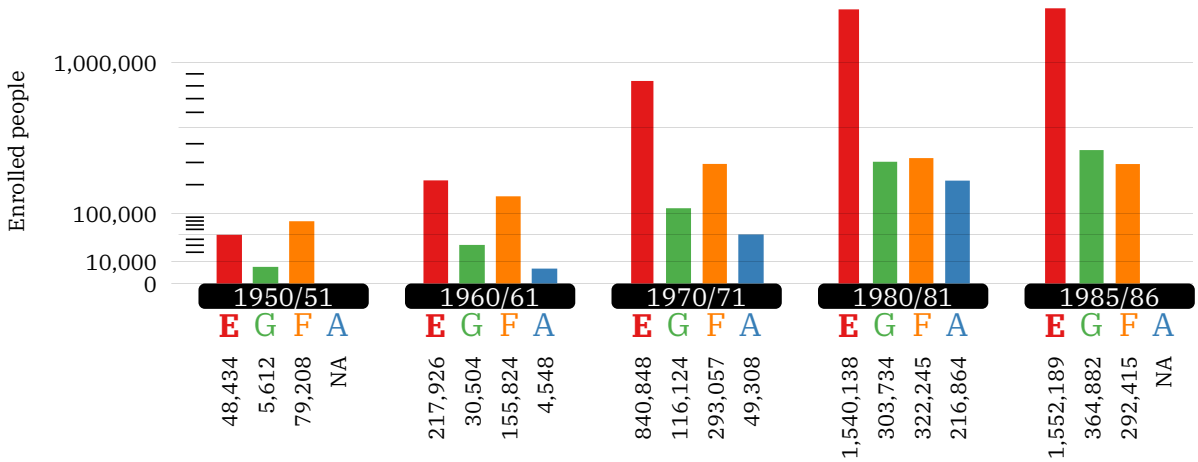


Figure 3.2: Total enrolment in foreign languages (Grades 1-12) (adapted from Demircan, 1988: 102) (E = English, G = German, F = French, A = Arabic)

In the same vein, Figure 3.2 reinforces the idea that the spread of English through schooling increased systematically over the years with the introduction of English-medium high schools. Especially, one can see the drastic change started when English medium education was first offered by Anatolian high schools in 1955. The numbers of students enrolled for Grades 1-12, as shown in Figure 3.2,

reveal that other foreign languages were taught during those times. Eventually, English became the most popular foreign language after the 1980s (Demircan, 1988). Following the increasing number of enrollments for the English language every decade, German became the second most popular foreign language in the country, and then French appeared in the third place (Demircan, 1988). What is striking about Figure 3.2 is that the Arabic language was not taught until the 1960s. This may be due to strict educational reforms in the Republican period regarding the ban on Arabic language teaching and a secularized education system.

Highlighting the role played by the reform of English medium schools (Anatolian High Schools), the spread of English in the nation marked the second phase under the effects of globalization, especially after the 1980s (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004). Regarding globalization, global flows led to the widespread presence of English in the country, which was foreseen by Friedman (1994) and Robins (1996) that the rapid changes in economic and cultural flows due to globalization would ultimately result in Turkey being one of the countries that was affected by these changes starting in the 1980s.

Therefore, it is important to look at the globalization effects in detail in the Turkish context during the 1980s. Turkey was part of the economic integration process into the global economy via rising tourism income, the Internet, and media; as a result, the combination of these domains brought the idea of popularity and high use of English to the country (Acar, 2004). Finally, it was all levels of the national education system that needed to be reorganized with respect to the English language to serve the demanding requirements of globalization and the Westernization effects of the time. In a very short time, English language knowledge became the key qualification in the country.

The English language can, in this sense, be seen as a socio-educational phenomenon in Turkey. In her seminal article, Arik (2020) mentioned the special situation of Turkey as an example of the discrepancy between the poor and the rich emerging most acutely through English language education since the 1980s. The discrepancy referred in this situation happened through education because the English language education was supported and encouraged by families from higher socioeconomic backgrounds (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; König, 1990). This was the starting signal in terms of the status of English becoming the language of the elites (Zok, 2010). Similarly, Ahmad (1993: 210) summarizes Turkey's socio-educational development in the 1980s like this:

> “English had become the *sine qua non* for a successful career in virtually any field and parents struggled hard to have their children acquire a working knowledge of the language. Vernacular”

> schools and universities, even established ones like İstanbul University, declined as they attracted only students who were unable to enter the elite institutions; the religious schools attracted the poorest and the least qualified students (italics in original).
> (Ahmad, 1993: 210)

Aside from the rising value of English during the 1980s, successful career opportunities made English more essential in the Turkish context (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; König, 1990; Selvi, 2011, 2021). It is also not surprising that families support English language education due to better career opportunities (Ahmad, 1993; Kiziltepe, 2000). As a result, the role and crucial influence of English had its place in the national education context.

By contextualizing the status of English within Turkey's modernization, König (1990) describes the paradoxical situation as a skyrocketing process referring to the status of English in the Turkish educational system. He further argues that English has become the most demanding language in the job sector though it does not serve any communication goals of the society in any domain, such as the function of the second language in other colonial nations (König, 1990). In other words, English has no intranational function in Turkey, as the only official language is Turkish in the nation (Bear, 1985). Kiziltepe (2000) is mainly interested in the paradoxical situation concerning the family encouragement in learning English, whilst Ahmad (1993) highlights the relevance by focusing on the fact that the top positions are advertised in English even in Turkish newspapers. This argument about the paradoxical status of English in Turkey finds attention in Zok (2010) and it seems less surprising that English also has the danger of becoming the language of elites due to the inequality in education. Consequently, the demand for English language education gained importance in the nation at an unexpected rate although this situation is referred to as paradoxical.

We, therefore, need to clearly monitor the changes in the role of English in the nation. In line with this, approaches to foreign language teaching and language teaching policies need to be revised and explained in detail because they have undergone several changes since the 1980s. These changes also affected the number of schools nationwide. Although many English medium schools were established, English never had an intranational function in Turkey, just as it has had this role in other West Asian countries. The pure aim to learn English among the young generation in Turkey is likely to be the abundance of better job opportunities and well-paid jobs considering foreign language knowledge. Evidently, English in Turkey can clearly be regarded as part of Westernization movements rather than the actual use of it in official settings.

On the whole, in response to the high demand for English in the education system, one of the most critical steps in language education was the Foreign Language Education and Teaching Law during the Republican period, which will be the topic of the following sections drawing attention to foreign language education ranging from primary school to the tertiary level education to better present the Turkish context. It is also necessary to explain important turning points and reforms in foreign language education, focusing on the period starting from the 1980s and onward.

3.4 Foreign Language Education Reforms in Turkey

In Turkey, the global status of English has also challenged the foreign language education policies in the nation, and there have been many new policies and laws introduced into the system. To exemplify these in this section, we will cover macro-level changes and their micro-level implementations in terms of English language teaching, in particular, primary and secondary level education in section 3.4.1 and the tertiary level education in section 3.4.2. More crucially, this section addresses the issue of English-medium instruction in the country in section 3.4.3 and aims to provide the necessary justification for the debates around EMI in terms of the Turkish setting in section 3.4.4.

Prior to commencing, Kirkgöz (2009) draws our attention to two major language policy acts in the Turkish educational context referring to the time frame between 1983 and 1984: the Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act for secondary and high school education and the Higher Education Act for the tertiary level education.

The first major language policy act was the 1983 Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act, which was significant in laying the foundations for foreign language instruction at the secondary and high school education level. A more detailed account of this act states that Turkish is the medium of instruction in secondary and high schools, and the Turkish Ministry of National Education is the responsible institution for decisions regarding foreign language teaching and administration of English language curriculum and syllabi at educational institutions (Kirkgöz, 2009; Kırkgöz, 2017).

The second central language policy act is called the 1984 Higher Education Act, and this new enactment of policy laid the foundations for higher education in Turkey. This Higher Education Act "implicitly stated the instrumental value of English as a medium of teaching and learning" (Kırkgöz, 2017: 238), which paved the way for the spread of the English language as well as English-medium

universities around the country. Following the implementation of this policy in 1984, there was a decline in the importance placed on other foreign languages such as German and French and an increase in the use of the English language at universities.

These two major language policy acts appear to be reasonably crucial in response to the globalization process and the spread of English in Turkey (Kirkgöz, 2009; Kırkgöz, 2017). It is also during this time period that the expansion in the number of English medium private and state schools took place. For instance, Anatolian high schools led to the spread, as previously mentioned in section 3.3.2. With the development of English medium schools, concerns about the future of the Turkish language have been raised by intellectuals because having any language as a medium of instruction is regarded as a high degree level of potential language intervention (Tsui & Tollefson, 2007). Moreover, as argued by König (1990) that different countries try to keep English outside and maintain it only for international communication, while the English medium instruction in Turkey continues to rise and creates a growing social gap. This gap is claimed to get bigger due to the access to such schools by children from middle and upper-class families (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; König, 1990; Zok, 2010). Thus, there has been disagreement about the potential danger of creating job opportunities in society for certain people who know English. It is essential to address this ongoing debate about English medium instruction and the danger of English becoming the language of people from higher social strata in the country, which will be covered in detail in the upcoming sections (see section 3.4.4).

Briefly, foreign language education is covered by two influential policy acts in this section, and the reforms related to the English language curriculum and foreign language teaching are explained in the next section.

3.4.1 Innovations in Primary and Secondary Level Education

Before continuing to focus on tertiary level education, it is of fundamental importance to look at three major curriculum reforms regarding foreign language education at the primary and secondary levels. It is also of primary importance to discover the emergence of English in the national education system since we can argue that the foreign language education background may contribute to the categorized themes concerning language profiles, proficiency levels and language attitudes in the present study. In other words, we may expect to see the discrepancy among participants, which can be explained by their educational trajectory relating to the specific reforms (including but not limited to communicative-based approaches in language teaching) in the national education system. Therefore,

the present section seeks to describe the extent to which the English language has progressively become the language of the Turkish educational system throughout time.

Although the impact and heightened awareness of English on the language policy and practices is not a completely new phenomenon, English appears not to manifest itself in the ELT curriculum design in Turkey until a major curriculum innovation project took place in 1997 (Kirkgöz, 2009). This new curriculum project is characterized by two issues: combining primary and secondary education into a single stream and extending the duration of compulsory education to eight years while making the early introduction of EFL priority in primary schools instead of secondary school level (MoNE, 1997). These two innovations are especially relevant for English language classes as "English was introduced as a regular subject, Teaching English to Young Learners (TEYLs) for Grade 4 and Grade 5 students" in the new curriculum (Kirkgöz, 2009: 674).

Until the year 1997, concerning English in the curriculum, the earliest education level that included English classes was Grade 6 at the secondary education level (Dulger, 2004). While it is true that "governments around the world are introducing English as a compulsory subject at younger and younger ages" (Nunan, 2003: 591), the case in the Turkish education system was slightly different that English classes used to start at Grade 6 until English became a priority within the curriculum development in 1997. This relevant curriculum innovation simply supported the earlier introduction of foreign language education, which became compulsory starting from Grade 4 instead of Grade 6. According to the new regulation in 1997, the number of hours per week was two hours of English starting with Grade 4 and with the new curriculum, English was aimed to be taught over a period of time (MoNE, 1997).

Another emergent and significant impact of the 1997 curriculum innovation is to deliver compulsory education in a single stream while combining primary and secondary education (Kırkgöz, 2006). Prior to the year 1997, primary education in Turkey was five-year education expecting students to continue with another three-year secondary school education. Subsequently, high school education used to be three years. That is, by shifting the duration of compulsory education from five years to eight years, the primary and secondary school years were combined into one stream. The implementation of the emergence of all grades under one form of compulsory education evidently ended the era of privileged state schools, namely Anatolian high schools established in the mid-1950s, although these schools played an important role in the spread of English in the nation and used to offer English medium education (Selvi, 2021).

This was notably because English medium instruction was associated with

one of the barriers related to mother tongue development. Therefore, the Turkish language was set as the medium of education for the new single stream education, which lasted for eight years with the new reform. It is crucial to note that after the reform, Anatolian high schools were changed into high school levels where students were able to attend four-year high school education, including the first year as English language preparatory year. In accordance with the new reform, the new status of Anatolian high schools represents a high school starting with Grade 9 after secondary school graduation. Yaman (2018) points out that the high school level is significantly late in terms of age to have an intensive preparatory year in English as students would miss the opportunity of the intensive introduction to English at an earlier age, which used to be the case before the reform. Yet, the curriculum development in 1997 was still significant since the introduction of English at the primary school level with two hours per week provided a basis for the opening of a new chapter in teaching English to young learners.

To better understand 1997 curriculum innovation, Kırkgöz (2017) classified the innovative practices into three distinct parts at the primary level of education. Firstly, the innovation was supposed to keep up with new approaches in ELT and as a result, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was introduced into the education system. For example, the classroom activities were expected to encourage learners to achieve more communicative tasks using the target language. Secondly, these educational objectives (e.g. communicative tasks) required a change considering teaching practices, and this change was planned through promoting a shift from teacher-centred teaching to student-centred with the purpose of advancing the learners' language proficiency levels. Thirdly, this approach brought new roles for language teachers. That is, language teachers were seen as a facilitator to guide the learning process and the improvement in communicative performance.

Having a communicative language teaching approach in the curriculum, however, does not necessarily mean that the micro-level implementations are successful. In fact, this prevailing innovation explicitly aimed to meet the country's political and economic objectives on the world stage while maintaining relations in the international area by using English, especially with the European Union (MoNE, 1997). For the implementation step, parents and schools support this curriculum framework mainly because of the introduction of the English language starting from Grade 4, which means a younger age for language instruction at schools. In return, the contribution to enhancing young learners' communicative skills is expected to be greater.

In general terms, communicative approaches enacted in 1997 curriculum innovation required additional changes for language education in those upcoming years due to the fact that the influence of English as a global language achieved

the priority choice of foreign language (Crystal, 1997). Therefore, certain types of Western-derived educational approaches had to be considered in order to make pedagogical adjustments. Correspondingly, the 2005 English language and curriculum reform, which was the revised version of the 1997 reform, was introduced into the ELT curriculum nationwide.

We can say that the second attempt for the ELT curriculum took place in 2005 in response to the globalization era and the integration of EU educational norms. This time, a lack of competence in English-speaking skills was the key factor in revising and it was also an issue that needed urgent focus in curriculum design. Kırkgöz (2017: 243) explained this new version of the curriculum objective, asserting that:

> “The 2005 curriculum accommodates a ’constructivist approach’ to teaching and learning, ‘active learning’, ‘use of tasks’, ‘multiple intelligences theory’ and ‘content and language integrated learning’ to enable certain non-language, cross-curricular subjects such as geography, music, and sports to be learned through English.”
>
> (Kırkgöz, 2017: 243)

In the constructivist curriculum of the year 2005, which was guided by the lack of speaking competence, English textbooks were revised for Grades 4 and 5. In terms of marked change, a decision taken by the Ministry of National Education is noteworthy. A noticeable shift with the new curriculum in 2005 was the abolishment of the English preparatory year offered by Anatolian High Schools, and English-medium private schools. In order to achieve standardization in English language education nationwide, all high schools should last for four years with the new reform, unlike the previous version, which refers to 3-year high school+1-year English preparatory class. In sum, the key revisions were the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach for the revision of the English teaching materials for Grade 4 and 5 and the abolishment of the English preparatory year at high schools.

Later in March 2012, with Act Number 6287, the Ministry of National Education again changed the duration of compulsory education with the third attempt to introduce the new system, which is known by the public as “4+4+4”[3]. This new

[3]This new reform, which is called 4+4+4, caused a sudden change in the Turkish education system although the objectives of 4+4+4 education system are to increase the period of compulsory education in Turkey to the average of EU and OECD countries and provide a more qualified education environment to the students."With the new 4 + 4 + 4 education system, the 8-year compulsory primary education is ended and the compulsory education period is extended to 12 years as of 2012-2013 education year as 4 years primary school, 4 years

system combined primary, secondary, and high school education levels into one single stream, and this time, the curriculum innovation was modelled on 12-year education. In other words, each education level consisted of four years: 4-year primary, 4-year secondary, and 4-year high school education. Ultimately, compulsory education in Turkey became 12 years according to this comprehensive reform. Taking the place of the former reform, which corresponded to compulsory eight years, the number of school years was increased to 12 years in a new single stream.

Needless to say, there was an urgent need to redesign educational programs according to the new school years mentioned in the 4+4+4 system. Given that the new system would facilitate and strengthen English language proficiency, English language education was set to start from Grade 2 at primary school with this contemporary reform. This new curriculum was updated to align with new approaches in education and hence, it was designed to be learner-centred and process-oriented. Similarly, the new system adopted contemporary approaches to language teaching such as communicative language teaching through the integration of four skills-reading, writing, listening and speaking (Haznedar, 2010). The contemporary curriculum, designed by a Turkish team of specialists, provides comprehensive educational objectives in order to enhance communicative competence in English as stated by the curriculum document under the learning model for English:

> “In designing the new English language teaching program, the principles and descriptors of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR) were closely followed. [...]; accordingly, the new curricular model emphasizes language use in an authentic communicative environment. As no single language teaching methodology was seen as flexible enough to meet the needs of learners at various stages and to address a wide range of learning styles, an eclectic mix of instructional techniques has been adopted, drawing on an action-oriented approach in order to allow learners to experience English as a means of communication, rather than focusing on the language as a topic of study.”
>
> (MoNE, 2018: iii)

In this new 2012 curriculum, communicative competence seems to gain importance by adopting Common European Framework (CEFR), which may be regarded as a globally oriented step.

elementary school and 4 years high school" (Gün & Baskan, 2014: 231).

In addition to the curriculum innovations mentioned above, Saricoban (2012) points out an important issue for successful outcomes that teachers have important duties for putting the policy issues into practice as policymakers in the real world and bridging the gap between policy rhetoric and classroom reality. Therefore, foreign language instructors should be professionally competent and well-trained. It is further stated that to actually implement the policy issues, it is not sufficient to have qualified and competent teachers only because the success of Turkey's foreign language education is influenced by the curricula, textbooks, teaching techniques and approaches chosen by language policymakers (Saricoban, 2012).

As we have discussed in this section, there are major reforms in foreign language teaching, and more importantly, teachers have the chief role in the successful outcomes of educational reforms. Concerning the Turkish educational system, this part of the literature review presents the reforms regarding foreign language education. Among the key steps, the communicative approach was introduced into foreign language teaching with the 1997 curriculum reform, which has been highly crucial as the first step of communicative language teaching approaches (Kirkgoz, 2005). Moreover, with the aim of reaching European education standards in which multiculturalism and multilingualism have been widely valued, primary school education offers a second foreign language option starting from Grade 6 (Dulger, 2004). Since then, the second foreign language option, such as German and French, has also been very popular among the students (Şimşek et al., 2007). In addition, families have had positive attitudes toward the second foreign language since the use of multiple languages has been the most valued factor in business life along with the technology in the communication era (Ahmad, 1993; Arik, 2020; Kiziltepe, 2000). Following this step, the second reform related to curriculum corresponds to the year 2005, which includes the revision of English textbooks for Grades 4 and 5 at the primary school level and additionally, the standardization of all secondary level education with the duration of 4 years while abolishing the preparatory year for English. Last but not least, the "4+4+4" system, a three-tier model of education including primary, secondary and high school levels, has still been the valid system in the country since 2012 and this 12-year education is compulsory for all individuals. Now, we will turn our attention to innovations in tertiary-level education, which is the primary focus of the current study.

3.4.2 Innovations in Tertiary Level Education

In the same way described in the previous section, there have been many reforms for the spread of English in terms of tertiary level education since the Ottoman

Empire era. As university students are the main participants of the present study, it is crucial to mention the effective reforms based on the tertiary level to see how the situation is special in the Turkish higher education context with the changes over time.

In fact, the origins of higher education go back to the Ottoman Empire, when there was an institution called Darülfünun[4] in order to meet the needs of modern science and technologies. After the foundation of the Republic, Atatürk continued his reforms, and he also observed that Darülfünun did not serve the latest scientific requirements of the respective era, and this was the notable reason for an urgent need for a new reform in the higher education domain (Baskan, 2001). As regard to this, İstanbul Darülfünun was abolished with the Act of 2252, and the name was replaced by İstanbul University, which was founded in 1933 by modeling western universities (Üsdiken, 2004). This new step entailed the foundation of İstanbul University with four faculties, and the new reform was called "University Reform", referring to the only university in the country during the relevant period of time. Indeed, there was a desire in terms of policy planning, for higher education institutions to be based on the Humboldt model in which research activities and education were combined (Guclu, 2020).

Furthermore, university reform was the start of the modern university era in Turkey. The higher education model of the newly established İstanbul University was the Continental European modeled. In this new form of organization, universities adopted a more classic-technical approach with professional education delivered in the Turkish language and offered curricula based on local context-specific courses in law and accounting (Inelmen et al., 2017). Only a few academics from the old institute called Darülfünun were allowed to keep their place during this transitional period at newly founded İstanbul University. On the one hand, many foreign academics, who escaped from the Nazi regime in Germany, made significant contributions to the higher education system in Turkey at that time (Erdem, 2012). On the other hand, with the new higher education reform, there were many Turkish academics sent abroad for their academic career, aiming to increase the quality of education upon their return to the country.

In addition to system related changes, it was the first time that academic terminology related to the university, such as dean, faculty, and professor, was used instead of other titles which had been previously used in the Ottoman Empire (Akyüz, 2010). University Reform paved the way for the establishment of other higher education institutions since the changing nature and conditions of the society required more developments in the higher education domain. Hence,

[4] Darülfünun was established in 1863 during the Ottoman era and served as a university with the name of Darüfünun-u Osmani until the foundation of İstanbul University (Baskan, 2001).

İstanbul Technical University was founded in 1944 and later, Ankara University was founded in 1946. They were the leading institutions of the new wave of higher education spread throughout the nation. According to Baskan (2001), the number of higher education institutions increased from 1 university to 74 universities starting with university reform until the year 2000 in Republican Turkey. Until 2000, the return of academics, who were sent abroad on a regular basis, doubled the number of academics at higher education institutions to 63.866 academics, while there were only 307 academics during the initial period of the reform (Baskan, 2001). According to the current statistics of 2021 by the Turkish Higher Education Council, there are 204 universities in the country today.[5]

Regarding higher education in Turkey, the University Reform in 1933 highly encouraged at least one European language to teach as a foreign language, which was planned to be a part of the curriculum to keep up with the scientific developments in the world. In line with the expectations of revolutionary reforms and foreign language education, Middle East Technical University was the first English-medium state university in the nation, and it was established in 1956 based on the American model (Kirkgoz, 2007). More importantly, the spread of English at the higher education level gained momentum with the establishment of English-medium higher education institutions. Due to the rising number of universities, there was an urgent need for a well-designed language policy for EMI at tertiary level education. In addition, as a response to the growing role of English, this was the start for many state universities that offered English medium instruction and foreign language courses as part of their curriculum (Selvi, 2011). Yet, for the English medium universities, students were supposed to have advanced proficiency levels. If students had not met the proficiency criteria, they had to study English during the preparatory year, which was excluded from the actual duration of the study years.

Following the pioneering higher education institutions and the limited number of English-medium universities in the country, there was a significant reform regarding the new establishments that had to be undertaken at the tertiary level. It was the Higher Education Law with Act number 2547, which was about abolishing the organizational form of Continental European-modeled universities. Markedly, with this law, Turkey adopted the Anglo-Saxon model in the higher education domain by establishing the interim institution called the Council of Higher Education (CoHE). After this date, CoHE became the supreme authority for the higher education institutions in the country for the appointment of university presidents, faculty deans, and the organization of academic structures in terms of departments and institutes.

[5] https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/

Right after the establishment of CoHE, a new language policy act, the so-called 1984 Higher Education Act, was the beginning of macro policy regulations for universities as a response to the scientific and technological competitiveness regarding globalization during the 1980s. This new policy enactment highlighted the value of the English language as a medium of instruction and started the acceleration of English medium instruction at the tertiary level (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011). In order to meet the growing desire for EMI, not only state universities but also private universities appeared on the stage, and the huge demand for EMI was partly met by the establishment of private universities (Coleman, 2006). For instance, there was no existence of private universities in the Turkish Higher Education system until the year 1984 (Guclu, 2020). Ultimately, the role of English in higher education developed to a point supported by EMI, which was offered by private universities distinctively. This started another new era in tertiary level education.

Thus, it was urgently needed to come to a conclusion about the main medium of instruction in the nation: whether to maintain English-medium or Turkish-medium instruction. In the event of Turkish medium education, the English language had to be delivered as a mandatory part of the curriculum. Until 1996, universities were allowed to decide about the language of their medium of instruction. In 1996, CoHE settled on a list of criteria for higher education institutions to be able to have English medium instruction. The requirements were related to the sufficiency of academics to deliver courses in English, the establishment of a foreign language centre linked to the university for the students, who have low proficiency in English, and the collection of available resources and written materials published in English (Kirkgöz, 2009).

Since 1960, universities have implemented several models in terms of English language teaching: “a) the adoption of English as a medium of instruction, b) the establishment of year-long intensive English preparatory programs, and c) level-based supplementary English instruction throughout the undergraduate education” (Selvi, 2021: 213). Although the policy does not prioritize a particular foreign language to be taught, it is English again, as is the case in primary and secondary level education (Dogancay-Aktuna & Kiziltepe, 2005).

According to a report by British Council and TEPAV (2015: 74-75), Turkish universities, in general, have five kinds of English language curriculum: “English for General Purposes (EGP), English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP), Mixed EGP-EGAP, English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP), and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)” and in the same report, the key thing emphasized is a need analysis in order to develop an English language curriculum. Table 3.1 shows the types of ELT curriculum in 24 universities that participated in the

fieldwork by British Council and TEPAV (2015)[6].

Table 3.1: Types of ELT curriculum in Turkish Universities (n=24) (British Council & TEPAV, 2015: 75)

Year	EGP	EGP-EGAP	EGAP	ESAP	EOP
Prep Year	11	9	3	1	0
Year 1	1	1	16	6	0
Year 2	0	1	8	6	0
Year 3	0	0	5	7	0
Year 4	0	0	4	6	1
Graduate	0	0	8	0	0

As presented in Table 3.1, EGP and EGAP are the most frequent types of curriculum followed in Turkish universities, especially for the prep year. Seemingly, it is 23 universities that follow EGP, EGAP, and mixed EGP-EGAP. EGP covers all four skills and everyday social English, while EGAP is designed to teach academic English and language skills for academic study. The combination of these two curriculum types is also very traditional for prep-year classes. Although it is not very preferable for the prep year, ESAP is applied to a particular academic discipline such as English for dentists, architects etc. during the undergraduate study years. Students are reported to be motivated for ESAP due to the feeling that it is related to their studies; however, the disadvantage is the lack of published teaching materials for effective teaching of ESAP (British Council & TEPAV, 2015). What we can also observe in Table 3.1 is the difference in the curriculum at different stages of a student's academic career. Obviously, there is a decline in terms of the English language classes offered until year 4, and especially for graduate studies, there are fewer classes offered with the aim of teaching English.

In addition to the topic of how to teach English at Turkish medium universities, a wide range of attempts have been made to establish English-medium education at the tertiary level. Turning back to the EMI topic, it has become popular in Turkey because EMI offers a possible way of dealing with the global reality of the internationalization of tertiary level education. Corresponding to internationalization at the higher education level, Turkish higher education institutions have taken a number of initiatives including official Bologna process membership, thereby having English as a compulsory subject in the curriculum, and launching new EMI programs in 2001 (Arik, 2020). The core rationale behind these steps is manifold, ranging from political to educational such as the EU membership and tertiary level education in order to ensure some basic standards among European countries (Arik & Arik, 2014).

[6]TEPAV is the Turkish acronym for Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey

Concerning the tertiary level education, Turkey's main motivation has been internationalization and modernization along with the proposed reforms of the Bologna process in order to strengthen tertiary level education and enhance the worldwide profile of Turkish universities (Arik & Arik, 2014; Westerheijden et al., 2010). Eventually, Turkey signed the Bologna Declaration in 2001 and this step seemed promising for the integration process to reach the international standards recognized by European universities (British Council & TEPAV, 2015). However, the outcomes of the Bologna process have been rather disappointing because Turkish higher education has failed to attract students from Europe and instead, students have been mostly from Asian countries according to a report by the Turkish Council of Higher Education for the years between 2018 and 2021 (CoHE, 2021). Internationalization in higher education appears to be superficial in these terms, and a well-developed, strong policy is urgently needed in order to attract more students from abroad (Findik, 2016). Regarding this issue, a study by Yağci (2010) provides support from an earlier time that the desired internationalization has been relatively slow to actualize international mobility in the case of Turkey.

According to the report prepared for the Bologna process by CoHE (2007), there were four main points: (i) European Higher Education Area (EHEA), (ii) European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), (iii) Students and Academic Exchange and Mobility and (iv) the Accreditation and Quality Assurance System in Teacher Education in order to modify Turkish higher education to comply with the international norms (Kirkgoz, 2007). With reference to the first point (i) regarding English language education and the growing desire among Turkish university students to learn a foreign language, international student exchange programs such as Erasmus became popular among university students after the start of internationalization movements with the Bologna process. In her wide-ranging study of the Turkish higher education system, Findik (2016) reported that roughly half of all exchange programs involve Erasmus exchange participants. This type of international exchange program is believed to be a trigger point of the instrumental motivation to learn another foreign language among Turkish youth, which explains the popularity of exchange programs. Recent research by British Council and TEPAV (2015) has also proved that Turkish students want to study abroad to be part of international exchange programs and obtain academic qualifications from international universities abroad.

Although these international exchange opportunities are numerous at the tertiary level, it is highlighted in a recent report by British Council that students' chances are limited due to English language barriers (British Council, 2020). Thus, in studies of new curriculum developments and foreign language teaching approaches, it is essential that foreign language proficiency levels in Turkey should be revised constantly in future studies rather than simply mentioning

the reforms and the description of the system itself. To justify the claims about proficiency levels, some more studies related to this topic can be found in a later section (section 5.1) where English language proficiency levels in the nation are presented in more detail. The next section aims to evaluate English medium instruction in Turkey rather than mentioning it briefly since it is a hotly debated topic in the country and it is fundamental to explain why the ideas are so diverse through different perspectives of scholars.

3.4.3 English Medium Instruction

After outlining the chronological review of reforms related to foreign language teaching and implementations at universities, it is useful to briefly situate the growing EMI discussions surrounding around the Turkish higher education. As referred to earlier, due to the fact that schools are graded based on how much emphasis they place on English, the demand for such English-medium institutions has grown in the nation, boosting the popularity of English in educational settings. Likewise, the demand for English-medium universities has followed a similar pattern in the Turkish context.

Concerning English-medium universities, Middle East Technical University in Ankara was the first English-medium educational institution, followed by Bosphorus University in İstanbul. These two higher education institutions are state universities offering English-medium education and have always been the most popular in the country because they provide a high quality of education and effective English-medium instruction offered with one-year intensive preparatory English language education (Üsdiken, 2004). Moreover, İstanbul University and Hacettepe University, two state universities in Turkey, are two examples, which gradually began to provide EMI including several faculties from the disciplines of Natural and Social Sciences. In addition to state universities, private universities, the most well-known of which is Bilkent University in Ankara, are established with the goal of teaching students through extensive English-medium instruction according to the needs of the era. Notwithstanding the fact that not all private institutions have equal opportunities in terms of academic staff to cover classes in English, teaching materials and physical conditions (Kavili Sultan, 2010; Selvi, 2021), the number of private universities offering EMI courses has increased in the Turkish higher context rapidly due to the popularity of English language (Kirkgöz, 2009).

Today, although the number of EMI universities has proliferated, there seems to be a wide polarization about English medium education in the nation. On the one hand, emerging as a lingua franca, English has attracted the attention of all

people from different strata of society, as well as students from the pre-school to post-doctoral levels (British Council & TEPAV, 2015). On the other hand, families have been the biggest supporters of EMI due to the career opportunities it creates for the future of their children (Ahmad, 1993; Kiziltepe, 2000). However, there is a big issue about the lack of academic staff to teach in English and teaching materials, especially for some disciplines at the tertiary level (British Council & TEPAV, 2015) . Consequently, there are a lot of discussions going on from the perspectives of policymakers, journalists, Turkish academics, educational stakeholders, students, and even parents in the Turkish context regarding EMI.

In line with the EMI debates, Turkey is not the only country adopting English medium education and is not alone in the global higher education contexts because, in general, there is a tendency among universities in the international area consistently driven by various factors (Coleman, 2006). These factors are initially grouped by Coleman (2006) under some rationales such as internalization, student exchanges, staff mobility, graduate employability, and the international student market. In the Turkish context, for example, two main factors seem to play a major role: attracting international students via exchange programs such as Erasmus and helping to prepare Turkish students for studying abroad (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011; Di Paolo & Tansel, 2015). Acknowledging these relevant factors, the primary goal is the internationalization of higher education according to educational objectives set by CoHE in 2007. From what they archived in strategic selections for equipping university students with foreign language knowledge related to Higher Education Strategy in Turkey (CoHE, 2007: 188-189), the objectives are the following:

> “In a globalized world, Turkey, demanding to become a part of the EU and to increase competitiveness, needs to equip university students with knowledge of at least one foreign language. That is the minimal condition. EU states require the acquisition of at least two foreign languages [...]. Teaching only one language is a conservative aim. The universities that are organized within the framework of language production should encourage students who know one foreign language to learn a second foreign language (Selvi’s translation as cited in Selvi, 2011).”
>
> (CoHE, 2007: 188-189)

From the educational objectives of the Council of Higher Education in Turkey, it is understood that English is associated with a foreign language in the linguistic repertoire of university students, and then the introduction of other foreign languages is set as one of the desired educational objectives (Selvi, 2011). This is assumed to be the main argument for the rapidly growing number of EMI

universities in the nation. However, it is not welcomed by all the stakeholders in the education field. From now on, there will be a brief summary of the English-medium education debates with the aim of presenting a clear picture of general attitudes in the nation and describing the current situation by giving examples from the current literature (see Arik, 2020; Arik and Arik, 2014; Kirkgöz, 2014).

3.4.4 Debates around English Medium Instruction

In Turkey, English-medium education is quite widespread although Turkey is not a colonized country by any other nation (Bear, 1985). This can be regarded as the main starting point of the polarization of English medium education at the national level. Society is still far from a consensus about the ideal role of English and therefore, this current vague status of English in the nation and education system seems to lead to many debates (Selvi, 2011; Üzüm, 2007).

The notion of EMI is addressed in the conceptualization of tertiary level education in the previous section with its boosting popularity among state and private universities (see section 3.4.3). In opposition to accepting EMI in tertiary education, initially, there is an essential need to discuss English medium education from the perspective of the high school level to better understand the educational concerns behind the debates. At the high school level, one of the factors that mainly affects EMI debates is the standardized university entrance exam conducted in Turkish (Selvi, 2011). Having been taught in English for the academic content and then sitting for the university entrance exam in Turkish make students lose their interest in the importance of English medium education during their transition years from high school to tertiary level education (Selvi, 2011). This can be the most prominent argument since the standard university entrance exam differs crucially and terminology is relatively different between English and Turkish considering some school subjects. Compare, for example, having a biology class in English with all its terminology and then being tested at the university entrance exam in the Turkish language. As a result, EMI hardly supports the university entrance exam, which is the main requirement of university education.

Moreover, this is the same situation for learning English as a foreign language at the high school level. The university entrance exam in Turkey is a norm-referenced one (Balbay & Kilis, 2018), which means that it does not test English language knowledge unless the candidate wants to study a bachelor degree related to languages or literature. Therefore, 80 % of students were reported to have negative attitudes towards content instruction other than the Turkish language with concerns about the desired achievement in the university entrance exam

(MoNE, 1997). In other words, if the candidate does not want to study a major related to languages or literature at university, the relevant university entrance exam does not test any English knowledge at all. For instance, this is a paradoxical situation for students who will not be assessed for their English in the university exam if they want to study natural sciences.

Debates about EMI are not necessarily limited to the high school context since university settings have also been an issue of the debates. Although EMI students claim certain benefits such as improving English language abilities, having access to primary sources in English and keeping up with global events, in studies investigating university students' ideas about EMI and Turkish Medium Instruction (TMI), the results are quite interesting in the way that Turkish students are in favour of TMI rather than EMI. For instance, a recent report by British Council (2020: 58) about EMI at the Turkish universities revealed that "[a]s for the advantages and disadvantages of EMI and TMI, the students have a more positive attitude toward Turkish-medium instruction". Justifiably, the situation is the same from the perspective of high school students. In a study with Anatolian high school students (EMI-based high schools), "82.4 % of students prefer to receive their science classes in Turkish rather than English, 83.9 % of students say course content is not fully learnt through English, and 81.9 % are of the view that EMI leads to rote memorisation" (Karabulut, 2001 as cited in Aslan, 2017: 9). It seems that students' views are considerably positive towards TMI rather than EMI with the results from both tertiary level and high school education institutions because from students' perspective, the crucial point may be academic success, which is relatively affected by the language of instruction in terms of the acquisition of disciplinary knowledge.

Additionally, the point highlighted in the literature is that academic success has a potential to decrease when the instruction is in English (Sert, 2008). It is further supported by Zok (2010) that the low level of classroom participation occurs along with low academic success. Similarly, another strong argument concerns the challenges of teaching academic subjects and learning these through a foreign language (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011). Taken together, these are strong arguments at tertiary level education that encompass negative viewpoints or disadvantages with similar concerns.

A further issue with EMI, in particular, is that content instruction in English has been proven to be less effective compared to the academic instruction in the mother tongue at the tertiary level (Arik, 2020; Sert, 2008). The link between the effectiveness and EMI is questioned in a perception study conducted by Kirkgöz (2014) with two groups of final-year engineering students. The former group includes students who studied in Turkish-medium program, while the latter involves the participants who received English-medium education. The results

demonstrated that Turkish medium instruction makes students comprehend disciplinary knowledge more easily and in detail, whereas EMI students in the same study reported that EMI is good for advancing their English language skills and also beneficial for keeping up with international academic content in their fields easily. This shows that ideally, further studies should put more emphasis on the outcomes that involve more academic disciplines with English and Turkish medium education. Although there is a controversial issue that is likely to be there for some time referring to the results of EMI and TMI, the final evidence is from the academia as Kılıçkaya's (2006) attitudinal data rightly points out that Turkish academics are also in favour of Turkish-medium education due to the factor affecting students' comprehension of disciplinary knowledge in a negative way.

By contrast, enhancing English proficiency through EMI is supported by a recent study conducted by Yuksel et al. (2021) revealing that business administration and engineering students improve their language proficiency during their four-year EMI studies and the higher proficiency in English brings higher academic achievement in EMI settings. This also provides evidence that English language skills improve via EMI and this improvement in language proficiency has a positive impact on comprehending content learning and its outcomes. From these results, one vital point that needs to be addressed is that high proficiency appears to be a key factor for success in EMI.

These findings may lead us to believe that comprehending disciplinary knowledge in Turkish has significant outcomes unless there are higher English proficiency levels among students. However, these arguments against English medium education can be met by drawing attention to its various advantages. For example, one of the benefits of tertiary level education might be the fact that Turkey is under the influence of Westernization movements and "to keep up with the knowledge of the West, Turkey should seek to benefit as much as possible from the scientific, technological, and economic development of the Western world" (Zok, 2010: 8-9). Thus, English medium education can be associated with teaching the language of science and technology with its advantages to individuals and societies in terms of its key role in the globalized world. Going one step further, EMI is believed to be "academically or vocationally essential" among university students in Turkey, which can be claimed to be one of the benefits of EMI (British Council & TEPAV, 2015: 57).

In line with this, another optimist view supports EMI by emphasizing its macro-level advantages for the Turkish nation, such as the desire for European Union membership and therefore, European standards for tertiary level education (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011). Irrespective of these individual and societal benefits, according to Coleman (2006), higher education institutions adopting EMI are

likely to create a high potential to attract international students at the tertiary level, which can be regarded as potential benefits of EMI. From the organizational perspective, this seems to suggest that higher education institutions should aim to attract more international students by offering English medium instruction (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011).

Furthermore, becoming an outgoing participant in international exchange programs become more popular among Turkish university students with the opportunities EMI creates for individuals at the tertiary level (Findik, 2016; Yağci, 2010). Similar to what was described with the revision of educational reforms at universities, the mobility of students and academic staff has been highly encouraged with the international programs under the Erasmus plus scheme since the start of the Bologna process. Hence, EMI can be viewed as a major step into international exchange programs.

Quite surprising are the arguments from a different point of view at the tertiary level education. It is argued by many academicians that the potential dominance of English hinders the status of Turkish as a language of science and academia. This can be part of the arguments of the English-medium education debate in academia that English has a negative impact (Dogancay-Aktuna & Kiziltepe, 2005). Likewise, this notion was discussed previously by Kirkpatrick (2011: 3) since "[i]nternationalization often results in Englishization, as universities succumb to pressure to use English as the medium of instruction in order to attract international students and staff to their campuses and courses". Thus, it is believed that English-medium education will harm the Turkish language and culture (Selvi, 2011) and there is stronger support for the use of Turkish due to the potential risk of Englishization mentioned by Kirkpatrick (2011). The fear of Englishization and therefore, the degeneration of the Turkish language are two main reasons why EMI is seen as a major impediment among Turkish scholars. The views related to the deterioration of Turkish and cultural identity are still an ongoing debate in Turkey, stimulating the discussion of the negative impact of English on identity (Arik, 2020; Demirbulak, 2011; Dogancay-Aktuna & Kiziltepe, 2005; Selvi, 2011). Admittedly, the underlying reason may be the linguistic nationalism for those against EMI and the deterioration it is assumed to cause. We will reflect upon this notion of linguistic nationalism in section 6.5 where the language attitudes are covered.

Moving on to the views against EMI, there are criticisms about the educational policy of the country leading to tensions, generally, centering around the issue of elitism. The elitism concept is discussed as the creation of a gap between society and university graduates with the danger of English becoming the language of intellectuals (Zok, 2010). It is not only the linguistic gap EMI causes but also the social and economic inequality since the job opportunities will be better for the

specific group of people called intellectuals, who have higher English language proficiencies, a relatively desired skill in the job market (Bektaş-Çetinkaya & Oruç, 2010; Bingöl et al., 2019; Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998; Kamasak & Ozbilgin, 2021; König, 1990; Selvi, 2021). Already, Turkey has been one of the countries in the world with the highest level of income inequality, and it has the sixth place on the list according to the OECD[7] report (OECD, 2021). The notion of inequality connected to English was articulated by Graddol (1997: 40) earlier that "English plays an indirect part in the restructuring of inequalities in the world". By analyzing the Turkish context closely, one can possibly prove evidence for the notion of inequality in relation to English language education. Thus, the conclusion of these ideas against EMI is the fact that it is seen as a threat in terms of developing a huge gap between the educated elites and people living in rural areas because the availability of EMI is limited to certain groups of people in the country (Dogancay-Aktuna & Kiziltepe, 2005).

In a nutshell, English learning is an enriching process allowing people and nations to open up to the world in terms of science and technology. The ideas above have presented the current debates going on in terms of EMI and education policies related to the Turkish educational context. The presentation of the current societal debates helps us to understand the controversial issue from different sides although it is still hard to answer the question about the ideal role of English whether it is a threat or an opportunity for Turkish people and the Turkish language (Karakaş, 2013). To this end, Aslan (2017) suggests that the necessity and the benefits of EMI should not be ignored and carefully planned policies might be helpful while ensuring the preservation of national identity, culture, and the role of the Turkish language in the nation, as well as in the academia.

After presenting the role of English and EMI notion in the Turkish setting in order to form a background for the current research, one can see that English in Turkey is a cumulative outcome of a series of reforms. In terms of World Englishes, in the next section, the role and the characteristics of English use in Turkey will be presented and described in detail.

3.5 The Current Status of English in Turkey

From the previous sections with detailed information on language policy and the foreign language education system of Turkey, now it seems clear that the issue of systematic modifications is highly important since the correlated effects might

[7]The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

result in an unsuccessful way in these dynamic educational contexts. After reviewing the reforms, it can be argued that the notion of foreign language education in Turkey is explicitly centralized around English language teaching. Therefore, in a broad sense, the spread of English has been the chief goal of many sociolinguistic studies in Turkey (see Arik, 2020; Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; Karakaş, 2013; Selvi, 2011). In the following subsections, the main aim is to explain WE focusing on Turkey's context, which supports the notion of non-native Englishes by Kachru (1982) (see section 3.5.1), English use (see section 3.5.2), and the summary of the characteristics of the English spread in Turkey (see section 3.5.3).

3.5.1 The Turkish Sociolinguistic Context and World Englishes

While discussing the role of English in the particular sociolinguistic context, it is also useful to briefly focus on the specific manifestation of English (i.e. Turkey, in our case) under the umbrella term of the World Englishes paradigm because the ways and degree to which English intrudes into each community or language differ (see Berns, 2019; Kachru, 1985). For example, although English is believed to have achieved international language status, negative cultural attitudes against English and strong worries about the purification of the native tongue may limit its effect in the Turkish sociolinguistic context (see Üzüm, 2007). Consequently, it is of primary importance to discuss certain historical, political, social, and cultural aspects that may play a significant role in determining the roles of English in a specific country such as Turkey where the official language is only Turkish (see Arik, 2020; Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; Selvi, 2021).

Grounding in linguistic reality, the World Englishes paradigm has been addressed with the type of spread, acquisition pattern and functional issues of English in the diverse linguistic contexts all around the world since "the use of the term 'Englishes' emphasizes the autonomy and plurality of the world varieties of the English language" (Kachru et al., 2009: 4). It puts a good deal of emphasis on the necessity of analysing the country contexts through their own characteristics and describing what is happening linguistically in these contexts. Considering World English Paradigm, Kachru's (1992) pioneering model has brought valuable insights into the field of World Englishes in terms of its growth and spread because the unparalleled spread of English requires conceptualizations of the degree of diffusion, as well as the range of functions in multiple settings.

According to Kachru (1996), the pluricentricity of English has several reincarnations, such as cultural, linguistic and literary by going through several phases depending on different cultures and sociolinguistic contexts. He analyzed

the movements and the spread of English, starting with the English-speaking populations all around the globe and described this pluricentricity in an illustrative way, which is presented in the context of the Three Concentric Circles of English (Kachru, 1992). As was previously mentioned in Chapter 1, these three circles are the Inner Circle, Outer Circle and Expanding Circle. Kachru (1985) centered his attention around three concentric circles, focusing on the historical background of English, the language's standing, and its uses in a variety of sociolinguistic settings. Even though the list of countries is presented predominantly in the Outer and Expanding Circles shown in Figure 1.1 (see Chapter 1), it still does not include all possible candidates. Drawing attention to the current description of the position of the English in Turkey, which is one of the countries in the Expanding Circle (Bayyurt, 2013), this section presents a brief overview of contextualizing the Turkish setting and thus, understanding Kachru's (1985, 1992) framework based on the concentric circles of World Englishes as illustrated in Figure 1.1 earlier.

Regarding the use of English, Kachru (1992) proposes three concentric circles based on sociolinguistic, historical and literary contexts. The Inner Circle refers to the universal bases of English, which are mostly influenced by the native varieties of language and are represented by the countries where English is the native language (ENL). As can be seen clearly in Figure 1.1, these countries are the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. The English spoken in this circle is said to be norm providing (Kachru, 1992). Moving on to the Outer Circle, this circle is based on non-native varieties of English that have been institutionalised as an official or as a second language (ESL). The countries represented in this circle are India, Pakistan, Nigeria, the Philippines, Singapore and more than 50 countries. The norm-developing varieties of English are used in the Outer Circle countries (Kachru, 1992). Lastly, the Expanding Circle comprises those territories where English is used as the preliminary foreign language taught at schools and has no colonisation background. In those countries, the users of the English population are increasing day by day all around the world. Some of the examples include China, Japan, Russia, Poland and Turkey. The English spoken in these countries is labelled as norm-dependent varieties because the norms are external, American or British (Kachru, 1992). At its simplest, Jenkins (2003: 16) explains the terms norm providing, norm-developing and norm-dependent asserting that:

> "English-language standards are determined by speakers of ENL, but while the ESL varieties of English have become institutionalised and are developing their own standards, the EFL varieties are regarded, in this model, as 'performance varieties without"

> “ any official status and therefore dependent on the standards set by native speakers in the Inner Circle. ”
>
> (Jenkins, 2003: 16)

Although Kachru’s model (1992) is the most influential framework regarding the spread of English, there are some grey areas mentioned by scholars in the field. Jenkins (2003) is one example criticizing this three-way categorization of English and refers to the recent changes in the use of English while pointing out the problem between the Outer and Expanding Circles. She relates to the fact that the model is focused on the genetic element of native speaker definition and geography rather than the way people identify with and use English (Jenkins, 2003). In the same way, it is further stressed that some English speakers in the Outer Circle, such as those in Singapore, sometimes speak it as their first and only language, while a great number of speakers in the Expanding Circle have become users of English for various purposes such as social interactions with native speakers and even more commonly, with non-native speakers from other L1s than their own, both in the national and international arena (Jenkins, 2003).

More importantly, Jenkins (2014: 10) argues for the difficulty in classifying the English speakers “belonging purely to one of the three” according to Kachru’s Three Circles Model (1992). Alternatively, she proposes a fourth group in this categorization for those speakers of English as a lingua franca. According to Jenkins (2014), having a proficiency level ranging from reasonable to bilingual competence, this group of English speakers were originally called speakers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) to distinguish them from L2 speakers, who were called speakers of English as a Second Language (ESL) due to the country-internal functions of English. Ultimately, it has become more popular to “find alongside EFL, the use of the term **English as a Lingua Franca**” since the mid-1990s (Jenkins, 2014: 5)(emphasis in original). For instance, an increasing number of Expanding Circle speakers use English as a lingua franca for a variety of purposes, including social interactions with native speakers and, even more commonly, with non-native speakers from their own and other L1s. We will explain this notion of English as a lingua franca in detail in section 4.1.

Turning back to the topic, Kachru’s model (1992) still has a major influence in the field despite the certain problems stated by Jenkins (2003). More importantly, Kachru (1985) acknowledged in his original description of Three Circle Model that there is no clear distinction among these three categories. When we look further at this issue, the model Kachru maintains has been facilitated by the status of English as an official language in Outer Circle countries and its prevalence in the daily lives of people, including formal procedures, school and professional life. These are considered the most significant difference between Outer and Expanding

Circle countries (Kachru, 1985). Considering Expanding Circle countries, it is not the official language of these countries; hence English is frequently learnt for practical purposes, and it is very much linked to the teaching of English as a foreign language in these settings (Bayyurt, 2013). For instance, Turkey belongs to Expanding Circle countries where English is taught as a foreign language, and it is especially the most commonly taught foreign language (Bayyurt, 2013; Kirkgöz, 2009). Again, although it is not mentioned in the circles of Figure 1.1, Turkey's position is clearly in the Expanding Circle since English has no colonial past in Turkey (Bear, 1985) and English has EFL status in the nation (Arik, 2020; Bayyurt, 2013).

Moreover, English has a significant role and primary importance in diversified domains of the country, in particular, the educational domain. This specific role of English in the Turkish education system is crucial in order to get the high benefits it creates, ranging from business life to education within the nation and beyond its borders. Although English has no official status in Turkey and it is officially a monolingual country in terms of the language used in formal contexts, there is still exceptionally growing interest in English language education. This is partly due to the rapid changes in the role of English as a result of globalization and Turkey's political affiliations, such as NATO.

In sum, the current description of its place in Turkey has the role of the most commonly taught foreign language (Bayyurt, 2013). In the World Englishes paradigm, it refers to the Expanding Circle countries (Kachru, 1992) where the institutionalized non-native varieties of English are used in mono-bi-multilingual contexts. These non-native English settings require a detailed explanation of the English language in use to understand the functions and roles attached to it. Drawing attention to the Turkish sociolinguistic context, the uses of English will be introduced with a focus on the functions of English in the next section.

3.5.2 The Uses of English in the Turkish Context

In an earlier study, (Kachru, 1982) had a suggestion by taking account of the varieties of non-native Englishes, which must be considered in four contexts: acquisitional, sociocultural, motivational, and functional, as well as the possibility of further division. While the status of English has gained relatively universal status, English in Turkey has begun to adopt salient functions of English in use according to Kachru's four major linguistic functions:"instrumental, regulative, interpersonal and imaginative/innovative" (Kachru, 1982: 41). We can speculate as to whether these functions in the Turkish setting are the reflection of the planned and unplanned spread in the nation. For instance, on the one hand,

people have proper education with high-quality materials and through formal schooling in ideal language learning settings. On the other hand, there are also people, who learn it in their everyday lives through the media or other products. In this sense, Turkey is a good example of both planned and unplanned spread (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998) because the ongoing formal English education in the Turkish educational context can provide evidence for the state-planned spread. However, the irregular borrowings of the words from the English language are considered as unplanned spread into every domain of Turkish life and the Turkish language (Arik, 2020). In the end, increasing the visibility of English has gained momentum in the country so far.

Still, the Turkish context is an under-researched sociolinguistic setting under the World Englishes paradigm (Berns, 2019) and therefore, with the aims of better understanding the various aspects of English use in Turkey, the current situation and the spread of English will be described based on the Kachru's four major linguistic functions (Kachru, 1982).

Instrumental function

In Kachru's words (1982), the instrumental function points to an educational system, namely the use of English in the educational domains of the country. To exemplify, we should mention that Turkey began to open its doors to globalization in the 1980s, and this opening to the external world makes learning English a higher priority as globalization is inextricably linked to the spread and supremacy of English as a common language (Kirkgoz, 2007). Hence, the primary function of English in Turkey can be considered as a medium of instruction and in addition to this, English plays a major part in the centralized education system of the country, which exhibits linguistic regulations that support English learning and teaching (recall section 3.4.3 for EMI education). This might result from the fact that Westernization movements starting from the post-war period and today's globalization apparently paved the way for this type of English dominance.

Additionally, the educational objectives set by the CoHE (2007) describe the minimum requirements that university students should be equipped with at least one foreign language knowledge in the globalized world with the demand of becoming part of the EU. These educational objectives support the notion that English is a foreign language that mostly achieved its status through schooling in Turkey as it is only confined to schools. With the popularity as well as the necessity of learning a foreign language in the 21st century, English has assuredly achieved a higher level of instrumental use as being the most studied foreign language in Turkey (Bayyurt, 2013) and the most popular medium of education after Turkish (Selvi, 2011).

Briefly, this instrumental function finds support in the Turkish sociolinguistic setting due to its role as a medium of instruction and supportive educational policies centering around English. Today, it is the most popular foreign language taught at schools in the country, yet there are still many debates going on whether English medium education is ideal or not as already discussed in previous sections related to the EMI education.

Regulative function

Even though the growth of English as an instrumental aspect largely occurs in the area of foreign language education, the official role of English and its allocated role in government affairs do not exist in the Turkish context. This type of language in the legal and administrative system refers to the regulative function (Kachru, 1982). However, the main reason for the English spread in Turkey is globalization rather than colonization. Considering the legal and administrative systems, English clearly does not have a regulative function in Turkey, unlike other Outer Circle countries such as Pakistan and Malaysia. This precisely shows that "being a non-institutionalised foreign language, English does not have a regulative [...] function in Turkey" (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998: 37).

Interpersonal function

As was shortly remarked in the previous subsection, English can play an important role as a lingua franca in interpersonal communication between different groups who have diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds (see Chapter 4 for English as a Lingua Franca). According to Kachru (1982), English has an interpersonal function, which serves either as a link language among people with diverse backgrounds or a code representing elitism. Aside from these two points, the business domain may be another notable example (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998). Moving on to other domains regarding the situation of interpersonal use in Turkey, for example, the communication and business relations with the European countries can be considered since international communication is required more than ever due to globalism and Westernization. Dogancay-Aktuna (1998: 37) puts the situation of interpersonal use in Turkey and confirms it in this way:

> "On an interpersonal level, it is used as a link language for international business and for tourism while also providing a code which symbolises modernisation and elitism to the educated middle classes and those in the upper strata of the socioeconomic ladder."
>
> (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998: 37)

The explanation for this functional use of English at the interpersonal level shows us that it is mainly for worldwide business and tourism, and as a link language in the diverse linguistic settings (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998; König, 1990), as well as representing elitism in the Turkish setting (Zok, 2010). For instance, although this function of English seems to appear quite close to the case of Germany, which is another Expanding Circle country, English in Germany serves a more interpersonal function as a language of contact with other European nations, and it has a greater penetration into many layers of German society due to diverse linguistic settings. (Berns, 1988; Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998). This concludes that there is variety in the role and status of English even among the Expanding Circle countries, necessitating further research in these areas.

Imaginative/Innovative function

Kachru (1982) explains the imaginative function as the use of language for literary expressions and creativity. In other words, it is also recognized as the use of language in mass media communication and for public enjoyment. Closely connected with language use, there is a Turkish Language Council whose mission is to promote the use of Turkish and protect it, particularly from the influence of other foreign languages. König (1990) has already highlighted the increased salience of English-origin loanwords in Turkish for the last 50 years. The related issue is the use of English words in Turkish and this has marked a quantitative shift due to the practices in business and the media, which is labelled as "undesirable penetration" (Karakaş, 2013: 168). This type of penetration of English into Turkish life is generally based on "borrowing and nativization of English words" (Arik, 2020: 9). For instance, Nişanyan's Turkish Etymological Dictionary (2022) has shown that there are some words borrowed from English directly and have been used in daily life such as "walkie-talkie", "market", "workshop". Some of these words have been changed to adapt them into Turkish in which interesting examples are: akne (acne), ekoloji (ecology), and sandviç (sandwich). Additionally, what started out in the early 90s with the internet has led to the use of some words, which are "tweeting, tagging, sharing, poking, liking" due to the high engagement with social media particularly among teenagers (Karakaş, 2013: 166). As a result, this relatively strong cyber effect has increased the number of creative verbs in the Turkish language.

Furthermore, Selvi (2011) claims that the presence of English in Turkey manifests, mainly, as a result of the naming practices of individuals from various levels of society. These naming practices occur in mass media and on shop windows,stores, and signboards. The namings are, on the one hand, hybrid; on the other hand, quite Englishized in style. For instance, SkyTurk and Powerturk are hybrid television channel names that represent English-Turkish titles together, whereas "Chilek (representation of Turkish 'ç' by English orthographic convention

'ch', 'çilek' meaning strawberry)" (Selvi, 2011: 190). To exemplify more, Selvi (2011) listed business settings adopting English lexical items such as One Way Car Wash for a car cleaning service in Turkey. Another more recent example, this time bearing the hybrid shop sign, refers to Turkish-English shop sign: "Çamaşırcity", which "is both Turkish and English, literally meaning 'underwear city', possibly indicating that it is a large store selling only underwear" (İnal et al., 2020: 7). In the same recent study, the different sign types in İstanbul are found to display that 24 signs out of 51 have a Turkish-English hybrid version (İnal et al., 2020). When all these examples are considered, it seems inevitable to see the use of English with its imaginative function in the Turkish context in terms of creativity.

Regarding the literary works, Selvi (2011) listed some examples written in English as follows: Adıvar's (1935) *The Clown and His Daughter*, Orga's (1950) *Portrait of a Turkish Family*, Gün's (1991) *On the Road to Baghdad*, Shafak's (2006) *The Gaze* and *The Saint of Incipient Insanities*, again by Shafak (2004). Selvi (2011) also mentions some songs composed in English by Turkish singers, who are *Tarkan* and *Sertab Erener*, to name a few. Arik (2020) further highlights the impact of the Eurovision Song Contest on the language choice of Turkish singers and the best-known examples are *Hadise* (a female singer) and *Manga* (pop group). They have performed English songs for Eurovision since the 2000s. On the whole, these are some literary works, which can be regarded as good examples of the imaginative function of English in Turkey.

The very existence of English thus provides a wide range of studies on the functions of English in the Turkish context. This makes us come to the conclusion that only regulative function does not exist in the country, which can be explained by the fact that Turkey has never been colonized (Bear, 1985). In Turkey, the English effect reflects the multifaceted nature of the sociolinguistic milieu in terms of the functions of English in use. In other words, English seems to have multiple roles and uses in the nation starting from the Ottoman Empire era. Despite the supremacy of Western languages in history, the popularity of English gained more importance rather than Western languages. Described as the world's superpower by Selvi (2011), "sine qua non for a successful career in virtually any field" in the Turkish context (Ahmad, 1993: 210), and "the chief lingua franca of the Internet" at the global level (Crystal, 2003: 117), English has an array of significant functions penetrating into many domains of the Turkish context. In addition, these are ranging from EMI at the national education level (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011; Kamasak & Ozbilgin, 2021; Ordem, 2021) to better career opportunities at the personal level (Bingöl et al., 2019; Karahan, 2007; Kiziltepe, 2000; König, 1990) and the EU membership at the international level (Arik, 2020). Finally, concerning its role as the representation of a higher status, the overall consensus is that English is believed to allow its speakers for ascending to the highest level

in society, in other words, the higher class in the social strata (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; Zok, 2010).

In conclusion, this subsection discusses the role and use of English in the Turkish setting with specific examples from the literature. In the next part, the characteristics of the spread of English will be summarized regarding Turkey's place in the Expanding Circle countries.

3.5.3 Summary of the English Spread in Turkey

The attempt to clearly specify the role of English would probably lead to a better understanding of the core position of English in Turkey's context. This section presents the summary of the English spread in the Turkish setting regarding the notion of WE.

In a broad sense, starting with the role of English from the perspective of Expanding Circle countries, the literature specifies the role of English primarily with its instrumental worth. Similarly, Bamgbose (2003) explains that English does not have a large population base in Expanding Circle countries; hence, it is unlikely to gain official status, and the demand for learning English is unlikely to be motivated by nationalistic concerns. He further adds that although the function of English varies in these Expanding Circle countries in terms of business, tourism and educational domains, the use of English as a foreign language is something that all of these Expanding Circle countries have in common due to the instrumental value and the immense prestige of English (Bamgbose, 2003). As a result, according to Bamgbose (2003), the presence of English is all about opportunities rather than a threat for the countries in the Expanding Circle. Regarding opportunities, "know English, have a job, earn money" is a common motto that accurately describes the situation in many Expanding Circle countries, including Turkey (Berns, 2005: 87). Therefore, learning English in Turkey may be seen as a component of the Westernization processes that served as the justification for educational reforms in foreign language education rather than being a language used in official settings.

However, regarding Turkey's place in Expanding Circle countries, Kirkgöz (2009) argues that no country exemplifies the tendency for English language education stronger than Turkey where it is the only foreign language that has been made a compulsory subject at all levels of education. In other words, English plays a prominent role in the language policies of the nation and in the national curriculum instead of being designated as one of the foreign languages along with other Western languages, such as German and French. Thus, the dominant role of English in the educational domain seems to correspond to what König

(1990) refers to when he criticizes that English seems to be the most useful foreign language in Turkey.

In addition to these criticisms about the rising value of English, it should be noted that Turkey seemingly receives much interest because the English language has a major impact on the nation despite the lack of a historical colonizer-colonized connection (Selvi, 2011). The rising value could be attributed to the supreme role of English in educational and sociocultural issues due to globalization (Aslan, 2017; Selvi, 2011). Fundamentally, in terms of educational issues, EMI appears to play the major role in Turkey's context where the English language is assumed to support the notion of "non-native Englishes" by Kachru (1982).

As previously discussed in section 3.4.4, there are many examples addressed that are against EMI and there are still EMI debates going on in the educational domain. Regarding English medium education, on the one hand, nationalists fear the potential degeneration of the Turkish language and identity (Selvi, 2011). On the other hand, there are progressive scholars embracing the opportunities for advancement in science and technology (Aslan, 2017). Moreover, there are still questions to be answered about the ideal role of English. English still has vague status in terms of its ideal role, which is far from a consensus in the Turkish educational system although its significance is appreciated and acknowledged (Üzüm, 2007).

A crucial suggestion is given by Kocaman (1989), who rightly pointed out the specific situation in Turkey. According to Kocaman (1989), countries with a history of colonization, such as Canada, may be effective in incorporating second language-medium instruction into their national education, but these countries cannot serve as models for Turkey because second languages are also utilized in daily communication in these countries (e. g. Canada). He further suggested that Turkey is officially a monolingual country and thus, there is a need for a better model based on native language-medium instruction in the same way it is in European or other developed countries (Kocaman, 1989). Kocaman (1989) is just one example arguing for second-language medium instruction while summarizing the situation in the country.

In sum, no matter what circle Turkey belongs to, English can be interpreted as a part of the problem including the threat of further damage to the Turkish language in terms of its imaginative function, such as borrowing some words from English, media use and shop signs, as well as part of the solution with being the most widely taught language as a direct result of modernization and Westernization movements (Aslan, 2017; Selvi, 2011). The comprehensive review of English use in Turkey presented the sociolinguistic profile with the utilization

of Kachru's Concentric Circles Model (1992), which helps us to better understand the diffusion of English in Turkey.

This chapter will continue with the notion of ELF and the description of ELF from the perspective of different scholars, as well as corpus studies in the field concerning ELF.

4 English as a Lingua Franca

International communication has become essential due to the interaction among people from diverse linguistic backgrounds. These interactions require successful communicative outcomes, which highly depend on the common language. The significance of this common language transcends beyond the contact of any individual or any group since there is a need for a universal means of communication in various domains such as international business and politics, immigrant communities, and global education. From the linguistic perspective, the multiplex and heterogeneous environment of these linguistic settings have two speakers sharing one language, which is not the first language of either speaker. Therefore, this shared language has the status of lingua franca. This Chapter, thus, highlights the terminology and definitions associated with ELF in section 4.1, briefly summarizes corpus studies in the area of ELF in section 4.2 and discusses the notion of ELF in Turkey in section 4.3.

In simple terms, a language used for communication between people whose first languages are different is called "lingua franca" (Cambridge University Press, n.d.). There have been many lingua francas in world history. For instance, "Italian was said to be the lingua franca of the commerce in the Adriatic Sea" (Kachru, 1996: 906). Another notable example might be French being the language of diplomacy between the 17th and mid-20th centuries. Sanskrit, Latin, Arabic, and Greek also existed in history as a lingua franca (Galloway & Rose, 2015). However, as a response to the globalized need for a universal means of communication, English has become the most common lingua franca among people and an integral part of individuals' linguistic repertoires (Crystal, 2004; Vettorel, 2015). Additionally, it features prominently in varied domains, which do not even require moving around physically in the present world of virtual mobilities and digitalization. As a result, it has a specific role and it "is like no other language in its current role internationally, like no other in history" (Dewey, 2007: 333). In other words, no different language has shown this trend before.

This spread of English has paved the way for unprecedented progress around the globe, and more importantly, the progress has been impressive with its localized and globalized communicative functions over the last decades (Crystal, 2012). Therefore, the change in the nature of communication observed in individuals'

linguistic repertoires is more evident than ever. To put the current situation in Marsh's words (2006), "[t]he English language is continuing to establish itself as a global lingua franca in a period of unprecedented globalisation". The effects of the widespread presence today can also be seen throughout the social media and the web environments as many users come into contact digitally by using English as a common language (Herring, 2008; Vettorel, 2014). Correspondingly, these human contacts have been generated by virtual mobilities worldwide. Due to these mobilities and the impact of globalization, an increasing number of people learn English as a foreign language and use English as a lingua franca to communicate (Crystal, 2004).

Some related facts about English can give a clear picture of the present status of its speakers. In today's globalized world, the Ethnologue reports that English has 1.452 billion speakers who are native or use it as a second language (Eberhard et al., 2022). Furthermore, 75 countries recognize English as an official or semi-official language (Todorova & Todorova, 2018). Apart from the official or semi-official language status, English is supported by its current role in various domains of business, politics, and education. For instance, it is the lingua franca of airports, hotels and shipping lanes, and in addition, English is again a global language for many academic disciplines and publications (Galloway & Rose, 2015). In a great number of domains, English has the status of lingua franca for interaction, and multilingual speakers of English represent a growing number of majorities in these interactional settings. Hence, today's English has both its native and non-native speakers worldwide.

Through the lens of non-native speakers, who now outnumber the native speaker population of English (Crystal, 2012; Graddol, 1999), one can see that the number of native speakers falls behind the rapidly growing ELF population. At the beginning of the millennium, Brumfit (2001: 116) pointed out his view of English from the native speakers' perspective that "native [English] speakers are in a minority for [English] language use, and thus in practice for language change, for language maintenance, and the ideologies and beliefs associated with the language". Supporting this view, Graddol (2003) also argued about the decline of native speakers referring to English as a language primarily used in multilingual contexts.

In this regard, the concept of ownership, which has been challenged by the rising ELF population, is a crucial issue related to ELF. From the ownership stance, language is not a possession, and English is only international in the instance where it is not someone's language. Widdowson (1994: 385) draws attention to this issue asserting "English is an international language means that no nation has custody over it". Similarly, one can assume that the sense of ownership of the language has become the core issue as ELF expands to more territories and

becomes more international. In her study, Seidlhofer (2005) also highlights that English is a global language, and everyone shapes it; thus, it belongs to everybody. Therefore, there should be no ownership that can be claimed for this. As non-native users have continuously shaped it, a closer look exclusively demonstrates that English is truly global. After all, ELF is said not to be tied to any community in its global role.

Overall, reflecting upon the current situation of the role and the status of English from a non-native speaker's perspective, bi-/multilingualism is inevitably the norm in ELF interactions due to the speakers with different L1 taking part in it. The number of these ELF speakers is constantly increasing with the current sociolinguistic profiles brought by globalisation, requiring a closer look at language use. Before presenting some research on ELF, it is essential to understand the main features of ELF definitions and ELF interactions. To this end, the following subsection provides a brief account of definitions concerning ELF, as well as related terminology and corpus studies on ELF interactions.

4.1 Terminology and Definitions Associated with ELF

In the current ELF paradigm, the previously known attempt to define the status of English worldwide started with World Englishes (Kachru, 1985, 1992) as described earlier in Chapter 1. Due to the diversity found within Kachru's Three Circles and the spread of English escalating the number of non-native speakers, the linguistic practices of this non-native population have contributed to the definitions of English as a lingua franca (Crystal, 2012). Finally, ELF has become a more vibrant research area beyond Kachru's Three Circles Model (1985).

Intending to explore the definition of English as a lingua franca, we need to keep in mind that WE and ELF are different. Pakir (2009) describes the focus of WE as peculiar to the use, range, and depth of English in terms of sociolinguistic realities, while the focus of ELF studies is on finding the common features of English related to communication among the speakers from different L1 backgrounds. These terms further differ in that "while WE include all users of English in three circles, ELF does not, choosing instead to focus on Expanding Circle English users, who have no language in common and thus choose English as the default language" (Pakir, 2009: 228). Galloway and Rose (2015) are other scholars, who distinguish WE from ELF by highlighting that instead of detailing how English speakers interact with one another, which is the focus of ELF, WE concentrate more on delineating Englishes. Thus, the overriding assumption is that the definitions of English as a lingua franca are likely to draw on works

from the scholars of World Englishes (c.f. Kachru, 1992; Kachru et al., 2009 and Jenkins, 2014; Seidlhofer, 2011).

Moreover, interrelated conceptualizations are used in order to add a global perspective to English language courses. In other words, WE and ELF notions are interconnected under the umbrella paradigm of Global Englishes (GE), which is an inclusive paradigm, underscoring the international use (Jenkins, 2015) and function of English with the implications of English in ELT practices (Rose et al., 2021). This umbrella paradigm of Global Englishes appears on the stage along with the other research fields despite their differences: Kachruvian World Englishes (Kachru, 1985, 1992), EIL, and ELF. We can see an illustration of these three terms: WE, ELF and EIL, by Galloway (2017) in a more peculiar way, as shown in Figure 4.1. Although Figure 4.1 focuses on the three terms and mentions the existence of pedagogical implications for ELT under the Global Englishes paradigm, the three concepts are well explained along with ELF to understand the terminology in the growing research area of ELF better.

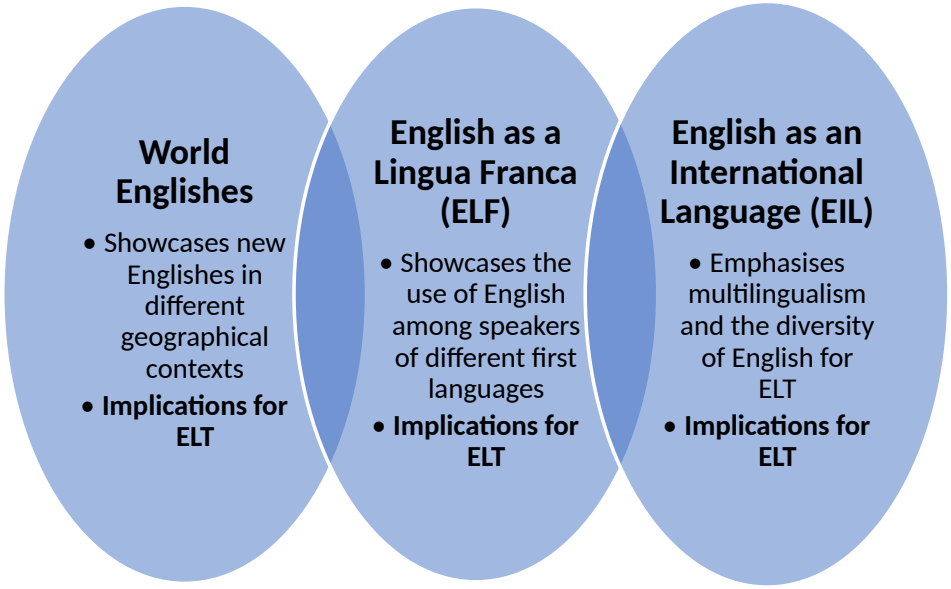


Figure 4.1: The Global Englishes Paradigm (adapted from Galloway, 2017)

If we want to compare these three concepts (WE, ELF, and EIL) within the Global Englishes Paradigm as showcased in Figure 4.1, it is clear that WE focus more on Englishes in different geographical areas rather than the use of English among speakers of different L1s, a focus of ELF (Galloway, 2017).

Having explained the difference between WE and ELF, it is also necessary to clarify EIL, which is used interchangeably with WE and ELF in some studies (McKay, 2018). In fact, the crucial thing is to distinguish their assumptions and focus. The broad definition for EIL refers to "a function that English performs in international, multilingual contexts, to which each speaker brings a variety of

English that they are most familiar with, along with their own cultural frames of reference, and employ various strategies to communicate effectively" (Matsuda, 2017: 7). In this way, EIL recognizes different varieties of English used, and it, also, recognizes "what language is used and how it is used is a factor both of the purpose of the communication and the speaker's first language, culture, and level of expertise in English" (McKay, 2018: 11). According to Figure 4.1, as EIL indicates, a pluricentric view of English welcomes the students' linguistic repertoires in the classroom environment by respecting the cultural background of learners in English language teaching (Galloway, 2017; McKay, 2018; Selvi, 2019). Referring to the classroom environment, Galloway (2017) highlights the differences by setting them apart within the Global Englishes (GE) paradigm. However, all these three concepts have the basis of a pluricentric view of English that draws them together. In other words, these three paradigms use the spread of English as a starting point regarding pluralization (WE), diversification (EIL) and international function of English (ELF).

Following the GE paradigm and the terminology associated with ELF, this subsection further focuses on ELF notion and definitions that emerged in the ELF literature concerning a great deal of variety related to the uses, users, purposes, and contexts. Although generalization is hard to make in terms of ELF definition, ELF scholars tend to underscore the use of English as a contact language. According to House (1999), ELF appears to be closely linked to mutual communication and is defined as a contact language between people for whom English is not the mother tongue. Similar definitions of ELF, which exclude native speakers, have been presented in Jenkins (2009) and Seidlhofer (2011) regarding current thinking and the reconceptualization of ELF. In chronological order, the reconceptualization of ELF started with Jenkins (2009: 142), who defines ELF as "English as it is used as a contact language among speakers from different first languages". According to a definition provided by Seidlhofer (2011: 7), ELF is "any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option". By definition, it stands out that the interlocutors in ELF exchanges are clearly between people who have different first languages.

Another close definition is provided by Mortensen (2013: 36), who defines ELF as "the use of English in a lingua franca language scenario". It is explained by Mortensen (2013) as either no overlap or partial overlap regarding interlocutors' L1 in a given communicative encounter of two or more speakers. That is, "[i]n ELF encounters the lingua franca is English" (Mortensen, 2013: 36). Cogo (2015: 2) sets out to define English as a lingua franca and refers to "flexible, co-constructed, and therefore variable, means of communication". For Sifakis and Tsantila (2019: 1), ELF serves as "a contact language in communications involving primarily

non-native users of English from various international, multilingual and heterogeneous settings". As a result, one can see that the diverse portraits of non-native English speakers, including their linguistic and cultural backgrounds, have contributed to the current definitions of the phenomenon in view of English as a lingua franca. Taken together, what these multiple definitions adopt in common is the traditional view of a contact language among individuals from various ethnolinguistic backgrounds, emphasizing "linguistic and cultural hybridity" (Pakir, 2009: 234).

There are, however, some puzzling notions in these definitions. Although these definitions may be somewhat limited by sounding like the exclusion of native English speakers, some researchers tend to highlight the native speaker exclusion in a way that is not the truth. As Jenkins (2006: 161) puts it:

> "The majority of ELF researchers nevertheless accept that speakers of English from both inner and outer circles also participate in intercultural communication (albeit as a small minority in the case of inner circle speakers), so do not define ELF communication this narrowly."
>
> (Jenkins, 2006: 161)

Similarly, Mauranen (2018: 107) adds that "no basis can be seen for excluding those who have acquired English as their first language: not only do they participate in speaking English as a Lingua Franca, but they also contribute to its variability". Inner Circle varieties of English appear to be seen as invaluable contributions from an international point of view. The participation of the native speaker variety in the mix adds another dimension to the definitions of English as a lingua franca field.

Based on these views, the ideal definition of ELF includes native and non-native speakers, and the same is true for the ELF variety referring to intercultural communication. Thus, from the global perspective, it is not aimed to create a monolithic variety of English because the world-leading role of English has been changing. ELF is clearly not a stable variety (Kirkpatrick, 2020; Seidlhofer, 2011) because it is hard to find "a relatively stable community using English for international communication" due to geographical diffusion and international mobility (Friedrich & Matsuda, 2010: 28). In the protean nature of ELF communities, its multilingual complexity, including native speakers and the fluidity of ELF, are the key facets to include while making the description process more challenging.

A comprehensive literature review so far has included many different ELF definitions. In the summary here, this subsection has tried to explain the traditional ELF views and the notion of Englishes through ELF studies. Analyzing ELF

interactions is also equally important in terms of ELF. Therefore, we will explore the corpus studies in the next subsection.

4.2 English as a Lingua Franca and Corpus Studies

From a sociolinguistic perspective, we need to know more about the exhibition of multiple forms of this global language such as "how much and how speakers of the Expanding Circle really use English in their communities of practice, what their shared repertoires look like, and which communication processes characterize ELF" (Seidlhofer, 2009: 239). Therefore, the observation of the multitude of ELF interactions has become essential.

In the same vein, the need for large systematic research concerning ELF interactions has been centralized around the universal code for ELF. Starting the debate about the universal code for ELF, Baker and Jenkins (2015: 193) are clear regarding the prescription and claim that "there seems to be a high degree of consensus that ELF is *not* a variety of language and hence there can be no "universal code" hypostatized" (emphasis in italics in original). The distinct speech community does not exist; as a result of this, it has been hard to mention universal codes from the ELF perspective. However, the norms of ELF communication needs to be explored as Seidlhofer (2001b) pinpoints the conceptual gap in the description of ELF and an urgent need for conceptualization to understand its nature in a better way. This is also expected to inspire the design of teaching materials in terms of ELF pedagogy (Seidlhofer, 2001b).

Later, Jenkins (2014) also published a paper in which she described the reasons for the reconceptualization of the ELF paradigm, deriving from her personal views and dialogues with other ELF scholars in the field. She highlights the notion that it is a conceptual evolution rather than the revolution itself, stating:

> "[…] ELF, with its fluidity and 'online' negotiation of meaning among interlocutors with varied multilingual repertoires, could not be considered as consisting of bounded varieties, but as English that transcends boundaries, and that is therefore beyond description."
>
> (Jenkins, 2012: 55)

Accordingly, the fluid nature of ELF makes the situation harder to describe considering the growing body of ELF research, unlike geographically definable WE (Kachru, 1992). Due to the diverse multilingual nature of ELF interactions,

further reconceptualization is needed through the examination of communication among the speakers of ELF users.

The conceptualized ELF as a distinct manifestation of English, will enable it to be free, not tied to its native speakers. As a result, there will be new developments and opportunities for various stakeholders such as material developers, teachers and teacher educators. Primarily, this may urge English teachers, who are supposed to be the "competent and authoritative users of ELF" (Seidlhofer, 2001b: 152). Native and non-native speaker issues in terms of ELF pedagogy will be abolished. Even designing the teaching materials will have its own pedagogy, which can be a new step in the English language teaching field.

As Cook (2012) adds, the emergence of ELF as a research domain is triggered by language teachers' real-world problems, which is also supported by Jenkins (2012). This is only one example contributing to the debates going on concerning teaching materials and ELF pedagogy. Moreover, corpus linguists have started to contribute to the field of inquiry with the problems they experience (Mauranen, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2011). In the end, the area of ELF has developed into an evolutionary format. Although the situation of ELF is unprecedented, a need for reconceptualization and research related to speakers of ELF has encouraged scholars. This has resulted in multiple corpus studies in the field of ELF.

During the first decade of the millennium, Jenkins' (2000) and Seidlhofer's (2001a) studies were regarded as the first significant fieldwork projects in terms of corpus studies in ELF to understand the characteristics of ELF communication. Considering the ELF literature, these studies have contributed to the understanding of misconceptions in the field. Following these researchers, later on, Mauranen's (2003) ELFA corpus contributed to the ELF focus in the literature. In a different context following these studies, Kirkpatrick's (2009) ELF study in ASEAN is another investigation within the corpus studies.

In chronological order, these studies in the corpus area started with Jenkins (2000). It is called LFC, a five-year pronunciation project consisting of the phonological data from spoken interactions of non-native speakers from various parts of the world. It is found that few native English segmental and prosodic items can result in intelligibility problems in intercultural communication. According to the results, accommodation skills are highly accepted as crucial, which is explained as "the ability for interlocutors in intercultural communication to be able to assess which (if any) of their L1 pronunciations were causing intelligibility problems for their conversation partners and to adjust those pronunciations accordingly" (Jenkins, 2005: 53).

The pronunciation corpus is quickly followed by the introduction of the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English or VOICE, by Seidlhofer (2001a).

This establishment aims to collect and identify common lexicogrammatical ELF features in non-native English speakers' usages in order to complement the work of ELF phonology. The investigated questions focus on finding out the successfully employed lexical choices and grammatical constructions referring to the factors behind the communication breakdown. The principal goal is to identify whether there are unproblematic expressions in ELF communication, which include ungrammatical lexical items and sound patterns in Standard L1 English. Having evaluated the common features in LFC and Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) corpus, Seidlhofer (2001a: 149) reports that ELF communication is mainly conducted at some proficiency level, asserting that:

> "[…] features which are regarded as 'the most typically English', such as 3rd person -s, tags, phrasal verbs and idioms, which turn out to be non-essential for mutual understanding. This observation thus closely parallels Jenkins' finding that mastery of the sounds often perceived as 'particularly English', i.e. /θ/ and /ð/, is not crucial for ELF communication."
>
> (Seidlhofer, 2001a: 149)

Although we cannot make generalisations for the future design of school curriculums due to its limited scope in the European setting, the documentation of these features may give ELF a pedagogical function to solve language teachers' real-life problems mentioned earlier in this section (Seidlhofer, 2001a).

Following LFC and VOICE, the studies in the ELF field provide a more empirical base that the corpus of ELFA was established by Mauranen (2003). As the project website[1] explains ELFA corpus, which was started in 2001 and was completed in 2008, is made up of 1 million words of transcribed spoken academic ELF such as lectures, seminars, thesis defences and conference discussions in their authentic environments where communication occurs naturally. Native speakers of English are also included in this corpus project due to their natural part in ELF exchanges, and the spread of study disciplines included are wide (Mauranen, 2015; Mauranen et al., 2010). ELFA corpus aims to fill the gap in academic English by involving English among students, academics, and professionals. As a result, this project facilitates the previous academic speech corpora by showing a new perspective beyond the Anglo-American context in ELF interactions (Mauranen et al., 2010).

It is also important to mention Kirkpatrick's ELF study (2009), which investigates the features of English in ASEAN countries. ASEAN is associated with

[1] https://www2.helsinki.fi/en/researchgroups/english-as-a-lingua-franca-in-academic-settings/research/elfa-corpus#section-67026

the fact that "the association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) comprises ten countries of Southeast Asia, namely Brunei, Myanmar, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, the Philippines, Thailand, Singapore, and Vietnam" (Kirkpatrick, 2020: 725). Descriptive work so far has stated that all ASEAN countries except one have English as their second language of education, following their national languages. Only in Singapore, English represents the predominant language at all levels of education. Rather than focusing on the developing role of English in the educational contexts of ASEAN, this special corpus has tended to take a much more communicative view of ELF. It is called the ACE. The Asian Corpus of English[2] is available online and contains 1 million words that occurred naturally among Asian multilinguals who are the speakers of English as a lingua franca. The Asian Corpus of English aims to examine how English is reshaped by its Asian users in multilingual settings culturally and linguistically. In that view, it serves as a companion corpus to VOICE, which represents English as a lingua franca among European multilinguals (Kirkpatrick, 2020). The results demonstrate that the increasing status of English is likely to create ASEAN lingua franca by decreasing the status and role of many local languages. Again, the role of English in educational settings has accelerated because of its role as a facilitator in communication within ASEAN and internationally (Kirkpatrick, 2020).

Turning from the descriptive conceptualization of ELF to its implications, corpus studies will help us improve our descriptive systems related to the methods used for ELF. In order to understand the nature of those speakers' Englishes, we need corpus studies, although ELF is highly claimed to be fluid with varied multilingual repertoires brought by globalization. The availability of description obviously does not mean that "it should determine what is taught in specific settings or for specific purposes" (Seidlhofer, 2011: 151). However, it is suggested that a linguistic innovation will be achieved with the combination of meta-level and empirical basis studies. After all, this achievement will create the real English use of ELF. On the one hand, this will result in the presence of the native speaker community for evaluating the appropriate use of language; on the other hand, it keeps the native speaker variety away from distorted diversity of English use and users (Seidlhofer, 2011). As a consequence, corpus studies in ELF have shed light on new approaches, objectives as well as research and practice in the field.

Overall, the concern of ELF studies are connectivity and communication but excluding the linguacultural aspects that belong to the language. As referred to previously, Jenkins' LFC (2000) and Seidlhofer's VOICE (2001a) are the pioneering works in corpus studies that aim to figure out intelligibility in ELF interactions while developing a new concept of English as a contact language. Thus so far, this section has explained the definitions and distinctive features of ELF studies in

[2] https://corpus.eduhk.hk/ace/

the field, mentioning the introductory phonology and lexico-grammar research, including corpus studies. It gives us a clear picture that English has more pluralized forms than ever, and reconceptualization needs careful work. Particularly in an era shaped by digital mobility, ELF interactions have a great deal of variety from one speaker to another, as well as among different contexts. Hence, the next section covers the ELF notion in the Turkish context.

4.3 English as a Lingua Franca in the Turkish Setting

A closer look into the Turkish sociolinguistic context so far reveals the rising prestige of English in the education system and society. In taking account of this rising prestige, the current situation confirms that knowing English is highly respected to gain elite status (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; Zok, 2010). From the educational perspective, it is again English undermining other foreign languages offered at schools (Arik, 2020). As a result, it maintains the privileged status as a foreign language widely taught and learnt from primary school to university (Bayyurt, 2013; Kirkgöz, 2009). This specific status of English finds support in Bamgbose (2003: 421), who states what we can observe in many Expanding Circle countries:

> “In Expanding Circle countries, [...] it has enormous prestige mainly on account of its instrumental value. Although the role of English varies from use in certain domains (such as tourism) to institutionalized entrenchment in the educational system, what all these countries have in common is the learning and using of English as a foreign language.”
>
> (Bamgbose, 2003: 421)

Quite inevitably, we need to consider this instrumental value mentioned by Bamgbose (2003) carefully, which is also true for the Turkish sociolinguistic setting as being one of the Expanding Circle countries. Instrumental value is on the rise in Turkey, and English has gained significance due to better job or life purposes. In other words, it has a ‘door opener’ function. As stated by İnal and Özdemir (2015), the advantages of ELF can be seen in three domains categorised as trade, tourism and education, all of which can be clearly delineated in the Turkish context. Since the focus of the current study is the educational domain, we will provide a perspective for the tertiary level regarding ELF and the perceived benefits that ELF is supposed to bring to university students.

Intriguingly, the language education policy constitutes the basis for ELF in

Turkey according to Inal and Ozdemir's translation (2015) from the documents of MoNE (2006). English has now become to "serve Turkish citizens in using English as a lingua franca in an effective way in their communication with citizens of other countries and, thereby, enable Turkey to advance in scientific, economic, military and social fields" (İnal & Özdemir, 2015: 137). Fundamentally, the English language in Turkey is considered to play a major role in international communication on a personal level, while it has the same important role in the country's political, economic and scientific affiliations.

In the same vein, having a foreign language in the repertoire is worth examining from Turkish learners' perspectives for whom English is an obvious choice (see Bayyurt, 2013; Kirkgöz, 2009; Ordem, 2021). Prior to exploring ELF further in Turkey, it is better to look closely at the relatively rising topic of foreign language knowledge. In general, Cook (2016) explains why learning more than one language might lead to potentially favourable outcomes: it leads to the acquisition of a job, the opportunity to advance one's education, the ability to participate more fully in the life of one's own country or the opportunity to move to another country, and the impact on people's employment and future prospects. These favourable outcomes presumably refer to any language after the mother tongue in Cook's words (2016). Since English is learnt for specific purposes, such as its instrumental value in Expanding Circle countries (Bamgbose, 2003), it is not surprising that English is assumed to bring these advantages to one's life and eventually, it has become the most popular foreign language in Turkey. It is especially relevant for the young population, among whom it is considered essential in terms of plans related to professional and personal purposes.

Selvi (2014: 1), who investigated the current situation of English in Turkey, reports a noticeable issue that "English language achieves neither intranational communication nor the basic communicational goals in Turkish society, and yet it is the sine qua non for every educated Turkish citizen". As a result, English continues to be an essential issue for individuals (Selvi, 2014, 2021), educational stakeholders (Kirkgöz, 2009) and parents (Ahmad, 1993; Kiziltepe, 2000). Likewise, it is English language knowledge, which is believed to put learners in a superior position in various domains of life and therefore, English knowledge is characterized by major benefits.

As was described, English is regarded as a sine qua non, which refers to the level that it is a necessary language skill, particularly for the national and international job market (Ahmad, 1993; Selvi, 2021). In this sense, English knowledge is crucial for job requirements in Turkey. For example, in a study with 773 job vacancies appearing in 419 advertisements, the value of English in the job market was investigated and found that 91 job vacancies were advertised in English. At the same time, 426 of them required good knowledge of English (Dogancay-Aktuna,

1998). Another notable study in the Turkish context showed that more than half of the job advertisements sought knowledge of a foreign language, mainly English (Bingöl et al., 2019). These examples clearly indicate that people without English knowledge are increasingly excluded from the job market. The general point to be highlighted is that English poses better job opportunities in the Turkish job market and well-paid jobs (Bektaş-Çetinkaya & Oruç, 2010). Coupled with EMI education, Kamasak and Ozbilgin (2021) also provide the support that English knowledge prepares individuals for job opportunities in the English-speaking world, which means opportunities in both the national and the international job market.

Furthermore, with its status in Turkey, English is characterized as a lingua franca to connect with the rest of the world for international communication. English is used in Turkey as "a link language" and has become a symbol of modernization and elitism (İnal & Özdemir, 2015: 135). Its popularity signals that Turkey is, in this instance, growing more oriented toward Western (European) Turkey. Although Ordem (2021) describes this presence of English as a gateway to Westernization and globalization under a sense of urgency and fear of falling behind, we can still argue that English can be a contact language to keep up with the latest technology and scientific developments in the West, especially for university students. In other words, English might seem like an impulse originating from weakness. However, it also may be associated with greater strength and interconnectivity for the youth.

Additionally, English is believed to convey personal benefits in life-related opportunities. For example, tertiary level students' international goals such as travelling and studying abroad can be part of internationalization at the personal level. As Findik (2016) specifies, Erasmus exchange programs are remarkably popular among university students. Moreover, the report prepared by British Council and TEPAV (2015), which includes the private and state universities in Turkey, confirms that university students want to learn English to pursue further international degrees and to experience an exchange program. Another more recent report by British Council (2020: 11) implies that the increasing number of "[e]xchange programs by which students can go abroad" presents an opportunity to learn English for university students and in return, more motivation to learn it. English highly represents the global world around the students and therefore, provides global opportunities on a personal level. One can conclude that English is increasingly serving the purpose of international as well as intercultural communication in university students' lives.

Concerning internationalization, EU membership is desired (Arik, 2020) and the higher education institutions want to "ensure some basic standards among the European Union countries" (Arik & Arik, 2014: 9). Based on the desire for

EU affiliation at the national level, the instrumental value of English has been examined among university students by many scholars and the results show that many students are aware of the fact that English increases their access to future career opportunities, their connection to the international community (Bektaş-Çetinkaya & Oruç, 2010), and advances them in life as individuals (Dogancay-Aktuna & Kiziltepe, 2005). The instrumental value of English among tertiary level students also finds support in the literature that English puts students into a superior position in terms of job-related and academic career-related reasons (Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2013; Tokoz Goktepe, 2014). All of these are long-term goals, which means awareness of the long-term benefits of English (Kirkgöz, 2009).

As evident in these examples so far, the prominence of English in Turkey seems to be closely linked to some benefits due to the appreciation in the national and international context. Generally, these benefits can be listed as securing better job and life opportunities, intellectual lifestyle, personal goals and international interactions as well as benefits for future life in the tertiary level settings.

In sum, this section has given a comprehensive overview of studies related to ELF while clarifying the uses, users, and the role of English in terms of the Turkish sociolinguistic context. These should explain Turkey's place among Expanding Circle countries and it should be clear by now why Turkey is a unique setting and crucially different from other Expanding Circle countries. The following section will discuss the proficiency levels in the nation and try to explain linguistic models surrounding proficiencies, which will allow us to interpret the results of the current study and have a clear picture of educational outcomes regarding curriculum innovations in Turkey.

5 Language Proficiency

In the preceding sections, the language policy strategies and reforms in the Turkish education system have been portrayed, particularly with an emphasis on the English language. In the case of Turkish higher education, educational incentives taken by policymakers have caused particular contradictions to arise. As we referred to earlier, the chief goal of foreign language education reforms has been to connect universities with international counterparts followed by substantial steps taken such as the Bologna process, and the EMI university notion (see section 3.4.2 and 3.4.3). Nevertheless, these have been proved likely to fail to achieve the goal of being truly global due to a lack of critical perspectives in curriculum contents and strong educational policies (Findik, 2016; Ordem, 2021). Consequently, excluding the tertiary level education, the reforms ranging from primary school to high school level have been criticized for not achieving the desired proficiency levels (Bayraktaroğlu, 2015). According to Kamasak and Ozbilgin (2021), excluding the centres for commerce and tourism, the proficiencies in the English language are relatively low in the nation. As a result, section 5.1 presents English proficiency levels in Turkey and section 5.2 explores linguistic models surrounding proficiencies to disambiguate the terms and issues regarding additional foreign language learning and proficiencies.

5.1 English Language Proficiency in Turkey

Notwithstanding the fact that Turkey highly embraces English as the most common foreign language taught at schools (Bayyurt, 2013; Kirkgöz, 2009), the results related to proficiency levels need to be seriously questioned, especially in terms of low proficiency. The evident disappointing outcome in a considerable amount of research is the deficiency of English language skills which is partly due to curriculum and language policies (Saricoban, 2012). Thus, remedial action is needed in order to solve the language problems (Arik, 2020; British Council & TEPAV, 2015). In this regard, it is crucial to reflect upon the English Proficiency Index (EPI) report by Education First (2020: 22), which is a private, global, and educational company with the mission of breaking down language, cultural and

geographical barriers while drawing attention to the specific situation in the Turkish setting:

> English proficiency in Turkey has declined in the past five years, although recovering somewhat this year, as the country's dreams of joining the EU have faded and other priorities have emerged. English instruction in schools focuses on grammar and translation rather than practical communication skills, with much of the content delivered in Turkish. Hundreds of elite high schools with a portion of the instruction delivered in English have been closed across the country for political reasons. As in the Gulf States, Turkish graduates often need a year of intensive English preparatory courses before entering university because their level of English is too low for the degree they plan to pursue.
>
> (Education First, 2020: 22)

In general, the annual reports from Education First (EF) have shown the position of countries all around the world in the English Proficiency Index list. This list "is the first index of its kind to give countries a benchmark against which to measure the average English competency of the working population" (Education First, 2011: 3). According to the recent report for Turkey (Education First, 2021), the key explanation for the situation does not seem simple because the proficiency level in the country has somewhat increased compared to previous reports labelling Turkey as 'Low Proficiency' unlike the previous report listing Turkey in the group of 'Very Low Proficiency' level countries (Education First, 2019). Despite this, it is important to bear in mind that the increase in language proficiency rankings does not reflect the desired levels set by MoNE for ELT practices within the country in terms of communicative skills of students (Selvi, 2021). The following Table 5.1 illustrates the proficiency rankings of 2021 in comparison to other countries ranking in the top 10 of the list (Education First, 2021). A possible explanation for the reasons why the top-ranked nations in the 2021 EF EPI perform so well may be the strong education system, early exposure to English and economic or cultural necessities. While Singapore's bilingual education and the tourism sectors in Portugal and Croatia promote proficiency, Northern and Western European countries' multilingual policy and international business ties contribute to linguistic competency in these countries, such as the Netherlands, Denmark, Norway, Belgium, Sweden, and Finland.

In an earlier study, Savaşkan (2016) discussed the proficiency levels in the Turkish setting regarding educational reforms and the outcomes of EF EPI report and she concluded that centralized education has a positive role in advancing English proficiency levels. Indeed, we can speculate as to whether the recent

Table 5.1: EF EPI 2021 Rankings (Education First, 2021)

World Ranking	Country	World Ranking	Country
1	Netherlands	6	Belgium
2	Austria	7	Portugal
3	Denmark	8	Sweden
4	Singapore	9	Finland
5	Norway	10	Croatia
		70	**Turkey**

reforms of foreign language teaching are designed to ensure higher proficiency levels. However, the slight increase compared to previous years can be seen in the EF EPI results (Education First, 2021) placing the country in the 70th place as shown in Table 5.1, which refers to the low proficiency group again, and it is clearly not a desirable level (Selvi, 2021).

In the same vein, it is fundamental to have a brief look at the The Internet-based Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL IBT) average scores by country. The scores of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) test are reliable since "the test was developed in response to a request by institutions to provide a test that would measure non-native speakers' ability to communicate in English in an academic setting" (Educational Testing Service, 2021: 4). In addition, the scores are widely accepted by many institutions around the world, and in terms of assessment, the test integrates all four language skills: reading, listening, speaking, and writing in order to test a person's ability to communicate. The test also measures the type of English used in academic settings with a strict academic focus, enables fair and impartial scoring and provides accurate and trustworthy data to assist users of scores in making decisions about a test taker's English language competency.[1] The available test and score data summary belongs to the year 2020 on the official website of the test centre. In the same data, we can witness that Turkey has an average score of 87 out of 120, while the average score for Germany is 100 out of 120 according to the results of test takers. A key issue here is that although TOEFL IBT scores are more standardized than EF EPI rankings, direct comparisons should be made with caution between Turkey and Germany examples above due to the other factors. However, the proficiency results of the TOEFL test, again, exhibit similarities with a recent report from the EF EPI (Education First, 2021) indicating the inadequacy of the levels of English language proficiency in Turkey.

[1] https://www.ets.org/s/toefl/pdf/toefl_tsds_data_2020.pdf

Therefore, it was a long time ago proposed that foreign language education in Turkey requires remedial action and in this respect, schools in the national education system and the language centres of universities were proposed to be the institutions for future solutions (Kirkgöz, 2009). Saricoban (2012) agreed with this and further highlighted the educational policy objectives in Turkey arguing that policymakers appear to miss the implications of the connection between policy objectives and instructional practices. The factors related to educational policies seem to be one of the chief reasons, but it is also important to explore other factors affecting proficiency levels in English. Among other factors, we can say that national books used for language teaching are not enough, which refers to the lack of content and visualizations in English books prepared by MoNE; therefore, there should be a cooperation with international publishers in the field in order to solve the teaching material issue in English language teaching (Yaman, 2018). Last but not least, another notable factor is the "non-effective usage of assessment and evaluation tools in schools and large-scaled examinations" (British Council, 2020: 11).

To exemplify these factors more, especially in the tertiary level educational settings, several reports prepared by British Council and TEPAV (2015), including state and private universities in Turkey, attempted to identify the reasons hindering the progress in English proficiencies. In chronological order, "grammar-based approach was identified as the first five main factors" (British Council & TEPAV, 2013: 16), while their next report (British Council & TEPAV, 2015) indicated that lack of motivation appears to be a major reason, which is also confirmed by university lecturers. According to the same report, one interview participant explains the situation that 30-35 hours of English per week is a lot for the preparatory year and students do not have any interest in learning the present perfect tense for the sixth time (British Council & TEPAV, 2015). Additionally, another recent report by British Council (2020: 7) has relatively similar outcomes emphasizing that "educational policies and strategical planning ought to focus on a qualified foreign language education, which is important for every science discipline and emerges as an even more indispensable need". As a result, what these reports suggest in common is an urgent action for curriculum design, which is needed as a first step towards increasing the quality of education, proficiency levels as well as students' motivation.

Kirkgöz (2014: 456) further suggests that it should be the responsibility of higher education institutions to achieve the desired English skills for students and she also points out that "in the contemporary globalized world, English-language proficiency is perceived to be linked with the overall economic development of a country, a desirable attribute for national governments to promote". Although it is well understood that higher education institutions are responsible for meeting

the expectations, the major mistake in Turkey is the fact that EMI seems more associated with one of the most efficient ways of language teaching, in particular at universities, than the delivery of the academic content in English, which is one of the main goals of EMI (Bayraktaroğlu, 2015). In other words, the primary educational objectives are not teaching the language itself in EMI. Although the linguistic outcomes are desired in EMI, these outcomes are not as effective as the language skills acquired in any English language preparatory year programs (Kamasak & Ozbilgin, 2021). However, this issue criticized is a grey area regarding the mission of EMI courses at universities.

So far, one can conclude that the Turkish education system is in need of remedial actions to improve proficiency levels in terms of foreign language education. Briefly, Selvi (2021: 216) argues that these low proficiency outcomes are due to the "[l]ack of long-term educational planning" and further states the problem concerning English teachers, asserting that:

> "Relying on individuals from various backgrounds, experiences, and expertise to meet the growing need and demand for English teachers stood out as a short-term solution prioritizing quantity over quality without any considerations of pedagogical skills, effectiveness, and sustainability in the long term."
>
> (Selvi, 2021: 217)

Selvi (2021) highlighted the problem from the perspective of long-term educational planning and the need for qualified teachers. Referring to educational planning, Bayraktaroğlu (2015) underlines the importance of national strategic planning in foreign language teaching and also suggests a central institution to control the micro level implementations of national foreign language policies. According to Bayraktaroğlu (2015), another effective solution urgently needed is revising the content of English exams according to the international language assessment standards. Although it is suggested for EMI programs, it is useful to mention it here for general language assessments that CEFR standards should be followed and then, these language examinations can be counted as part of the step for improving proficiencies in the nation (Kamasak & Ozbilgin, 2021).

In short, English proficiency levels are low in Turkey due to several factors such as curriculum, teacher education, teaching materials and a lack of long-term planning although there have been many attempts in terms of curriculum innovations mentioned previously (see section 3.4). After this brief summary of the current situation in Turkey regarding English proficiency levels and the discussion about the causal factors and their solutions, the next section will outline the models for language acquisition surrounding proficiencies because we

assume that English will be one of the languages in university students' linguistic repertoires. Therefore, bilingualism and trilingualism are expected linguistic profiles that an overview of models in proficiency research in terms of additional language acquisition is essential to explain the findings of the current study.

5.2 Linguistic Models Surrounding Proficiencies

The issue of factors influencing proficiency in the L2 learning process can be approached from a variety of perspectives including linguistic, psycholinguistic/-cognitive and sociolinguistic studies. Hence, psychologists and educationists on the one hand, and linguists on the other consistently contribute to the field (see Cummins, 1981; García and Lin, 2017; Gardner, 1985). This has also inspired researchers to promulgate various theories and approaches. Having summarized the situation related to the current English language proficiency in Turkey, we will briefly outline how we conceptualize the proficiencies and the models for additional language acquisition in order to find out how linguistic repertoires affect proficiencies.

Hypotheses surrounding proficiencies can provide significant information in terms of the cognitive potential of multilingualism. In the context where our respondents can be described as adult learners, we need to distinguish adult multilingualism specifically here from the other notions of multilingualism. That is, unlike other acquisition processes, previous language experience shapes adult multilingualism, which represents more diversity than multilingualism in early childhood because individuals have experienced a variety of language learning circumstances and their language repertoires have evolved in multiple ways (Cenoz, 2017). As a consequence, their language competence is determined by a variety of things such as language proficiency, previous exposure to the language, and experience with other speakers of the same language in adult multilingualism. Cenoz (2003: 72-73) describes this multilingualism notion as reflected in the following quote:

> "Learners who have gone through the process of learning a second language are also more experienced language learners and it is likely that they have developed certain skills and strategies for achieving the language-learning task. When facing the task of learning a third language, these skills and strategies can be reactivated and adapted to the new challenge. We could compare this experience to walking (L1), then learning to drive a"

> “car (L2) and then facing the challenge of driving a bus (L3). The experience of driving a car, despite involving different skills and strategies, can nevertheless be extremely useful when driving another type of vehicle: the starting point is not the same as for an absolute beginner.”
>
> (Cenoz, 2003: 72-73)

This is certainly true in the case of adult multilingualism, where the competence and language proficiencies are supposed to be reinforced by the prior knowledge. This is exemplified by some scholars working on third language acquisition revealing that individuals, who engage in the second language learning process, are assumed to possess certain language skills since increasing L2 competencies would further support additional language acquisition (Cenoz, 2003; Herdina & Jessner, 2002). In this regard, Cenoz and Todeva (2009: 278) are another example of the remark that these multilingual individuals “get many ‘free rides’ when learning additional languages as their prior linguistic knowledge helps on all levels of language -grammar, pragmatics, lexicon, pronunciation, and orthography”.

Researchers, departing from a linguistic perspective, explore a host of relevant models relating to additional language acquisition. Moreover, they have looked at individuals’ ability to learn an additional language and even its certain positive effects. The same holds for the competence and proficiency levels that multilingualism may represent positive or no impacts regarding proficiencies. Building upon the proficiency topic, the distinct linguistic and cognitive processes have been spelt out in many hypotheses as far as a bilingual system and additional language acquisition are concerned. The following subsections will cover these linguistic models surrounding proficiencies.

5.2.1 The Interdependence Hypothesis

Regarding the first hypothesis, associated with the bilingual system, Cummins (1981) suggests “The Interdependence Hypothesis”. It highlights the developmentally interdependent nature of first and second language acquisition but at the same time infers that L1 linguistic development may have an impact on enhancing the L2 acquisition process. In Cummins’ words (1979: 222), this developmental interdependence hypothesis posits that “the development of competence in a second language (L2) is partially a function of the type of competence already developed in L1 at the time when intensive exposure to L2 begins”.

In his Interdependence Hypothesis, Cummins (1984, 2000) also proposes a description of Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) principle, which defines learner's performance on cognitive or academic tasks in L1 and L2, despite the evident variations between L1 and L2 (Cummins, 1980). The "iceberg metaphor" has been used to portray the two linguistic systems as two icebergs describing a large degree of overlapping beneath the surface. In other words, he emphasizes "shared underlying proficiency" underneath the surface level (Cummins, 1984). This shared underlying proficiency does not belong to L1 or L2 but proposes a form of linguistic reserve as a result of the exposure to both languages in bilingual speakers. For instance, considering vocabulary, pronunciation and syntax, the two languages (icebergs) appear to be two independent systems on the surface level; however, they share the speaker's cognitive and linguistic skills, which are underneath the surface level, at the same time (Cummins, 1980). In the end, with sufficient motivation and exposure, the common underlying proficiency can enhance the development of the proficiency underlying both languages. Taking these descriptions further, Cummins (1980, 1982) introduced a conceptual framework for Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) referring to second language development. Basic interpersonal communicative skills are defined as "the manifestation of language proficiency in everyday communicative contexts" while cognitive academic language proficiency is defined as "the manipulation of language in decontextualized academic situations" (Cummins, 1992: 17).

Furthermore, BICS/CALP framework is depicted along two continua (see Figure 5.1): the vertical axis represents CALP as a continuum ranging from cognitively undemanding to cognitively demanding tasks. On the contrary, the horizontal axis represents BICS as a continuum ranging from context embedded to context reduced. The distinction between context embedded and context reduced is "range of contextual support for expressing and receiving meaning" (Cummins, 1982: 5).

For instance, regarding context-embedded language proficiency in BICS, learners achieve communicative demands reinforced by situational and paralinguistic cues including intonation, and facial gestures whereas regarding context-reduced proficiency in BICS, they need to achieve communicative goals without the aforementioned extralinguistic supports (Cummins, 1982). In the latter case, writing an essay or reading a difficult text can be a good example of context-reduced tasks (Cummins, 1982). Within this scope, typical everyday communication is apparently context-embedded communication while the context-reduced end of the continuum is represented by classroom communication requiring more linguistic cues for successful communication (Cummins, 1982).

Turning back to the axis of CALP, this continuum "relates to the degree of act-

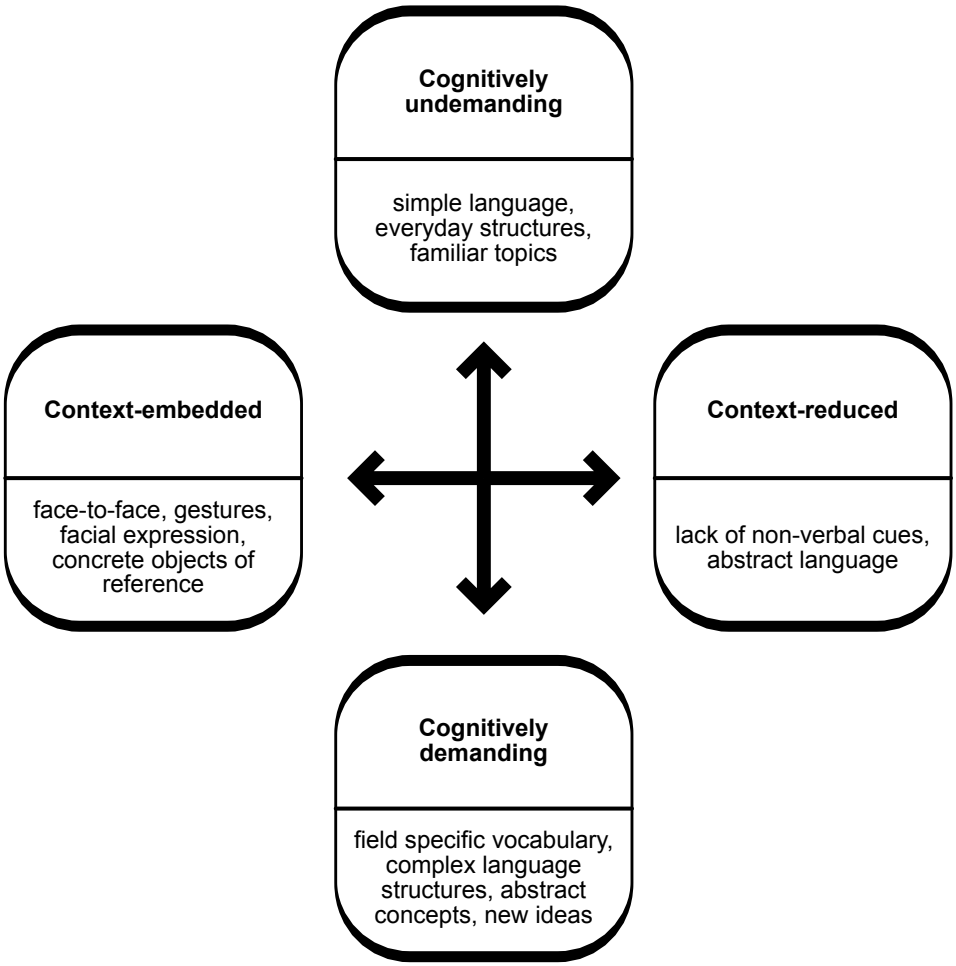


Figure 5.1: Cummins' Four-Part Distinctions Between BICS and CALP (adapted from Bligh, 2014)

ive cognitive involvement in the task or activity; in other words, to the amount of information that must be processed simultaneously or in close succession by the individual in order to carry out the communicative activity" (Cummins, 1982: 6). To exemplify this, Cummins (1980) explains that pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar proficiency are surface features, which are part of daily interpersonal communicative situations and are mastered rapidly. On the contrary, cognitive/academic language proficiency is a requirement to "reflect upon these surface features outside of immediate interpersonal contexts" (Cummins, 1980: 84). According to Roessingh (2006: 93), "below-the-surface proficiency required to do the cognitive push-ups required for academically demanding tasks" (italics in original). Predominantly, CALP refers to the proficiency level, which enables learners to achieve highly demanded cognitive/academic tasks with their language knowledge unlike the pronunciation, vocabulary or grammar knowledge required for typical everyday communication.

The implication of BICS and CALP framework for bilingual education is to consider the fact that language students acquire some communicative English skills rapidly and "become almost indistinguishable from native speakers in face-to-face situations" (Cummins, 1982: 6). Yet, this does not reflect the successful cognitive/academic language proficiency to succeed in a classroom with native speakers. Therefore, it is good for educators to know the BICS and CALP framework that learners with advanced face-to-face communicative skills may lack in English proficiency for academically challenging situations. These implications can contribute to educators' implementations while teaching for bilingual programs.

Based on the outcomes of bilingual programs, CUP research supports bilingual proficiency in which CUP demonstrates that there is a relationship between language proficiency and bilingualism. Cummins (1980) highlights that the instruction in first language (L1) facilitates the mastery of the proficiency in second language (L2) with the help of a central processing system and children succeed. For example, the type of competence in L1 prior to school is crucial as it is linked to the language of instruction in the school environment later in life. There seems to be an evident interaction between these two languages (L1 and the language of instruction) based on the interdependence principle, as well. As Cummins (1981: 29) noted:

> "To the extent that instruction in Lx is effective in promoting proficiency in Lx, transfer of this proficiency to Ly will occur, provided there is adequate exposure to Ly (either in school or environment) and adequate motivation to learn Ly."

> “ (Cummins, 1981: 29) ”

Applied to a Turkish-German bilingual program in Germany, the outcomes of this principle are in favour of mastering language skills. If we want to give an example here, we can choose Turkish-German bilingual programs where education in Turkish helps to promote reading and writing skills not only in Turkish but also in German by enhancing mastery of conceptual and linguistic proficiency. Despite having clearly different surface aspects (in this case, Turkish and German) such as pronunciation, syntax and vocabulary, a common conceptual competency and knowledge foundation exist in all languages, which allows concepts, literacy abilities and language learning strategies to be transferred from one language to another (Cummins, 2013).

Likewise, the transfer of cognitive/academic or literacy-related skills between languages is facilitated by CUP. Due to the higher exposure to literacy in the majority language and the strong societal motivation to learn it, transfer from minority to majority language is more likely to occur. This shows that instructional time in the minority language (Turkish as is the case in the example above) has no negative impact on the mastery of the majority language (German). Taken together, these academic skills in L1 and L2 seem to be interdependent, yet they are an evident manifestation of CUP.

By and large, Cummins' Interdependence Hypothesis depicts the importance of shared underlying proficiency principle as well as the BICS and CALP framework. This hypothesis has pedagogical implications for bilingual programs and second language acquisition. The following subsections will explore other models of additional language acquisition, in particular third language (L3) acquisition.

5.2.2 Dynamic Model of Multilingualism

In contrast to an analytic approach (e.g. Interdependence Hypothesis) presenting the language systems individually, the Dynamic Model of Multilingualism (DMM), in particular, has focused on a holistic, synthetic approach (Herdina & Jessner, 2002). Unlike many concepts in multilingualism acquisition research, DMM highlights that multilingual development is a nonlinear and dynamic process including many interacting and individual factors in developmental changes (Herdina & Jessner, 2002). It manifests a notable psycholinguistic framework when it comes to modelling multilingual proficiency.

In this framework, the fact that language evolves over time on a personal level has been highlighted and also individual learner differences have been taken

into consideration since language and language systems change over time due to many factors. Thus, the ongoing changes are included in the dynamism of multilingualism because Herdina and Jessner (2002) see multilingual proficiency as dynamically interacting linguistic subsystems. Within this scope, Jessner (2008: 275) further elaborates:

> In the DMM, multilingual proficiency is defined as the dynamic interaction among the various psycholinguistic systems (LS1, LS2, LS3, LSn) in which the individual languages (L1, L2, L3, Ln) are embedded, crosslinguistic interaction, and what is called the M(ultilingualism) factor.
>
> (Jessner, 2008: 275)

Multilingualism factor (M factor) refers to features evolving in multilinguals when there is an increasing language contact (Jessner, 2008). The psycholinguistic system of a multilingual learner has been related to the interaction of multiple languages in DMM. This holistic view assumes that the presence of one or more language systems has an impact on not only the development of the second language but also the whole multilingual system. As a result, multilingual proficiency is argued to be dynamic and a cumulative measure of linguistic systems in contact, which refers to a multilingual system that makes the difference between monolingual and multilingual (Jessner, 1999, 2008). This way of understanding the multilingual system serves as a bridge between second language acquisition and multilingualism research or, in other words, between the experienced and inexperienced learner.

Additionally, having more than two language systems in the repertoire supports the development of some skills including metacognitive strategies owing to the individual experience related to learning a new language (Herdina & Jessner, 2002), language learning strategies (Kemp, 2001) and high level of metalinguistic awareness (Jessner, 2006) in DMM. Metalinguistic awareness is a key component in terms of M factor and it is mastered by multilingual learners, who are good at focusing on linguistic forms and then switching the focus between form and meaning. This ability has already been defined as metalinguistic awareness (Jessner, 2008). Bi- or multilingual individuals, as opposed to monolingual speakers, are claimed to have heightened metalinguistic awareness since these individuals have theoretical insights and increased structural knowledge in more than one language, which is associated with many languages in the long run in terms of language acquisition (Jessner, 2006).

Taken together, DMM implies that multilingualism should be interpreted with different rules compared to additive monolingualism or bilingualism (Jessner,

2008) because multilingual competence involves the whole linguistic repertoire of the speaker with constant interactions between languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011). As a result, multilingual individuals develop a high level of awareness and skills driven by this multiple language system, and it is important to mention here that this makes the difference between second language and third language learners from a DMM perspective. This multiple language system enables third language learners to outperform their bilingual counterparts considering metalinguistic awareness, learning strategies and their acquisition of L3 (Jessner, 2014). In terms of modelling multilingual proficiency, we can claim that the necessary conceptual psycholinguistic framework is proposed by DMM.

5.2.3 Cumulative Enhancement Model

Based on the multicompetence views on language proficiency development, the more languages a person learns, the easier it gets to learn new languages (see Cenoz, 2003, 2013). What we focus on in this part delivers a powerful perspective on L3 acquisition in the language learning process, which comprises the main interest of the Cumulative Enhancement Model (CEM) (Flynn et al., 2004). This model in multiple language acquisition explores the role of L1 in successful language acquisition and seeks to provide the necessary framework for the structural development that occurs throughout the learning of a specific Ln (e.g. whether the features of L1 grammar solely determine the grammar in the target language). That is to say, highlighting the cumulative nature of language learning, CEM addresses the question of whether L1 maintains a special role in all subsequent language acquisition. Focusing on previous languages in the multilingual repertoire, Flynn et al. (2004) investigate the impact of L1 on subsequent language acquisition and proposed two representations in the mind/brain referring to one for L1 and another one for all other languages in the repertoire.

Concerning CEM, two studies (Berkes & Flynn, 2012; Flynn et al., 2004) are the main focus to provide support for this model in language acquisition as they underscore the neutral or enhancing role of prior knowledge in the repertoire. Flynn et al. (2004) aim to look at how L1 Kazakh children and adults with L2 Russian acquired three types of restricted relative clauses in English as an L3. Their study concentrates on the directionality linked to the construction of the Complementiser Phrase (CP) in terms of language-specific grammar. Yet, their findings failed to show that L1 has a special role in the acquisition of selected syntactic patterns in a third language. In the same study, the acquisition patterns of L1 Kazakh/L2 Russian/L3 English speakers are found to be similar to those of L1 Spanish/L2 English, rather than L1 Japanese/L2 English, as previously hypothesized. On the whole, Flynn et al. (2004: 13) conclude that “L1 does not play

a privileged role in subsequent language acquisition". However, the confounding results demonstrate that the source of transfer is L2 and CEM provides evidence that "the accumulated linguistic knowledge necessarily enhances subsequent language learning" (Berkes & Flynn, 2012: 144).

Likewise, Berkes and Flynn (2012) also examine the CP structure development with different language combinations. They looked at the comparisons of relative clauses production in elicited imitation tasks and their participants were L1 German/L2 English and L1 Hungarian/L2 German/L3 English. Interestingly, their findings verify the assumptions of CEM as an explanatory model for L3 acquisition, notably for the underlying grammatical structure level that is relevant to CP, and the last learned language has no negative impact on subsequent language acquisition.

In conclusion, this paradigm puts forward the idea that the nature of the linguistic knowledge already represented in the learner's mind/brain will determine the patterns of acquisition in a new language. Likewise, previously acquired grammar rules promote the learning of the related grammar rules in the target language (Flynn et al., 2004). In other words, all languages previously acquired and existing in the repertoire have an influence on learning a new language, which is argued to be against labelling L1 as the primary defining factor in the theory of CEM.

5.2.4 Summary

These subsections have provided an analytical account of the English language proficiencies in the Turkish context followed by the linguistic models surrounding proficiencies. We highlighted the low English proficiency levels in the nation and the potential reasons behind these low results. In addition, this section has introduced the hypotheses for additional language acquisition and how they support, if not directly influence, the learning of a new language in terms of proficiencies. All of the models including the Interdependence Hypothesis, DMM and CEM are of significance in understanding the conceptualization of language proficiency and additional language learning. The next section will present attitudes, in particular language attitudes, that are central in the guidance of one of the research questions in the current study.

6 Language Attitudes

As much of the research on individual differences in language learning has demonstrated the influence of affective variables such as attitudes since early times (see Baker, 1992; Gardner, 1985; Gardner and Lambert, 1972), it would be strange if multilingualism, English proficiency levels and the role of English in Turkey have not been reflected in similar strain in terms of language attitudes. Therefore, this section provides the theoretical framework for language attitudes, which is one of the major concerns in the present study concerning the attitudes towards English and Turkish with a conclusion of theoretical and pedagogical implications.

Considering the primary focus of attitude studies, a crucial suggestion is given by Friedrich (2000), who asserts that language attitude studies are important for understanding sociolinguistic phenomena. According to Friedrich (2000), it is because language attitude studies promote awareness that while learning a language, individuals are dealing with more than just a set of formal elements; they are dealing with feelings, stereotypes, expectations, and prejudices. In addition to this reasoning, Friedrich (2000) suggests that researchers must analyze learners' attitudes and portray an attitude snapshot of Expanding Circle countries to better understand the use of English in these settings.

Firstly, this section briefly introduces the definition of an attitude and illustration of attitude components (6.1). Cognitive, affective and behavioural components will be touched upon with specific examples from the perspective of language studies. Subsequently, the changing nature of attitude concepts will be stressed, while investigating the factors that determine attitudes. With an overview of attitude studies, attitudes will be explored in framing the conceptual definitions from the current literature.

Following the broader theoretical perspective of attitudes, the second issue in this section is theories of attitudes, which will be discussed focusing on two main approaches (6.2). These are the behaviourist and the mentalist (or cognitive) views suggested by Agheyisi and Fishman (1970). This part is essential as the brief description of these main theories in attitude studies paints a picture for us to understand distinct concepts in study findings as well as criticisms.

Thirdly, the remaining subsections present language attitude studies (6.3) with regard to major research areas in the literature (6.4). This step is also essential because we can single out the chief areas, which are central to the present study, from the interrelated classifications of attitude studies by different scholars. Similarly, drawing attention to the range of favourability to unfavourability, the areas of inquiry in language attitude studies will be explored in terms of characteristics of attitudes such as positive, negative or neutral attitudes (6.5). For example, due to the predominant status of the Turkish language in the nation, it is partly expected to observe English language attitude outcomes ranging from positive to negative. Thus, we can partly expect to see linguistic nationalism and favourable ideas for Turkish, which is a controversial yet potentially rising topic with EMI in the nation, as previously mentioned (see section 3.4.3 for EMI). On the contrary, attitudes towards English are partly expected to be positive due to the global role of English in terms of successful communication outcomes, and, in particular, due to the instrumental value of English in Expanding Circle countries (Bamgbose, 2003).

Lastly, the part related to attitude notion in educational contexts looks at specific examples from the literature on language attitudes, the characterization of language attitudes, and traditional research paradigms in educational settings (6.6). Given that the respondents in the present study are based in a particular social context (i.e. tertiary level education), we need to consider the critical reviews of educational terms surrounding language attitudes. Then, there is a final section, which includes examples of past attitude studies conducted in Turkey and language attitudes found within tertiary level education (6.7).

6.1 Defining an Attitude and Attitude Components

Researchers have realized that when learning a language, one of the determinant factors is an attitude and the attitudinal studies characterize the literature with overviews from various disciplinary fields such as psychology (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1959), linguistics (Labov, 1966), and sociology (Cooper & Fishman, 1974), to name a few. There has been a growing research field in line with these disciplinary fields and what these attitude studies have in general is the potential of giving an illustration of the community's thoughts, beliefs, and preferences.

Assuming that language attitudes have been of great value in second language learning, early and well-known examples of such research are to be found in Krashen's (2003) Affective Filter Hypothesis in which attitude has been viewed

as an essential affective variable in the language learning process. This affective filter is more likely to determine the process of whether to block the input from being acquired or not (Krashen, 2003). Apart from this hypothesis, Gardner (1985) proposed the Socio-Educational Model, which primarily argues that attitudes are under the effect of either utilitarian or integrative purposes of language learning. Moreover, the work of Gardner and Lambert (1972), who highlighted the role of an attitude as the crucial component affecting language acquisition, has also been particularly influential in introducing the notions of attitudes into the field of language learning.

Before outlining language attitudes, defining an attitude and being explicit about what is meant by the word attitude must be considered. In simple terms, the concept of attitude is variously defined by social psychologists and refers to cognitive and affective reactions. These reactions show a causal link between positive or negative feelings about the behaviour (Baker, 1988). The working definitions preferred for the current study, which have achieved common acceptance in the field of many research contexts, are the common definitions by Sarnoff (1970) and Ajzen (1988). Attitude can be defined as "a disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects" (Sarnoff, 1970: 279) or, in a more specific way, "to an object, person, institution, or event" (Ajzen, 1988: 4). Fundamentally, the meaning of the term has also been extended to refer to "a relatively enduring organization of beliefs, feelings, and behavioural tendencies towards socially significant objects, groups, events, or symbols" (Vaughan & Hogg, 2005: 150).

In addition to the definition of an attitude, the literature provides us with the tripartite model, which involves the three components of an attitude. These three components of attitudes are cognitive, affective, and behavioural (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993) as shown in Figure 6.1. We will cover these three components of the attitude concept in detail in order to highlight the evaluation of research studies from the perspective of language attitudes and the potential examples related to each subcomponent.

Based on Figure 6.1, which illustrates the concept of attitude involving its three components and creates a framework, we need to focus on language attitudes. According to this tripartite model, the cognitive part would involve learners' beliefs or knowledge about the language, instead of an attitude toward an object. What learners think about their language use might be a recognizable feature for this component (Ladegaard, 2000). For instance, in the online questionnaire of the present study, one attitude item referring to the third statement (i.e. English is a language well suited to modern society) can be an excellent example of the cognitive attitude component since this sentence entails the beliefs about the English language.

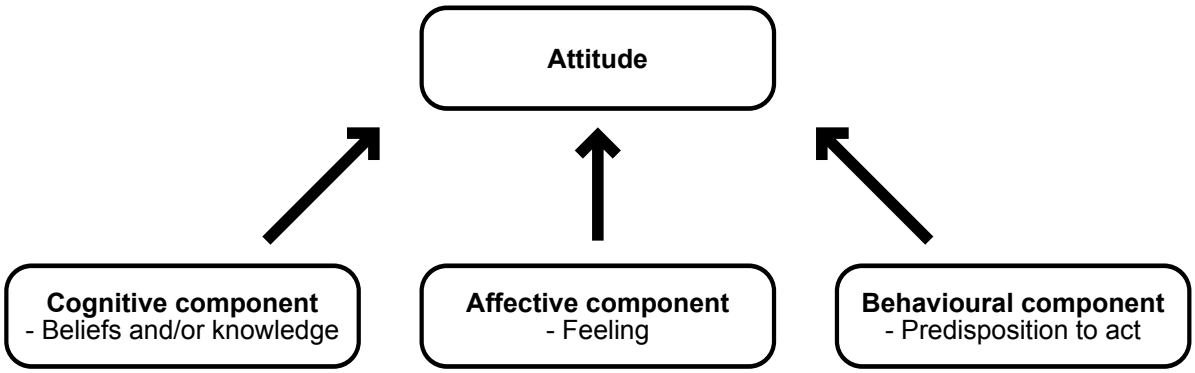


Figure 6.1: The concept attitude and its three components (adapted from Eagly and Chaiken, 1993)

The next element is an affective component referring to feelings. In other words, how a language makes an individual feel might represent this component such as "a passion for Irish poetry, or an awful taste in the mouth of Georgians when speaking Russian" (Cargile et al., 1994: 221). In addition, according to Ladegaard (2000), we can involve the evaluations related to speakers of a language, one's language use, and the varieties of language for the affective component.

Regarding the third category, the behavioural component involves an individual predisposition to act. Concerning language attitudes, deciding to learn a foreign language and then taking an action for choosing a language course might be direct examples of behavioural components. The latter example is behavioural because it triggers specific actions, such as enrolling in a specific language course (e.g. French) (Cargile et al., 1994: 221).

Having reflected upon some attitude definitions and attitude components, we need to keep the changing nature of the attitude concept in mind while seeking further definition. Attitudes are changeable and depend highly on individuals since people do not hold opinions about the world in a vacuum. It has been long accepted that attitudes can vary depending on the object (i.e. language, in this case) and persist across time (Vaughan & Hogg, 2005). Similarly, our experiences affect our attitudes. Within this respect, Baker (1988) suggests that attitudes are not inherent but develop over time influenced by experiences. Therefore, defining an attitude has not been easy as individuals' attitudes toward languages are anchored in their experiences and are likely to change over time. While various definitions of the term attitude have been suggested in the literature as previously mentioned, the present study will use the definition first proposed by Sarnoff (1970), who saw it as a favourable or unfavourable reaction to an object. The notion of object is replaced by a language (e.g. English) considering the present study.

In sum, there are various definitions including language attitudes due to the

fact that attitudes appear to be highly valued in many disciplines. This section has attempted to briefly summarise the literature relating to attitude definition and its three components with examples of language attitude research. The attitude notion will be expanded and explored in-depth in the subsections that follow while focusing on theories of attitudes and language attitude studies.

6.2 Theories of Attitudes

This section will deal with the crucial aspect of attitude studies worth mentioning for a better understanding of attitude research: theories of attitudes. Although Baker (1992: 1) claims that much of the past research in this field is "atheoretical" in terms of language attitude literature, attitude research has been conducted and developed according to two psychological approaches in general (McKenzie, 2010).

By way of illustration, these two approaches are the behaviourist and the mentalist (or cognitive) views suggested by Agheyisi and Fishman (1970) and the studies in the field offer several concepts of attitudes mainly based on these two approaches (see Baker, 1992; Hohenthal, 2003). These two views are based on the fact that attitudes are not genetically endowed but rather are learnt predispositions (McKenzie, 2010). In this regard, attitudes have been shaped continuously starting from childhood. Briefly, mentalist and behaviourist are two theoretical interests of the particular attitude studies and provide a basis for the relevant literature.

The fundamental approach for the mentalists is the fact that attitudes have a cognitive concept. Previous studies related to a typical mentalist view define an attitude as a mental and neural state of readiness for mental and physical action (Allport, 1935). The implication is that they are not directly observable but need to be inferred from an individual's introspection. Although this approach has been criticized for its subjectivity, the advantage of the mentalist approach is that attitude has been regarded as an independent variable that does not have a tie to the particular external stimulus situations. What is important in the mentalistic view of attitude studies is the multiple structures of attitudes, which are seen as latent psychological variables (Agheyisi & Fishman, 1970). Hence, the reliance upon the respondents is crucial in order to report their perceptions and it is often assumed that attitude formation has multiple componential structures positing the cognitive, affective and conative components according to the mentalists (McKenzie, 2010).

In contrast to the mentalist view, the behaviourist view centres the attitudes around behaviour and responses; as a result, attitudes entirely involve the observable data (Agheyisi & Fishman, 1970). That is, observing actual behaviour in social situations can give us statistically determined results related to attitudes (Hohenthal, 2003). Unlike the subjectivity issues in the mentalist view, there is no self-reporting from the individuals and it is purely based on observing the behaviour. However, the behaviourist view has been challenged by researchers in the field since attitude is a dependent variable in this case because it becomes the main determinant of behaviour and whether we can entirely rely on this observable data to define attitudes is the question (Hohenthal, 2003). Bearing these criticisms in mind, Ladegaard (2000) also points out the inevitable dependency of behaviours on context and situation as well as the difficulty of obtaining data and relating them to attitudes. According to a strong critic of this approach, other factors such as age, gender, group membership and language background related to attitude are ignored in behaviourist theory (McKenzie, 2010). This will lead to miscategorization in the end as attitude solely is not a reliable predictor (Baker, 1992). According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1975), we will likely get broad-based behavioural patterns in the behaviourist view. Taken together, the behaviourist view is entirely based on observable data while ignoring other variables that might have an impact on attitude and this has been argued and has caused many debates among attitude scholars.

Until this point, the brief summary of general theories related to the attitude studies stated above presents a picture for us in order to comprehend different concepts and views in the research findings and the criticisms. To be able to examine language learners' attitudes, more studies in the relevant field should be explored. Our next topic, therefore, moves on to presenting language attitude studies in the literature.

6.3 Language Attitude Studies

Throughout the literature, the study of modern language attitudes dates back to the 1930s (Bloomfield, 1933). Essentially, it recognizes that language plays a big role in the formation of individuals' attitudes and there are a great number of inferences about language use in daily life, especially in various events and settings. Considering another language different from our mother tongue, the outside context around us presents an unusual interethnic setting. In these settings, personal choices are in the first place in terms of language use, which is under the great effect of language attitudes. Therefore, it is commonly assumed

that language preferences might differ a lot and most of these preferences can be based on one salient topic: language attitudes.

In the field of language attitudes, the concept of attitude is drawn primarily from disciplinary fields where attempts have been made to quantify favorability or unfavourability. However, language attitudes are a broad topic involving many aspects of language-related issues apart from the range of favourable and unfavourable views. In the following concrete example, we can see how broad language attitudes might be as a topic to investigate with different dimensions. Cooper and Fishman (1974: 6) demonstrate what the study of language attitudes can be like with an example from the Hebrew language:

> “[…] attitudes toward a language (e.g. Hebrew) or towards a feature of a language (e.g. a given phonological variant) or towards language use (e.g. the use of Hebrew for secular purposes) or towards language as a group marker (e.g. Hebrew as a language of Jews) are all examples of language attitudes.”
>
> (Cooper & Fishman, 1974: 6)

Cooper and Fishman (1974) outline their example in terms of language or its feature, language use and the group of people who speak the language. The example areas of inquiry from the Hebrew language might give us an idea about the relevant topics to explore in language attitudes. Yet, according to Cargile and Giles (1997), the majority of language attitude studies are claimed to represent evaluative reactions to accents and languages, such as being annoyed with a person’s accent (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993).

Given the frame explanation and examples, one can infer that the attitude concept in language studies represents a very broad term to explore. Hence, the next section presents the major research areas in language attitude studies some of which are central to the present study.

6.4 Major Research Areas

Due to its challenging and broad concept, we can see some classifications throughout the literature where ‘language attitudes’ is seen as an umbrella term (Baker, 1992). The field encompasses major areas and reasons for researching language attitudes from the perspective of a particular focus. Baker (1992: 29) is one example, who singled out the major areas and the focuses of language attitudes that can be discussed under eight headings:

i) attitude to language variation, dialect, and speech style

ii) attitude to learning a new language

iii) attitude to a specific minority language (e.g. Irish)

iv) attitude to language groups, communities, and minorities

v) attitude to language lessons

vi) attitude to the uses of a specific language

vii) attitude of parents to language learning

viii) attitude to language preference

As it has been challenging to narrow down the concept of language attitudes, we can also see another classification by Schiffman (1997) in the relevant literature pointing out different major areas of inquiry. Schiffman's (1997) classification is generally based on what has been explored in attitude studies until now. For Schiffman (1997), attitude studies are classified into six major areas:

a) language in general,

b) their motivation towards the learning of L1 or L2

c) the status of (i) a language, (ii) its speakers, or (iii) some form (non-standard? H-variety?) of the language, or (iv) its use in certain (new? non-traditional?) domains

d) towards language shift (either within a particular community or in general),

e) towards loyalty to own language,

f) their non-standard dialect/language given that they are from a minority group.

Having covered these major areas, regarding the current study, we draw on Baker's (1992) and Schiffman's (1997) classifications of major research areas. Considering the attitude questionnaire items in the present study, on the one hand, the main focus of the attitude part of the current study partly relates to an attitude to learning a new language (ii), attitude to the uses of a specific language (e.g. English) (vi) and attitude to language preference (viii) as summarized by Baker (1992) because we question attitudes towards learning English, English use and English language preference whenever they have the chance. On the other hand, we will also adopt the review of what Schiffman proposed since there are multiple overlapping major areas in the current study emerging as dominant. Regarding these six major areas Schiffman (1997) mentioned above,

the motivation towards learning L1 and L2 (b) and attitudes towards loyalty to own language (e) might be related to the present study. This is due to the fact that students' attitudes are assumed to be most probably influenced by their motivation and their mother tongue. By addressing these two issues, particularly considering the role of English as a lingua franca in our respondents' local context, Turkey, we aim to discover whether their attitudes get affected by their goal or motivation to learn English. In addition to this, attitudes towards loyalty to own language are aimed to be discovered in the current study. Namely, it is their loyalty to the Turkish language investigated via Turkish attitude statements.

In conclusion, a closer look reveals that major research areas in attitude studies have interrelated classifications by different scholars (Baker, 1992; Schiffman, 1997) and some of these categorizations are the chief goals of the present study regarding the language attitude statements in our data collection instrument. Following the major research areas in language attitude studies and their connection to the present study, the next section tries to explore the range of favourable and unfavourable views in terms of language attitudes.

6.5 Positive and Negative Attitudes toward Languages

Studies investigating favourable and unfavourable attitudes towards languages have provided plenty of results considering the attitudes people hold. Concerning language attitudes and language learning, Dewaele (2015: 13) highlights that "[e]motions are at the heart of the foreign language learning process" and therefore, examining attitudes has been of great interest to many researchers to link these emotions to attitudes towards languages and language learning (see Baker, 1992; Gardner, 1985). In this regard, a learner's performance is more likely to get affected by either positive or negative feelings towards the language one wants to learn. Similar to the just described, positive attitudes can lead to a high level of performance in the target language and facilitate the process, whereas negative attitudes can cause demotivation and eventually a failure (Gardner, 1985).

After reviewing the recent and past language attitude studies, clearly, the language attitude topic can best be treated under two headings: positive and negative attitudes towards languages stemming from various sources. For example, when people have positive attitudes toward language, they are more motivated and, in the end, they are more successful in learning a language (Baker, 1992; Gardner, 1985; Liu, 2007; Petrides, 2006). More specifically, through the lens of English language learners in Turkey, the desire to speak English with a British accent can be an example of a positive language attitude resulting in success

(Bayyurt, 2013). On the one hand, it is important to bear in mind the possible bias in these studies referred above. On the other hand, these examples can be boosted and primarily viewed from the perspective of different subtopics such as vocabulary and phonetics as well. By drawing on the concept of positive attitudes, some researchers provided support for the success factor that it has a strong impact on creating positive attitudes and counted academic achievement under the same issue (Karahan, 2007; Kazazoğlu, 2013). Another significant factor correlated with positive attitudes is proficiency level (Cooper & Fishman, 1977; Johnson, 2012; Şentürk, 2015). Additionally, appreciation of the target language (e.g. English) determines success and positive attitudes toward language learning (Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2012; Kiziltepe, 2000; Tokoz Goktepe, 2014).

By contrast, there are some studies that have revealed that negative attitudes might cause some significant results. For instance, negative attitudes toward the target culture may highly be seen in monolingualism and it influences second language learning in a negative way (see Ellis, 2004). Moreover, an exaggerated level of linguistic nationalism may influence negative attitudes towards the target language (Demirbulak, 2011; Erdemir, 2013; Üzüm, 2007). The claims based on the nationalism issue play a powerful role as Fishman (1977: 307) points out the effect of nationalism on language attitude development by asserting that:

> “Puristic ideological views towards the national languages are the primary attitudinal predictors and, as expected, these are consistently negatively related to English attitudes, across countries as well as across populations. Since attitudes towards the national languages are normally acquired earlier than attitudes towards English, there is a possible causal sequence here that may deserve to be recognized. It would seem that those adults and youngsters, who acquire strong puristic and ideologically encumbered views of their respective national language, are less likely, therefore, to acquire positive attitudes towards English.”
>
> (Fishman, 1977: 307)

Due to the fact that nationalism may have been an important factor and the general view of the national language status may be the root of negative attitudes towards learning foreign languages, it is worth mentioning the nationalism issue here in terms of the present study since there are attitude statements questioning to explore the predominant view related to Turkish (in this case, the mother tongue of the majority of participants) and English. Correspondingly, the attitude statements in the online questionnaire of the present study and part of the results can guide the degree of nationalism among university students.

Within the scope of the nationalism issue, we already addressed the current EMI debates (see section 3.4.4) and the issue of seeing English as a potential threat to the degeneration of the Turkish language (Demirbulak, 2011; Karakaş, 2013; Selvi, 2011). The existence of this hotly debated topic around the English language could potentially influence the Turkish sociolinguistic setting. As a result, we can expect to see linguistic nationalism among Turkish participants, which may create some resistance to learning a foreign language.

It is true that nationalism can have an impact on the outcomes of attitudes toward learning a foreign language. However, it does not necessarily have to be negative attitudes since there are some comprehensive studies of attitudes toward the English language that have their unique socio-cultural context including different parts of the world such as Poland (see Reichelt, 2005), Italy (see Pulcini, 1997), Germany (see Erling, 2007) and Germany and the Netherlands (see Edwards and Fuchs, 2018). These attitudinal studies provide that their participants do not see English as a threat to their national language. Nevertheless, there is no reached consensus since the growing supremacy of English draws attention to a mixture of feelings in the different contexts of societies.

Furthermore, it is necessary to mention some other factors playing a role in language attitudes because individuals' attitudes might develop over time due to the language teacher, coursebook and the classroom environment either in a positive or a negative way (Kiziltepe, 2000). In the origins of language attitudes, there are also factors such as language background, age, gender and the type of school attended (Baker, 1992). Family expectations can also be listed as one of the important factors in favourable attitudes towards language learning, yet at the same time creating negative attitudes as a result of not fulfilling the parents' expectations (Kiziltepe, 2000). The interrelationship of all the dimensions can either lead to (definitely not determine) positive attitudes, which are likely to bring many advantages to the learner and result in achievement or lead to negative attitudes, which may bring some resistance.

Overall, language attitudes can be positive, negative or somewhere in between and can vary a lot in terms of the aforementioned factors covered in this part. Starting from the broader perspective, now the subsequent section provides a general overview of attitude notion in educational contexts and its role since the present study focuses on language attitudes in tertiary level education.

6.6 Language Attitude Studies in Educational Contexts

In order to obtain educational objectives such as reaching some desirable level of proficiency in the target language, the attitude factor needs to be considered for successful outcomes (Gardner, 1985). For instance, we can think of attitudes as one of the factors after a language learning course. In this scenario, favourable attitudes towards language learning class are a good illustration of carrying on learning new words or listening to podcasts and news in the target language in order to support language learning. On the contrary, negative attitudes would lead to different outcomes such as a lack of motivation to continue studying the target language and ending up with no language practice outside the classroom environment. In other words, attitude is a vital concept in language learning concerning its role in the final result (Baker, 1992). This also means that the crucial thing is simply an attitude that will be a facilitative or impediment factor in the language learning process (Bayyurt, 2013).

Although merely investigating the learners' attitudes may not guarantee any success, attitude results have the potential of being the most influential guide for the future steps taken in many educational reforms because languages are not the same as any other school subjects in the curriculum and language education is one of the core areas influenced by the language attitudes (Ellis, 1994; Kirkgöz, 2009). It is also necessary to highlight the role of language attitudes in educational policies here. According to Baker (1992: 9), attitude is an explanatory variable and it "provides an indicator of current community thoughts and beliefs, preferences and desires". Therefore, it can be a valuable indicator for policymakers in order to obtain relevant information about the success of the educational policies being implemented and change beliefs in society. In line with this, Lewis (1981) also supports the idea of taking the attitudes of those in the education system into account for successful policy implementation and formulation. For example, a study conducted in Turkey about the attitudes toward English from the perspective of students, teachers, and families might provide the problems of foreign languages taught within the country. The results of this type of study will shed light on policymakers' further decisions and steps in terms of foreign language teaching. For instance, the Council of Higher Education is responsible for the reforms at the universities in Turkey, attitude studies at the tertiary level are more likely to have crucial importance and the outcomes of this type of study will provide new insights for the Council of Higher Education and policymakers. In other words, paying attention to language attitudes is worthwhile in order to find out how students' attitudes are affected by their educational surroundings.

Given such importance to its role in language learning and educational policies, a considerable amount of research provides us with some models and concepts proposed in the field in terms of language learning and attitudes. It is helpful to review these conceptualizations to explore educational dimensions and explain the terms that are mostly used in language attitude research. In the language learning contexts, language is used as a means of communication and one should consider a great number of preconditions that individuals have, which will affect their attitudes towards the language and language use in return. Within the field of language attitudes in this respect, the best-known research example is Gardner's (1985) Socio-educational Model in which attitude is regarded as a variable that affects both linguistic outcomes such as proficiency levels and also non-linguistic outcomes such as cultural values and self-concept. Gardner (1985) examines language attitudes with the claim that attitudes might have different subtopics such as language preference, reasons for learning a language, and uses of language. According to Gardner's (1985) model, attitudes towards the course, the teacher, and language learning are educational attitudes, while cultural components of second language learning are part of the social attitudes.

Gardner (2006) approaches language attitudes from a slightly different perspective claiming that many scenarios are likely to exist in terms of language acquisition or second language acquired along with the first one. He further remarks on second language acquisition that since second language learning starts later in life for most learners, this second language learning process in the school environment is more different than first language acquisition as individuals have a great number of preconditions (Gardner, 2006). These preconditions naturally have an impact on the language learning process and language performance. This usually happens and not every approach is automatically suitable for this scenario in educational settings. Therefore, Gardner's (1985) Socio-educational Model is crucial for language teachers and learners because it examines various important variables that provide explanations for their roles in the process and researchers in educational domains (Gardner, 2006). As the specific domain the current study focuses on is tertiary level education, it has to be seen as a relevant model to contribute to our understanding of the nature of students' attitudes in terms of language learning.

Having explained Gardner's (1985) well-known claim in the field, we should clarify that it is not necessarily limited to attitudes. Part of the model includes the explanation for the relationship between motivation and attitude. According to Gardner (1985), motivation is "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language" (Gardner, 1985: 10). Figure 6.2 illustrates the visual representation of his explanation with an example of the French language.

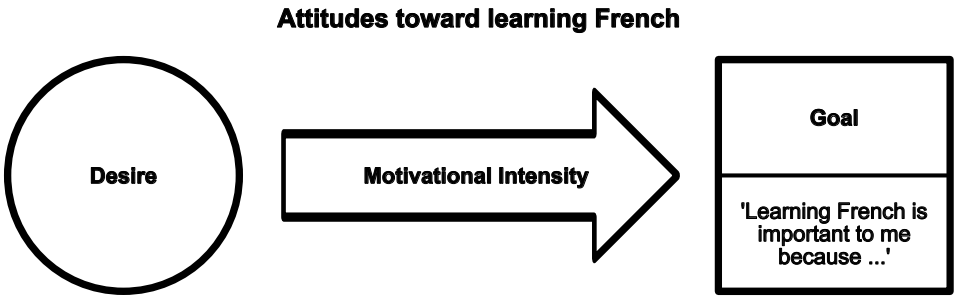


Figure 6.2: Schematic representation of the concept of motivation in relation to the second language acquisition (adapted from Gardner, 1985: 54)

As illustrated in Figure 6.2, motivation encompasses both an attitude and goal-directed behaviour. Gardner (1985) also highlights the importance of positive attitudes in language learning again because positive attitudes play a central role in high proficiency levels and success according to the Socio-educational Model (Gardner, 1985). Regarding the research area, Gardner (1985) would be an example of one of the pioneering scholars combining attitudes and language learning in such a broad range of dimensions, including attitude and motivation. As part of Gardner's (1985) model, it is crucial to stress the role of attitudes towards the target language community and the notion of integrativeness towards the target culture. According to Gardner (1985), the ultimate level of achievement is linked to the combination of positive language attitudes and the motivation for integrativeness.

Concerning integrativeness toward the target culture, it is proposed that different language learner groups have different attitudes and motivations in their own foreign language learning situations. For instance, the notion of integrativeness might be more applicable in ESL contexts like Canada than in EFL settings where learners have limited exposure to the target language and have little or no contact with L2 speakers and their culture. In respect to the Turkish context, Expanding Circle country setting where English is taught as a foreign language (i.e. EFL setting), the attitudes toward the target language community may seem more influential in the language learning process rather than integrative motivation because individuals are not likely to encounter native speakers of English in their daily lives, which ends up having not a clear affective reaction to target language group (Dörnyei, 1990). Especially for monolingual countries like Turkey, these limited opportunities were pointed out many years ago by Dörnyei (1990) that attitudes toward English-speaking cultures are shaped by education and exposure to media in Expanding Circle country settings. Additionally, this type of exposure is much faster than ever in the globalization era, which means that individuals have more opportunities to have relevant exposure to target language groups nowadays and this high volume of exposure might bring a better understanding of the L2 language group (e.g. native speaker community). As is the case for the

present research setting, higher education context, which is home to Turkish and international students, one can clearly assume that their language attitudes may anchor in their attitudes towards the target language community rather than the issue of integrativeness.

By addressing the issue of integrativeness and attitudes towards the target language community, Yashima (2002) provided a useful, general but essential definition for language attitudes toward the L2 language community and integration with the global society instead of assimilation with native speakers, which is called International Posture (IP). It is defined "as a general attitude toward the international community that influences English learning and communication" (Yashima, 2002: 62-63). Admittedly, her study is among Japanese learners and in the Japanese context, which is another Expanding Circle country. Yet, the concept is worth covering here since Japan is another example of an EFL setting followed by Turkey. International Posture refers to a special interest in willingness to work or stay abroad, intercultural communication readiness and friendships, an interest in international affairs and one's openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward other cultures and people (Yashima, 2002). As Japan and Turkey are among Expanding Circle countries (Kachru, 1992), the characterization in International Posture might represent socially and educationally relevant results in terms of Turkish university students' attitudes toward English. This notion will be taken into account in the present study because the interest in working or staying abroad can be an important factor regarding positive attitudes toward other language communities among Turkish university students.

Another researcher in the field proposed a similar characterization but labelled it differently. Approaching the attitude issue from another dimension, Kraemer (1993) uses the term Social/Political Attitudes, which are reported to have an effect on Israeli high school students learning Arabic. In the Israeli context, where Arabic is taught as a foreign language at schools, the attitude reflections such as equal civil rights for the Arab minority, optimism about peace and close social distance between Arab-Jewish contact create positive attitudes in individuals to learn the Arabic language according to Kraemer's (1993) study. Similar to the just described, we can speculate that like in the Israeli sociolinguistic setting, the latest immigration rate in Turkey from the countries neighbouring Eastern border, particularly from Syria, would create different attitudes towards immigrants' languages in the Turkish context. At this point, the attitudes toward learning Arabic would be positive or the reverse may also be possible among Turkish people. Interestingly, Selvi (2021) suggests that this issue should be reflected in the future of language teaching profession, as changing demographics of the Turkish society due to Syrian refugee populations will stand out as a new rising linguistic profile. It is, thus, useful to elaborate on the country specific situations

whether language learning is social or political oriented or purely educational concerning the term Social/Political Attitudes.

Due to the rise in globalization and refugee mobility, International Posture and Social/Political Attitudes are two terms in the field derived from individuals' attitudes and partly their integrativeness towards the target culture as well as towards the community. These two terms can be highly influential in language attitude studies since both concepts are interested in the reasons behind learning a foreign language (Kraemer, 1993; Yashima, 2002). Hence, it would be inadequate to reason about language attitudes in educational contexts without stressing the role of attitudes towards the target language community.

Moving on to the language attitudes, the concept is so broad and orientation type is one of the interfering factors when successful language learning outcomes are desired (Baker, 1992; Bayyurt, 2013). Leading the research in the field, Lambert (1963) introduces two types of orientation toward learning a second language, which are claimed to affect learners' attitudes. He made a distinction between these two types of orientation like this:

> "The orientation is "instrumental" in form if the purposes of language study reflect the more utilitarian value of linguistic achievement, such as getting ahead in one's occupation, and is "integrative" if the student is oriented to learn more about the other cultural community as if he desired to become a potential member of the other group."
>
> (Lambert, 1963: 114)

What Lambert (1963) claims, essentially, is that these two types of orientation are obviously different from each other due to the purposes characterizing them. Joining Lambert (1963), Norris-Holt (2001: 1) states further examples of instrumental motivation such as "meeting the requirements for school or university graduation, applying for a job, requesting higher pay based on language ability, reading technical material, translation work or achieving higher social status". Having reviewed these examples, one can see that instrumental motivation has clear aims for learning a language to achieve something, while for integrative motivation, it is aimed at being a part of the target language community. These two concepts are really worth explaining as instrumental orientation is more likely to create favourable attitudes in Turkey as English is widely taught in the nation due to the opportunities it is believed to create (König, 2006).

As was mentioned before for the role of English in Turkey (see section 4.3), individuals are likely to learn a foreign language in order to obtain better job and life opportunities (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998; Dogancay-Aktuna & Kiziltepe, 2005;

Kiziltepe, 2000; König, 2006; Koseoglu, 2013). This partly explains the reason for instrumental orientation, which, in return, is a triggering factor to create favourable attitudes towards learning a foreign language. This current situation in Turkey could also be seen as support for the high level of instrumental orientation observed in Expanding Circle countries since students' attitudes might not be strikingly different from other Expanding Circle settings where English has an instrumental value instead of integrative purposes (Bamgbose, 2003).

Due to the instrumental value of English in the Turkish sociolinguistic setting, foreign language learning is constantly appreciated by families (Ahmad, 1993; Kiziltepe, 2000) and it is equally important for the job sector (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998; Kamasak & Ozbilgin, 2021; König, 1990; Selvi, 2021). As a result, the combination of all these points including job or life-related opportunities and the parents' expectations is likely to signal the instrumental orientation under investigation in this research. For the current study, this means that we cannot simply mention the instrumental orientation for the foreign language in the nation (e.g. English), but rather we can hypothesize that the attitudes toward English are assumed to be positive owing to the aforementioned reasons related to instrumental orientation.

While the hypothesis about instrumental orientation seems intuitively reasonable, integrative motivation is the other side of the coin in language attitude studies. It is essential to provide details for the notion of integrative motivation to be more explicit here. By way of explanation, Lambert's (1963) pioneering proposal for integrativeness involves an individual's openness towards the characteristics of another cultural or linguistic group as well as willingness to become a member of the target cultural community. Lambert (1963) further elaborates on this and concludes that the degree of integrativeness marks the difference in the second language learning process and when learners feel that their own ethnolinguistic heritage is more important in terms of their identity, their integrativeness would be low. Lambert's (1973: 19) well-known conclusion on this issue is very clear summarizing two main points in terms of beliefs that "beliefs about foreign people and about one's own ethnicity are powerful factors in the learning of another group's language and in the maintenance of one's own language". Thus, integrativeness seems to be a socially relevant affective construct in language attitudes.

Substantially, the role of ethnocentric issues appears when integrativeness is included, which has repeatedly been shown in previous studies. In this regard, Üzüm (2007) provides dramatic differences from the Turkish context claiming that the individuals can be instrumentally orientated but they still question the dominance of English, prioritizing the Turkish language loyalty. Within the framework of this view, it is likely that individuals' attitudes are embedded in the social

groups they belong to and investigating their level of integrativeness as part of their attitudes is a worthwhile endeavour. This linguistic loyalty may bring linguistic nationalism, which differs from one sociolinguistic context to another as mentioned previously in the section of positive and negative language attitudes. (see section 6.5).

In conclusion, the current section gives a comprehensive overview of attitude studies focusing on language attitudes. The literature clearly outlines what language attitude findings have in common and support in terms of the operational terminology in the field. Although there is not even a particular answer due to the subjective nature of attitudes, the next section aims at evaluating the diverse findings in relation to the Turkish context. So far, Turkey has been a focus for educational researchers in terms of English language attitudes within the nation. On the one hand, a considerable body of research has investigated the relationship between the variables such as age, gender, and proficiency level (Akay & Toraman, 2015; Akgöz & Gürsoy, 2014; Gömleksiz, 2010; Tetik, 2016). On the other hand, a further body of research has worked more in the domain of the reasons for favourability and unfavorability toward English in terms of the role of foreign languages in the Turkish educational settings (Akkus Çakir & Ünlü, 2019; Genc & Aydin, 2017; Üzüm, 2007). A vast majority of research studies conducted in the Turkish context will be explored in the next section.

6.7 Language Attitude Studies in Turkey

One topic that has so far not been covered in detail is the language attitude studies in the Turkish sociolinguistic setting, which relates to a great number of contributions. Principally, attitudes toward English are widely investigated at tertiary level education and nearly all of them aim to examine students' attitudes toward English. However, a one-size-fits-all answer still does not exist to fill the gap in language attitude studies. The preceding sections already highlighted some of the ways that language attitudes are based and within the scope of language attitude studies, many factors and variables have been mentioned. The same types of research have certainly been the case in the language attitude studies conducted in Turkey. Moreover, the factors such as age, gender, academic discipline and different variables have been proposed to explain the relationship between attitudes and the English language as evidenced by the published research in the literature. This section presents these language attitude studies conducted in the Turkish setting.

Traditionally, language attitudes in Turkey have been assessed with a quantitative research design (Genc & Aydin, 2017; Gömleksiz, 2010; Tetik, 2016), while

some studies have applied a mixed-method research design (Akkus Çakir & Ünlü, 2019; Üzüm, 2007). In these previous studies, it has been concluded that learners' attitudes towards foreign languages are prone to a great number of variables that obviously affect the learning process. Concerning the attitudes toward the English language, these attitudinal studies also provide that there is no reached consensus since the growing supremacy of English draws attention to a mixture of feelings (Selvi, 2011; Üzüm, 2007). Yet, a vast majority of findings have some common points that can be summarized from the perspective of positive and negative attitudes. On the one hand, instrumental orientation is a clear common type among students in Turkey, which is exactly the same claim for Expanding Circle countries (Bamgbose, 2003), and in addition to this finding, some studies provide support for the success of instrumental orientation along with integrative one in terms of language attitudes (Cooper & Fishman, 1977; Shaw, 1981; Tokoz Goktepe, 2014). On the other hand, the ethnocentric approach and linguistic nationalism may trigger negative attitudes and any foreign language (e.g. English) might be perceived as a threat to national identity (Demirbulak, 2011; Erdemir, 2013; Üzüm, 2007). Lastly, although many studies show that students have more favourable attitudes toward foreign languages, we need to have further evidence in this regard and the status of English in the Turkish context. Hence, this section summarizes the rich literature on the aspects of language attitude studies and factors that influence students' attitudes.

Beginning with one of the rare types of research methods in the field of language attitudes, Çetinkaya (2009) conducted a qualitative study at a state university in Turkey. With 15 participants, she investigated individuals' perceptions and attitudes towards English. Her findings provide that English has the role of an international language for the participants and at the same time, students have multi-layered attitudes towards English. That is, students value high proficiency levels in English and regard English as a language of power to reach certain goals due to the fact that it is the most valued foreign language in the nation. Yet, they also question the dominance of English and its imposed power with the concerns of linguistic issues considering their mother tongue. Therefore, they have negative attitudes toward it.

Likewise, another significant study in the Turkish context related to university students' language attitudes is the work of Üzüm (2007), who posits that the instrumental role of English has a major role in students' lives. In his mixed-method research, there were 219 students studying in the preparatory year of two state and three private universities in Turkey. According to the research findings, university students have favourable attitudes towards the English language. Nevertheless, they can still prioritize their own mother tongue, Turkish in the present study, against English supremacy.

In a review of conflicting findings, Selvi (2011) investigated the reasons for the educational developments in the nation in terms of historical and socio-political movements and the English language. He concluded that English has many functions such as English medium instruction, but the most prominent one is in the professional job market. This extensive use of English in the nation is regarded as being similar to colonialized countries in the Outer Circle by Selvi (2011). However, Selvi (2011) further notes that while the use of English may mean being part of the problem in terms of the degeneration of the Turkish language, at the same time it implies being a part of the solution in terms of Westernization and globalization movements within the nation. Indeed, the Turkish society is still far from a consensus about this issue in relation to the ideal role of English (Selvi, 2011).

Similarly, Karakaş (2013) conducted a study about the planned and unplanned spread of English across Turkey in order to find out whether the expansion of English is a threat or not in the Turkish context. The study reveals that there are dilemmas among students and academicians with the high tension going around English medium instruction. In terms of the planned spread of English via schooling and the unplanned spread referring to the irregular borrowings of the words from the English language, he suggests no further solution for the near future (Karakaş, 2013). The so-called unplanned and unmediated spread of English has been echoed in another study by Büyükkantarcioglu (2004) and she argues that English is believed to have a vital role to gain personal prestige in society and further suggests that realistic solutions are needed to prevent the spread of English words into Turkish.

Other national studies carried out in Turkey follow a similar pattern focusing on significant factors that determine language attitudes at higher education institutions. The status of English is widely investigated at varying universities. In this regard, there is a significant study conducted at one of the universities in Turkey emphasizing the instrumental role of English by Tokoz Goktepe (2014). She investigated the attitudes of first-year Turkish undergraduate students majoring in business studies. The results show that undergraduates are instrumentally oriented for their professional needs and want to visit English-speaking countries. The most surprising result of this study is that students' ideal L2 speaker concept aims for speaking English like a native speaker, which is regarded as a signal for integrative orientation. Taken together, the outcomes of the study suggest that to some degree, the instrumental role of English plays an important role along with the integrative. Similar results are obtained in another study by Kirkgoz (2005) investigating the highly increasing demand for learning English at the tertiary level with 203 students studying in their first and final years. Kirkgoz (2005) points out that many students are interested in studying at English medium universities

and motivated primarily because the benefits of English language knowledge in general are significant from students' perspectives. In the same study, university students reported that they have a mix of integrative and instrumental aims in their mind (Kirkgoz, 2005).

Furthermore, the existing studies in the Turkish sociolinguistic context have provided a deep insight into the situation of the instrumental role of foreign languages in developing positive attitudes. More precisely, Dogancay-Aktuna and Kiziltepe (2005) emphasized the functional range and the status of English in Turkey. Their findings indicate that the pattern of the spread of English resembles the other countries in the Expanding Circle including many countries in the European Union. In addition to this widespread notion of English, especially at the tertiary level, they conclude that English is seen as a requirement for better job options and societal advancements in a person's life. The relationship between the instrumental orientation of English and positive attitudes is noteworthy and similar results have been found by other scholars in the Turkish context, which support the instrumental role of English along with positive attitudes towards it (Gömleksiz, 2010; Karahan, 2007; Kazazoğlu, 2013; Kiziltepe, 2000). As a result, it can be argued that matters related to the instrumental orientation of English and positive attitudes towards it would not change significantly in near future.

In the same vein, the number one issue among the instrumental orientation attributed to English is clearly job opportunities since the beginning of the 90s (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998; König, 1990). For example, Dogancay-Aktuna (1998) investigated the value of English in the job market in a survey that involves 773 job vacancies in 419 advertisements. The results display that 22 % of the advertisements are in English (n=91) with the aim of eliminating the candidates who do not know English. 426 of the job advertisements required an advanced level of English, which shows us the value of English for better job opportunities during the 90s. Yet, the situation in the country is still the same today favouring English language knowledge for the job market. A recent example states that more than half of the job advertisements require knowledge of a foreign language, primarily English (Bingöl et al., 2019), which is an indicator for the exclusion of candidates without English language knowledge. In general, that is the reason why English is believed to represent better job opportunities in the Turkish job market and well-paid jobs (Bektaş-Çetinkaya & Oruç, 2010). Joining these studies, Kamasak and Ozbilgin (2021) also reported that English knowledge brings many national and international job opportunities in the Turkish context. Thus, it can be stated that positive attitudes towards English derive from the instrumental orientation, which mainly refers to the goals of getting well-paid jobs and better professional opportunities in the Turkish setting.

In addition to the studies investigating instrumental orientation and positive

attitudes toward English, König (2006) explored learners' attitudes with 39 Turkish undergraduate and graduate students from different universities in Ankara. They were all at either upper-intermediate or advanced level of proficiency in English (self-reported). Their second foreign languages were German, French, Italian and Spanish. The findings point to the fact that their instrumental orientation is very strong with the aims of getting a job, a better position and studying abroad. Interestingly, in terms of attitudes, while they have a favourable interest in foreign languages and favourable attitudes towards learning a foreign language, their attitudes towards the speakers of the target language are found to be neutral (König, 2006). From the perspective of university students, it is also understood that English has a positive effect in the process of learning an additional foreign language and is believed to bring successful professional life in Turkey.

In an attempt to explore factors affecting students' attitudes towards languages other than English, Akkus Çakir and Ünlü (2019) conducted a study with university students in the Turkish and American contexts. The researchers sampled a total of 316 university students, who enrolled in a second language course in Turkey and the USA. There were 261 participants from Turkey and 55 participants from the USA. According to research findings, in both countries, students have positive attitudes towards English as well as learning languages other than English. Their study provides us valuable insights into attitude variables since many researchers focus on the dominant position of English as a foreign language in attitude studies. There are considerable differences between the students in these two countries, namely Turkey and the USA, and the most important finding is the fact that Turkish students show less confidence in their language learning abilities when compared to their American peers. As pointed out in the study, part of their results seems to suggest that student-centred learning or communicative language teaching approaches are sometimes not effective in the Turkish education system as learning culture is seen as not supportive to develop students' confidence. They also mentioned that lack of self-confidence in language learning abilities might be related to cultural differences and differences in the education system of two countries. Yet, Akkus Çakir and Ünlü (2019) acknowledge that having English as L2 in the repertoire can be interpreted as bringing advantages for learning an additional foreign language and positive attitudes towards foreign languages.

Coşkun and Taşgın (2018) studied the attitudes of university students towards English courses at a state university in Turkey, which included students from faculties and vocational schools. The population of the research group in their study is similar to the participants in the present study involving bachelor and associate degree cohorts. It has been reported that there is no difference between degree cohorts and attitudes towards English. The noteworthy finding

is that freshman year students have more positive attitudes than other students and it has been interpreted as enthusiasm for English and awareness of the importance of English language knowledge for their future starting from the first day of university education (Coşkun & Taşgın, 2018).

Another study, which is approaching language attitudes from tertiary level students' perspective, is that of Demirbulak (2011), who conducted a survey investigating perceptions about the English language, proficiency levels, and the future of the native language among 350 sophomore students in Turkey. The research findings present that the English language is believed to be very important as being a world language and high proficiency levels are highly desired among students. Another interesting issue that emerged from her findings is that many students think that the Turkish language is under the threat of being deteriorated, not blaming English in this case; therefore, they regard a foreign language as a negative impact on their national and cultural identity. Self-development, and becoming a good citizen are seen to be achievable via Turkish since they attribute high values to their L1.

In one of the rare studies conducted with both bachelor degree and associate degree students, Binbasioglu and Sad (2019) analysed Turkish tourism students' attitudes in terms of International Posture. Interestingly, two-year vocational school students have significant positive results in terms of an attitude towards the international community and communication with international people than their four-year undergraduate counterparts. Their study also suggests that both groups are moderately connected to the international community and have moderate attitudes towards interacting with people in a language other than Turkish. However, they found out that the proficiency level variable has a reverse interaction with international posture level, especially in the German language rather than English. This means that low proficiency in language levels increases the tendency to avoid international communication among tourism students no matter how high their international posture levels and their positive attitudes are. Similarly, Köksal and Tercan (2019) questioned Turkish students' International Posture with the participants studying at the department of English language teaching in a state university. Their findings revealed that the students, who have high International Posture level, possess positive attitudes towards English as a medium of instruction. Both studies including Binbasioglu and Sad (2019) and Köksal and Tercan (2019) concluded that fostering students' International Posture is primarily crucial in terms of creating positive attitudes toward languages and thus, curriculums should be adapted in order to raise awareness towards international communities and cultures.

Apart from the arguments and findings mentioned above, some researchers unveil the factors related to language attitudes. A comprehensive review of lit-

erature points to the importance of the academic discipline students study and their conclusion is that students' attitudes vary from one field to another (Akay & Toraman, 2015; Genc & Aydin, 2017; Gömleksiz, 2010). Their statistically significant results show that the positive attitudes toward English differ considering participants' academic disciplines.

Additionally, university students' attitudes were examined in terms of variables such as gender, proficiency level and high school type (Karataş et al., 2016). They reported no significant difference between these variables and students' attitudes. However, unlike this study, a great number of studies in Turkey investigated the relationship between attitudes and demographic values such as age, and gender variables and found significant differences.

Some studies were conducted in order to closely investigate the age factor. Özer and Yılmaz (2016) reported that age is a significant factor and the older the students get, the more positive their attitudes towards English become. Likewise, Akgöz and Gürsoy (2014) found a significant difference between the age groups of students and stated that 23-25-year-old students have more positive attitudes than 17-19-year-old students. Tetik (2016) discovered a link between age and attitudes and concluded that students may have more experience and self-efficacy in handling classroom dialogues as they get older; thus, they appear to have more positive attitudes than younger students in the study.

Gender is another factor that influences attitudes towards English. Despite the fact that many studies demonstrate the effect of gender on students' attitudes, the findings are still inconsistent considering the Turkish context. In some studies, females have often been reported to have more positive attitudes (Gömleksiz, 2010; Karahan, 2007). On the contrary, male students have more favourable attitudes than female students according to a study by Tetik (2016). However, there are some other studies reporting no significant difference in terms of gender and attitudes (Akay & Toraman, 2015; Kiziltan & Atli, 2013).

In summary, as this section has shown, studies related to the attitudes towards English in the Turkish context contribute to the understanding of learners' attitudes, factors affecting language attitudes and the reasons triggering specific attitude types concerning positive and negative attitudes. The findings of the studies conducted in Turkey highlight instrumental orientation that could be regarded as a reference for developing positive attitudes towards the English language. Students in these studies have been characterized as having positive attitudes due to better job or life related opportunities. Nevertheless, there are several studies pointing out that linguistic nationalism may be the factor in prioritizing the mother tongue over foreign languages. The outcomes of these studies indicate the negative impact of English supremacy on national identity

and culture. From a language attitude perspective, the findings related to linguistic nationalism show that negative language attitudes are assumed to be in relation to being against this English supremacy. Lastly, the outcomes related to the relationship between attitudes and demographic variables, including age and gender underline the importance of taking the age variable into account in language attitude studies, while findings related to the gender variable seem to suggest the need for further research.

7 Methodology

The following chapter discusses the methodology of the empirical study to provide details about the research design, participants, the data collection procedure, and the data analysis. After introducing and discussing the linguistic and sociolinguistic background of the Turkish context in the literature review chapter, the research design is presented by briefly summarizing the key points with the outline of research questions (see section 7.1). Following the research design, detailed information about the participants who took part in the study is provided (see section 7.2). Then, the related methodology is explained to better understand the study by including means of data collection (see section 7.3). The current study consists of two data collection tools: one is for qualitative data and the other for quantitative data. The data collection instruments and steps have been presented in section 7.3.1. Finally, the basis of the data analyses is provided, including both quantitative and qualitative data (see section 7.4).

7.1 Research Design

As already shown in the literature review chapter, numerous issues need to be addressed in the Turkish context regarding multilingualism, proficiency levels, and attitudes toward Turkish and English. Having carefully reflected on the Turkish context, the assertions mentioned in the literature review part of the present study are expressed with five interrelated research questions as shown in Table 7.1. To answer these research questions, the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods known as mixed-methods research was selected due to mixing data collection methods in one frame of a single study after specifying the needs for the present research. Combining data collection methods seems to be a well-established approach for the purpose of the present study where we constructed the sequential explanatory mixed-methods design (Creswell et al., 2003). Figure 7.1 provides an overview of this research design.

Sequential explanatory design "focuses on collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies" (Creswell & Clark, 2007: 5). In this research design, it is generally believed that

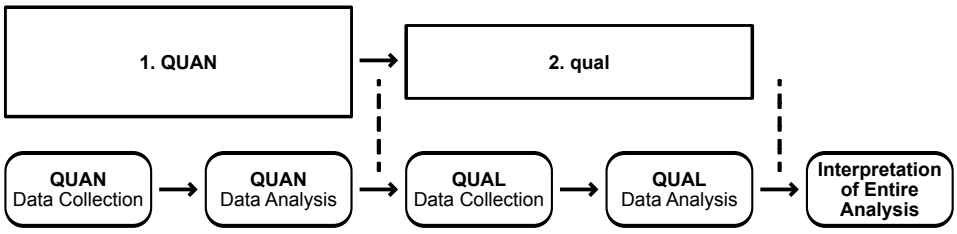


Figure 7.1: Sequential Explanatory Design (adapted from Creswell et al., 2003)

various datasets should be mixed to have a complete picture of the problem instead of the datasets presented alone. According to Creswell (2014), the sequential explanatory method is needed when the researcher wants to collect and analyze the quantitative data in the first place while using qualitative data to understand the quantitative results. A qualitative dataset plays a secondary role within the current research design as the research is, primarily, quantitatively driven.

In the present study, two steps were followed sequentially in the data collection and analysis process to explore the current research questions. The qualitative part (semi-structured interviews) was included to enhance the quantitative aspect (online questionnaire). What makes the current study an explanatory sequential design was the time frames of collecting two different data types. The final stage of the research comprised of quantitative and qualitative data results followed by the interpretation of the entire analysis to explain the relationships found according to the results obtained. The research design of the current study has been outlined in Table 7.1.

As the research design shows in Table 7.1, two steps were followed sequentially according to the research questions to draw a complete picture of the current research phenomenon. The study was conducted at two Turkish state universities: Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University. Prior to commencing the study, consent form was sought from all participants, and all the work for quantitative data collection was carried out using an online questionnaire platform using SosciSurvey with its interactive design (SosciSurvey Version 3.1.06). This interactive design enabled participants to be presented with a set of detailed questions establishing four main parts: a general language background profile, a language use profile, an educational and socioeconomic profile and a language attitude profile. Due to the interactive nature, participants were only asked follow-up questions if their answers required more information. In the end, subjects were presented with up to 70 questions based on their responses. The design of the questionnaires was based on the adapted version of Leimgruber et al. (2018) and Siemund et al. (2014, 2021).

Once the questionnaires were completed, semi-structured face-to-face interviews were conducted with 48 university students, who voluntarily took part

Table 7.1: Research Design of the Study

	Research Question	Data Collection	Data Analysis
1	How widespread is multilingualism in Turkey among university students in relation to their degrees?	Online Survey (quantitative data)	Quantitative Analysis
2	Is there a relationship between the extent of multilingualism and university students' self-reported language proficiency in Turkey?	Online Survey (quantitative data)	Quantitative Analysis
3	What are the attitudes of students towards English contrasting the two different degrees?	Online Survey (Likert scale statements), Semi-structured Interviews	Quantitative Analysis, Interview Data Discourse Analysis
4	What are the major linguistic patterns found among university students in Turkey? (Bilingualism or multilingualism)	Online Survey (quantitative data)	Quantitative Analysis
5	What are the perceived benefits of being a multilingual speaker of English as a lingua franca compared to a monolingual speaker from the perspective of university students in Turkey?	Semi-structured Interviews	Interview Data Discourse Analysis

in the interviews to contribute to the depth of the study. In this follow-up phase, participants were asked 52 open-ended questions depending on their language repertoires. In other words, for the qualitative phase of the study, another research instrument was designed on the basis of an earlier study of Siemund et al. (2021) (see section 7.3.4 for the detailed information on the qualitative data collection instrument).

Further information is given in the following sections about the details of the setting and participants of the study, data collection, data collection instruments, and analysis procedure.

7.2 Research Setting and Participants

The current study consisted of university students enrolled in bachelor and associate degree programs at two higher education institutions across Turkey. These tertiary education institutions are Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University, which are state universities located in northwest Turkey. After explaining the reasons for choosing these two universities for the current study in section 7.2.1, the difference between bachelor and associate degree programs in the Turkish higher education system will be covered in the next section 7.2.2. Furthermore,

the demographic profiles of the research sample are presented to make the participants' profiles clearer.

7.2.1 The settings of the present study

As mentioned previously, the research was carried out in two Turkish tertiary education institutions. The detailed background information about each higher education institution is presented below.

Firstly, Bursa Uludağ University, according to the university's official website[1], was established in 1975 and has developed into its current situation since 1975. It has 15 faculties offering bachelor degrees, 15 vocational schools offering associate degrees, one conservatory, four institutes, and 21 applied research centres. It is the first university opened in the city of Bursa. Until 2010, when a technical university was established, it used to be the big and only one in the whole town. According to updated statistical information on CoHE's website[2], it has 40.340 bachelor students and 20.266 associate students.

Secondly, further research participants were the students studying at İstanbul University. This university was the first higher education institution with the name Darülfünun during the Ottoman era; as mentioned earlier, it was founded in 1453 (see section 3.4.2). With the university reform in the Republican period, it was established with its new name as İstanbul University on August 1, 1933, as the first and only university in that era. During those times, scientists who escaped from Germany played an essential role in establishing the university. This pioneering tertiary education institution has provided significant results with its unique academic background and academic culture survived until today (Yolcu, 2011). Due to its notable academic performance nationwide and worldwide, it is ranked among the top universities. Presently, it has 20 faculties offering bachelor degrees, 8 vocational schools offering associate degrees, one conservatory, 16 institutes and 61 applied research centers. Including the distance education and open university programs offered by İstanbul University, there are 141.846 associate degree and 369.275 bachelor degree students as presented on CoHE's website[2].

Furthermore, these particular university students in the present study can give us a better understanding of the inter-group heterogeneity in Turkey since these two higher education institutions attract many successful students from all around the country and many international students from all around the world. According to the recent report by CoHE (2021), both universities represent a good

[1] https://www.uludag.edu.tr
[2] https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr

profile in terms of internationalization with the courses offered and the popularity among international students. In other words, İstanbul University has the first place, and Bursa Uludağ University has the fifth place in a list that shows the internationalization of higher education institutions in Turkey (CoHE, 2021).

Currently, İstanbul is the biggest metropolitan city in Turkey. It was chosen as the study site since it is also most densely populated by international university students. Thus, it is believed to be a good reflection of the university population in Turkey's context. The second city in the present study, Bursa, is the fifth biggest city where the industry is very well developed. It also attracts many internal immigrants and students from other parts of Turkey. Both cities have great opportunities considering the life standards of university students. The university students in these two higher education environments come from different country regions and are likely to represent different backgrounds. However, each group is supposed to have been exposed to western principles during their university education as residents of metropolitan cities with the qualities mentioned above.

Most importantly, similar academic competencies can be observed among students when two institutions are analyzed separately. There is one central university entrance exam in the Turkish higher education system, confirming that the students have similar academic backgrounds and competencies for the relevant universities they want to attend. Since these two institutions have very similar admission requirements, students are assumed to possess nearly the same academic qualifications, which is an important detail regarding the research setting and participants' background.

Last but not least, the most visible reason is the quality of education offered by these two universities. This means that these students can be potential candidates for the global job market. As both universities claim to provide 21st-century skills such as critical thinking and problem-solving according to global higher education standards, their students are also expected to establish themselves through internships and language courses during their university years to become highly sought-after professionals in the globalization era.

This subsection gave an overview of the two research settings (e.g. Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University). After reviewing the setting, the following subsection focuses on participants of the study.

7.2.2 Overview of participants

Before describing the demographic characteristics of the participants, this subsection offers an explanation for the degree types, which are central to the current study.

Concerning the study cohorts, participants were recruited from two study cohorts based on the higher education system in Turkey: bachelor and associate degree study cohorts. A bachelor's degree takes four years or eight semesters and according to the Turkish Council of Higher Education (2019: 9) report, it was defined as a higher education institution "mainly concerned with providing instruction for a specific profession". Regarding academic disciplines, bachelor study offers many career advantages such as becoming highly skilled professionals in the field of education, medicine, and law (e.g. doctors, lawyers, and teachers) after obtaining a bachelor's degree. Thus, these bachelor degree majors typically include various faculties such as the Faculty of Education, Faculty of Engineering and Faculty of Letters etc. In bachelor study programs, the only faculty which lasts for six years is the Faculty of Medicine, while another exceptional faculty requiring longer study time is the Faculty of Veterinary Sciences with five-year education. As an added advantage, these disciplines in bachelor degree have the most diverse study programs many of which are highly paid and prestigious professions in Turkey.

Another study group of students belongs to the associate degree study cohort in the present study. The expected length of completing this degree program is two years or four semesters. These two-year programs are offered by Post-Secondary Vocational Schools connected to the universities. Turkish Council of Higher Education (2019: 9) reported that these institutions aim to train "human capacity in specific professions and provide instruction lasting four semesters". The specific program names are Vocational School of Technical Sciences, Social Sciences and Health Services. These vocational schools aim to supply the need of service sectors for the qualified workforce with contemporary vocational expertise.

Having reviewed the participants' study cohorts, a further explanation should be given to the description of the demographic characteristics. The sample was representative with respect to gender, and age and included 329 students from Bursa Uludağ University, while another sample from İstanbul university consisted of 259 students. This is, in several respects, a considerable number of participants because purposive sampling was used to ensure the significant impact our findings have on the population. A major advantage of purposive sampling is that researchers can select the participants who "can provide rich

and varied insights into the phenomenon under investigation so as to maximize what we can learn" (Dörnyei, 2007: 126). Indeed, these numbers in the present study represent the participants studying at both degree programs including faculties and post-secondary vocational schools, which leads to more precise research results.

Of the initial cohort of 329 participants from Bursa Uludağ University, 219 were female (67 %) and 110 were male (33 %). The participants of İstanbul university comprised a sample of 259 students, 176 females (68 %) and 83 males (32 %). These represent the total number of female and male informants involving two study cohorts and the participants' demographic details from the bachelor and associate degree programs are given in Table 7.2 for Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University.

The average age of the participants, who were between 18 and 40 years old, was 22.04 for Bursa Uludağ University and 22.42 for İstanbul University. In addition to the age variable, according to their degree types, 381 were enrolled in bachelor degree programs, while 207 were enrolled in associate degree programs. The distribution of age and gender is given in detail in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2: Demographic Characteristics of the Participants from Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University

		Bursa Uludağ University		**İstanbul University**	
		f	%	*f*	%
Age	20-25	303	92.10	239	92.28
	25-30	17	5.17	10	3.86
	30-35	5	1.52	6	2.31
	35-40	4	1.22	4	1.54
	Total	329	100.0	259	100.0
Gender	Female	219	67	176	68
	Male	110	33	83	32
	Total	329	100.0	259	100.0

Although the present study included Turkish universities and was conducted in Turkey, we can, still, see that in addition to the Turkish participants, a considerable number of participants came from different nationalities across the globe (Table 7.3 and Table 7.4). Looking at the nationality variable closely, we can see that Turkish participants are the majority at Bursa Uludağ University (n=301) compared to Turkish participants from İstanbul University (n=239). In terms of citizenship, the top seven countries after Turkey are Turkmenistan (n=6), Bulgaria (n=6), Germany (n=4), Azerbaijan (n=3), Macedonia (n=2), Syria (n=2),

Serbia (n=2) and Greece (n=2) in the present study context. In addition to these countries, the other countries are represented individually, as can be seen in Table 7.3 and Table 7.4. Those countries are Algeria (n=1), Andorra (n=1), Burundi (n=1), Iran (n=1), Tunisia (n=1) and Russia (n=1). Europe was represented by several participants from the countries mentioned above, followed by the Netherlands (n=1) and Austria (n=1). Among these, the least represented setting in the present study is Asian countries, including South Korea (n=1) and Malaysia (n=1). Turkish participants are reasonably overrepresented at both higher education institutions.

Table 7.3: Citizenship data of Bachelor degree cohorts of Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University

Bursa Uludağ University		**İstanbul University**	
Country	n	Country	n
Afghanistan	1	Azerbaijan	2
Algeria	1	Bulgaria	3
Andorra	1	South Korea	1
Austria	1	Macedonia	1
Bulgaria	2	Malaysia	1
Burundi	1	Serbia	2
Germany	4	Syria	1
Greece	2	Tunisia	1
Iran	1	Turkey	188
Macedonia	1	Turkmenistan	4
Netherlands	1		
Syria	1		
Turkey	157		
Turkmenistan	1		

Table 7.4: Citizenship data of Associate degree cohorts of Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University

Bursa Uludağ University		**İstanbul University**	
Country	n	Country	n
Azerbaijan	1	Turkey	51
Bulgaria	1	Turkmenistan	1
Russia	1		
Turkey	144		

Furthermore, when we look at the fields of the studies represented in the

study, we can see different participants from various academic disciplines. In other words, the study departments are not completely alike at the sampled universities, which makes our data richer. The crucial matter that needs to be considered is that the historically known İstanbul University was split up into two universities in 2018. After the separation, there was only one vocational school left, and this is the Vocational School of Law, which is connected to the Faculty of Law at İstanbul University. To compare the participants' profiles better, the descriptive Table 7.5 and Table 7.6 for the academic disciplines have been designed for each university regarding degree types. Summing up, the participants' demographic profile results showed that many participants (n=588) varied regarding their gender, age, citizenship, pursued degree and academic discipline.

Table 7.5: Degree Programs of the Participants from Bursa Uludağ University

College/Faculty	**Bachelor Degree**		**Associate Degree**	
	n	%	n	%
Faculty of Education	21	11.90	-	-
Faculty of Arts and Sciences	23	13.10	-	-
Faculty of Law	32	18.20	-	-
Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences	8	4.50	-	-
Faculty of Theology	7	4.00	-	-
İnegöl Faculty of Business Administration	1	0.60	-	-
Faculty of Medicine	1	0.60	-	-
Faculty of Engineering	26	14.80	-	-
Faculty of Agriculture	22	12.50	-	-
Faculty of Veterinary Medicine	31	17.60	-	-
Faculty of Sports Sciences	3	1,70	-	-
School of Health	1	0.60	-	-
Faculty of Agriculture	1	0.60	-	-
İznik Vocational School	-	-	2	1.30
Vocational School of Health Services	-	-	1	0.70
Vocational School of Social Sciences	-	-	96	62.70
Vocational School of Technical Sciences	-	-	1	0.70
Vocational School of Yenişehir	-	-	37	24.20
Vocational School of Gemlik	-	-	15	9.80
Total	177	100	152	100

If we look at the academic disciplines briefly, the faculties are the Faculty of Education, Arts and Sciences, Law, Economics and Administrative Sciences, Theology, Medicine, Engineering, Architecture, Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine at Bursa Uludağ University. Additionally, the associate degree departments are the School of Sport Sciences, Health, Social and Technical Sciences. Counting them all, we have 177 bachelor degree and 152 associate degree students from Bursa Uludağ University.

Table 7.6: Degree Programs of the Participants from İstanbul University

College/Faculty	Bachelor Degree		Associate Degree	
	n	%	n	%
Faculty of Letters	162	79.40	-	-
Faculty of Law	31	15.20	-	-
Faculty of Business Administration	4	2	-	-
Faculty of Medicine	5	2.50	-	-
Faculty of Economics	1	0.50	-	-
Faculty of Pharmacy	1	0.50	-	-
Vocational School of Law	-	-	55	100
Total	204	100	55	100

The analysis for İstanbul University revealed that bachelor degree faculties are the Faculty of Letters, Law, Business Administration, Medicine, Economics and Pharmacy. There is only one associate degree level vocational school at İstanbul University. As earlier, it was mentioned that the historical university was split into another university in 2018, which is exactly one year earlier than the data collection process of the present study. Therefore, the only associate degree level is Vocational School of Law at İstanbul University. In sum, we have 204 bachelor degree and 55 associate degree students from İstanbul University.

In the end, the present study seems to guarantee the generalizability of the results found in the analyses to be able to claim that the representation of Turkish universities has been achieved with the significant number of participants and their diverse backgrounds. The next subsection explains the data collection process of the current study.

7.3 Data Collection

In the present study, two research instruments were utilized for the data collection process: an online survey and semi-structured interviews, which are discussed in detail in the subsequent sections. Firstly, each stage of the data collection process has been presented before we introduce the research instruments (see section 7.3.1) and the process of adapting the online questionnaire (see section 7.3.2). Secondly, the process for researching each higher education institution has been covered, starting with obtaining official permission papers from both universities to ethical issues (see section 7.3.3). Thirdly, the steps of collecting the data via the online survey and then moving to semi-structured interviews are provided (see section 7.3.4). This has been done to picture the data collection procedure and offer a methodological model for further research.

Taken together, four significant steps are grouped and listed for the data collection in the current study:

1. Preliminary decisions about the research instrument and the research setting
2. Adapting the online questionnaire, translation, and piloting
3. Multilingual questionnaire design and administration of online survey
4. Semi-structured interviews

7.3.1 Step 1:Preliminary Decisions about the Research Instrument and Research Settings

Like in many studies in social sciences, deciding your research instrument and research setting is crucial for the nature of the study. That is why preliminary decisions have to be made carefully by observing the study context or contexts from the previous studies. The researcher's familiarity with the online data collection tools is also essential when the data comes mainly from online platforms.

For the present study, collecting the data online with an interactive questionnaire has three major advantages to mention. The first advantage of interactive questionnaire design is customizing the questionnaire for the respondents while skipping the irrelevant parts automatically. This was recognised in Rasinger's (2013) online questionnaire example (compare Rasinger, 2013: 64) for which the participants only had to provide extra information about their time spent abroad if they had been abroad. Similarly, in the current study, the participants were asked to provide additional information related to the specific questionnaire item only if required or only if further details were needed about the particular item. Otherwise, respondents were allowed to skip the details of the questions if they were irrelevant to their situation or background. Reader friendliness is the second thing achieved by online design and presenting participants with one question per page. During the completion of the questionnaire, there was a scale that showed how much a participant had progressed at the bottom of the screen. The third advantage of online questionnaire design is from the researcher's side since the digitalization of a large amount of data is relatively easy, and any potential errors can be minimised.

After realizing the advantages of online questionnaires for collecting data, it is essential to briefly explain the data collection instrument used in the present study. The participants filled in the digitalized version of the questionnaire used by Leimgruber et al. (2018) and Siemund et al. (2014, 2021), which had previously

been used among Singaporean university and polytechnic students and later in the context of the United Arab Emirates. The questionnaire was conducted using the computer software called SosciSurvey and was made available to participants via www.soscisurvey.de (Version 3.1.06).

In general, the online interactive questionnaires which are supposed to be prepared on SosciSurvey require coding background to design the final format of the questionnaire. Once the final form had been decided upon, the relevant changes regarding the research setting and questionnaire items were made on the SosciSurvey platform. Unlike the previous studies in Singapore and Dubai, in the present research, the online questionnaire was designed and coded in a bilingual format to reach more audiences from Turkey and get data also from international students regarding the international university settings in Turkey. The original questionnaire, previously carried out, was in English and was implemented in English-speaking country such as Singapore. However, using a bilingual questionnaire, we included Turkish students who may not have a high English proficiency to answer the questions. Hence, the questionnaire was also conducted in Turkish to increase students' participation and the richness of the data. Several steps were taken to minimize such language barriers for the bilingual adaptation of the online questionnaire. These steps will be explained in the next subsection.

7.3.2 Step 2: Adapting the Online Questionnaire, Translation and Piloting

After deciding that SosciSurvey is a valuable data collection tool that enables researchers with the data results synchronously and also gives a chance to view and download the data while implementing the survey, the online questionnaire was adapted in terms of faculty and college names to view the results in a broader picture. Therefore, two identical versions yet obviously tailored to the faculty and college names at Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University were required to obtain results. Two separate online questionnaire links were used, which was helpful for the analyses. In particular, two customized links were useful as some research questions required comparisons of two cities in terms of linguistic profiles and the descriptive data presentation separately.

To begin the questionnaire design process, the main issue was the college and faculty names that differ at two higher education institutions. It is worth emphasizing the fact, which was explained previously in the section of the overview of participants (see section 7.2.2), that İstanbul University was split up in the summer of 2018 and continued its education with the faculty and departments

remained under the same roof. Therefore, traditional İstanbul University with degree programs that are left was considered for the present study.

The data for the degree programs was obtained from the student affairs of each university to get the current names of the colleges and faculties. Accordingly, the coding and relevant adaptations were then made in the online questionnaire with the faculty and college names given. The name of the study program connected to the faculties, such as types of engineering, was an open-ended section and was supposed to be filled by each participant manually.

In the meantime, the student affairs records were also helpful to design the questionnaire's language profile part. This section of the questionnaire, unlike the original questionnaire, which had some other minority group languages spoken in Singapore and Dubai, had to be adapted according to the language profile of international students studying at Turkish universities. Interestingly, the language data reported from the student affairs of each university was almost similar to each other in terms of the countries of international students studying in Bursa and İstanbul. From the data related to the countries where students come from, Arabic speakers provided the highest number. Thus, the language option as a third foreign language was Arabic after Turkish being the first and English being the second. The other languages in the questionnaire were modified according to the numbers of the students' profiles provided by student affairs. Then, again, the order of language options was the same for the two universities after the Arabic language: Bulgarian, Azerbaijani, Turkmen, German, Albanian, Greek, Persian, French, Spanish, and Chinese.

On completion of the questionnaire design according to the Turkish university settings in terms of faculty names and language profiles, a questionnaire was required to be available in the Turkish version in addition to the original version, which is available only in English. Therefore, a Turkish version of the questionnaire needed to be created carefully to keep the original meaning of sentences in terms of demographic profiles, language profiles and language proficiency level questions and most notably regarding the attitude part of the questionnaire. As a researcher, I requested translation help from two colleagues who had degrees in translation studies and master degrees in English language teaching. The back-translation method was considered a superior method in that context (Kim & Lim, 1999). Later, the pretest methods were used to eliminate the translation errors (Brislin, 1970). The back-translation method means the initial translation of an item from a source language to the target language. It is then followed by another person's translation back into the source language without accessing the source item. Following the professional translations of questionnaire items from English to Turkish and backwards, I set myself as an expert to check for equivalence in the meaning. I, then, compared the two translations in the document

for identical versions. This process was repeated for some questions again and again until getting the exact translation from the two separate interpreters. The back-translation process was followed for every single question in the original questionnaire. The most crucial point in the translation method was to have the original meaning precisely in the same form as in the new Turkish version.

In the final stage of the translation process, the questionnaire had two language options and could be conducted in Turkish and English. The language barrier is believed to be eliminated in scientific work as highlighted by some researchers that it is highly significant to administer questionnaires in the respondents' first language (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Previously held studies in the Dubai and Singaporean settings, the study was conducted only in English as these countries could be good examples of English as a second language context. For the present study, it is considered that Turkish students should access the online questionnaire in their mother tongue. At the same time, the English version can be an option for international participants. When the final version of the questionnaire was ready after the last translations and the relevant coding of the multilingual online questionnaire on the SosciSurvey, composing the questionnaire part was completed.

Following the translation process, the online questionnaire was ready for data collection, but still, it had to be piloted first for some technical problems that might be related to the reliability issues. In order to increase the validity and reliability of the research instrument, the online questionnaire was piloted during teaching hours with the university students studying at Bursa Uludağ University to determine the technical problems and identify the missing items in the online questionnaire design. After careful translation, this was also an implementation for the pretest step mentioned above. For this step, the participants of the pretest group should be the representatives of the research population in order to get feedback on the research instrument (Brislin, 1970).

For the piloting step, the inquiry for conducting the online questionnaire was limited to thirty preparatory year university students who resembled the target population in the present study and was also naturally out of the research context as the main targets were bachelor and associate degree study cohorts. In this piloting step, there were several points to determine earlier. Firstly, it was vital for specifying the clarity of translated versions of the questionnaire statements and the accessibility of the online platform SosciSurvey. After that, the length of answering time for the questionnaire was equally crucial for future planning of the data collection process. The final point was identifying the missing parts in terms of content and technical problems that appear on the screen while customizing the questions and answers for each participant in the piloting process. The

questionnaire design was interactive and required relevant information depending on the participants' background. It was a practical step to identify problems occurring from the technical perspective of online questionnaire design. Based on the students' feedback while answering the questions during the teaching hour, some parts were changed in terms of formatting and technical webpage errors. Also, some expressions were restated at the word level to avoid potential ambiguities that may arise after the translation. Further data collection process requires considering these points.

In the end, this piloting process proved to be fundamental for developing the current research plan, such as providing the potential participants with the estimated questionnaire completion time and other technical needs of the students to complete the online questionnaire. The primary participants' needs identified were proper internet connection, electronic devices such as laptops, smartphones or smart devices, and enough battery level for effective participation. These were the most critical observations from the researcher side as there would be more participants who would complete the questionnaire during the class hour of some voluntary professors and might have these problems. Later, for the implementation period, these precautions were taken into consideration in order to maximize the students' participation. The role of the online data collection as an analysis tool was also very effective since the online collected data could be viewed immediately after the time when participants submitted their answers and completed the questionnaire through the final page. To plan for the next data collection step, one could always check if you reached the desired number of participants for your study.

As a result, the piloting step helped in order to observe the challenges of conducting online research such as internet connection and battery problems of devices and also, it was helpful regarding the formulation of the online questionnaire content. After the feedback step, some minor adjustments were made before the questionnaire was distributed to the participants until its final form.

7.3.3 Step 3: Multilingual Questionnaire Design and Administration of Online Survey

In the present study, to present a broader picture about Turkey's linguistic context, the online questionnaire by Leimgruber et al. (2018) and Siemund et al. (2014, 2021) was adapted and also translated into Turkish in order to have broader data and more participants along with the English version of the original questionnaire (see Appendix A.4 for the adapted version of an online questionnaire by the main studies conducted in Singaporean and Emirati contexts). As mentioned in the

preceding sections, the online survey, used in Singapore and the United Arab Emirates previously, included four main sections. These four main sections were grouped under four categories: a general language background profile, a language use profile, an educational and socio-economic profile, and a language attitude profile. There are up to 70 questions in total depending on the participants' background and language repertoire, and interactively, these questions might request detailed information from bi- or multilingual participants about their language abilities. This subsection focuses on the questionnaire content.

Firstly, the online survey starts by asking for general demographic variables. These are about the year and country of birth, gender, and country of citizenship. Following this demographic information section, questions about university affiliation, the programme students were enrolled in, their year of study, and their Grade Point Average (GPA) were asked in the questionnaire. Essentially, these questions regarding the participants' academic life were customized and designed according to the faculty and vocational school names of each higher education institution in the present study.

Secondly, participants were required to state the languages they speak or understand from the given languages for the comprehensive language background questionnaire, and they were allowed to write the language they wanted to add in the 'other' section. Lastly, they were supposed to rank these languages stated in this comprehensive language background part. Following that part, they were asked to rate their estimated proficiency levels in each language, including all four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing according to a six-point self-assessment scale, mirroring the CEFR scales, ranging from very good to poor. The Turkish language has the first place, as it is the only official language in the country (Bear, 1985). In the end, the language options part included twelve different languages that participants could choose from, and these twelve languages were previously listed in section 7.3.2. In addition to these twelve language options, three options were left labelled under the title 'other'.

After rating their estimated proficiency levels in these four skills mentioned above, the respondents were asked to state how often they perform language-related activities such as listening to the radio, reading a newspaper, playing computer games, watching TV, writing e-mails or talking on their mobile phone according to the languages they had ranked previously. They could answer the frequency of activities questions up to their fourth language. For example, if the respondent was bilingual, the inquiries related to the frequency of activities would be about the participant's first and second language.

Moving to the next section of the questionnaire, which investigates the order and mode of acquisition of the languages learned, this part of the data collection

instrument explored the language(s) learned at home, studied in school, and other languages spoken. The interactive design also asked the details of language learning stories with the questions about at which age they acquired languages, and to what degree and with whom they use it. Additionally, to paint a clearer picture of the linguistic biography of the participants, the follow-up questions under this section requested information on the educational background, such as the age they started learning the specified language, the number of years of instruction they received, and the number of hours of instruction per week.

Moreover, the next part of the questionnaire relating to the language use profile of the participants was about in-depth information on the usage patterns according to the situation and speech partner. To gain valuable insights about the extent of multilingualism in everyday language use, a set of 16 questions were asked to identify the language use with family, friends who share or do not share the language profile of the participants, and language use in personal situations such as thinking alone, talking to themselves, dreaming, swearing, or counting.

In the questionnaire, there were also questions to collect information about the educational and socioeconomic profile of the participants in order to find out the relationship between the patterns of multilingualism, language use, and socioeconomic status. The educational profile section of the questionnaire was tailored toward the Turkish context, including a multiple-choice question about their educational journey from pre-school education to university. While adapting this part to the Turkish education system, a post-secondary vocational school option was added before the university level in the education journey to represent associate degree programs. Regarding the socioeconomic profile of the participants, there were questions about the type of housing the participants were brought up in and the educational and occupational background of their parents. These sections were designed to elicit information about the socioeconomic characteristics and the languages regarding the extent of multilingualism among university students.

Lastly, there were questions about the language attitude profile of the participants in the final part of the questionnaire. In this section, participants were asked to elaborate on the role of the Turkish and English languages in their daily lives. There were nine attitude statements for the English language, and the next set of nine attitude statements was related to the Turkish language. For this attitude part of the survey, the answers ranged from strong agreement to strong disagreement using a standard seven-point Likert scale. We aimed to gain more information about the attitudes of the participants concerning the English and Turkish languages.

Following all these planned steps, the two questionnaire links were created in

a bilingual version. On the one hand, one link was designed to collect the data from Bursa Uludağ University with its specific faculty and vocational school names. On the other hand, another link was created for İstanbul University according to its faculty and vocational school names. In this way, the researcher could compare and contrast the results from two institutions, see the data clearly, and separate the data from the two study cohorts at each university (i.e. bachelor degree and associate degree).

The official procedure to collect data from universities in Turkey required Institutional Review Board permission from each relevant institution. After the approval of the Institutional Review Board, the online questionnaire link was available to be shared via online platforms. For the link distribution, Student Affairs office of each university contacted the university students via university e-mails. Later, the research assistants working at the relevant faculties were contacted to share the link with as many students as possible and the department secretaries were willing to share the link again as a reminder. Additionally, the data were collected with the help of university professors and their relevant class hour was used for the data collection with some participants.

For the administrational process, ethical issues were taken into account responsibly as researchers should act carefully in any social science research with human participants. The respondents were informed about the purpose of the study, and that the data of their voluntary based participation would be protected. The researcher reassured the participants that they could feel free to withdraw at any time and the data would be available to the researcher and the supervisors of the study only.

To enlarge the number of participants and enrich the variety of the faculties and vocational schools in the study, I visited the two universities in Turkey to collect the data. The whole online data collection process started in February 2019 and lasted until the end of June 2019. In all these steps, the target population had their own time schedule to participate in the study except for those collected during class hours. In the end, after cleaning the data, there were 588 participants, who matched the criteria and took part in the current study.

7.3.4 Step 4: Semi-Structured Interviews

As the data collection procedure of the present study constituted of two phases, the second phase included contacting volunteers for the interviews to investigate in-depth data. Considering the semi-structured interview step, the participants were already informed about being a volunteer to participate in the interview process on the last page of the online questionnaire. That final page of the survey

asked the participants to write down their e-mail addresses if they consented to be contacted by the researcher. In return, 48 participants volunteered for the interviews. The participants were contacted face-to-face, and there was a recording session with each interviewee. Before the recordings, the participants were informed about the questions and the interview content depending on their language profile because the interview process took longer if the participant was a multilingual individual.

Semi-structured interview was chosen as a data collection instrument due to its several advantages. Firstly, the researcher has the control in semi-structured interviews and the participants provide reliable qualitative data since investigating in-depth data "allows the researcher to explore complex, contradictory, or counterintuitive matters" (Rubin & Rubin, 2005: 4). Secondly, this technique supported eliciting further information about the general language background profile of the students, their language use, their educational and socio-economic profile, and finally, their language attitudes towards Turkish and English languages. There were 52 questions in the interview process to contribute more to the collected data with these aims. Thirdly, this technique was preferable over a structured interview because the participants were assumed to have diverse linguistic backgrounds, various proficiency levels and potentially different educational and socioeconomic backgrounds.

The interview questions of the present study came from another research by Siemund et al. (2021), previously conducted at the University of Sharjah in 2019. The original questions were in English, and these interview questions were supposed to be adapted to the Turkish context, which required again the translation of the questions from English to Turkish. For the translation process, it was logical to follow the same process for the translation of the main online questionnaire. Therefore, the back-translation method was followed for this step to minimize the research instrument's errors. In the end, the Turkish version of the interview questions was ready for the online questionnaire respondents (see Appendix A.4 for the questionnaire).

When inviting participants for interviews, the research purpose was clearly explained. In addition, this issue was asked to the participants in the last section of the online survey whether they would like to volunteer for participation in the semi-structured interviews. For the interviews, the "convenience sampling" method was used. This method is a non-probability sampling method that relies on the data collected from the research population depending on the availability and accessibility of the research group members. 48 students were arranged from the respondents who showed interest in interviews mentioned on the last page of an online questionnaire. The aim was to contact all of them face-to-face while arranging appointments with the voluntary participants to record the interview

data. The eligibility of the participants at the time of interview data collection was the primary concern as the spring semester would come to an end also the final exams were about to start. Taking the number balance from two different study cohorts into consideration, including bachelor degree and associate degree programs, the interview data was collected with 48 interviewees from Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University (see Appendix A.3 for a full list of 48 interviewees in the study and their demographic data).

All interviews were conducted individually in a face-to-face meeting, and took between 20 minutes to 40 minutes per session depending on the participant's language repertoire and proficiency level. With monolingual participants, one interview session generally lasted 20 minutes. However, with the multilingual participants, it lasted up to 40 minutes as their language learning experiences were far greater than their monolingual peers. Additionally, we needed to discuss each foreign language ability in detail given the relevant question. All the sessions were audio-recorded with a smartphone to transcribe the data later for the analysis. The data transcriptions were done by the researcher to run qualitative data analyses.

For the results of the interview data analysis, it was crucial that the participants represent the exact constitution of the population based on an objective perspective to ensure the reliability of the present study. Hence, there were three main criteria such as gender, age and academic disciplines when choosing interview participants. Of 60 potential participants, who were sent invitations, 48 agreed to take part in the interviews. In the end, the interviews were carried out with 48 university students, the aim of which was to get an in-depth understanding of the specified issues presented in the data (see section 7.4.2 for the qualitative data analysis). There were 24 interviewees from Bursa Uludağ University and 24 interviewees from İstanbul University. Although the number of interviewees was equal across the two universities, the gender ratio of the interviewees was around 4 female speakers per 1 male speaker (38 female, 10 male). The majority of the interview participants were bachelor degree students (n=31), while the interviews with associate degree students consist of 17 participants. In view of language profile, a great majority of the interviewees (n=30) were bilingual speakers of Turkish and English. Appendix A.3 provides an overview of participants' language profiles in detail.

In this section, all the steps in the data collection process and the criteria for the selection of interviewees were explained to show the relative processes in a mixed-method study and for replication or the improvement of used techniques in any future research. The next section focuses on data analysis.

7.4 Data Analysis

We now turn our attention to analysing the data collected by the research methods described in section 7.3.3. Once the survey administration was completed, the SosciSurvey data was exported as an Excel file. Then, the data was cleaned to create a file that could be used in R for statistical analyses. Applying the mixed methods, initially, quantitative analyses were carried out, followed by qualitative data analyses (semi-structured interviews). After conducting the interviews, the data was transcribed, and the content analysis of interview transcriptions followed this. As a result, the sequential explanatory strategies were followed in this study, and through this method, quantitative and qualitative data were analysed separately. In the last phase, the results were combined to interpret the data analyses in Chapter 8. The following subsections present quantitative and qualitative analyses of the data.

7.4.1 Quantitative Analysis

The quantitative analysis was one of the two main analyses carried out in the study, and it was used for the online survey data. Firstly, the Shapiro-Wilk test was carried out to assess whether the variables have a normal distribution or not. According to the normality test results, the data was not normally distributed. Thus, the non-normal distribution of the data called for non-parametric tests. A Mann-Whitney U test was used for the comparisons of two groups, while a Kruskal- Wallis test was used for the comparisons of three groups. The relationship between discrete and continuous variables was examined using correlation analysis, and a Spearman correlation was computed for the correlation results. Moreover, for general language profile and language attitude sections of the questionnaire, variables were reported by employing descriptive statistics such as mean ± standard deviation (minimum:maximum) or median (minimum:maximum) values, as well as inferential statistics like Cronbach alpha coefficient. In order to perform statistical analyses, R programming was used and the bar plot designs were drawn with the help of R, as well as other visualizations in presenting the results. The significance level was set at $\alpha = 0.05$ for all results.

The quantitative analysis for the online survey mainly consisted of descriptive statistics for the participants' demographic characteristics, followed by the results of the extent of multilingualism found in each of the study cohorts (bachelor and associate degree). When presenting the languages spoken by students and the various language combinations found in the sample, it was essential

to use statistical tests for the analysis and use the numerical data and percentages to report the results which are presented regarding participants' age and gender, and also for language profiles, language counts and combinations. The bar plot designs were used, in particular, to display the results of language profile data. Additionally, the survey respondents' oral and literal proficiency levels were analyzed. In the same proficiency results, it was also aimed to find out the relationship between linguistic profiles and language proficiency levels with the help of descriptive mean values of self-reported proficiency levels.

For the last part of the online questionnaire, which involves the students' attitudes towards English and Turkish languages, the descriptive values of the Likert scale statements such as mean, median and standard deviation were calculated from the answers of the online survey participants. Furthermore, correlation analysis was used to determine the relationship between the attitude factor and the age variable. In order to investigate the significant differences between the groups in terms of gender and citizenship variables, non-parametric statistical tests were carried out. Finally, a horizontal bar plot design was used to illustrate the findings of the language attitudes. Chapter 8 presents the findings of the quantitative analysis in detail.

7.4.2 Content Analysis of the Qualitative Data

The second type of analysis was the content analysis of the qualitative data obtained from 48 students through semi-structured interviews. The analysis included the transcription process of the answers as the qualitative nature of the data required the employment of the content analysis. After carefully listening to the recordings and transcribing the interview data, the transcribed data was checked several times to obtain a general sense of information and carry out the content analysis (Creswell, 2014). During the content analysis, the emerging patterns were identified, such as ideas and interactions and then these ideas were organised into more coherent categories, such as the beauty and usefulness of the Turkish and English languages as well as the role of English and Turkish in respondents' personal and academic lives.

The recurring themes found were the direct result of the inductive coding process for the current analysis. There were no preset categories. A thematic organizational framework was created by coding the content of qualitative data as it was a progressive set of steps by sorting and defining the collected data (Glesne, 2016). After analyzing the qualitative data, some categories were arranged as subcategories, while several codes were formed to become a major theme. Nevertheless, all raw and coded data were revisited several times to avoid mismatches.

To produce an outline of the findings and provide insights to understand the quantitative data's statistical outcome, the themes' connections and comparisons were searched carefully. It is worth mentioning that we only included and reported the results of the qualitative findings relevant to the research questions in the present study rather than the entire qualitative data. In the end, there were two main themes: English and Turkish, and following these two main themes, the final categories were the following:

1) English language: English as a beautiful language, English as a useful language, the difficulty level of English, the advantage of other foreign language knowledge for learning English, the usefulness of English in relation to personal life, the usefulness of English in relation to an academic career, and the role of English in future life.

2) Turkish language: Turkish as a beautiful language, Turkish as a useful language, the usefulness of Turkish in relation to personal life, the usefulness of Turkish in relation to an academic career, and the role of Turkish in future life.

Taken together, the most crucial thing in a qualitative study is that the context and participants should be described clearly. In addition, a detailed description of the results is necessary to support the quantitative study results (see section 8.5 for qualitative data results). Finally, the quantitative and qualitative data results have been organized according to the relevant research question addressed in the discussion section.

7.4.3 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research design and provide an overview of participants' demographic characteristics and academic backgrounds. Additionally, the methodology of the current study by providing step-by-step details on the data collection and data analysis procedures is shown. In the following chapter, the results of the analyses will be presented based on the data related to the extent of multilingualism, proficiency levels and attitudes towards the English and Turkish languages.

8 Results

This chapter lays out the results of the current research, which aims to describe the findings contrasting two degree programs in the Turkish higher education system. The demographic characteristics, the extent of multilingualism, self-reported proficiency levels and language attitudes of the selected study cohorts, which include bachelor and associate degree levels, are examined. Additionally, the current section presents the languages university students are able to use and speak, and the various language combinations found in the sample while investigating the difference between the two study cohorts. With regard to various linguistic profiles, self-reported proficiency as well as the oral and literal proficiency levels of the participants in the reported languages are taken into account. Within these analyses, it is also aimed at understanding the attitudes toward the English and Turkish languages. In order to provide a broad picture of the results, the findings of the quantitative and qualitative data are presented respectively because the analyses of semi-structured interviews are expected to provide insights for the understanding of the statistical outcomes related to the quantitative data.

This analysis chapter includes four main sections: analyses of participants' demographic profiles, the extent of multilingualism, proficiency levels and language attitudes. The first part of the analysis includes the demographics of the participants in the study in order to provide a snapshot of the descriptive statistics related to the demographic profiles of university students, who participated in the online survey. This part of the demographic results also focuses on the educational and socioeconomic background of participants' families. Together, these demographic findings provide a general impression regarding the difference between two study cohorts and therefore, appear to be the basis for analyzing the quantitative data (see section 8.1).

The second part encompasses the findings of the analyses of languages spoken by the students, and the results of the extent of the multilingualism found in each degree group of participants (i. e. bachelor degree group and associate degree group). While the quantitative analysis presents the number of languages spoken and the details of the language combinations, both language profiles and language combinations draw a broad picture of the languages claimed to be

spoken to see the extent of multilingualism and linguistic repertoires of university students in the respective study cohort (see section 8.2). In addition to language profiles, students' self-reported proficiency levels are investigated and to obtain a holistic view of proficiency data, their oral and literal proficiency levels are considered at the same time (see section 8.3).

In section 8.4, the attitude results of the analyses illustrate participants' attitudes towards English and Turkish languages. Categorizing the two student cohorts, this attitude section examines informants' attitudes by analyzing and comparing the results of associate and bachelor degree students.

Largely analyzed through qualitative data, the final part of the result chapter concludes with a separate analysis of the data from face-to-face semi-structured interviews and presents the recurring themes in the interviews (see section 8.5).

8.1 Descriptive Results of Demographic Features of Participants

In this section of the results, participants' demographic features retrieved from the surveys of the current study are shown in detail. As mentioned earlier, the total number of subjects who participated in this research and completed the questionnaire is 588 university students studying at Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University. The respondents were asked to complete the demographic feature section in the online questionnaire as demographic variables such as gender and age are assumed to contribute to the richness of the research results in terms of language repertoires, proficiency levels in the reported languages and attitudes towards English and Turkish languages. In terms of age and gender, the distribution of the characteristics found in the research population is summarized in Figures 8.1 and 8.2.

These preliminary analyses of the demographic variables such as gender and age provide the information for the entire data that are analyzed in the remainder of this study. Before starting, the analysis of the quantitative data gathered through the online questionnaire shows that the frequency of participants considering gender is quite disparate and can be illustrated as follows: Figure 8.1 for Bursa Uludağ University and Figure 8.2 for İstanbul University.

To start with the gender variable, the results obtained from the data of Bursa Uludağ University show that 67 % ($n = 219$) of respondents in the current study are female, whereas 33 % ($n = 110$) of respondents are male. Turning to the demographic results of İstanbul University in terms of gender variable, 68 % ($n =$

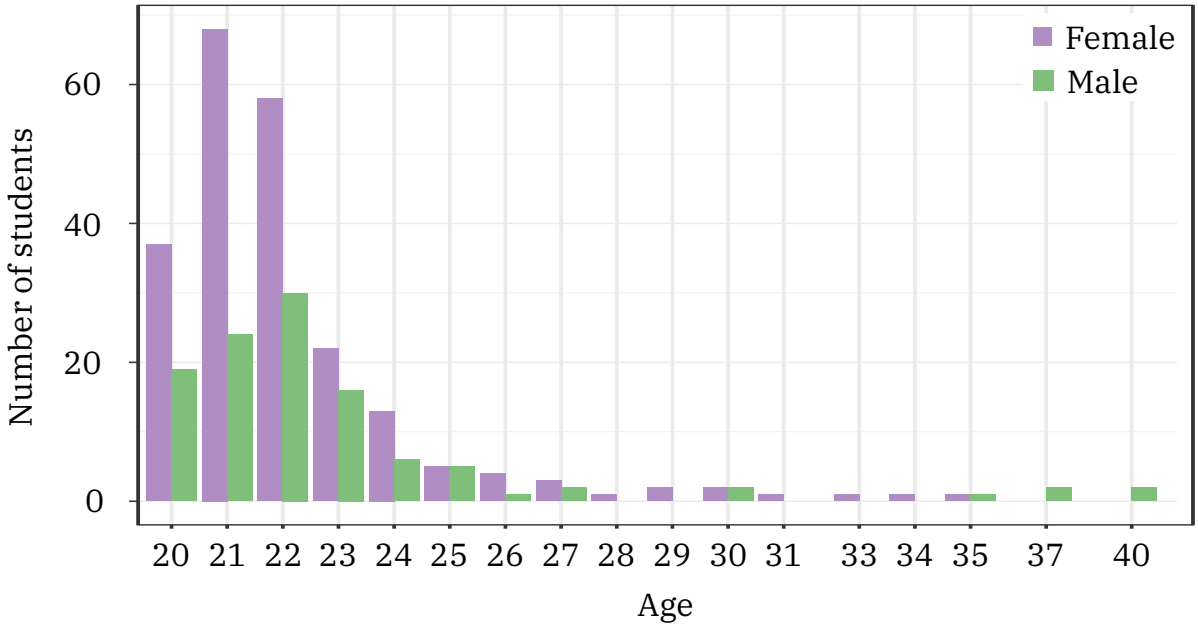


Figure 8.1: Demographics of *Bursa Uludağ University*

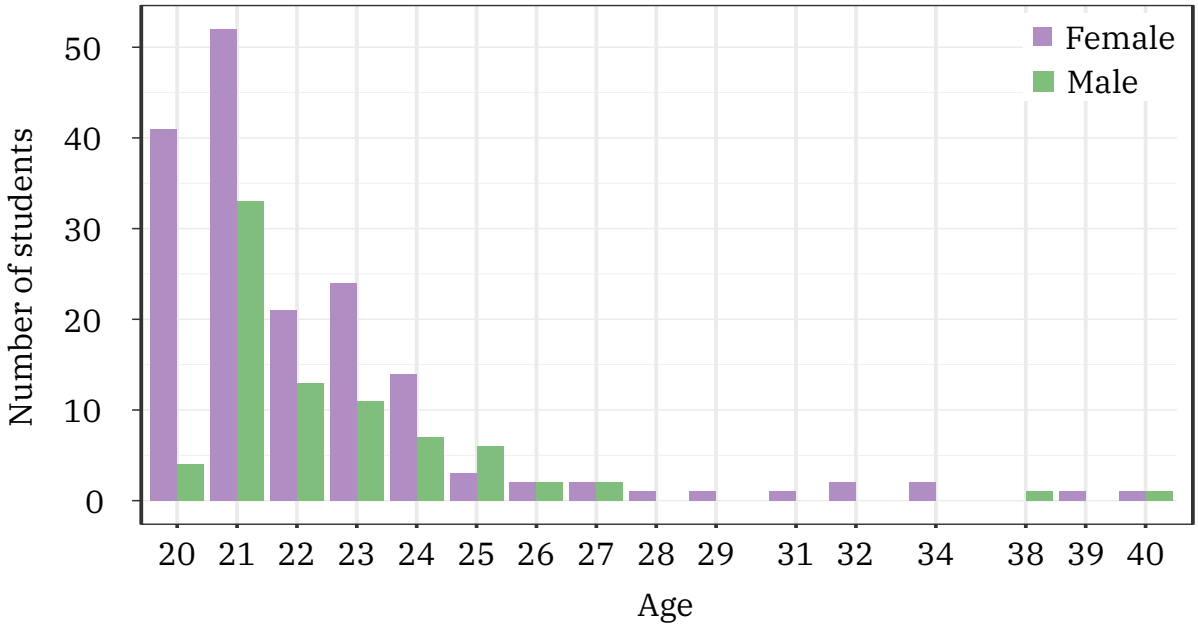


Figure 8.2: Demographics of *İstanbul University*

176) of students are female and 32 % ($n = 83$) of students are male. Furthermore, data from both higher education institutions suggest that the distribution per gender is not perfectly balanced and that we have significantly more female participants than male participants in the current study.

The second issue is the age variable which differs a lot as can be seen from an overview of the distribution per age and gender in Figure 8.1 and Figure 8.2. The ages of the respondents range from 20 to 40 years old in the present study. However, in Turkey, a great number of university students are between 18 and 24 years old, which is an indicative of the typical age period for tertiary level education in Turkey. The reason for this is that students generally follow their educational path toward university right after high school graduation. There is no gap year culture among teenagers, and also taking a break after high school graduation seems an unpopular trend. Additionally, the official statistical results on the Turkish Council of Higher Education webpage[1] confirm this age issue that the number of students is much higher in the age cohort between 18 and 24 than in other age cohorts for the year 2019 when the data collection of the current study took place.

Turning now to the age variable again, the results demonstrate that more than two-thirds of the participants belong to the age group under 23 years of age. Further detailed analysis in this regard of the age variable shows that the mean score is 22.04 ($SD = 2.974$) for Bursa Uludağ University, while it is 22.42 ($SD = 3.136$) for İstanbul University. In connection with these mean values, it becomes clearer that the age variable in the present study can be associated with the typical age range for higher education in Turkey. Concerning the age topic, the noteworthy thing to mention about the Turkish higher education system is that bachelor degree level studies involve four-year education unlike many European university-level study programs, which last for three years. In Turkey, the common university education takes place right after high school graduation, which refers to the age of 18 and the ideal university graduation age is around 23.

However, comparing the analyses of two higher education institutions, it can be seen that 92.10 % of participants, a remarkable percentage, are between 20-25 ($n = 303$) and following that number, 25-30-year-old group is in the second place with 5.17 % of respondents ($n = 17$). Then it is a 30-35-year-old group that has a relatively lower number and involves 1.52 % ($n = 5$) of the participants. The last age group is represented by 1.22 % ($n = 4$) of participants aged 35-40 according to the data of Bursa Uludağ University.

[1] https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/

Likewise, the data analysis of İstanbul University shows that a great number of participants 92.28 % ($n = 239$) are again between 20-25 years old. 3.86 % ($n = 10$) of participants are in the 25-30-year-old age group. Only 2.31 % ($n = 6$) of the participants belong to the 30-35-year-old age group, and 1.54 % ($n = 4$) of the respondents belong to the corresponding 35-40-year-old age group. In Chapter 7, a complete summary of the background of the participants on which the analyses are based can be found in the participants of the research section 7.2. In order to avoid repetition here, we only summarize the numerical values to explain Figures 8.1 and 8.2.

In general, the results of the age groups indicate that the majority of the participants in the current study are younger than 25 years old ($n = 542$). In terms of gender variable, we have more female participants than male participants. This overview of the data set is necessary because these demographic variables are also assumed to correlate with the wider outcomes in terms of linguistic profiles, the extent of multilingualism, and language attitudes. With these similar research objectives, the analysis would be incomplete without the descriptive results of the socio-cultural and socioeconomic background of the participants, which are presented in the following section.

8.1.1 Descriptive Results of the Educational and Socioeconomic Background of Participants

The sociocultural and socioeconomic backgrounds of the participants are taken as a factor in order to see their influence on the interpretation of the results. For this purpose, the socio-educational section of the questionnaire was categorized into four main groups as follows: university/college degree, high school degree, less than high school and no formal schooling. The participants were supposed to answer this question according to the educational background of their father and their mother. As part of the socioeconomic background section, participants were asked to share information related to their parent's profession. It is thought that specific names of the professions given in the online questionnaire would provide valuable data to identify the most frequent professions. Therefore, questions about the occupation of parents are categorized into seventeen main fields: Academia and Education, Agriculture, Architecture and Construction, Business, Business Owner, Culture and Art, Engineering, Finance, Government and Administration, Health Care and Nursing, Information Technology, Legal, Management, Media and Journalism, Self-employed, Service Sector and under the title of 'other'. In the following subsections, the results are presented according to the

educational background of the parents and also the professions of the parents considering degree cohorts.

8.1.1.a Educational Background of the Family

This subsection focuses on the educational background with the degrees given in the online questionnaire. These were university/college and high school degrees, and following the educational ranks, there were two more options represented by less than high school and no formal schooling in the online questionnaire.

From the data related to Bursa Uludağ University, Table 8.1 provides an overview of the educational data of parents. According to the outcomes, university/college graduation of the father is reported by approximately 30 % of the bachelor students, of whom 31.3 % are fathers with high school graduation. The same level of education for the associate degree cohort is reported to be around 34.2 % for high school and 6.6 % for the university/college degree. We can also note considerable differences between the two cohorts that 53.9 % of fathers have less than a high school degree and 5.3 % of father have no formal education in the associate degree cohort, while the number is 35.8 % for less than a high school degree and 3.4 % for no formal schooling in the bachelor degree cohort.

As shown in Table 8.1, the bachelor degree group, again, reported slightly more different results than the associate degree group in terms of the education level of the mother. Almost 10 % of bachelor students reported that their mothers have no formal schooling and it is 41.5 % of mothers who have less than a high school degree. On the one hand, almost two-thirds of the mothers (32.2 %) have a high school degree; on the other hand, there are only 28 (16.4 %) mothers who have a university/college degree, as the bachelor degree data reveals. Moving on to the associate degree cohort, it can be seen from the analysis results that there are only 4 mothers with a university/college degree (2.7 %). A minority of mothers (20.4 %) have a high school degree, while a considerable number of mothers have less than a high school degree (66.7 %). Finally, mother with no formal schooling are represented by 10.2 %.

When analyzing the data of İstanbul University, almost one-third of the participants reported that their fathers have a university/college degree (31.5 %), a high school degree (30 %) and less than high school graduation (33 %) in bachelor degree cohort. Additionally, fathers who do not have formal schooling include 5.4 % of the sample. Based on the results of the associate degree cohort, the bottom half of the Table 8.2 shows that 11.3 % of fathers have a university/college degree, while 30.2 % of fathers have a high school degree. It is also apparent from

Table 8.1: Frequency overview of parents' education background of *bachelor degree* and *associate degree* cohorts at *Bursa Uludağ University*

		father		**mother**	
		f	%	*f*	%
Bachelor Degree	no formal schooling	6	3.4	17	9.9
	less than high school	63	35.8	71	41.5
	high school degree	55	31.3	55	32.2
	university/college degree	52	29.5	28	16.4
	Total	176	100.0	171	100.0
Associate Degree	no formal schooling	8	5.3	15	10.2
	less than high school	82	53.9	98	66.7
	high school degree	52	34.2	30	20.4
	university/college degree	10	6.6	4	2.7
	Total	152	100.0	147	100.0

Table 8.2 that 58.5 % of fathers are in the group of less than high school graduates. Interestingly, none of the participants has fathers with no formal schooling according to the data of the associate degree cohort.

Regarding mothers' education at the bachelor degree level of İstanbul University, closer inspection of Table 8.2 shows that 22.7 % of mothers have a university/college degree and following this, almost one-third of mothers (28.3 %) own a high school degree. The rest of the mothers have less than a high school degree (41.9 %) or no formal schooling (7.1 %). Of the mothers at the associate degree level of İstanbul University, 7.7 % of mothers have a university/college degree and 25 % of them have a high school degree. What is interesting about the data in this table is that 63.5 % of mothers have less than high school graduation. This is a surprising outcome that a considerable number of mothers seem not to have a strong educational background including the mothers in no formal schooling group (3.8 %).

The results obtained from the analysis of the educational background of the parents provide us with information about the numbers and percentages in detail. In addition, the findings show that the education levels, including father and mother, appear to be higher at bachelor degree level since the university/college and high school education rates are slightly higher. Consequently, the general overview reveals the most surprising aspect of the data that the educational history is parallel in the entire data considering the educational background of the mother. In other words, mothers appear to be less educated than the fathers in the current study.

As mentioned previously, it is assumed that the educational background of

Table 8.2: Frequency overview of parents' education background of *bachelor degree* and *associate degree* cohorts at *İstanbul University*

		father		**mother**	
		f	%	*f*	%
Bachelor Degree	no formal schooling	11	5.4	14	7.1
	less than high school	67	33.0	83	41.9
	high school degree	61	30.0	56	28.3
	university/college degree	64	31.5	45	22.7
	Total	203	100.0	198	100.0
Associate Degree	no formal schooling	0	0.0	2	3.8
	less than high school	31	58.5	33	63.5
	high school degree	16	30.2	13	25.0
	university/college degree	6	11.3	4	7.7
	Total	53	100.0	52	100.0

the family may influence our interpretation of the results since the educational attainment of parents is likely to bring significant findings that can be used as the main core of the objective comparisons of assessing students' language profiles. Therefore, it has been hypothesized that there might be an observable gap in terms of the extent of multilingualism contrasting two study cohorts, which might partly be related to educational attainment of the parents.

Having presented the educational background of participants' parents regarding both datasets (i. e. Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University), it is worth mentioning the findings of correlation results regarding the educational background dataset. A Spearman's correlation analysis was performed to examine whether the number of languages students speak has a relationship with educational background of the parents. With regard to the findings of Bursa Uludağ University, the results of Spearman's correlation analysis are statistically significant for the educational background of the mother ($r = .136$, $p = .015$) and also, for the educational background of the father ($r = .161$, $p = .003$). Positive correlation outcomes indicate that higher levels of mother or father education seem to have an impact on the number of languages students know. In contrast, the correlation results are not significant for the father education regarding the results of İstanbul University ($r = .115$, $p = .067$). Interestingly, a different picture emerges when examining the correlation results of the data related to mother education ($r = .142$, $p = .024$). This time, the results are significant only for the educational background of the mother. That is, across the whole sample of İstan-

bul University, the number of languages students know is positively correlated with mother education, and no significant correlation was found between father education and the number of languages their children know. However, it seems possible that these findings reinforce the impression of parents' educational background as being an important variable in multilingual individuals and suggest a gradient in which more languages in the repertoire are associated with a stronger educational background in the family.

Taken together, these results lead us to the conclusion that the sample representing the bachelor degree cohort has more educated parents compared to the associate degree cohort. As far as the parents of the participants in this study are concerned, there appears to be a significant relationship between parents' educational background and the multilingual profiles of their children.

8.1.1.b Socioeconomic Background of the Family

The section related to family socioeconomic background asked the informants about the father and mother professions as the job categories were stated in the questionnaire, including 'other' section for the occupations that are not listed. In this subsection, the results are shown in the order of fathers' and mothers' occupation, respectively. Again, we, firstly, elaborate on the data results of Bursa Uludağ University and then the results of İstanbul University are shown.

Table 8.3 shows a frequency overview of parents' occupation data of bachelor and associate degree cohorts at Bursa Uludağ University. Regarding fathers' professions, 65 (38.0 %) fathers belong to the 'other' category and the most frequently mentioned professions for fathers are: self-employed (26.9 %), service sector (10.5 %), and academia and education (8.2 %) for bachelor degree cohort. According to the data of associate degree, 69 (46.3 %) fathers belong to the 'other' category, while 41 (27.5 %) are self-employed, and 16 (10.7 %) are in the service sector.

Concerning mothers' professions from the data of the bachelor degree cohort, Table 8.3 presents that 111 (65.7 %) mothers are in the 'other' category. Additionally, 16 (9.5 %) of them are in the service sector, 15 (8.9 %) are self-employed, and 10 (5.9 %) are in the field of academia and education. In terms of the results from the associate degree cohort, 107 (71.8 %) mothers are reported to be in the 'other' category, while the numbers decrease for other professions. There are 19 (12.8 %) mothers from the service sector, and 15 mothers (10.1 %) are self-employed.

Table 8.4 summarizes the findings related to professions of the parents from the data of İstanbul University. Considering bachelor degree, frequently selected

Table 8.3: Frequency overview of parents' occupation data of *bachelor degree* and *associate degree* cohorts at *Bursa Uludağ University*

	Bachelor Degree				**Associate Degree**			
	father		**mother**		**father**		**mother**	
	f	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
Academia and Education	14	8.2	10	5.9	1	0.7	-	-
Agriculture	5	2.9	2	1.2	6	4	1	0.7
Architecture and Construction	6	3.5	1	0.6	3	2	-	-
Business	3	1.8	-	-	3	2	1	0.7
Business Owner	7	4.1	3	1.8	8	5.4	2	1.3
Culture and Art	-	-	2	1.2	-	-	-	-
Engineering	4	2.3	1	0.6	1	0.7	-	-
Finance	1	0.6	2	1.2	-	-	-	-
Government and Administration	2	1.2	1	0.6	1	0.7	-	-
Health Care and Nursing	-	-	3	1.8	-	-	3	2
Legal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Management	-	-	2	1.2	-	-	1	0.7
Media and Journalism	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Self- Employed	46	26.9	15	8.9	41	27.5	15	10.1
Service Sector	18	10.5	16	9.5	16	10.7	19	12.8
Other	65	38	111	65.7	69	46.3	107	71.8
Total	171	100.0	169	100.0	149	100.0	149	100.0

occupations fall into the 'other' category again as the number is 74 (37.4 %). 46 (23.2 %) fathers are self-employed, 17 (8.6 %) of them are in service sector and 14 (7.1 %) fathers are in academia and education. The results obtained from the associate degree show that 19 (37.3 %) fathers are self-employed and similarly, 19 (37.3 %) are reported to be under 'other' category. While 8 (15.7 %) fathers are in the service sector, 2 (3.9 %) of them are in business. The rest of the categories that appeared in the findings are: agriculture, architecture and construction, and finance. Namely, each of these categories is represented by one (2 %) father only.

As can be seen from the Table 8.4, it presents the frequency results of the occupation data related to participants' mothers. Regarding bachelor degree cohort, repeatedly, the highest number belongs to the 'other' category with 140 (69.3 %) mothers. Following this number, the second highest number highlights academia and education field with 19 (9.4 %) mothers. 13 (6.4 %) mothers are reported to be in the service sector and also 10 (5.0 %) of them are self-employed. When the data of associate degree cohort analyzed, the highest number again belongs to the 'other' category with 38 (71.7 %) mothers. While 10 (18.9 %) mothers are reported to be in the service sector, 3 (5.7 %) of them are reported as self-employed. Finally, finance and business owner categories are represented by only one (1.9 %) mother each.

In summary, the results suggest that many participants reported their par-

Table 8.4: Frequency overview of parents' occupation data of *bachelor degree* and *associate degree* cohorts at *İstanbul University*

	Bachelor Degree				Associate Degree			
	father		mother		father		mother	
	f	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
Academia and Education	14	7.1	19	9.4	1	2.0	-	-
Agriculture	3	1.5	-	-	1	2.0	-	-
Architecture and Construction	2	1.0	-	-	2	3.9	-	-
Business	3	1.5	2	1.0	-	-	-	-
Business Owner	11	5.6	3	1.5	-	-	1	1.9
Culture and Art	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Engineering	6	3.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
Finance	3	1.5	5	2.5	1	2.0	1	1.9
Government and Administration	3	1.5	-		-	-	-	-
Health Care and Nursing	6	3.0	6	3.0	-	-	-	-
Legal	6	3.0	2	1.0	-	-	-	-
Management	2	1.0	2	1.0	-	-	-	-
Media and Journalism	2	1.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
Self- Employed	46	23.2	10	5.0	19	37.3	3	5.7
Service Sector	17	8.6	13	6.4	8	15.7	10	18.9
Other	74	37.4	140	69.3	19	37.3	38	71.7
Total	198	100.0	202	100.0	51	100.0	53	100.0

ents' occupations for the 'other' category, which does not include an option to allow respondents to write. Interestingly, we can see the reflections of the educational backgrounds of families in the occupation data. In other words, bachelor students' families seem to have a broader perspective in terms of professions. One remarkable outcome related to socio-economic background is that there is only one participant from the associate degree cohort whose father is reported to be in the academia and education field. When the entire data is analyzed, the academia and education field have their representatives from bachelor students' parents. Unfortunately, these datasets regarding occupation theme do not allow us to conduct more analysis since they represent only numerical values, and therefore, are suitable only for descriptive results.

8.2 Analysis of the Extent of Multilingualism at Tertiary Level Education

The present section, covering the analyses of the languages spoken by students, starts with the quantitative analysis of the first research question concerning the number of languages spoken by university students, who are enrolled at Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University. With the aim of drawing a broad picture of languages claimed to be in students' language repertoire and

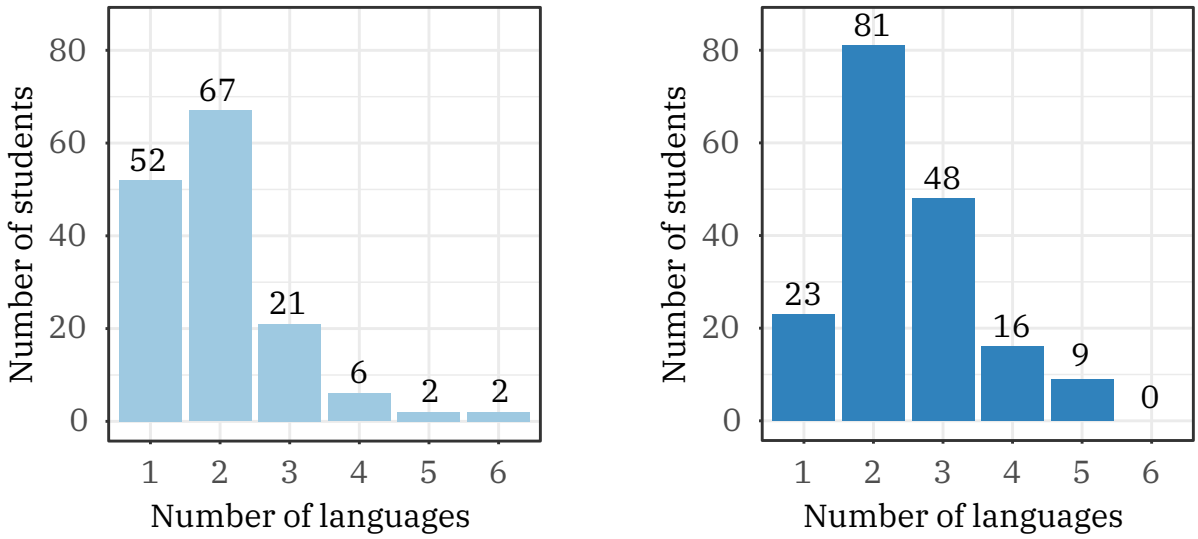
the linguistic patterns of the informants such as monolingualism or bilingualism, the extent of multilingualism among university students have been investigated contrasting bachelor and associate degrees. For this purpose, participants were asked to report on the languages that they could speak or understand.

For a general view of each data set, the data have been visualized considering the associate and bachelor degree cohorts separately so that we can differentiate between two study cohorts to account for the first research question of the present study which is related to the extent of multilingualism. To assess students' language repertoires, students' language choices that were selected in the online questionnaire have been used for further specification. A majority of participants (278 out of 588) reported that they are able to speak two languages; therefore, bilingualism appears to be the most common language profile according to the present data. After analyzing the results, trilingualism has been identified as the second most frequent pattern. Apart from that, a closer inspection reveals interesting findings that monolingualism exists among university students and those monolingual speakers exist more in the associate degree level cohort. The visualizations of the data are also provided with bar plots in this section, which present the results for the associate and bachelor degree study cohorts separately regarding the number of students in the respective linguistic pattern (Figures 8.3a,8.3b,8.4a,8.4b).

Considering the extent of multilingualism, the results of the present study are quite revealing in several ways. First, unlike the findings related to bachelor degree, we can observe that the results of associate degree cohorts are different in terms of linguistic patterns such as bilingualism or multilingualism, which will be covered in detail. Second, bachelor degree students appear to be significantly more multilingual than their associate degree counterparts. These outcomes may support the idea that the bachelor degree study cohort and foreign language knowledge are believed to be the desirable profile in terms of career options due to the role of English associated with better job opportunities. In other words, their academic disciplines are connected to professions that require foreign language skills rather than the workforce associate degree level academic disciplines are related. This notion is discussed in the discussion part of the dissertation in detail.

If we now turn to the linguistic profiles again, the results of the languages spoken by students and their linguistic profiles provide important insights into the research question with respect to the extent of multilingualism. The findings are shown on an institutional (university) basis including both study cohorts in Figures 8.3a,8.3b,8.4a,8.4b. As we mentioned earlier, what stands out in these findings is the wide disparity between the two study cohorts regarding monolingualism, which seems to be a more common linguistic profile at the associate

degree level. Overall, it can be concluded that bilingualism or multilingualism is the norm and monolingualism is an exception as 475 out of 588 respondents speak at least two or more languages. The upcoming paragraphs will elaborate more on the results following this order: the presentation of associate degree cohorts first and then the bachelor degree cohorts of the relevant higher education institution.



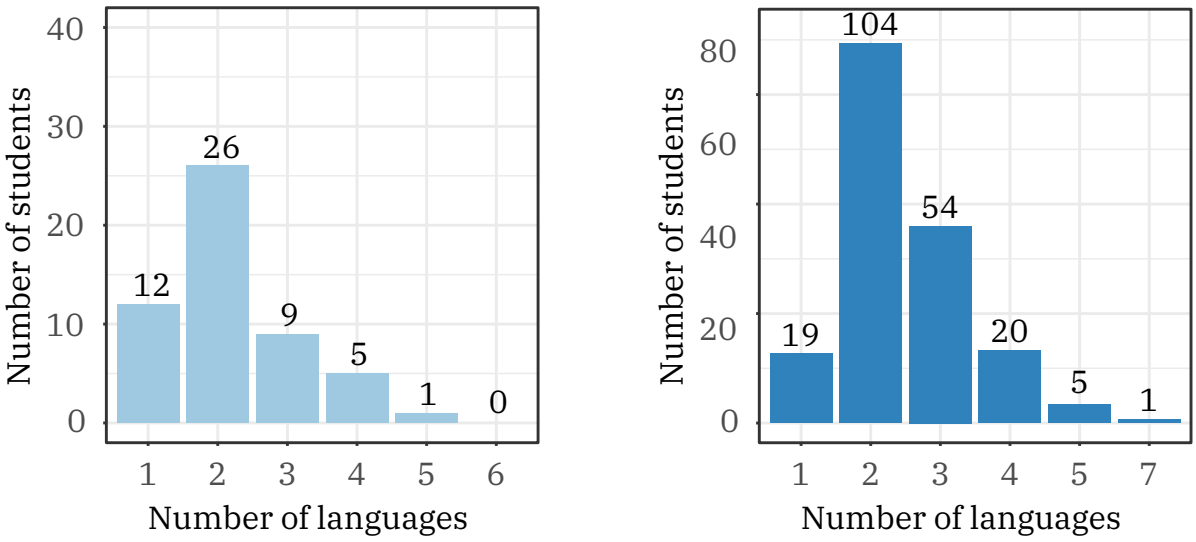
(a) *associate degree* (b) *bachelor degree*

Figure 8.3: Number of languages spoken by students at *Bursa Uludağ University*

Regarding Bursa Uludağ University, Figure 8.3a gives an overview of the number of languages spoken by the students, who study at the associate degree level. The results demonstrate that the number of students, who speak two languages, is higher than the group of students, who speak only one language. Further analysis of the data reveals that there are 21 trilinguals as well as a quadrilingual group consisting of 6 respondents. Both the number of students who can speak five languages and the number of students who can speak six languages have similar results in that there are 2 participants in each. To sum up, it is apparent that bilingual and monolingual groups have a close number of participants in the associate degree study cohort and thus, the findings of the present study revealed that monolingualism and bilingualism are the norms for associate degree level students at Bursa Uludağ University with various study academic disciplines. Detailed information about associate degree students' backgrounds, academic disciplines, in particular, can be found in section 7.2.

In addition to the results of the data from associate students, the number of languages spoken by bachelor students at Bursa Uludağ university are shown in Figure 8.3b. These numbers suggest that bilingualism and trilingualism are the norms since there are 81 bilingual students and 48 trilingual students studying in various academic disciplines. Contrary to the findings of the associate

degree study cohort at the same university, we did not find many monolinguals in this cohort. Moreover, 16 students are quadrilinguals, while only 9 students are pentalinguals. Unlike the associate degree cohort, there is no one who can speak six languages among the bachelor students. As a result, it can be seen from the data visualized in Figure 8.3b that bachelor degree students can be considered as more multilingual than their associate degree counterparts. The existence of bilingual, trilingual and quadrilingual groups appears to be at a higher level in the bachelor degree study cohort. Similarly, a higher multilingualism level has also been hypothesized for bachelor degree students than associate students. In conclusion, it has been reflected exactly the same according to the findings of the present study.



(a) *associate degree* (b) *bachelor degree*

Figure 8.4: Number of languages spoken by students at *İstanbul University*

Furthermore, İstanbul University students are part of the research in the current study, and the number of languages spoken by associate degree level students is shown in Figure 8.4a. It is important to remember that this group represents the Vocational School of Law as there is only one vocational school at İstanbul University due to the current reforms at Turkish higher education institutions explained in the methodology part in detail (see section 7.2.2). Figure 8.4a shows that very few respondents exist for the analysis of this cohort since there are 53 respondents studying at the associate degree level represented by only one vocational school. Almost half of the students ($n = 26$) indicate that they speak two languages. Following this, 12 students speak only one language, which is Turkish probably, and 9 students speak three languages. A small number of the students ($n = 5$) speak four languages and within this cohort, there is only 1 student, who can speak five languages. When we look back and compare the data related to the associate degree cohort from Bursa Uludağ University, the pattern of the bar plots

seems to be similar to each other. Summing up, bilingualism is the norm again and strong evidence of monolingualism was found as the monolingual group takes the second place according to the data of İstanbul University.

The last cohort of students represents the bachelor degree cohort of İstanbul University and Figure 8.4b shows the data analyzed for the number of languages spoken. The results seem to provide clear evidence for multilingualism as there are 104 bilingual students, while trilingual students are 54. Compared to the results from the same study cohort at Bursa Uludağ University, there are not many substantial differences. When the results are carefully analyzed, interestingly, the same linguistic patterns with different numbers of respondents have been observed. It is also verified that quadrilingualism ($n = 20$) is only slightly higher than monolingualism ($n = 19$) in the İstanbul context and a minority of respondents are monolingual, unlike their associate counterparts. Moreover, it is important to note that there are 5 students, who speak five languages and there is only one student, who speaks seven languages in the bachelor's cohort at İstanbul University.

To conclude, it has been shown from the investigation of the number of languages spoken that bachelor degree students outperformed their associate degree counterparts at İstanbul University and these results turned out to be similar to the results we got from the same study cohort at Bursa Uludağ University. It is expected that, compared to the students of associate degree level, the multilingual groups exist more in bachelor study cohorts. Highlighting the number of respondents found in the current study, these results suggest that multilingualism appears to be the norm for bachelor degree students, while mono- or bilingualism is the norm for associate degree level students in the Turkish tertiary level education.

In order to gain a better understanding of the general linguistic norms, which are likely to exhibit a pattern of bilingualism or multilingualism in the current study, we need to have a close look at the participants' language repertoires. Typically, the number of languages may differ between the two study cohorts and in addition, the respondents might tend to have significantly different language profiles. Part of this can be due to different academic disciplines per cohort. However, it is worth discussing these interesting facts revealed by the results of the Mann-Whitney U test for the comparisons of statistical analyses. Since the non-normal distribution of the data called for a non-parametric test, the Mann-Whitney U test was performed to analyze differences between the medians of two independent groups, namely associate and bachelor level students in the present study. Mann-Whitney U test differs from the t-test, which compares the mean values of two groups in the data, in that all values are compared including the median values of two groups. Table 8.5 and Table 8.6 present data with the

calculated z-values and statistical significance (e. g. p-values). The results suggest that there is a significant difference in the scores for the number of languages spoken by associate and bachelor level students.

Table 8.5: Mann-Whitney U test results of the number of languages per degree (*Bursa Uludağ University*)

Degree	n	Mean	Median	Mode	Z (Mann-Whitney U)	p-value
Bachelor Degree	177	2.47	2	2	-5.248	<.001
Associate Degree	152	1.94	2	2		

As revealed in Table 8.5, the mean number of languages spoken is 2.47, the median is two languages, and the mode is two languages again for bachelor degree level, while the mean number of languages spoken is 1.94, the median is two languages, and the mode is two languages for associate degree level at Bursa Uludağ University. Considering the Mann-Whitney U test results, the absolute mean, median, and mode values are indicative of language profiles such as monolingualism, bilingualism, and trilingualism. These statistical results also demonstrate that the number of languages spoken by bachelor degree students is significantly higher than the associate degree cohort ($M = 2.47$, $Z = -5.248$, $U = 9199.5$, $p < .001$). According to these values, it seems that monolingualism and bilingualism are the norms for the associate students, whereas the degree of multilingualism found among bachelor students consists of bilingualism and trilingualism as Table 8.5 illustrates.

Table 8.6: Mann-Whitney U test results of the number of languages per degree (*İstanbul University*)

Degree	n	Mean	Median	Mode	Z (Mann-Whitney U)	p-value
Bachelor Degree	203	2.45	2	2	-2.211	.035
Associate Degree	53	2.19	2	2		

Statistically, the results of Bursa Uludağ University are in line with Mann-Whitney U test analyses of İstanbul University as shown in Table 8.6. When we have a closer look, the mean number of languages spoken is 2.45, the median is two languages, and the mode is two languages for the bachelor degree level, while the mean number of languages spoken is 2.19, the median is two languages, and the mode is also two languages for the associate degree level. The results show an interesting outcome: there is a significant difference between these two cohorts because the number of languages spoken by bachelor students is significantly higher than the other group ($M = 2.45$, $Z = -2.211$, $U = 4444.5$, $p < .001$). From these results (Table 8.6), it is also again clear that the degree of multilingualism

found at İstanbul University is bilingualism and trilingualism, which are similar to the results of Bursa Uludağ University.

Together, these results provide important insights into the general language profiles of two higher education institutions involved in the present study. The findings reveal statistically significant outcomes that bachelor students are more multilingual than their associate degree counterparts. This is in line with the formerly explained findings in Figures 8.3a,8.3b,8.4a,8.4b that exhibit the number of languages spoken by university students and revealed the fact that the less multilingual profiles are represented by associate students.

Moving on now to consider the languages in these aforementioned linguistic profiles under the theme of the extent of multilingualism, the focus is on gaining a deeper understanding of the actual languages in the linguistic repertoire. Respondents in the online survey not only answered the question associated with the number of languages but also reported what these languages are by selecting the languages listed. Again, the 'other' option was available for the languages that are not on the list.

Therefore, the data of the languages spoken at each university is worth analyzing after presenting the results of the mean, median, and mode values. The findings lead us to visualizations of the data such as Figure 8.5 and Figure 8.6. What stands out in Figure 8.5 and Figure 8.6 is the wide range of languages spoken by university students.

To start with Bursa Uludağ University, Figure 8.5 provides a general overview of the languages regarding the languages spoken among associate and bachelor level students. There are 34 different languages shown, which supports the assumption that the bilingualism profiles are more likely to be influenced by Turkish and English than other languages. We can briefly explain the specific assumption about the languages spoken that it is associated with Turkish-English bilingualism due to Turkey's context as being officially a monolingual country where English is a widely taught language at schools. In the upcoming paragraphs, this issue will be reflected upon in detail.

Next, looking at Figure 8.6 related to İstanbul University data, it is apparent that there are 29 different languages spoken. What was said about the potential languages in the bilingual profiles applies here as well. The results of languages spoken by students at İstanbul University are parallel with the results of Bursa Uludağ University, which also highlighted that Turkish is the common language while the English language comes in second place.

As mentioned earlier, the data has a considerable number of respondents from Turkey. Therefore, it represents the Turkish language, which is the explana-

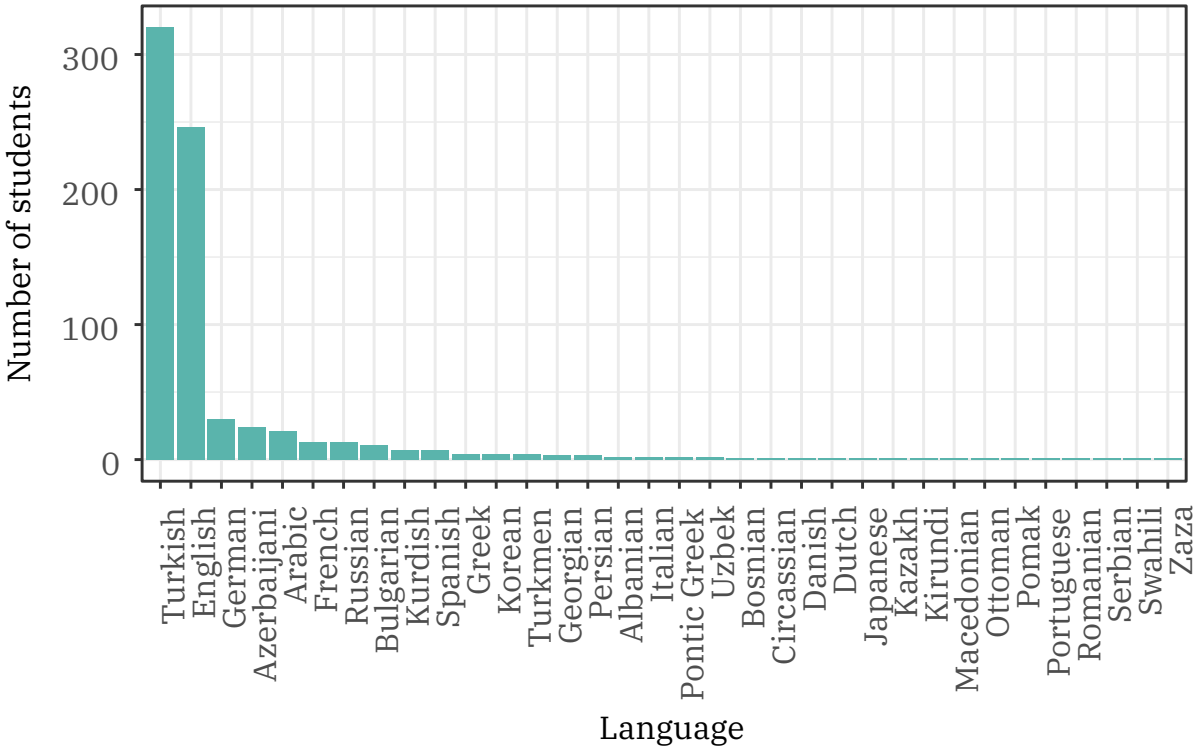


Figure 8.5: Languages spoken by students at *Bursa Uludağ University*

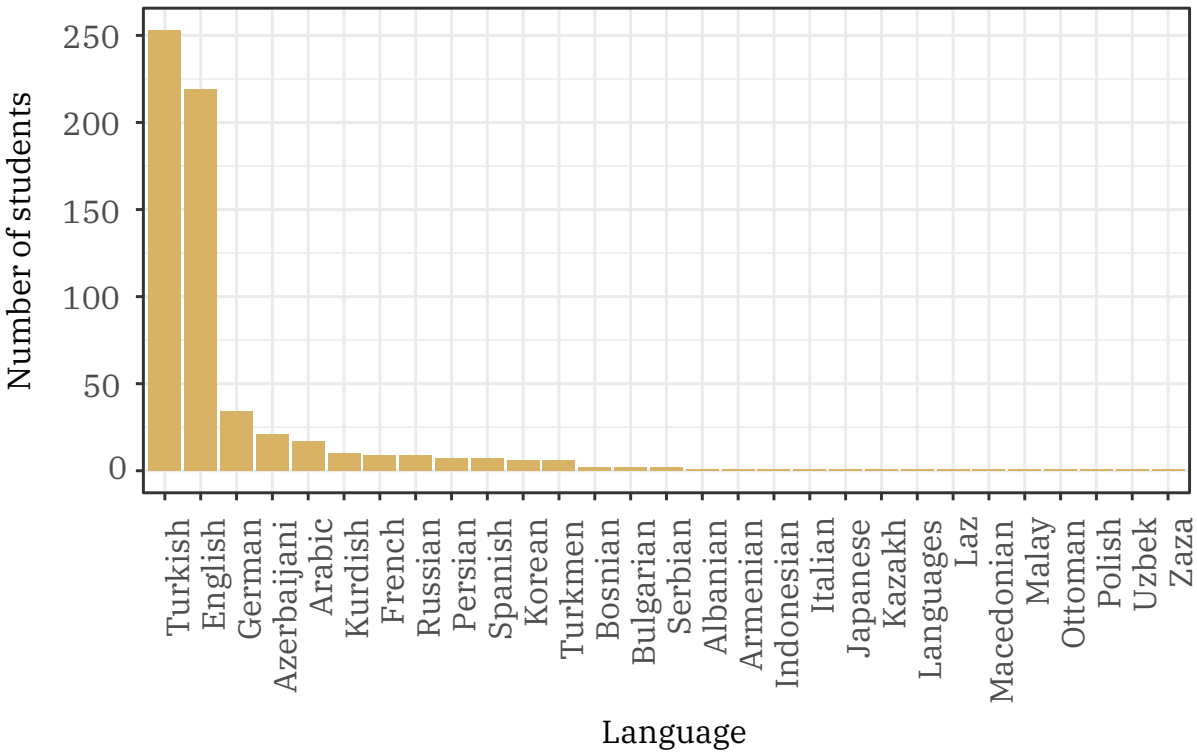


Figure 8.6: Languages spoken by students at *İstanbul University*

tion for the highest numbers shown in the bar plot representing a large number of participants who speak Turkish (see Figures 8.5 and 8.6). Apart from that, the most surprising aspect of the data is the second common language, which is English, when we look at both Figures 8.5 and 8.6. Judging from these results, this Turkish-English combination seems to represent the mother tongue and English as a foreign language, which underlines a typical language profile in the countries where English is only confined to schools (e. g. Expanding Circle countries). Thus, it is more likely that the bilingualism profile mentioned earlier for the number of languages spoken by university students (recall Figures 8.3a,8.3b,8.4a,8.4b) includes Turkish-English bilingualism. Yet, these results require further investigation of language profiles in detail and a close look at the language combinations revealed from the data are presented in the following subsection 8.2.1.

Interestingly, the other languages appeared at much lower rates compared to English. Concerning the same languages that appeared in the findings of the two universities, the remaining languages are German, Azerbaijani, Arabic, French, and Russian according to the results displayed in Figure 8.5 and Figure 8.6. The most surprising result is that the first five languages appear in the same order when the data from two higher education institutions are analyzed. In terms of the order, excluding Turkish and English, German has the highest number. Next, the language in the fourth place is Azerbaijani, and in the fifth place, Arabic is the most common language as is visible in the results. The findings also highlight those other languages shown in Figure 8.5 and Figure 8.6. Those remaining languages are represented with fewer speakers, and will be covered in the following subsection (8.2.1) to give a more comprehensive overview of language profiles in Turkey's context.

To summarize the present section, the findings across the entire data revealed information about the extent of multilingualism found among university students in Turkey and these results also revealed the differences related to the linguistic profiles, such as monolingualism, bilingualism, and trilingualism contrasting the associate and bachelor level students. It seems plausible to conclude that Turkish and English are the two most frequent languages that appeared in the current data. Such information, however, would be incomplete without analyzing language combinations. Therefore, the next subsection demonstrates the languages spoken by university students as well as their ethnicities.

8.2.1 Analysis of Language Profiles

As introduced in 8.2, there is a substantial number of languages that appeared in the data analysis. With this regard, this subsection focuses on a subset of the data

related to ethnic and linguistic backgrounds, which are assumed to be strong predictors determining language profiles such as bilingualism with a specific language combination. For instance, among language profiles, the most frequent one is Turkish and English bilingualism. However, the findings are expected to vary by two universities included in the current study; thus, we will present the results separately starting with Bursa Uludağ University and secondly, the results of İstanbul University will be covered in this subsection. In addition, percentages will enable a better snapshot of the language profiles found among university students while presenting the results.

Concerning the ethnical background of students studying at Bursa Uludağ University, as shown in detail in section 7.2.2, there are 301 students of Turkish ethnicity (93.5 %), 4 Germans (1.2 %), 3 Bulgarians (0.9 %), and 2 Greeks (0.6 %) as the other nationalities are represented by only 1 participant (0.3 %). Those countries are Afghanistan, Algeria, Andorra, Austria, Azerbaijan, Burundi, Iran, Macedonia, Netherlands, Russia, Syria, and Turkmenistan.

Moving on to the ethnicity outcomes of İstanbul University as previously presented in section 7.2.2, there are 239 Turkish students (93.4 %), 5 Turkmens (1.9 %), 3 Bulgarians (1.2 %) and 2 Serbians (0.8 %) and 2 Azerbaijanis (0.8 %). The rest of the sample countries, again, are represented by only one participant (0.4 %) who is from South Korea, Macedonia, Malaysia, Syria, and Tunisia.

As referred before in the previous section (see section 8.2), the most important observation is that the Turkish language is spoken by a high number of participants in the present study and this is the case for the ethnicity findings, which support that the majority of the participants are Turkish. A further issue that emerged from the ethnicity topic is that these Turkish respondents are likely to have English in their linguistic repertoire since English was found to be the second most frequent language in the data. Indeed, there is no native English speaker according to outcomes of ethnicity data. This is indicative of an important outcome: the common linguistic pattern refers to the combination of the Turkish and English languages in the present study. With this finding, we can further support the assumption that Turkish-English bilingualism is one of the most general language profiles as the results related to the English language suggest that there are a great number of Turkish-English speakers in the university settings where this is expected, pointing to the popularity of English as a foreign language in the Turkish context. As a result, among all language profiles found in the data, the manifestation of Turkish-English bilingualism signals the issue of English as a foreign language, which is only taught at schools in Turkey. Fundamentally, this type of bilingualism also provides support that Turkey seems to be a good example of an EFL setting.

Apart from the default languages given in the online survey, participants were allowed to write the languages they can speak or understand in the 'other' category. Typically, the category 'other' aimed to reveal other possible languages in respondents' repertoires. The outcomes broadly confirmed the initial claim: university settings are multilingual and there are many other languages that will appear in the current study. For instance, there are 34 different languages spoken by the students studying at İstanbul University. Thus, creating the category 'other' was a better choice than limiting the language options of the questionnaire.

As mentioned earlier, this subsection of the results is concerned with the language combinations observed and the entire data comes from the language part respondents ranked, including the other category. When considering the language combinations, it appears that the samples in the current study display many different profiles. Table 8.7 for Bursa Uludağ University and Table 8.8 for İstanbul University provide an overview of the reported responses.

Based on the findings, the languages have been abbreviated as follows:

- Turkish: Turk
- English: Eng
- Arabic: Arab
- Bulgarian: Bulg
- Azerbaijani: Azer
- Turkmen: Turkm
- German: Ger
- Albanian: Alb
- Greek: Gre
- Persian: Per
- French: Fren
- Spanish: Span
- Russian: Rus
- Kurdish: Kurdi
- Macedonian: Mace
- Georgian: Geo
- Ottoman Language: Otto
- Korean: Kore
- Uzbek Language: Uzb
- Bosnian: Bosn
- Serbian: Serb
- Circassian: Circ
- Danish: Dan
- Dutch: Dutch
- Italian: Ita
- Swahili: Swa
- Kirundi: Kiru
- Japanese: Jap
- Pomak Language: Poma
- Portuguese: Port
- Romanian: Rom
- Kazak: Kaz
- Zaza Language: Zaza
- Armenian: Arme
- Laz Language: Laz
- Malay: Malay
- Indian: Ind
- Bosnian: Bos

As far as the reported language profiles are concerned, there are 59 language profiles from the data of Bursa Uludağ University (see Table 8.7) and 46 language profiles from the data of İstanbul University (see Table 8.8). This is rather an unexpected outcome as it has been previously assumed that İstanbul University is more diverse in terms of students' linguistic backgrounds since it is the biggest metropolitan city in Turkey. Surprisingly, we can see more different language profiles at Bursa Uludağ University. It might be associated with the profile of the universities in terms of the degree programs they offer rather than the cities.

In addition to the diversity of language profiles explained with numbers, it is important to note here that many of these language profiles are reported by a single speaker. In other words, although the participants have diverse linguistic backgrounds, a great majority of speakers (436 out of 588, almost three-fourths)

speak one of the following frequent language combinations, which were reported as the five most frequent language profiles.

These five most frequent language profiles from Bursa Uludağ University are:

1. Turkish and *English* ($n = 139$)
2. Turkish ($n = 69$)
3. Turkish, *English*, and German ($n = 18$)
4. Turkish, *English*, and Azerbaijani ($n = 11$)
5. Turkish, *English*, and Arabic ($n = 10$)

These five most frequent language profiles from İstanbul University are:

1. Turkish and *English* ($n = 123$)
2. Turkish ($n = 28$)
3. Turkish, *English*, and German ($n = 20$)
4. Turkish, *English*, and Arabic ($n = 12$)
5. Turkish, *English*, and Azerbaijani ($n = 6$)
6. Turkish, *English*, and Kurdi ($n = 6$)

In accordance with the five top language profiles, the findings are quite revealing in several ways. First, the language combinations are in nearly the same order in terms of frequency and parallel to one another. The second observation emerging from the language profile comparisons is a unique language profile, which appears in the data of İstanbul University. This language profile is Turkish, English and Kurdi and might correlate with the Kurdish population living in İstanbul. Thirdly, the observed language combinations listed support not only Turkish monolingualism but also Turkish and English bilingualism. When it comes to trilingual profiles, it might be explained by four different language combinations, including Turkish-English-German, Turkish-English-Azerbaijani, Turkish-English-Arabic at both higher education institutions as well as Turkish-English-Kurdish trilingualism, which appears only among the students studying at İstanbul University. Yet, the most frequent trilingual profile is Turkish-English-German trilingualism and this high frequency might signal the fact that German is the second most popular foreign language among university students.

Furthermore, this subsection of the results focuses on the distribution of language profiles, which are shown in the order of the most frequently appeared language profiles to the least frequently appeared profiles in Table 8.7 and Table 8.8.

The most interesting aspect of Table 8.7 and Table 8.8 is the number of language profiles without English. There are very few language profiles excluding English. For example, these profiles are Turkish-Bulgarian, Turkish-Azerbaijani, and English-Russian bilingualism and they are represented by one speaker. In addition, the analyses show that some language profiles appear less frequently than the other language profiles covering between three and six per cent of the entire sample.

Including all language profiles, nearly 85 % of participants fall within the category of top ten profiles. Having mentioned the top five profiles above, it is of fundamental importance to identify the language profiles appearing between 6th and 10th place in terms of their overall frequency. To start with Uludağ University, these minor profiles include 'Eng' ($n = 6$), 'Turk, Eng, Fren' ($n = 5$), 'Turk, Eng, Bulg' ($n = 5$), 'Turk, Kurdi' ($n = 4$), and 'Turk, Eng, Gre' ($n = 3$). After reflecting on the language profiles of İstanbul University, the minor profiles that appeared are 'Turk, Eng, Azer, Ger' ($n = 5$), 'Turk, Eng, Fren' ($n = 5$), 'Turk, Eng, Span' ($n = 4$), 'Turk, Eng, Kore' ($n = 3$), 'Turk, Eng, Per' ($n = 3$), and 'Turk, Turkm' ($n = 3$). The most surprising outcome from both universities is related to the French language. When we carefully analyzed the top ten language profiles, we see the emergence of Turkish, English and French trilingualism in the data of both universities. It is apparent that, unlike other trilingual profiles, Turkish, English and French trilingualism is also observed more frequently than other trilingual profiles in the data. Therefore, these results suggest that French is likely to be the most popular European language after English and German in the Turkish educational context. Indeed, it can be associated with the popularity of the French language among university students due to their academic disciplines such as the department of International Relations. These issues regarding the results have further been discussed in the discussion part (see section 9.4).

Table 8.7 and Table 8.8 illustrate the distribution of the overall frequency of language profiles that appear in the current study. By looking at these language profiles, it is worth mentioning that nearly all language profiles, again, include the English language. Fundamentally, multilingual students, who can speak four or more languages, display profiles that typically involve the English language. These outcomes further support the hypothesis of the role of English as the most popular foreign language among university students. This might be explained in two ways: (i) the aim for successful international communication with their peers and the outside world, and (ii) the instrumental role of English, which is believed to create better life and job-related opportunities as was explained in the literature review part (see section 4.3). We will reflect upon these indicative results in the discussion part in detail (see section 9.4). In total, there are 465 speakers out of 588 who have English in their linguistic repertoire, and these

Table 8.7: Language profiles of *Bursa Uludağ University*

Language profile	n	%	Cumulative Percent
Turk Eng	139	42.5	42.5
Turk	69	21.1	63.6
Turk Eng Ger	18	5.5	69.1
Turk Eng Azer	11	3.4	72.5
Turk Eng Arab	10	3.1	75.5
Eng	6	1.8	77.4
Turk Eng Fren	5	1.5	78.9
Turk Eng Bulg	5	1.5	80.4
Turk Kurdi	4	1.2	81.7
Turk Eng Gre	3	0.9	82.6
Turk Arab	2	0.6	83.2
Turk Azer Rus	2	0.6	83.8
Turk Eng Azer Ger	2	0.6	84.4
Turk Eng Azer Rus Uzb	2	0.6	85.0
Turk Eng Bulg Rus	2	0.6	85.6
Turk Eng Ger Span	2	0.6	86.2
Turk Eng Kore	2	0.6	86.9
Turk Eng Rus	2	0.6	87.5
Turk Bulg	1	0.3	87.8
Turk Arab Per Kurdi	1	0.3	88.1
Turk Azer	1	0.3	88.4
Turk Eng Arab Alb Mace	1	0.3	88.7
Turk Eng Arab Bulg Gre Per	1	0.3	89.0
Turk Eng Arab Fren	1	0.3	89.3
Turk Eng Arab Fren Geo Gre	1	0.3	89.6
Turk Eng Arab Ger	1	0.3	89.9
Turk Eng Arab Ger Span	1	0.3	90.2
Turk Eng Arab Otto	1	0.3	90.5
Turk Eng Arab Turkm Ger	1	0.3	90.8
Eng Rus	1	0.3	91.1
Turk Eng Azer Alb	1	0.3	91.4
Turk Azer Turkm	1	0.3	91.7
Turk Eng Azer Kore	1	0.3	92.0
Turk Eng Azer Kore Rus	1	0.3	92.4
Turk Eng Azer Span	1	0.3	92.7
Turk Eng Azer Turkm Fren	1	0.3	93.0
Turk Eng Bosn Serb	1	0.3	93.3
Turk Eng Bulg Ger	1	0.3	93.6
Turk Eng Bulg Ger Fren	1	0.3	93.9
Turk Eng Circ	1	0.3	94.2
Turk Eng Dan	1	0.3	94.5
Turk Eng Dutch	1	0.3	94.8
Turk Eng Fren Span Ita	1	0.3	95.1
Turk Eng Fren Swa Kiru	1	0.3	95.4
Turk Eng Geo	1	0.3	95.7
Turk Eng Ger Fren	1	0.3	96.0
Turk Eng Ger Fren Span	1	0.3	96.3
Turk Eng Ger Ita	1	0.3	96.6
Turk Eng Gre Geo	1	0.3	96.9
Turk Eng Jap	1	0.3	97.2
Turk Eng Kurdi	1	0.3	97.6
Turk Eng Per Kurdi	1	0.3	97.9
Turk Eng Poma	1	0.3	98.2
Turk Eng Port	1	0.3	98.5
Turk Eng Rom Rus	1	0.3	98.8
Turk Eng Rus Kaz	1	0.3	99.1
Turk Eng Span	1	0.3	99.4
Turk Eng Turkm Rus	1	0.3	99.7
Turk Eng Zaza	1	0.3	100.0

Table 8.8: Language profiles of *İstanbul University*

Language profile	n	%	Cumulative Percent
Turk Eng	123	48.0	48.0
Turk	28	10.9	59.0
Turk Eng Ger	20	7.8	66.8
Turk Eng Arab	12	4.7	71.5
Turk Eng Azer	6	2.3	73.8
Turk Eng Kurdi	6	2.3	76.2
Turk Eng Azer Ger	5	2.0	78.1
Turk Eng Fren	5	2.0	80.1
Turk Eng Span	4	1.6	81.6
Turk Eng Kore	3	1.2	82.8
Turk Eng Per	3	1.2	84.0
Turk Turkm	3	1.2	85.2
Turk Arab	2	0.8	85.9
Turk Eng Azer Rus	2	0.8	86.7
Eng	2	0.8	87.5
Turk Eng Serb Bos	2	0.8	88.3
Fren	1	0.4	88.7
Turk Arab Azer Per	1	0.4	89.1
Turk Azer	1	0.4	89.5
Turk Eng Alb Mace	1	0.4	89.8
Turk Eng Arab Arap Ger Otto	1	0.4	90.2
Turk Eng Arab Span	1	0.4	90.6
Turk Eng Azer Fren	1	0.4	91.0
Turk Eng Azer Ger Kurdi	1	0.4	91.4
Turk Eng Azer Kore	1	0.4	91.8
Turk Eng Azer Kore Rus	1	0.4	92.2
Turk Eng Azer Per Rus	1	0.4	92.6
Turk Eng Azer Turkm Ger	1	0.4	93.0
Turk Eng Azer Turkm Rus Kaz Uzb	1	0.4	93.4
Turk Eng Bulg	1	0.4	93.8
Turk Eng Bulg Ger	1	0.4	94.1
Turk Eng Fren Arme	1	0.4	94.5
Turk Eng Ger Fren	1	0.4	94.9
Turk Eng Ger Kore	1	0.4	95.3
Turk Eng Ger Kurdi	1	0.4	95.7
Turk Eng Ger Laz	1	0.4	96.1
Turk Eng Ger Rus	1	0.4	96.5
Turk Eng Ita	1	0.4	96.9
Turk Eng Jap	1	0.4	97.3
Turk Eng Malay Ind	1	0.4	97.7
Turk Eng Per Kurdi	1	0.4	98.0
Turk Eng Per Kurdi Zaza	1	0.4	98.4
Turk Eng Rus	1	0.4	98.8
Turk Eng Span Pol	1	0.4	99.2
Turk Eng Span Rus	1	0.4	99.6
Turk Turkm Rus	1	0.4	100.0

results suggest the salient position of the English language among university students.

Moreover, a closer analysis of the overall degree of multilingualism justifies that there is a need for elaborating on the differences in language profiles contrasting the associate and bachelor degree levels. Turning now to the results of two study cohorts, Figure 8.7 and Figure 8.8 present the breakdown of language combinations according to two different degree cycles. We differentiated between two study degrees in the bar plots and took the language combinations that occurred more than five times into consideration. The numbers of respondents for each language combination are also shown in these bar plot visualizations and bachelor degree students are represented by the columns marked in dark blue, while associated students are represented by the columns marked in light blue (Figure 8.7 and Figure 8.8).

As can be seen from Figure 8.7 and Figure 8.8, the number of students, who are proficient in Turkish and English, is slightly remarkable again, in both study cohorts. The occurrences show that a high number of university students belong to the category of Turkish-English bilingualism. Apart from that, other language combinations include the English language except for the monolingual groups. Concerning language profiles, these are the common key points found across two degree levels in the present study, and these results provide support for the popularity of the English language in both degree cohorts.

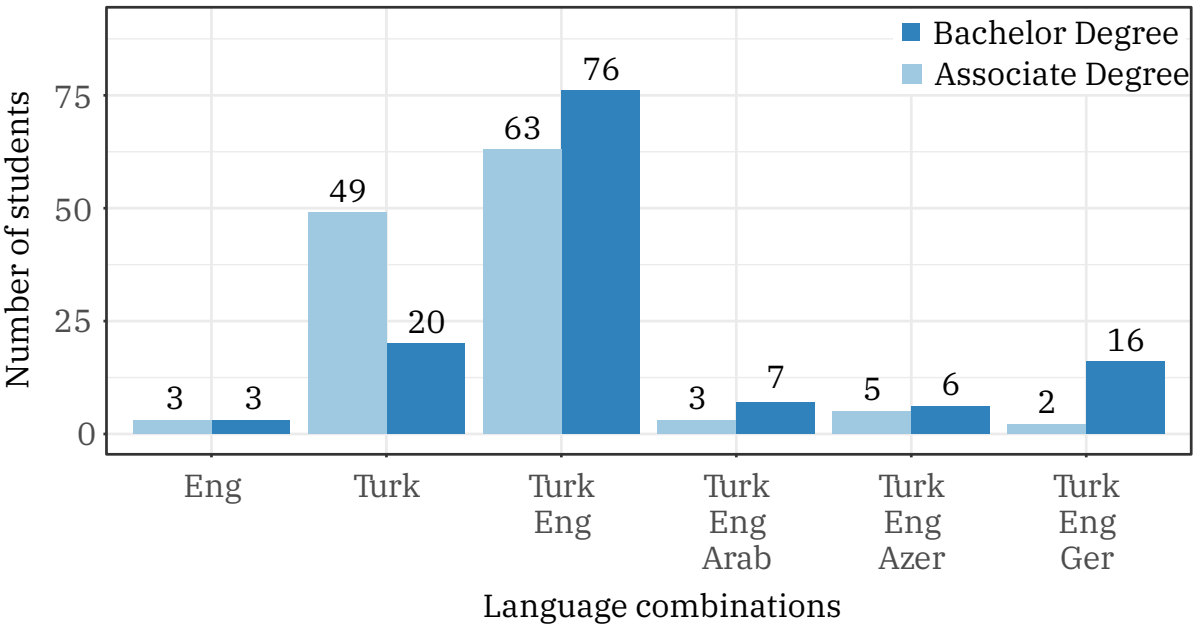


Figure 8.7: Language combinations among *bachelor degree level* and *associate degree level* students that occur more than five times at *Bursa Uludağ University*

In terms of language combinations that occur more than five times, we observe that the monolingual groups are represented by either Turkish or English

monolingualism ($n = 3$) at Bursa Uludağ University as shown in Figure 8.7. In total, although trilingual profiles are represented by fewer speakers ($n = 39$) in Figure 8.7 compared to bilingual profiles ($n = 139$), an important category that emerged from the data is Turkish, English and German trilingualism ($n = 18$). This language profile appears more frequently in the bachelor degree cohort ($n = 16$) than in the associate degree cohort ($n = 2$). Other trilingual profiles include Turkish, English, and Arabic with an exceeding number of speakers from the bachelor degree cohort ($n = 7$) compared to their associate counterparts ($n = 3$), whereas Turkish, English and Azerbaijani trilingualism is represented with nearly the same number of speakers from both study cohorts. That means 5 associate students and 6 bachelor students representing Turkish, English and Azerbaijani trilingualism (see Figure 8.7). It might be due to the high number of Arabic and Azerbaijani students studying at Turkish universities. Thus, they are likely to be native speakers of either Arabic or Azerbaijani with knowledge of Turkish and English. Besides, Turkish monolingualism, surprisingly, seems to be a more common language profile for the associate degree cohort compared to the bachelor degree cohort due to the higher frequency of monolingual speakers observed in the results. Upon closer inspection, the degree cohort is crucial in determining the language profiles, in particular, the extent of multilingualism, as illustrated in Figure 8.7. Now, we will look at the outcomes of the data from İstanbul University in order to confirm our claim.

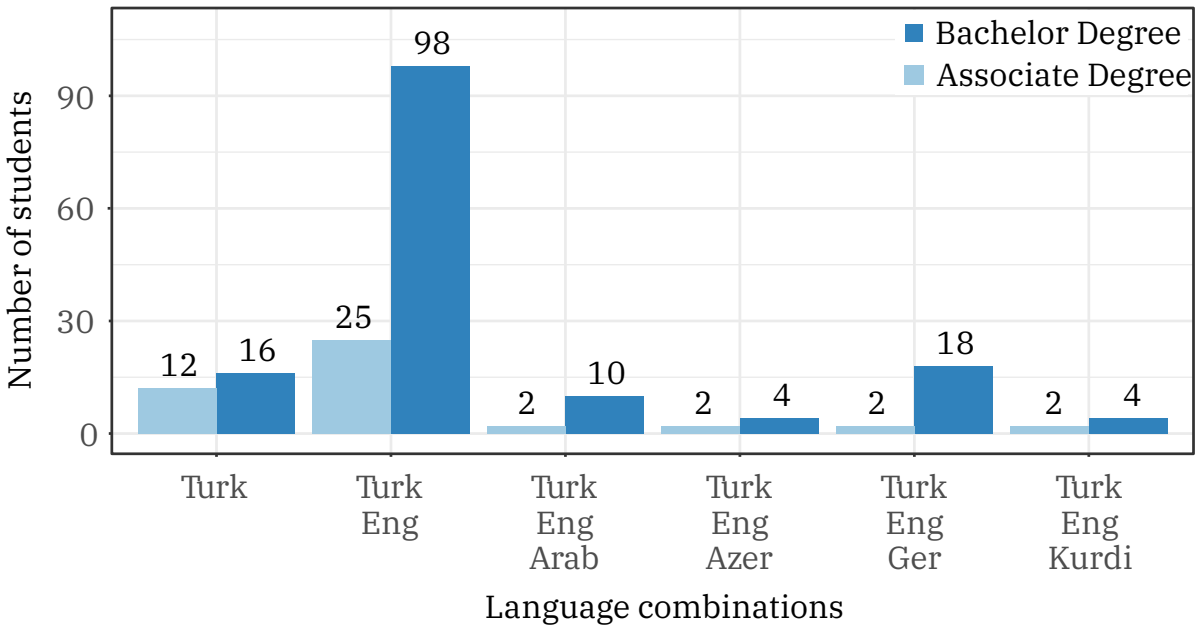


Figure 8.8: Language combinations among *bachelor degree level* and *associate degree level* students that occur more than five times at *İstanbul University*

From the analysis of İstanbul University data, the findings returned the same observed language combinations with a different number of speakers. For Turkish monolingualism, the majority of the speakers belong to the bachelor degree

cohort: 16 bachelor students and 12 associate students (see Figure 8.8). Turkish-English bilingualism is, again, the most popular language combination among bachelor degree students with a relatively high number of speakers ($n = 98$) rather than associate degree students ($n = 25$). In addition, the trilingual groups differ from each other. One trilingual group that appeared in the data is Turkish, English and Kurdish trilingualism ($n = 6$), which can be due to the Kurdish population existing in İstanbul as a result of the high immigration within the country. Turkish, English, and Arabic trilingualism is represented by 2 associate and 10 bachelor students. It can be seen from the data in Figure 8.8 that Turkish, English and Azerbaijani trilingualism is represented by 2 associate and 4 bachelor students. In total, there are more bachelor students ($n = 36$) than associate students ($n = 8$), who are trilinguals in İstanbul University. As referred before, these trilingual groups are expected to include native speakerism of Arabic, Azerbaijani and Kurdish as our citizenship data supports this. At that point, the more surprising language combination for trilingual groups is Turkish, English and German trilingualism with a higher number of speakers from the bachelor degree cohort ($n = 18$), unlike the significantly low number of speakers from the associate degree cohort ($n = 2$). These results confirm our initial claim that there is a difference in language combinations across study cohorts. In other words, among all language profiles found in the data, bilingualism and trilingualism appear to be the norm in the bachelor degree cohort, while the norm seems to be monolingualism and bilingualism in the associate degree cohort. The richness of language combinations in bilingual and trilingual profiles with a considerable number of bachelor students also underline that bachelor degree students are reported as having more languages in their repertoire.

In summary, the specific type of bilingualism or trilingualism is present among university students when the results are analyzed from two different universities. These specific language profiles are Turkish and English bilingualism, whereas of all trilingual profiles, the most common language profile is Turkish, English, and German trilingualism. These findings support the outcomes of educational reforms considering foreign language education in Turkey, which is highly based on teaching Western languages such as English and German. Therefore, English and German are expected to be the mostly taught foreign languages or the most popular languages among university students, in particular, bachelor students. This issue will be covered in detail in the discussion chapter (see section 9.4).

8.2.2 Summary of Language Profiles

As we have seen so far, the extent of multilingualism, which was observed among university students, affects our research outcomes, which is central to this dissertation. As Table 8.9 and Table 8.10 present the summary results, it is apparent that there are differences contrasting two degree levels with respect to the extent of multilingualism. Thus, bar plots have been used in order to summarize the number of languages spoken by each degree type. Following the outcomes of the language combinations, the degree of multilingualism is displayed for each higher education institution in Table 8.9 and Table 8.10 with the number of speakers.

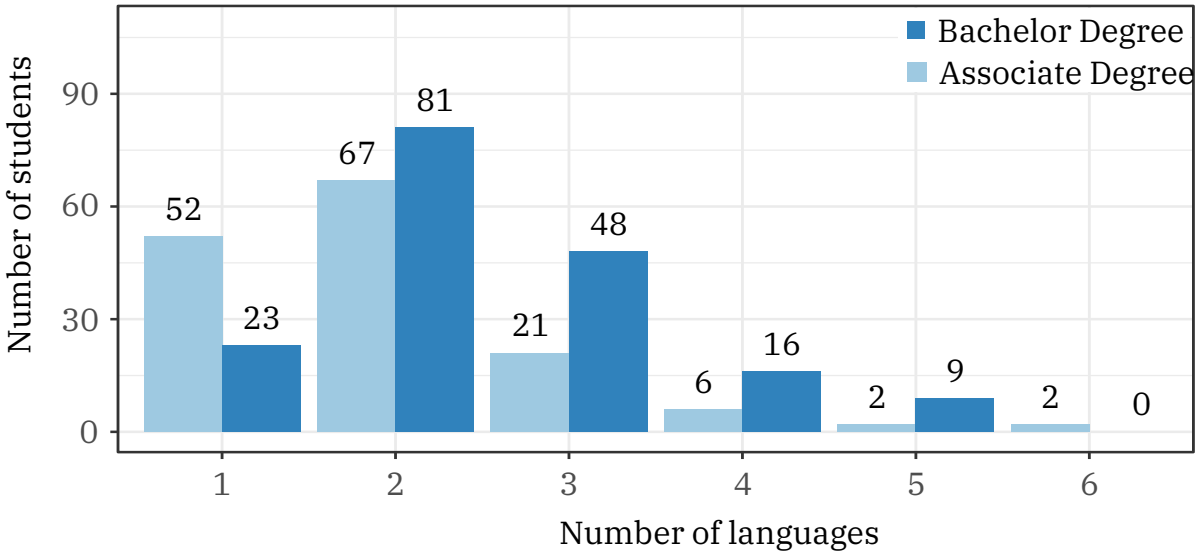


Figure 8.9: Number of languages spoken by *associate degree* and *bachelor degree* level students at *Bursa Uludağ University*

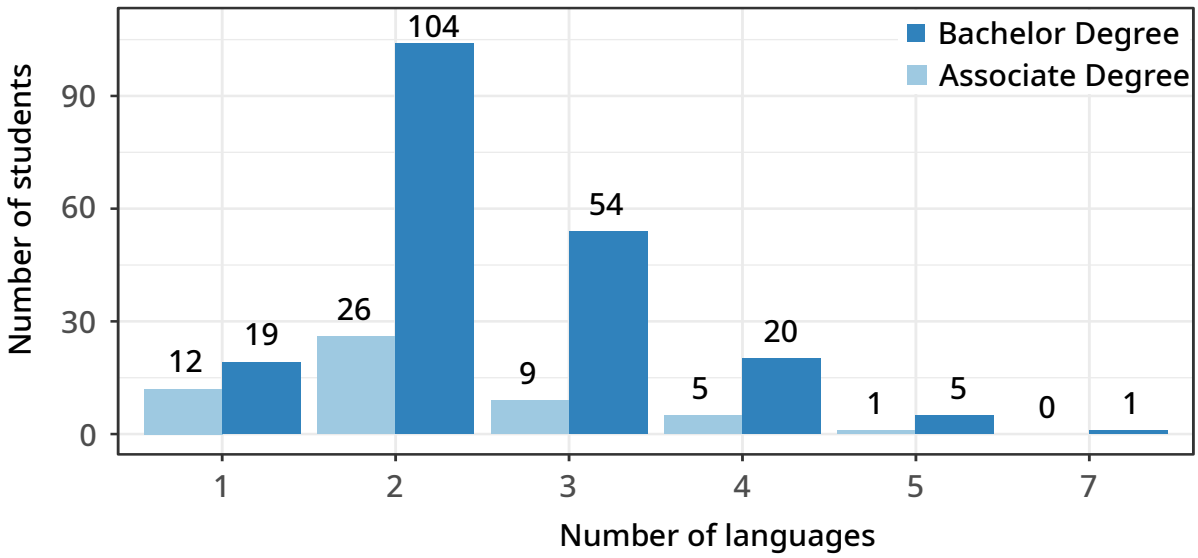


Figure 8.10: Number of languages spoken by *associate degree* and *bachelor degree* level students at *İstanbul University*

The most important observation is that the extent of multilingualism differs with the study cohorts. The summary of the results, as can be seen from Figure 8.9 and Figure 8.10, confirm that bachelor degree students are commonly more bilingual and trilingual than their associate counterparts. In other words, monolingualism among bachelor degree students is lower compared to associate degree students. Noticeably, the extent of multilingualism among bachelor students is associated with bilingualism, trilingualism and quadrilingualism and monolingualism might, to a large extent, be counted as an exceptional case for this study cohort.

Overall, the findings seem to provide us with evidence that these bachelor students are more multilingual than their peers, who study at the associate degree level. After having looked at the language repertoires, language combinations and the extent of multilingualism, the next section addresses the analysis of proficiency levels of university students.

8.3 Language Proficiency

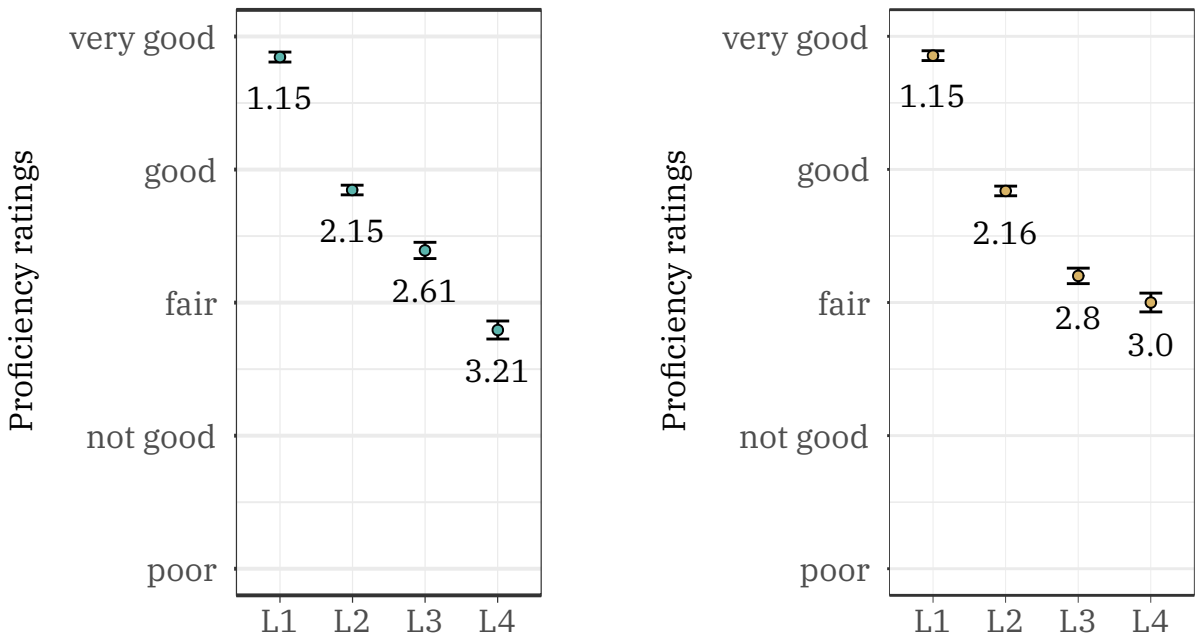
The preceding section of results has provided a general impression regarding the extent of multilingualism and university students' language profiles. In this section, students' proficiency levels will be considered in terms of their self-reported proficiency ratings of languages in their repertoire. In addition, we will try to find out the relationship between linguistic profiles and proficiency levels as well as students' literal and oral skills in these reported languages. Lastly, the distribution of academic disciplines will be presented regarding the proficiency data.

Firstly, for the analysis of language proficiency part, the proficiency ratings such as 'very good' ... 'poor' were converted into ordinal numbers. As a result of this conversion, we got the mean values of self-reported proficiency, which belong to the speakers' first, second, third and fourth language. It is relevant to assess these proficiency levels in order to see whether the proficiency level in second, and third languages differ from one language to another in respondents' language repertoire. The most important thing to keep in mind for the proficiency part of the results is that we did not ask for any proficiency test results, all answers related to proficiency findings are participants' self-reported proficiency levels.

In language proficiency ratings, one of the most commonly exhibited patterns is that there is a monotonous decline starting from the speaker's first language to the second, third, and fourth. Interestingly, nearly the same pattern exists

when considering the outcomes of both datasets (i. e. Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University data).

As noted in the multilingualism section, one very revealing finding of the extent of multilingualism at the tertiary level was that bachelor students reported themselves as more multilingual than their associate counterparts. With reference to the broad issue of the extent of multilingualism and language profiles found in the current study, the results of self-proficiency ratings are presented regarding L1, L2, L3 and L4, representing each language in students' repertoire. For the first part of the analysis, mean values of speakers' self-reported proficiency for the first, second, third and fourth language were calculated. The data shows a clear picture: a remarkable decline as revealed in Figure 8.11a for Bursa Uludağ University and Figure 8.11b for İstanbul University. These visualizations of the findings show the tendency for a decline in proficiency levels.



(a) *Bursa Uludağ University* (b) *İstanbul University*

Figure 8.11: Self-reported proficiency for the first, second, third, and fourth language of speakers

Figure 8.11a displays mean scores of self-reported proficiency ratings for each language in the repertoire starting with L1. It is evident that overall, the proficiency ratings are remarkably getting lower for each additional language. Starting with L1, it has been rated as very good ($M = 1.15$), whereas L2 proficiency has been reported as lower than L1 among respondents ($M = 2.15$). Next, there is a slight declination for L3 ($M = 2.61$) and following this, L4 has been reported as the lowest ($M = 3.21$). These results suggest that the proficiency for the first language in the repertoire is the highest, and this is likely to be due to the mother tongue effect.

In addition, it is observed that nearly the same pattern exists for the data of İstanbul University (Figure 8.11b). Apparently, the proficiency ratings of each additional language are visibly getting lower indicating fair ($M = 3.00$) for L4. Noticeably different values exist between L2 ($M = 2.16$) and L3 ($M = 2.80$). Yet again, the highest proficiency rating belongs to L1 ($M = 1.15$), which may be more associated with the mother tongue effect. This suggests, again, that there is an overall decrease in proficiency ratings of participants except for their L1.

Based on the outcomes that the informants shared about their proficiency levels, this decline in the proficiency levels may be interpreted as that the respondents feel fully proficient in their first language. Therefore, their mother tongue can be assumed to be the most proficient language. In addition, thinking back to the former results, it might also be speculated as to whether this first language is Turkish since a considerable number of participants are from Turkey and reported Turkish as their first language in the current study. Apart from that, not depending on Turkish, Figure 8.11a and 8.11b show the results with the mean scores of proficiency ratings. Together, these findings provide important insights into the fact that the mother tongue proficiency level outperforms the proficiency levels of L2 and L3, even fourth language (L4).

Moving on to the second issue emerging from the data analysis of language proficiency part, it is worth examining the self-reported proficiency levels for L1, L2, L3 and L4 concerning language profiles of the speakers including bilinguals, trilinguals and quadrilinguals. In other words, it has also been explored whether there are differences among these language profiles in terms of proficiency ratings; for example, the speculation as to whether bilingual speakers tend to report proficiency ratings that are different from trilingual and quadrilingual groups as shown in Figures 8.12 and 8.13. In order to examine this, mean values of self-reported proficiency levels were grouped according to the language profile of respondents. The results indicate that for each language such as L1, L2, L3 and L4, there are no clear differences among bilinguals, trilinguals and quadrilinguals, but only marginal variation since the means of proficiency ratings appear to be nearly the same. Additionally, L1 has been reported as 'very good', and the findings seem to reveal a similar decline pattern starting with L1 through L2, L3 and L4 in the language repertoire, which shows a similar result as previously reported in the means of self-reported proficiency ratings. Thus, again, the same tendency of lower proficiency is found changing from one language to another in the repertoire. From Figures 8.12 and 8.13, we can see that a similar pattern appears from both datasets.

From the data in Figures 8.12 and 8.13, it can be seen that the results indicate slightly lower proficiency levels for the participants who are able to speak four languages. These figures are quite revealing in several ways. First, we can see

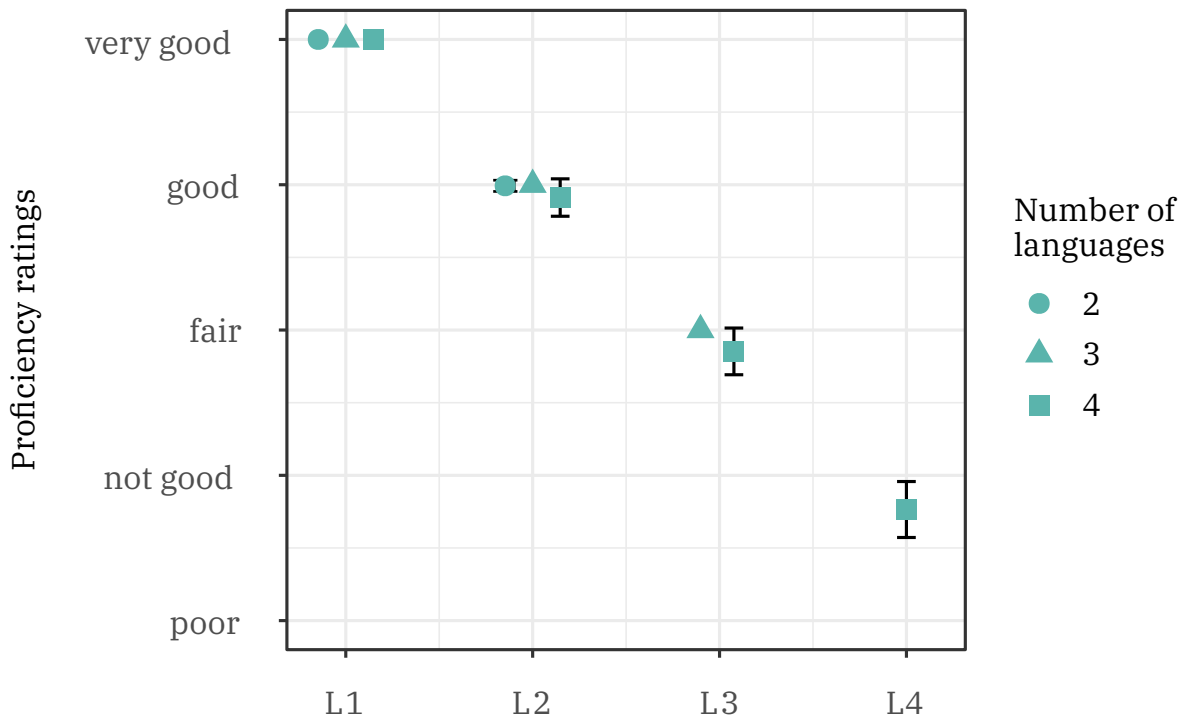


Figure 8.12: Self-reported proficiency for the first (L1), second (L2), third (L3), and fourth (L4) language of speakers who speak two, three, or four languages (*Bursa Uludağ University*)

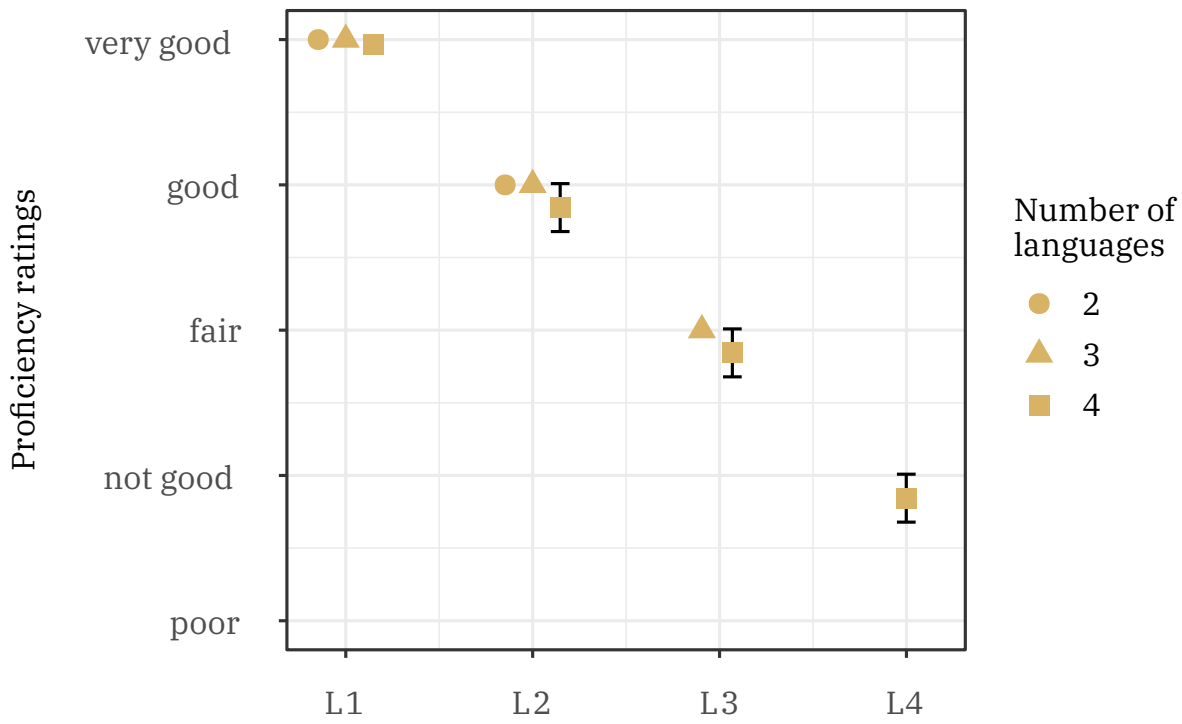


Figure 8.13: Self-reported proficiency for the first (L1), second (L2), third (L3), and fourth (L4) language of speakers who speak two, three, or four languages (*İstanbul University*)

that the results of the two universities seem to be parallel to each other and quadrilingual groups tend to report lower proficiency ratings compared to bilinguals and trilinguals. Second, the trilingual group, as observed in the figures, rated their proficiency levels slightly higher than other speakers (i. e. bilinguals and quadrilinguals).

According to the data of Bursa Uludağ University (Figure 8.12), the proficiency levels of quadrilinguals were rated marginally below compared to other speakers. Likewise, when data from İstanbul University was analyzed, the commonly observed tendency in terms of marginal decline is the same as can be seen in Figure 8.13. In addition, an inspection of the data for quadrilinguals' fourth language reveals that markedly lower ratings of proficiency exist at Bursa Uludağ University compared to the results of quadrilinguals studying at İstanbul University (Figures 8.12 and 8.13). Therefore, one inference is that there are lower proficiency ratings at both universities by a group of quadrilingual respondents, who are expected to be the most multilingual group with a much more heterogeneous range of linguistic backgrounds and proficiencies in the current study. These findings are crucial and discussed in detail (see section 9.2). When both datasets are compared, trilinguals rate their language proficiency levels slightly higher than bilinguals in their L1, L2 and L3 as Figures 8.12 and 8.13 display, whereas there seem to be higher proficiency ratings for their L2 and L3 compared to quadrilinguals.

Overall, these results only represent tendencies among university students. Yet, the results provide that there is not any association between the extent of multilingualism and self-reported proficiencies. One major explanation for this non-association might relate to a clear decline observed in the ratings. As a result, there seems to be no evidence that multilingualism has a positive influence on proficiency development. This is a rather unexpected result, which also fails to provide support for the linguistic models claiming that multilingualism provides support for advancing language proficiency levels of additional languages in the repertoire.

Noteworthy is the findings of quadrilingual group and this may be associated with a professional language user profile as they know four languages. Particularly in terms of metalinguistic awareness, they are expected to be more conscious language users to some extent. Hence, these quadrilingual groups seem to provide a more careful evaluation when it comes to their self-reported proficiency results. However, a clear benefit of multilingualism in proficiency development could not be identified in the present study.

In accordance with the analyses of self-reported proficiency ratings of bilingual, trilingual and quadrilingual groups reflected above, students' written and

spoken (literal and oral) proficiency levels were also examined. These skill-based proficiency ratings have been hypothesized to be widely varied contrasting associate and bachelor degree level students. In the visualizations of the data related to the present study, oral skills represent self-reported proficiency levels of listening and speaking, while literal skills represent self-reported proficiency levels of reading and writing (Figures 8.14 and 8.15). Although in the online questionnaire, these four skills were distinguished from one another, we combined these four skills into two main groups, such as oral and literal.

A closer inspection of Figures 8.14 and 8.15 shows that oral proficiencies are generally higher than literal proficiencies. Another promising finding is that the associate degree level students reported better or equal proficiencies. Similar to the patterns that have been observed with the lower proficiency ratings of each additional language and what we earlier discussed for the self-reported proficiency ratings, there is a decline in the findings of proficiency ratings starting after L1. Additionally, there are even more distinct results contrasting study cohorts that we can observe in Figures 8.14 and 8.15.

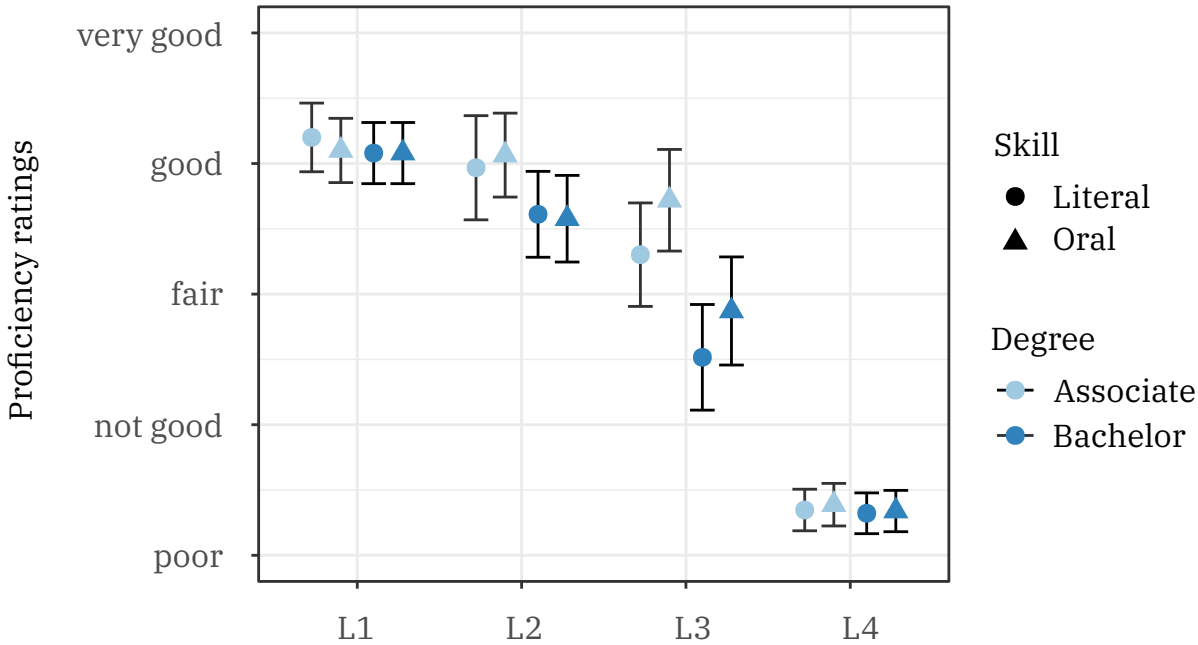


Figure 8.14: Literal and oral proficiencies of *Bursa Uludağ University*, by language and by degree

When considering both datasets, the results indicate important differences contrasting study cohorts. When reflecting on the results of Uludağ University, it is notable that literal and oral skills are close to each other in terms of proficiency ratings and reported as 'good' for L1 at both study cohorts with one exception: literal skills of associate degree students. That is, associate degree students reported their literal skills as slightly more proficient than their oral skills. Next, proficiency ratings for L2 are almost the same in terms of both skill types on the

study cohort basis, whereas both oral and literal skills have been reported to be more proficient by associate degree students. In Figure 8.14, there is a clear trend of a decrease in L3 for both study cohorts. Yet, there is a substantial difference in terms of the ratings of literal and oral skills. Similar to general results, oral skills have been reported more proficient than literal skills in students' L3. Again, compared to associate degree level, bachelor students reported lower proficiency levels for their L3. Lastly, what stands out in these findings is the markedly lower proficiency ratings of L4 for both study cohorts. For L4, literal and oral skills have been reported almost the same from the data of each study cohort, while associate degree students have reported slightly more proficient outcomes than their bachelor degree counterparts. On the whole, for the informants at Uludağ University, the findings provide that their proficiency levels decrease from one language to another and the proficiency levels of oral skills are generally either higher or equal to literal skills with two exceptional cases where the proficiency ratings of literal skills are reported higher by associate students for their L1 and proficiency levels of the second language regarding oral skills are reported lower by bachelor students. On a study cohort basis, these results also indicate a trend that associate students have a tendency to report higher proficiency levels for L1, L2, L3 and L4 compared to bachelor students.

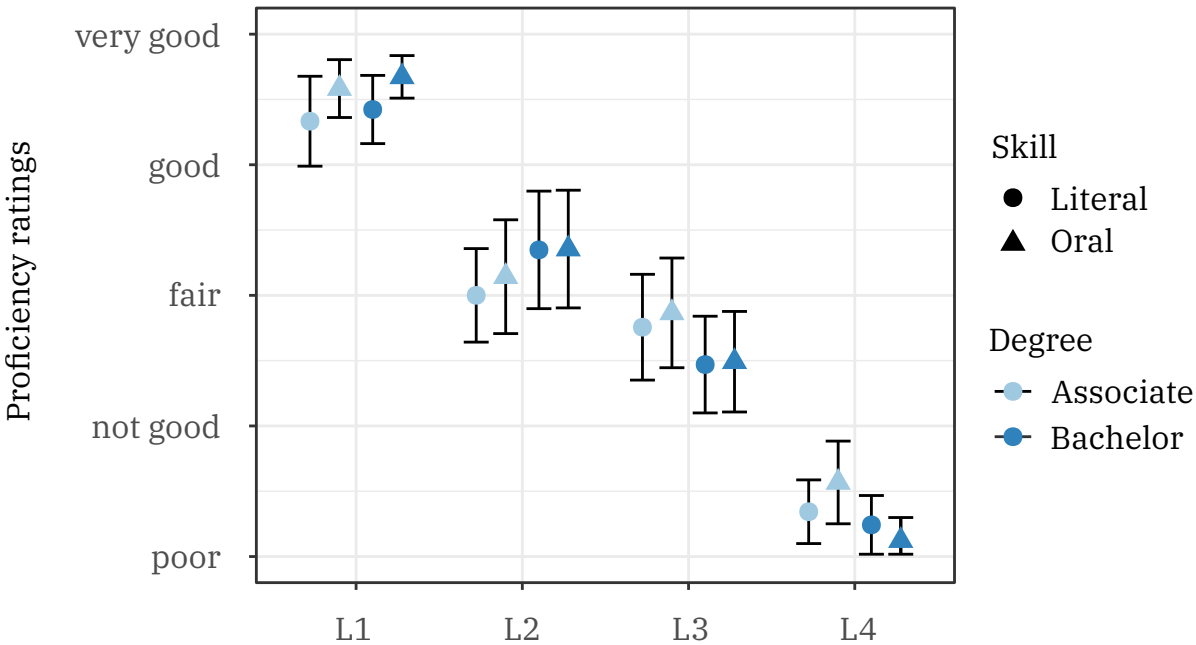


Figure 8.15: Literal and oral proficiencies of *İstanbul University*, by language and by degree

A similar trend is observed again when we analyze the data from İstanbul University. In Figure 8.15, it is clear that there is a similar decline in proficiency levels of students with each additional language in the repertoire. Concerning L1 for both study cohorts, oral skills have been reported as more proficient than literal skills. Next, there is a substantial decline in L2, which has been reported

between 'good' and 'not good' for both degree groups. For the associate degree cohort, shown in Figure 8.15, it seems that oral skills are reported slightly higher than literal skills, whereas both skills have been reported as the same by the bachelor degree group. Interestingly, bachelor students reported comparatively higher proficiencies for their L2. Moving on to L3, Figure 8.15 illustrates the proportion of different proficiency levels of two study cohorts varying between 'good' and 'not good'. While proficiencies according to skills are reported as similar by bachelor students, oral skills are reported as slightly more proficient than literal skills by associate students. Finally, the outcome for L4 proficiency scores is nearly the lowest rank (between not good and poor) of all students' proficiency levels. Oral skills are reported as more proficient than literal skills by the respondents of associate degree level, whereas the literal skills are reported only a bit more proficient than oral skills of bachelor students. What emerges from the reported outcomes in terms of literal and oral skills is that oral proficiency skills are either more proficient or nearly the same as compared to literal skills, except with regard to L4 in bachelor degree study cohort. These self-reported proficiency skills are not statistically significant but provide an idea of the literal and oral proficiency levels of the study participants. Considering degree cohorts, bachelor students appear to have higher proficiency levels for L1 and L2 compared to associate students, whereas their L3 and L4 are the lower scores.

Analysis of the prior proficiency results suggests that disciplinary affiliation may be an interesting aspect of the proficiency data regarding L1, L2, L3, and L4 speaker groups since participants were distributed across various disciplines and degree programs in this study. To investigate this issue, for both datasets (universities), bachelor students were categorized into either natural science or social science, whereas for associate students, no further categorization was applied due to the variety of programs outside of natural and social sciences. Percentages of speakers in the relevant speaker groups (L1, L2, L3, and L4) within each academic program were calculated from the raw data of respondents' self-reported proficiency rankings as represented in Figures 8.16 and 8.17.

The investigation reveals marked differences in the percentages of the three main disciplines. For the Social Sciences, a substantial majority of respondents identify as trilingual or quadrilingual speakers. In the sample of L3, 33.3 % of students from Bursa Uludağ University and 81 % of respondents from İstanbul University are pursuing degrees in the Social Sciences, whereas these percentages are 40.9 % at Bursa Uludağ University and 73.1 % at İstanbul University for quadrilingual speakers of the Social Science sample. Given the differences in L3 and L4, it is perhaps unsurprising that these students may be more multilingual due to the requirements of their academic disciplines such as the German language requirement for studying at the Archeology department. Of further interest

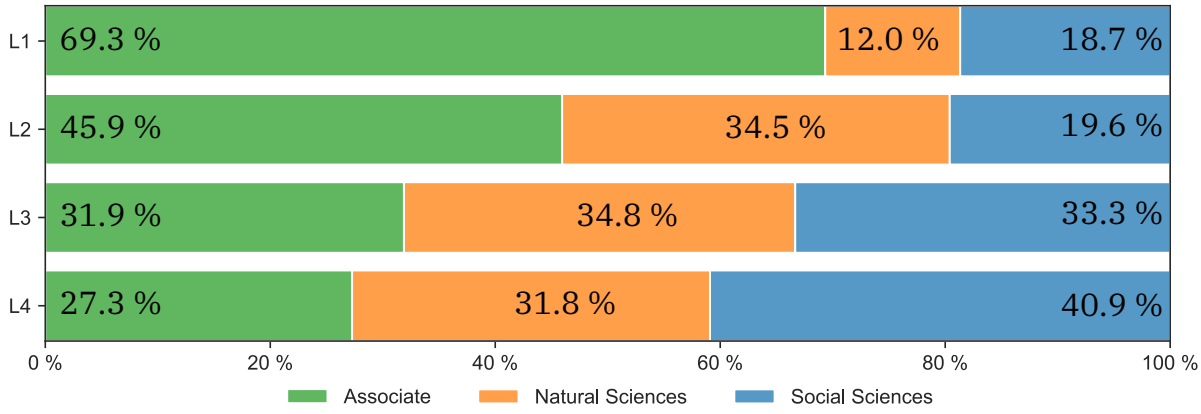


Figure 8.16: The distribution of three main academic disciplines in the relevant speaker groups (L1, L2, L3, and L4) (*Bursa Uludağ University*)

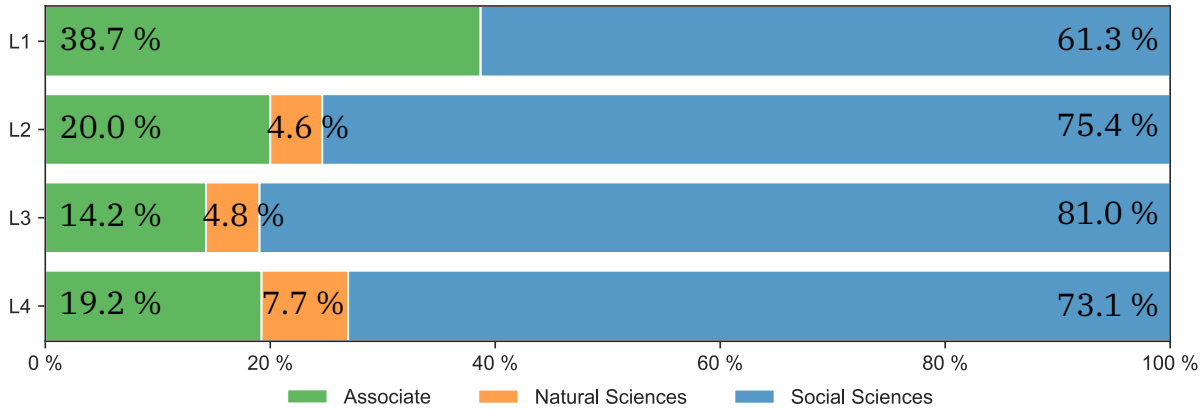


Figure 8.17: The distribution of three main academic disciplines in the relevant speaker groups (L1, L2, L3, and L4) (*İstanbul University*)

is the sizeable number of associate students found in L1: 69.3 % from Bursa Uludağ University and 38.7 % from İstanbul University; whereas, for L2 speaker groups, a considerable change was found (45.9 % and 20 %), which may relate to the major linguistic profile of monolingualism and bilingualism in this specific degree cohort. Similarly, a clear majority of respondents (12 % from Bursa Uludağ University) from the Natural Sciences are found in L1 and L2 (34.5 % from Bursa Uludağ University and 4.6 % from İstanbul University) speaker groups compared to those in the Social Sciences, as shown in the Figure 8.16 and Figure 8.17. As a result, these percentages display the distribution across three major disciplines regarding the participants' language profiles, such as bilingualism, trilingualism and quadrilingualism in the current study. These results are not statistical outcomes, yet descriptive percentages across three major disciplines. The disciplinary affiliations are not available in the metadata for conducting inferential statistics to find out the relationship with regard to proficiency levels but can be elicited from the general background of participants as presented in the descriptive results (compare the section 7.2.2 for the academic disciplinary affiliations per institution in the sample).

In conclusion, at this stage of understanding self-reported proficiency levels, there seems to be a substantial decline from one language to another. That also means that language proficiency levels appear to be unaffected by additional languages in the repertoire according to the tendencies reported in the present study. In terms of literal and oral skills, one obvious trend observed is the higher level of ratings for oral skills. Finally, this proficiency section presented the distribution of academic disciplines regarding language profile groups according to which participants from Social Sciences appear to be more multilingual since the majority of them belong to L3 and L4 speaker groups.

In the final part of the questionnaire, respondents were asked about their attitudes toward Turkish and English languages to add broad insights to language attitudes among university students in the Turkish context, which leads to the next section.

8.4 Language Attitudes

After identifying the extent of multilingualism and self-reported proficiency ratings, the next important issue in the current study is to address the individual attitudes toward English and Turkish languages contrasting two study cohorts. The present section, covering the third emerging theme of the analyzed data, starts with the presentation of the descriptive results of language attitudes found

within the Turkish tertiary level education (see section 8.4.5). Next, the statistical analyses of participants' responses are provided for each attitude item in the online questionnaire (see section 8.4.6). This attitude section concludes with a brief overview of the results accompanied by a short commentary on the interpretation of the attitudes (see section 8.4.7).

As mentioned earlier, one of the primary goals of the present study is to draw a broad picture of university students' attitudes. For this purpose, students who participated in the online survey were asked their opinions regarding language attitudes. The online questionnaire features 18 Likert scale items, in total, corresponding to measuring participants' attitudes towards English and Turkish (9 items for each language, respectively). Students could respond using a standard seven-point Likert scale ranging from strong agreement to strong disagreement about the statements regarding better life and employment opportunities, speaking skills, personal identity, cultural heritage, and suitability of English and Turkish for the modern world.

Taken together, the analyses of the results aimed to bring out marked differences in language attitudes among university students representing two study cohorts: bachelor degree and associate degree levels. Concerning the quantitative results of the attitude scale, we will, firstly, report the Cronbach alpha values (see section 8.4.1) and further explore the effects of variables such as gender (see section 8.4.2), age (see section 8.4.3) and citizenship (see section 8.4.4) regarding language attitudes in the following subsections.

8.4.1 Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for the Attitude Statements

The results of the collected data from the attitude part of the online questionnaire are presented in detail as the quantitative data is the main instrument used in the present study. This section mainly focuses on finding out Cronbach's alpha coefficient for 18 Likert scale items. In order to test for the internal consistency of the measured constructs, Cronbach's alpha was calculated per university group condition. Cronbach's alpha test "is a test reliability technique that requires only a single test administration to provide a unique estimate of the reliability for a given test" (Gliem & Gliem, 2003: 84). When employing Likert-type scales, it is essential to compute and report Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal consistency or reliability (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). In the present study, Cronbach's alpha values were calculated through the reliability statistics for Turkish and English attitude scales. Table 8.9 shows us fairly high Cronbach's alpha values, while the level of significance has been set at $\alpha = 0.05$.

Table 8.9: Cronbach's alpha values for the language attitude scale

		n of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Bursa Uludağ University	English language attitude	9	.890
	Turkish language attitude	9	.889
İstanbul University	English language attitude	9	.878
	Turkish language attitude	9	.900

From an examination of the responses to the attitude part of the survey consisting of 9 items for the English and 9 items for the Turkish subscale, the Cronbach alpha internal consistency values ranged between $.878$ and $.900$ as shown in Table 8.9. The internal consistency value for the English language attitude version was $\alpha = .890$, and for the Turkish language attitude version, it was $\alpha = .889$ according to the data of Bursa Uludağ University. In terms of the number of survey items, the same applies to the data of İstanbul University with 9 items in each subscale and the value obtained for Cronbach's alpha was $\alpha = .878$ for the English language attitude version and for the Turkish language attitude version, it was $\alpha = .900$. As a result, the first set of analyses examined the reliability of questionnaire items, and the internal consistency is high for the current study according to Cronbach alpha coefficients.

The following subsections of language attitude results will continue with the analysis of the effects of variables such as gender, age, and citizenship on language attitudes.

8.4.2 Gender Variable in Language Attitudes

This subsection of language attitudes focuses on the gender variable. In order to assess the difference in attitudes towards English and Turkish language between female and male students, a Mann-Whitney U test was carried out. Due to the non-parametric data, the Mann-Whitney U test was chosen on purpose since this statistical test enables researchers to examine differences between the two independent groups (e.g. female and male participants). Concerning the degree programs, the results of bachelor and associate degree study cohorts are presented in a different table to distinguish between these two study cohorts. In addition to the results of Mann-Whitney U test, there are also descriptive statistic outcomes with minimum and maximum median values shown in the Tables 8.10, 8.11, 8.12 and 8.13.

When two datasets of Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University were examined as a whole, it was observed that there was no significant gender difference in the attitudes of university students. Further results of gender variable analysis, firstly, are presented for bachelor degree level and then, we will have a closer look at the gender variable regarding the associate degree level in detail.

8.4.2.a Gender Variable in Language Attitudes of Bachelor Students

Starting with the bachelor degree cohort, Table 8.10 provides the results obtained from the data of Bursa Uludağ University and no statistically significant difference has been observed between the attitudes of female and male students towards English and Turkish languages as the significance value has been found as $.611$ for the Turkish attitude and $.796$ for the English attitude. Furthermore, the median scores of male and female participants are relatively close to each other in terms of Turkish and English language attitude statements in the questionnaire. Male participants ($Mdn = 58$) scored only slightly higher than the female participants ($Mdn = 57$) in terms of Turkish language attitude statements and at the same time, male participants ($Mdn = 47$), again, scored higher than female participants ($Mdn = 46$) in terms of English language attitude statements. To compare the differences in Median scores, we conducted a Mann-Whitney U test, which is a non-parametric statistical method suitable for independent samples and allows for a more reliable comparison between the two groups. As a consequence, a Mann-Whitney U test confirms that there is no statistically significant difference between the female and male groups of bachelor students with respect to language attitudes ($ZTurkishAttitude = -0.509$, $U = 10439$, $p = .611$ and $ZEnglishAttitude = -0.258$, $U = 11087$ $p = .796$).

Table 8.10: Mann-Whitney U test results of gender variable for bachelor students' language attitudes (Bursa Uludağ University)

	Male			**Female**			**p-value**	**Z (Mann-Whitney U)**
	Min	Median	Max	Min	Median	Max		
Turkish Attitude	18	58	63	10	57	63	0.611	-0.509
English Attitude	7	47	63	9	46	63	0.796	-0.258

Following the results of the bachelor students, Table 8.11 presents an overview of the bachelor degree data of İstanbul University. Similar to the results mentioned above, language attitudes appear to be unaffected by gender as the significance value has been found as $.634$ for Turkish attitude and $.949$ for English attitude. Following this, male participants ($Mdn = 55$) scored the same median values as female participants ($Mdn = 55$) considering Turkish language attitude.

Table 8.11: Mann-Whitney U test results of gender variable for bachelor students' language attitudes (Istanbul University)

	Male			Female			p-value	Z (Mann-Whitney U)
	Min	Median	Max	Min	Median	Max		
Turkish Attitude	9	55	63	21	55	63	0.634	-0.556
English Attitude	9	46	63	13	45	63	0.949	-0.369

For the English language attitude, male participants ($Mdn = 46$) scored slightly higher than female participants ($Mdn = 45$). According to the results of the Mann-Whitney U test, no significant difference between female and male groups was evident regarding bachelor students' attitudes ($ZTurkishAttitude = -0.556$, $U = 7037.5$, $p = .634$ and $ZEnglishAttitude = -0.369$, $U = 7268$, $p = .949$).

8.4.2.b Gender Variable in Language Attitudes of Associate Students

Another group of participants involves the associate degree study cohort in the current study and the same gender variable has been taken into consideration for the comparisons of attitude scale scores. Repeatedly, the statistical analysis concerning gender variable has been performed using Mann Whitney- U test in order to reveal the difference in language attitudes between female and male groups. The results are presented in Table 8.12 for Bursa Uludağ University and the results of the data related to İstanbul University are shown in Table 8.13 concerning associate students' language attitudes.

Table 8.12: Mann-Whitney U test results of gender variable for associate students' language attitudes (Bursa Uludağ University)

	Male			Female			p-value	Z (Mann-Whitney U)
	Min	Median	Max	Min	Median	Max		
Turkish Attitude	18	60	63	10	60	63	0.788	-0.269
English Attitude	13	48	63	9	47	63	0.793	-0.262

As part of the research group, when we look closely at the associate degree level cohort from Bursa Uludağ University, the results in Table 8.12 indicate no significant difference between gender groups. As observed in the Mann-Whitney U test scores of Turkish and English language attitudes ($ZTurkishAttitude = -0.269$, $U = 2216$, $p = 0.788$ and $ZEnglishAttitude = -0.262$, $U = 2264$, $p = 0.793$), no statistical difference was found between female and male students due to the insignificant values, which are $.788$ for the Turkish attitudes and $.793$ for the English attitudes. Moreover, the median scores of male and female participants are exactly the same ($Mdn = 60$) considering language attitudes towards Turkish. For

the English attitude part, male ($Mdn = 48$) and female ($Mdn = 47$) participants have relatively close median values as can be seen from Table 8.12.

Table 8.13: Mann-Whitney U test results of gender variable for associate students' language attitudes (İstanbul University)

	Male			Female			p-value	Z (Mann-Whitney U)
	Min	Median	Max	Min	Median	Max		
Turkish Attitude	18	57	63	21	55.5	63	0.644	-0.339
English Attitude	24	49	58	13	43	63	0.352	-0.653

Additionally, the data from the respondents of İstanbul university studying in the associate degree cohort has been investigated (Table 8.13). After analyzing the data with the Mann-Whitney U test, the results show no significant difference between gender groups regarding the attitudes towards English and Turkish ($ZTurkishAttitude = -0.339$, $U = 200.0$, $p = .644$ and $ZEnglishAttitude = -0.653$, $U = 184.0$ $p = .352$). Similarly, when the median scores of male and female participants were compared, male participants ($Mdn = 57$) scored slightly higher than the female participants ($Mdn = 55$) in terms of Turkish language attitude, while in terms of English language attitude, male participants ($Mdn = 49$) scored relatively higher than female participants ($Mdn = 43$).

In summary, the results of Mann-Whitney U test indicate no significant difference in language attitudes between the two gender groups such as female and male students. Hence, gender is not a contributor to the overall language attitudes regarding associate and bachelor students in the current study. The next subsection, therefore, moves on to the analysis of the other variables, which might reach statistical significance. These are age and citizenship variables regarding attitudes towards English and Turkish.

8.4.3 Age Variable in Language Attitudes

Earlier, we stated in the demographic part of the results that tertiary level education involves a specific age group in Turkey and clearly, the age group is 20 years old and above in the current study (see section 7.2.2). Based on these demographic values, the relationship between age and language attitudes towards Turkish and English has been assessed throughout the present study. For this purpose, Spearman's correlation analysis was performed to reveal findings between age and language attitudes towards English and Turkish. In other words, a correlation test was used to measure the degree of association between age and language attitudes.

From the data of Bursa Uludağ University, Spearman's correlation provides information that age and language attitudes are negatively correlated regarding attitudes towards Turkish only ($r = -.113$, $p = .046$), as can be seen from Table 8.14. These negative correlation results suggest that the favourable attitudes towards Turkish decrease with ageing. While the findings of age and attitudes are significantly negative for the Turkish language, these two variables are not significantly correlated in terms of English language attitudes ($r = -.013$, $p = .812$).

Table 8.14: Spearman correlation results for the age variable (Bursa Uludağ University)

	r	p-value
Turkish Attitude	-0.113	0.046
English Attitude	-0.013	0.812

Correspondingly to the age factor, the Spearman's correlation results of İstanbul University (Table 8.15) show that, again, there is a significant but negative correlation between Turkish language attitudes and the age variable, which indicates that positive attitudes towards Turkish decrease as the participants get older ($r = -.132$, $p = .038$). Concerning the English language attitudes, the age factor did not bring any significant result regarding correlation analysis ($r = -.043$, $p = .500$).

Table 8.15: Spearman correlation results for the age variable (İstanbul University)

	r	p-value
Turkish Attitude	-0.132	0.038
English Attitude	-0.043	0.500

Having identified significantly negative correlations for the Turkish attitudes, it is crucial to examine whether there is a significant difference among four categorical age groups such as 20-25, 25-30, 30-35, and 35-40-year-old students, while reflecting upon the correlation findings. Thus, a Kruskal-Wallis test was performed to determine whether there is an effect of age on the reported levels of attitudes toward Turkish among the specific age groups. In the end, the results indicate a non-significant difference in attitudes towards Turkish among age groups regarding Bursa Uludağ University ($H(3) = 3.565$, $p = .312$) and Istanbul University ($H(3) = 6.250$, $p = .100$). We, therefore, concluded that there is no difference in the level of attitudes towards Turkish among four categorical age groups.

In conclusion, what is interesting about the age variable is that the findings

are negatively correlated with Turkish language attitudes, whereas no evidence has been found for the relationship between the English language attitudes and the age variable. The significant negative correlations indicate that the older the respondents get, the more negative attitudes towards the Turkish language they seem to develop. One explanation for this might be that Turkish is likely to have no big role as they get older and become more international for future-related plans. Regarding the role of the Turkish language in future life, the interview data results also provide support for students' global plans regarding their future careers (see section 8.5.12). As a result, they might develop negative attitudes towards Turkish in favour of other foreign languages. For instance, English may be believed to have more importance in their life and bring them better job and life opportunities. Nonetheless, there is still no significant relationship between age and English attitudes. This issue will be elaborated on in the discussion chapter in detail (see section 9.3).

The results in this section support the hypothesis that age has a significant relationship with language attitudes, but it is only a negatively correlated relationship regarding Turkish language attitudes. In contrast, the current correlation findings indicate that age seems to play no special role considering attitudes towards English. Further analysis of categorical age groups also did not bring out significant results. After analyzing the age variable, the next section focuses more on the citizenship variable in terms of language attitudes.

8.4.4 Citizenship Variable in Language Attitudes

Thus far, further statistical tests revealed that variable such as gender shows no significant difference in language attitudes, while in terms of age variable, Turkish attitudes are negatively affected. In addition, English attitudes appear to be unaffected by age. Now, we concentrate on another important demographic variable: citizenship. This subsection further investigates whether the citizenship variable has a significant effect on attitudes.

Regarding the citizenship variable, we do not expect to find out statistically significant differences because there were only a few participants with non-Turkish citizenship. However, a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to evaluate differences in median change of attitude statements regarding the nationalities of participants (presented in detail in section 7.2.2). In terms of Turkish attitudes, the test findings were non-significant for Bursa Uludağ University regarding associate ($H(3) = 6.580$, $p = .087$) and bachelor ($H(13) = 17.009$, $p = .199$) degrees. For İstanbul University, the test results were also non-significant for associate

($H(1) = 0.921$, $p = .337$) and bachelor ($H(9) = 10.252$, $p = .370$) degrees in terms of Turkish attitudes.

Moving on to the English attitudes, the citizenship results were, again, non-significant for Bursa Uludağ University regarding associate ($H(3) = 2.321$, $p = .508$) and bachelor ($H(13) = 17.596$, $p = .173$) degrees, as well as for İstanbul University regarding associate ($H(1) = 0.227$, $p = .665$) and bachelor ($H(9) = 5.802$, $p = .727$) degrees. On the whole, we can see that none of the comparisons was significant in terms of the citizenship variable. Hence, there is no significant difference indicating a relationship between language attitudes and the citizenship variable when the results of the data are analyzed.

In summary, for the informants in this study, citizenship plays no role in language attitudes, and this is likely to be explained by the high number of participants who have Turkish citizenship in the current study.

8.4.5 Analysis of the Results of Language Attitudes

After identifying the results of gender, age, and citizenship variables with regard to language attitudes, the following step was the analysis of the overall attitudes towards Turkish and English languages. As we referred before, we differentiated two study cohorts: bachelor degree and associate degree level participants, again, for the language attitude analyses. In the following subsections, the attitude findings are, firstly, addressed by integrating the descriptive statistics and secondly, visualizations of the quantitative data with bar plots and the statistically significant results.

With regard to language attitudes, the outcomes of the analyses yielded statistically significant values and the descriptive statistics such as median values and standard deviations from the data of language attitude part of the online questionnaire are shown in Tables 8.16, 8.17, 8.18, and 8.19. In these descriptive results, the sample size was indicated for each attitude statement. These Likert-type attitude items are 9 statements for the attitudes towards English and 9 statements for the attitudes towards Turkish aiming to identify the students' attitudes under the theme of better life and employment opportunities, speaking skills, personal identity, cultural heritage, and suitability of English and Turkish for the modern world. Furthermore, the relevant Tables 8.16, 8.17, 8.18, and 8.19 also display the results of Mann-Whitney U test with all numeric values such as reported Z scores and p-values which are presented in section 8.4.6 in detail after addressing the same results with the descriptive statistics such as mean, median and standard deviation in this section.

Table 8.16: Mann-Whitney U test results and descriptive statistics for the attitudes towards *English* per degree (*Bursa Uludağ University*) (n = number of the sample, M = mean, Mdn = median, SD = standard deviation).

	Bachelor Degree				**Associate Degree**					
	n	M	Mdn	SD	n	M	Mdn	SD	z-value	p-value
Knowing English will increase my opportunities to find employment.	174	6.59	7	0.937	146	6.35	7	1.320	-1.216	0.224
English is important to know in order to get far in life.	171	6.38	7	1.085	146	6.01	7	1.515	-2.164	0.030
English is a language that is well suited to modern society.	173	5.91	6	1.425	145	5.86	6	1.532	-0.086	0.932
I feel confident and secure when speaking English.	173	4.68	5	1.757	146	4.79	5	1.869	-0.780	0.435
English lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions.	173	4.60	5	1.798	145	4.48	5	1.748	-0.584	0.560
Knowing English is a significant part of my cultural heritage.	172	4.81	5	1.984	146	4.79	5	1.947	-0.131	0.895
Knowing English is an important part of my personal identity.	171	4.58	5	2.014	144	4.59	5	2.166	-0.226	0.821
I feel fully at ease in a group that converses in English.	172	3.97	4	1.835	145	4.12	4	1.995	-0.723	0.470
Whenever I have a choice, I prefer to speak English.	171	4.06	4	2.102	146	4.34	5	2.198	-1.111	0.267

According to median scores of the English attitude data from Bursa Uludağ University, the two items with the highest median scores (I 1, I 2) have the same value for the median ($Mdn = 7$), while standard deviations are different ($SD = 0.937$ for I1 and $SD = 1.515$ for I2). Next, the two items with the lowest median scores are (I 8, I 9) ranging between different median ($Mdn = 4$ and $Mdn = 5$), and standard deviation ($SD = 1.835$ for I8 and $SD = 2.198$ for I9) values.

Furthermore, the analysis of the data reveals that one of the items with the highest median score highlights the importance of English knowledge for increasing opportunities for employment and getting far in life. The distribution of attitude responses is highly favourable towards the English language, which shows that the students have positive attitudes and it might be due to the fact that English creates better job and life opportunities to achieve life-related goals. In contrast, the lowest median scores belong to items eight and nine as these statements underline participants' speaking skills in a group that converses in English and English speaking preference when given a chance. In other words, these lowest median values provide support that the students are not eager to use the English language in terms of speaking. As a result, the initial evaluation of the results of median values suggests that attitudes towards English are highly favourable among university students, which is striking. However, speaking skills in English have been reported to be problematic, which may point to further analysis. Fundamentally, the median scores of survey items related to speaking skills can be an indicator that a majority of participants are reluctant to speak English or to be part of an English conversation. The detailed analysis of Likert-type attitude items will be covered in section 8.4.6 with the visualizations of the findings in bar plots.

In the corresponding analysis, as shown in Table 8.17, which includes the analysis of Turkish attitudes of Bursa Uludağ University, there are nine statements for the Turkish language. All items belonging to this part of the attitude are ranging in terms of median values ($Mdn = 6$ and $Mdn = 7$), as well as the values of standard deviation ($SD = 0.963$ and $SD = 1.945$). The results are closely related to each other with the highest median score items (I 3, I 4, I 5, I 6, I 7, I 8, I 9) supporting the idea of the positive statements about the beauty of the Turkish language for cultural heritage and its suitability for modern society. Additionally, these statements with the highest median scores also emphasize that participants feel better when they speak the Turkish language, which might be due to the majority of Turkish participants in the present study. The second highest median value, which includes the items with the median score of 6 (I 1, I 2) are related to better job and life opportunities that the Turkish language brings to its speakers. Again, there will be detailed quantitative analyses related to the Turkish language in section 8.4.6.

Table 8.17: Mann-Whitney U test results and descriptive statistics for the attitudes towards *Turkish* per degree (*Bursa Uludağ University*) (n = number of the sample, M = mean, Mdn = median, SD = standard deviation).

	Bachelor Degree				**Associate Degree**					
	n	M	Mdn	SD	n	M	Mdn	SD	z-value	p-value
Knowing Turkish will increase my opportunities to find employment.	168	5.12	6	1.945	145	5.76	7	1.701	-3.11	0.002
Turkish is important to know in order to get far in life.	166	5.63	6	1.531	143	6.03	7	1.436	-2.685	0.007
Turkish is a language that is well suited to modern society.	167	5.65	6	1.672	145	6.10	7	1.342	-2.340	0.019
I feel confident and secure when speaking Turkish.	167	6.38	7	1.160	145	6.48	7	1.125	-1.088	0.277
Turkish lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions.	168	6.51	7	1.061	145	6.57	7	0.963	-0.341	0.733
Knowing Turkish is a significant part of my cultural heritage.	168	6.43	7	1.182	144	6.51	7	0.989	-0.119	0.906
Knowing Turkish is an important part of my personal identity.	168	6.48	7	1.094	143	6.53	7	1.080	-0.780	0.436
I feel fully at ease in a group that converses in Turkish.	167	6.55	7	0.998	144	6.57	7	1.107	-0.801	0.423
Whenever I have a choice, I prefer to speak Turkish.	164	6.07	7	1.563	143	6.27	7	1.354	-0.745	0.456

A similar observation is made regarding the results of İstanbul University after analyzing the data in terms of the attitudes towards Turkish and English languages. In other words, the findings display parallelism to the results from the previous data set presented for Bursa Uludağ University (Table 8.18 and Table 8.19).

Table 8.18: Mann-Whitney U test results and descriptive statistics for the attitudes towards *English* per degree (*İstanbul University*) (n = number of the sample, M = mean, Mdn = median, SD = standard deviation).

	Bachelor Degree				**Associate Degree**					
	n	M	Mdn	SD	n	M	Mdn	SD	z-value	p-value
Knowing English will increase my opportunities to find employment.	194	6.47	7	0.923	51	6.25	7	1.369	-0.862	0.389
English is important to know in order to get far in life.	195	6.26	7	1.139	50	5.68	6	1.596	-2.788	0.005
English is a language that is well suited to modern society.	194	6.00	6	1.267	49	5.41	6	1.802	-2.202	0.028
I feel confident and secure when speaking English.	193	4.78	5	1.686	51	4.57	5	1.931	-0.497	0.619
English lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions.	193	4.83	5	1.476	51	4.18	4	1.682	-2.580	0.010
Knowing English is a significant part of my cultural heritage.	194	4.95	5	1.781	50	4.26	5	1.850	-2.543	0.011
Knowing English is an important part of my personal identity.	193	4.51	5	1.803	51	4.33	5	1.997	-0.420	0.675
I feel fully at ease in a group that converses in English.	193	4.14	4	1.730	50	3.60	4	1.917	-1.763	0.078
Whenever I have a choice, I prefer to speak English.	193	3.61	4	1.829	50	3.58	3	2.148	-0.316	0.752

For the İstanbul group, the two items with the highest median scores are the same again (I 1, I 2), and are ranging regarding standard deviation ($SD = 0.923$ and $SD = 1.596$), while the median value is the same ($Mdn = 7$). Also, the last two items representing the lowest median scores (I 8, I 9) have different values ($Mdn = 3$ and $Mdn = 4$). For the English attitude, the standard deviation values for these items are also ranging between different values ($SD = 1.730$ and $SD = 2.148$). Likewise, the highest median score belongs to the item emphasizing the importance of English knowledge for increasing the opportunities for employment and getting far in life. The lowest items in the findings are rated for English speaking skills, which indicates that students are not eager to speak English or prefer speaking English when they have a chance. With regard to Turkish attitudes, Table 8.19 presents the findings of İstanbul University.

Table 8.19: Mann-Whitney U test results and descriptive statistics for the attitudes towards *Turkish* per degree (*İstanbul University*) (n = number of the sample, M = mean, Mdn = median, SD = standard deviation).

	Bachelor Degree				**Associate Degree**					
	n	M	Mdn	SD	n	M	Mdn	SD	z-value	p-value
Knowing Turkish will increase my opportunities to find employment.	195	4.85	5	1.959	51	5.39	6	1.960	-1.969	0.049
Turkish is important to know in order to get far in life.	194	5.32	6	1.704	51	5.69	6	1.667	-1.668	0.095
Turkish is a language that is well suited to modern society.	195	5.55	6	1.534	50	6.02	6	1.220	-1.999	0.046
I feel confident and secure when speaking Turkish.	195	6.34	7	1.235	49	6.22	7	1.343	-0.680	0.496
Turkish lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions.	194	6.42	7	1.046	51	6.27	7	1.328	-0.487	0.626
Knowing Turkish is a significant part of my cultural heritage.	194	6.40	7	1.180	50	6.14	7	1.512	-1.224	0.221
Knowing Turkish is an important part of my personal identity.	195	6.37	7	1.121	51	6.06	7	1.542	-1.103	0.270
I feel fully at ease in a group that converses in Turkish.	194	6.52	7	1.014	49	6.33	7	1.265	-1.254	0.210
Whenever I have a choice, I prefer to speak Turkish.	195	6.21	7	1.308	51	5.82	7	1.819	-1.072	0.284

In line with the Turkish attitude findings previously reported for Bursa Uludağ University, the data from İstanbul University supports the idea of the role of Turkish regarding the themes of cultural heritage, personal identity and the easiness of conversing in the Turkish language. Throughout the study, the highest scores regarding median values ($Mdn = 7$) and standard deviations (ranging between $SD = 1.014$ and $SD = 1.819$) belong to the items (I 4, I 5, I 6, I 7, I 8, I 9) which include positive statements toward the Turkish language (Table 8.19). It appears that the item, which has the lowest median score ($Mdn = 5$ for the bachelor degree level and $Mdn = 6$ for associate degree level) and values ranging between $SD = 1.959$ and $SD = 1.960$, is the first item of Turkish attitude statements. This statement states that knowing Turkish will increase opportunities to find employment and interestingly, these results are in line with previous findings of Bursa Uludağ University data, supporting the view that English enables university students with more convenient employment options.

Taken together, these findings suggest that there is an association between the two sampled universities in the present study in terms of students' attitudes towards Turkish and English. University students seem to be highly interested in English language knowledge as it is believed to create many opportunities considering better career options in life, whereas the Turkish language appears to play a less important role in their future professional life according to the results of attitude item analyses. Yet, lower median values show students' lack of speaking skills in terms of the English language. In particular, these issues will be discussed in detail in the discussion part (9.3). Turning now to the analyses again, the next subsection focuses on the comparisons of the two degree cohorts and detailed analyses of attitude items in the questionnaire.

8.4.6 Results of the Attitude Questionnaire

The following figures (8.18,8.19,8.20,8.21) in this subsection show us the disparity between English and Turkish attitudes considering 18 attitude statements to which students could respond using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from strong agreement to strong disagreement. As was remarked in section 8.4.5, the descriptive results, such as mean and median values, seem to support the view that there are significant differences between bachelor and associate degree study cohorts in these reported attitudes as previously shown in Table 8.16 and Table 8.17 for Bursa Uludağ University, and Table 8.18 and Table 8.19 for İstanbul University. For further analyses regarding attitude data presented in this section, the Mann-Whitney U test was conducted for the comparisons of two independent groups of degree cohorts based on university students' answers to the Likert-type attitude items and it is employed for the comparisons of the median scores in

order to examine whether the results are statistically significant or not. These significant results are highlighted, as well as all attitude item results are presented in bar plot design in the next subsections.

Prior to the presentation of these attitude results and turning to a more fine-grained analysis of language attitudes contrasting bachelor and associate degree programs, it is worth pointing out the findings of language attitudes on the basis of disciplinary affiliation because participants in the present study came from a range of various academic fields. Therefore, the wider outcomes of language attitudes in relation to academic programs are shown in Appendix A.1 since these results are not within the scope of the main research questions in the current study. For these analyses and visualizations in Appendix A.1, again as we did for the proficiency findings (see Figure 8.16 and Figure 8.17), bachelor students were divided into the categories of natural science and social science for both datasets (universities), however, no further categorization was used for associate students due to the variety of programs offered in this degree cohort. Repeatedly, the investigation of language attitudes has two main themes for the disciplinary affiliation results: English and Turkish languages (for bar chart visualizations see Appendix A.1). Finally, a summary of descriptive statistics such as mean and median scores is also provided in Appendix A.2.

As far as disciplinary affiliations are concerned, this section briefly comments on the significant results found in the data. For the İstanbul University data, the Kruskal-Wallis test was used for the comparisons of three main academic affiliations. The first attitude statement (Knowing English will increase my opportunities to find employment) was the only statistically significant item ($p = .003$). After the administration of Dunn Bonferroni post hoc test in order to see between which pairs the significant difference existed for this attitude statement, the difference between the Social Science and Natural Science groups was found significant ($Z = 62.945$, $p = 0.002$). In addition, the difference between the Natural Science and associate degree groups was statistically significant ($Z = -64.954$, $p = .004$). Similarly, the Kruskal-Wallis test was used for the comparisons of Bursa Uludağ University data. The only statistically significant attitude statement was the second item which is related to the importance of English in order to get far in life ($p = 0.036$). Repeatedly, Dunn Bonferroni post hoc test was used for pairwise comparisons and interestingly, no significant differences were found between the groups. Together these results provide important insights into the salient feature of English in terms of job and life opportunities while highlighting the difference in English language attitudes regarding disciplinary affiliations.

Turning now to the language attitudes contrasting two degree cohorts, a summary of the main findings, together with the descriptive statistics and Mann-Whitney U test results, is provided in the next subsections. For the presentation

of the attitudes towards English and Turkish languages, the results obtained from the inspection of the data set of Bursa Uludağ University and the data set of İstanbul University are described.

8.4.6.a Attitudes towards English (Bursa Uludağ University)

For a general overview of the entire dataset, the primary concern in this subsection is to visualize the quantitative data of language attitudes with the previously shown descriptive values in a horizontal bar plot design regarding attitudes towards English. Therefore, Figure 8.18 provides an overview of English attitude results, which seem to reveal a decline in the favourable attitude statements of English after the third attitude item. Moreover, a significant difference was found between two degree programs according to Mann-Whitney U test results, which are covered in detail in this subsection.

An initial inspection of the data visualizations (Figure 8.18) reveals that there are remarkably more favourable findings and also positive attitudes towards English in terms of personal assessment of the immediate value of English. These are clearly represented by the first three items of attitude statements. Contrary to the results of other attitude statements, nearly all respondents strongly agree with the fact that knowing English will increase their opportunities to find employment (S1). The results, which include 97 % of bachelor degree level students and 93 % of associate degree students agreeing with this statement, suggest that the general idea for English is similar across the two study degrees as being the language of opportunities.

For the next attitude statement, students seem to be in favour of the belief that English is important to know in order to get far in life (S2). It is clear that 93 % of bachelor degree students and 89 % of associate degree students seem to regard English as an important vehicle in order to get far in life. Mann-Whitney U test results validated that the difference observed for the second attitude item is statistically significant ($M_{bachelor} = 6.38$ and $M_{associate} = 6.01$, $z = -2.164$, $p = .03$). Bachelor students agree more that English is important in order to get far in life. In terms of results, this item is the only statistically significant English language attitude statement. Confirming previous observations regarding the extent of multilingualism and self-reported proficiency ratings, we can notice that bachelor students' positive attitude levels appear much higher than the associate degree study cohort, which highlights their strong attitudes towards foreign languages such as English.

Similar to the second attitude statement, nearly all respondents agree that English is a language that is well suited to modern society (S3). As can be seen

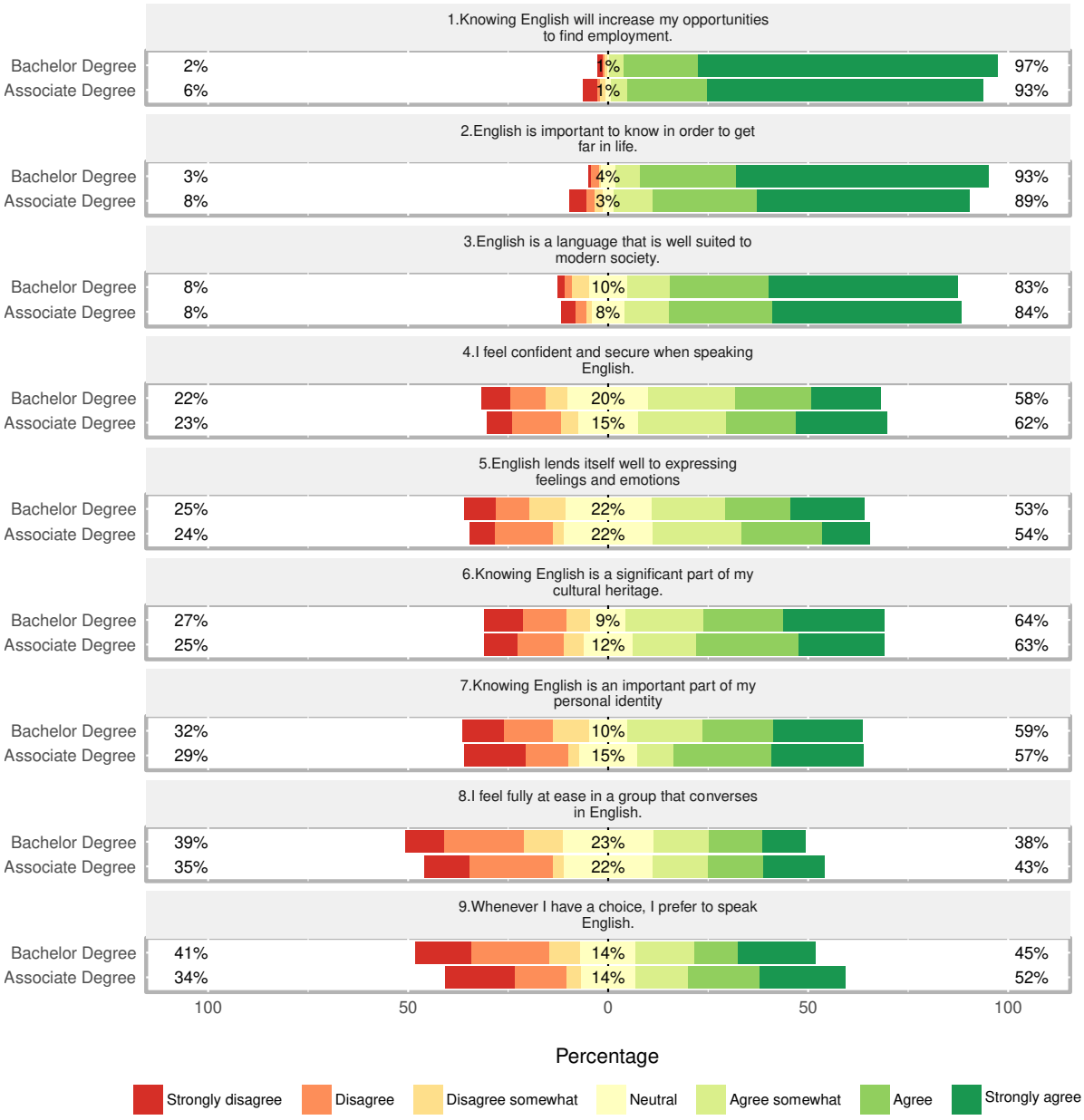


Figure 8.18: *English Attitudes* per degree (*Bursa Uludağ University*)

from Figure 8.18, a large number of the participants at the bachelor degree level (83 %) and the associate degree level (84 %) indicated that English is well suited to modern society. Overall, the first three items of the questionnaire are the reflection of favourable attitudes towards the English language.

Proceeding with analyzing other attitude statements, our fourth statement in the questionnaire is that I feel confident and secure when speaking English (S4). The results show that 58 % of bachelor degree students and 62 % of associate degree students agree with this notion. This means that only more than half of the respondents from the two cohorts feel confident and secure considering their English-speaking skills. We can observe a decrease in terms of university students' attitudes when it comes to English speaking skills. These outcomes are striking and seem to signal the lack of speaking skills regarding participants of the present study.

For the fifth statement, which is that English lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions (S5), the data shows that 53 % of bachelor students and 54 % of associate students agree with this statement. On the other hand, 22 % of participants from both cohorts are neutral, whereas 25 % of bachelor degree level students and 24 % of associate degree students disagree with this statement. Likewise, we see a decrease in the percentages of both study cohorts for this item of the attitude questionnaire. A lack of speaking skills we found previously for the fourth attitude item might have an impact on the attitudes towards the English language in terms of expressing feelings and emotions.

Knowing English is a significant part of my cultural heritage (S6) is the sixth statement in the attitude part of the online survey. Relating to this statement, 64 % of bachelor degree students and 63 % of associate degree students agree with this notion. These results suggest that almost two-thirds of the respondents in each degree program seem to have favourable attitudes for this item.

Following that, the next statement is that knowing English is an important part of my personal identity (S7). At this point, almost one-third of bachelor students (32 %) and 29 % of associate students disagree with this idea. While only 10 % of bachelor level respondents are neutral, 59 % of them agree that English language knowledge is an important part of their personal identity. Considering the associate degree level students, 15 % are neutral, while 57 % agree with this statement.

Moving to the next statement, which states the idea that I feel fully at ease in a group that converses in English (S8), respondents appear to have different attitudes. In terms of ratio, almost 2 in 5 bachelor students (39 %) disagree with the idea of easiness of group conversation held in English, whereas nearly a similar proportion of bachelor students (38 %) think that they feel fully at ease. 23 % of

bachelor students are neutral with this specific attitude statement. Moreover, 43 % of associate degree level students agree that they feel fully at ease with the group conversation in English. In comparison, 35 % of respondents from the associate degree program do not agree with this attitude statement and 22 % of respondents are neutral to feel fully at ease in a group that converses in English. Thus, in terms of English speaking skills, the results show that the issue of English speaking skills is far from a consensus from the perspective of university students.

As shown in Figure 8.18, our last statement is that whenever I have a choice, I prefer to speak English (S9). The answers to this statement again revealed that students seem to be not confident enough with their speaking skills in English. For the bachelor degree cohort, 45 % of students strongly agree with preferring to speak English whenever possible, while 41 % strongly disagree with it. In both cohorts, 14 % of the respondents are neutral with this sentence. When we want to see the results for the associate degree level, just over half of those who answered this attitude item (52 %) reported that they feel confident in speaking English. Conversely, only 34 % strongly disagree with this attitude statement. It is evident in the case of both study cohorts that participants' attitudes do not appear highly favourable towards English considering the questionnaire items reflecting English speaking skills. This is a rather disappointing outcome. As mentioned before, this trend is also visible in the low mean scores of attitude items related to English speaking skills and might be associated with different reasons. These reasons related to speaking skills will be explored more in the discussion part (see section 9.3).

8.4.6.b Attitudes towards Turkish (Bursa Uludağ University)

In this section of the attitude part, the results have been visualized in form of horizontal bar plots to show and compare the attitudes towards Turkish per degree from the data of Bursa Uludağ University (Figure 8.19). Concerning the results of comparisons with Mann-Whitney U test, there was a significant difference found among two degree groups, which has been explained in detail.

From the short review of Figure 8.19, one of the key findings emerging about the participants' attitudes towards the Turkish language is that nearly all respondents strongly agree with nine Turkish attitude statements. Almost two-thirds of the bachelor degree students (64 %) believe that knowing Turkish will increase their opportunities to find employment, while 78 % of the associate degree students believe in that (S1). This difference between the two cohorts turned out to be statistically significant as associate degree level students agree more about this statement ($M_{bachelor} = 5.12$ and $M_{associate} = 5.76$, $z = -3.11$, $p = .002$). In effect,

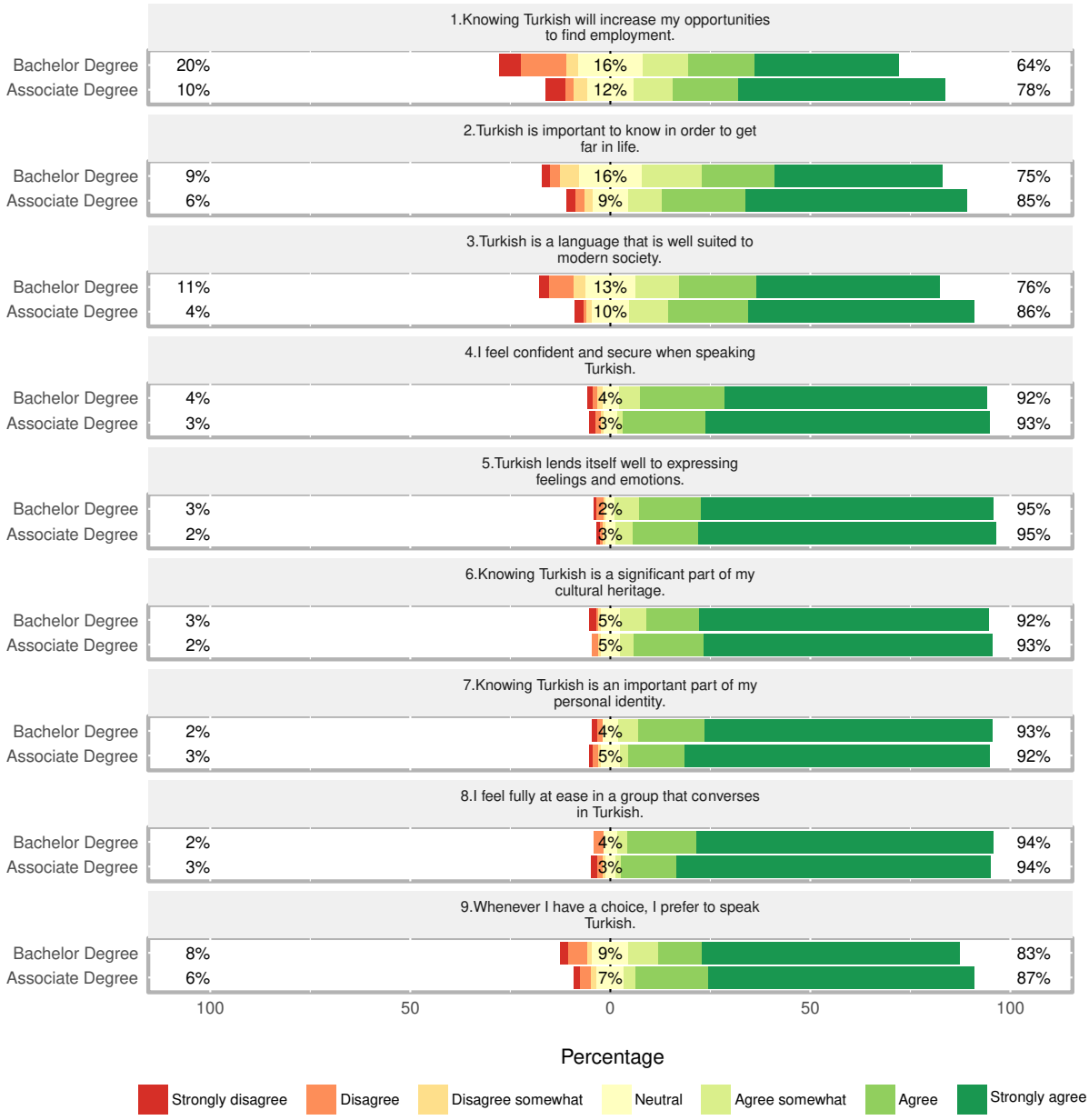


Figure 8.19: *Turkish Attitudes* per degree (*Bursa Uludağ University*)

where the use of the Turkish language is concerned, the evidence seems to suggest that Turkish has a bigger role in the associate degree cohort. In fact, these results are compatible with the results of the first English attitude statement for which bachelor degree students have more favourable attitudes towards English than associate degree study cohort.

In addition to this statement, the following two statements are statistically significant considering Turkish attitude statements. The majority of the students agreed that Turkish is important to know in order to get far in life (S2), though bachelor degree students (75 %) agree slightly less strongly than associate degree students (85 %). The statistical findings revealed that associate students agree more strongly than bachelor students according to Mann-Whitney U test results ($M_{bachelor} = 5.63$ and $M_{associate} = 6.03$, $z = -2.685$, $p = .007$). Another statistically significant result for which associate students agree more is the third statement ($M_{bachelor} = 5.65$ and $M_{associate} = 6.10$, $z = -2.34$, $p = .019$). The Turkish language appears to be accepted as a language that is well suited to modern society (S3) since this statement is agreed mostly by associate degree students (86 %) than bachelor degree students (76 %). We mainly see a favourable attitude towards the Turkish language among associate students rather than their bachelor degree counterparts.

Moving on to Turkish speaking skills which relate to the fourth statement, the results from the two cohorts are almost the same as 92 % of bachelor students and 93 % of associate degree students feel confident and secure when speaking Turkish (S4). Similarly, the same percentage of the participants from the two degree programs, which include 95 % of respondents, think that Turkish lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions (S5). From the simple analysis of the data, we can obtain almost the same results for the statements related to Turkish knowledge as being a significant part of cultural heritage (S6) and an important part of personal identity (S7). The research shows that 92 % of bachelor students and 93 % of associate students agree with the sixth statement. Whilst the findings for the seventh statement indicate nearly the same percentages: 93 % of bachelor students and 92 % of associate students.

For the next statement, most of those surveyed agreed that they feel fully at ease in a group that converses in Turkish (S8). Upon closer inspection, as shown in Figure 8.19, it is apparent that we obtain the same outcomes from both student cohorts including 94 % of respondents. These positive attitude outcomes regarding Turkish can be the direct result of having more Turkish participants compared to other nationalities in the current data and Turkish is likely to represent the mother tongue impact. Combining the results of the last statement concerning this mother tongue impact, 83 % of bachelor students and

87 % of associate students claimed that they prefer to speak Turkish whenever they have a choice (S9).

In summary, one main issue that emerged from the entire data was the positive attitudes towards Turkish with a clear difference between study cohorts. Turkish attitude statements show a clear picture that university students have positive attitudes towards Turkish. Associate degree students are more likely to be in favour of the Turkish language than their bachelor degree counterparts. These results also lead to the conclusion that the differences across the two study cohorts are more noticeable in the case of students from the associate degree level. The next subsection continues with the findings from the data of İstanbul University.

8.4.6.c Attitudes towards English (İstanbul University)

Moving further to the next inspection of the dataset for the current study, the results obtained from the analysis of the data of İstanbul University are presented in Figure 8.20. To further investigate the issue, Mann-Whitney U test results have been used again for the comparisons of two study cohorts and significant differences were found between associate and bachelor degree cohorts. Figure 8.20 illustrates the attitude findings of university students' attitudes towards the English language in bar plots.

After having presented the attitude results of Bursa Uludağ University, not surprisingly, the findings from the data of İstanbul University are nearly the same considering two degree programs. Likewise, the data provides us with statistically significant results for some attitude statements as previously explained in section 8.4.6.a. When we look at Figure 8.20 for English attitudes per degree, it mainly shows that both student cohorts appear to have relatively high positive attitudes towards English.

For the first item, which is knowing English will increase my opportunities to find employment (S1), a majority of the students from both cohorts answered with fairly favourable attitudes. In other words, 96 % of the bachelor students and 94 % of the associate students reported positive attitudes towards English and the opportunities it creates. However, the results are not statistically different between the two cohorts. Similar to the previous findings from Bursa Uludağ University regarding English knowledge, positive attitudes are involved in both degree cohorts and no significant difference was found. This is likely to mean highlighting opportunities the English language brings to the respondents' lives. For example, while applying for a job.

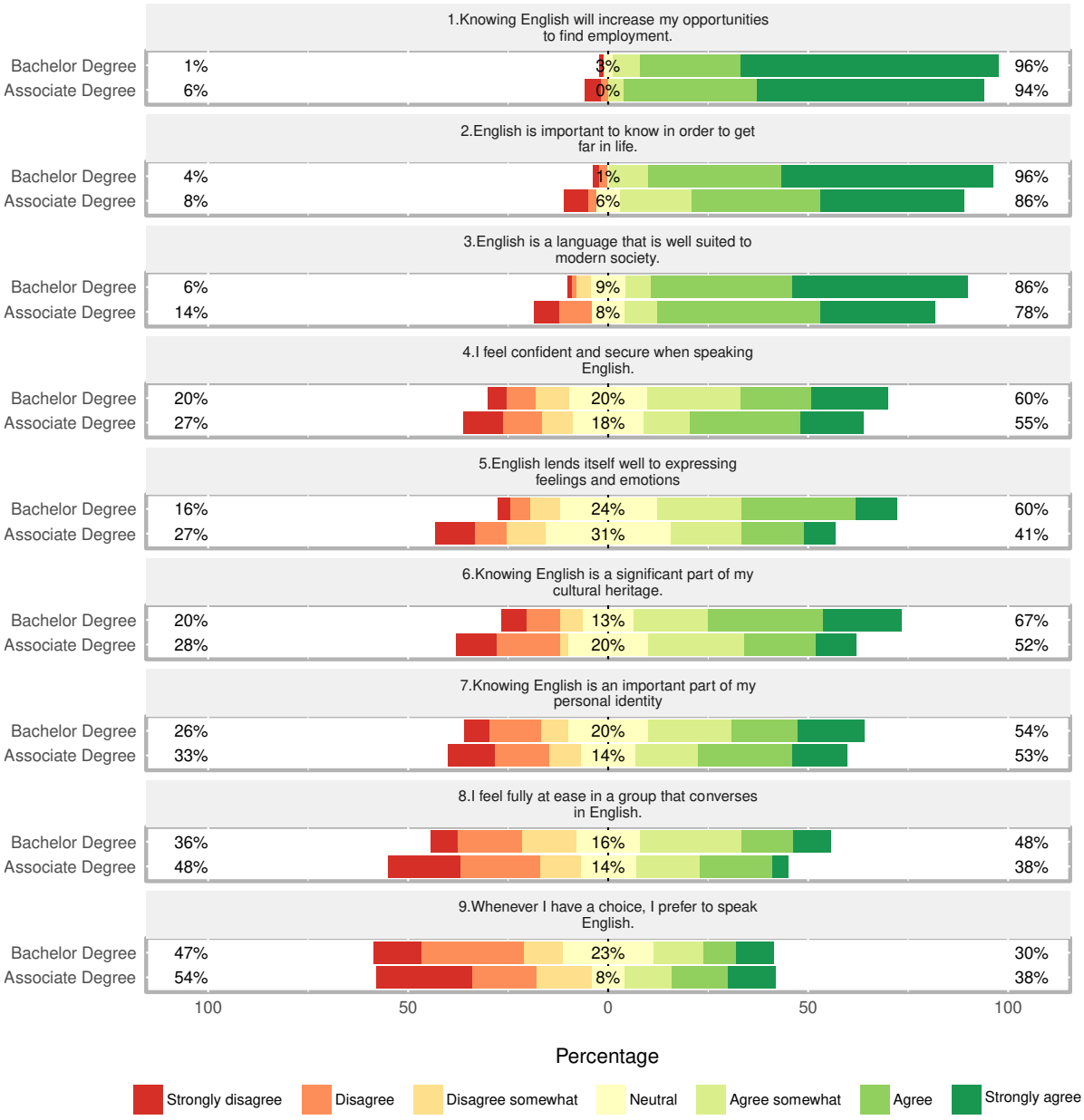


Figure 8.20: English Attitudes per degree (*İstanbul University*)

Interestingly, there is a slight difference contrasting the two degree cohorts regarding the second attitude statement, which is that English is important to know in order to get far in life (S2). This slight difference shows us that bachelor students typically believe that English is important to know as 96 % of them responded positively, whereas 86 % of associate degree students responded positively to this attitude item. The difference between the two cohorts might be interpreted as that bachelor students have more positive attitudes towards English than associate students. A further statistical analysis with the Mann-Whitney U test related to this item provides support that bachelor students' attitudes yielded statistically significant differences in comparisons ($M_{bachelor} = 6.26$ and $M_{associate} = 5.68$, $z = -2.34$, $p = .019$). Therefore, as shown in Table 8.16, the general difference is visible in the mean scores and statistical analysis, which is a remarkable outcome confirming that respondents from the bachelor degree cohort have visibly more positive attitudes towards English. This conclusion may also reinforce the idea that bachelor degree students seem to have higher levels of individual attachment to foreign languages compared to their associate degree counterparts. Additionally, there is one thing to note that these results are exactly similar to what we found in the data of Bursa Uludağ University. From a sociolinguistic perspective, these findings suggest that, in reality, English has popularity at tertiary level education by a subsection of students at the level of bachelor degree education.

Our third attitude statement relates to English and modern society, which is that English is a language that is well suited to modern society (S3). By looking at the answers from the two cohorts, 86 % of bachelor degree students agree with this sentence, while 78 % of associate degree students show agreement with this statement. There was a significant difference found between the two cohorts since bachelor students agree more strongly than the other group ($M_{bachelor} = 6.00$ and $M_{associate} = 5.41$, $z = -2.202$, $p = .028$). Again, we can perceive that it is bachelor students who have more positive attitudes towards English in terms of its suitability for the modern world.

Moving further with the fourth statement about the participants' English-speaking skills, our statement is that I feel confident and secure when speaking English (S4). With reference to the results presented in Figure 8.20, it can be easily seen that percentages are lower with speaking skills. That means 60 % of bachelor students and 55 % of associate students rated confident feelings in terms of their English speaking skills. This observation is also similar to what we saw previously regarding students' agreement and disagreement with the lack of speaking skills at Bursa Uludağ University. It is worth underlining the parallelism in results with regard to English-speaking skills, which will be covered in detail in the discussion part (see section 9.3).

Moreover, for the fifth statement of the questionnaire, around 60 % of bachelor students agreed that English lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions (S5), compared to only 41 % of students in the associate degree sample. The statistical results indicated that there is a significant difference between the two study cohorts here ($M_{bachelor} = 4.83$ and $M_{associate} = 4.18$, $z = -2.58$, $p = .010$). Bachelor degree students appear to have more positive attitudes towards English. One inference here is that the two groups of study cohorts (associate versus bachelor) constitute two rather different student populations with a much more different range of language profiles. The group of students with an English language background seem to express more positive attitudes towards English attitude statements, and this group is the bachelor students in the present study.

Our results for statements six and seven cast a new light on English being an important part of cultural heritage and personal identity among bachelor and associate degree students. From the results, 67 % of bachelor degree students believe that knowing English is a significant part of their cultural heritage (S6). With the same statement, 52 % of associate degree students responded positively. However, there is a significant difference between the two groups regarding the sixth statement. Accordingly, bachelor students agreed more strongly than the other group of students with this attitude statement ($M_{bachelor} = 4.95$ and $M_{associate} = 4.26$, $z = -2.543$, $p = .011$). The agreement rate gets lower if we have a look at the seventh statement, which supports the idea that knowing English is an important part of my personal identity (S7). Comparisons revealed that 26 % of bachelor degree students and 33 % of associate degree students disagree with this attitude item. Looking at the bar plots, the results are almost the same and just over half of the bachelor students (54 %) and associate students (53 %) agree with this statement. Nevertheless, the results are not statistically significant this time contrasting two student groups.

Furthermore, the results suggest that the only exceptional items are the last two items: I feel fully at ease in a group that converses in English (S8), and whenever I have a choice, I prefer to speak English (S9). As the percentages of these attitude statements are higher in the disagreement part, this is likely to mean that students do not feel confident enough with their speaking skills. These results are also in line with the outcomes of the data of Bursa Uludağ University.

To conclude this subsection, the results in the bar plots of Figure 8.20 identified the favourable and unfavourable attitudes towards English. It can be observed that a majority of the participants have positive attitudes and regard English as a useful language. Interestingly, English appeared to represent moderate attitudes in terms of cultural identity, which is the common case in English as a lingua franca context, in particular among Expanding Circle countries like Turkey. This result might also be associated with the role of linguistic nationalism in creating

moderate attitudes towards a foreign language. The issue of linguistic nationalism will be discussed in section 9.3. Finally, the single most striking observation to emerge from the data was the manifestation of less favourable attitudes regarding English speaking which can be speculated to signal lack of speaking skills. This part of the attitude results aim to present the findings related to English attitudes, Turkish attitude results of İstanbul University are the main focus of the next subsection.

8.4.6.d Attitudes towards Turkish (İstanbul University)

As part of the present study, students' attitudes toward the Turkish language have been analyzed, and the results per degree are shown in Figure 8.21. The most surprising aspect of the data is that more favourable attitudes are, again, provided by respondents from the associate degree. In this section of attitude results, we will cover the data of İstanbul University regarding Turkish attitudes in more detail. According to the results of the Mann-Whitney U test, the difference between bachelor and associate groups was significant for the Turkish attitude items.

As shown in Figure 8.21, there are relatively percentages in terms of agree statements, which shows results comparable to those of English language attitudes. This trend clearly demonstrates positive attitudes towards Turkish among students studying at İstanbul University. Considering all Turkish attitude statements, a minority of the participants agreed with the fact that knowing Turkish will increase opportunities to find employment (S1). The current research shows that 56 % of bachelor degree students responded positively, while it is found to be 73 % of associate degree students. Similarly, the statistical results indicated that associate degree level students agree more with this statement and there is a significant difference ($M_{bachelor} = 4.85$ and $M_{associate} = 5.39$, $z = -1.969$, $p = .049$).

The second item of the questionnaire, which is the fact that Turkish is important to know in order to get far in life (S2), 72 % of bachelor students and 80 % of associate students responded positively to this particular attitude statement. The participants have also been asked whether Turkish is a language that is well suited to modern society (S3). As shown in the bar plot of Figure 8.21, a high percentage of associate students (84 %) responded positively, whereas the relevant percentage level is 77 % for bachelor degree students. Specifically, associate degree level students possess positive attitudes significantly more than their bachelor counterparts ($M_{bachelor} = 5.55$ and $M_{associate} = 6.02$, $z = -1.999$, $p = .046$). The general tendency so far seems to be in favour of the Turkish language and the

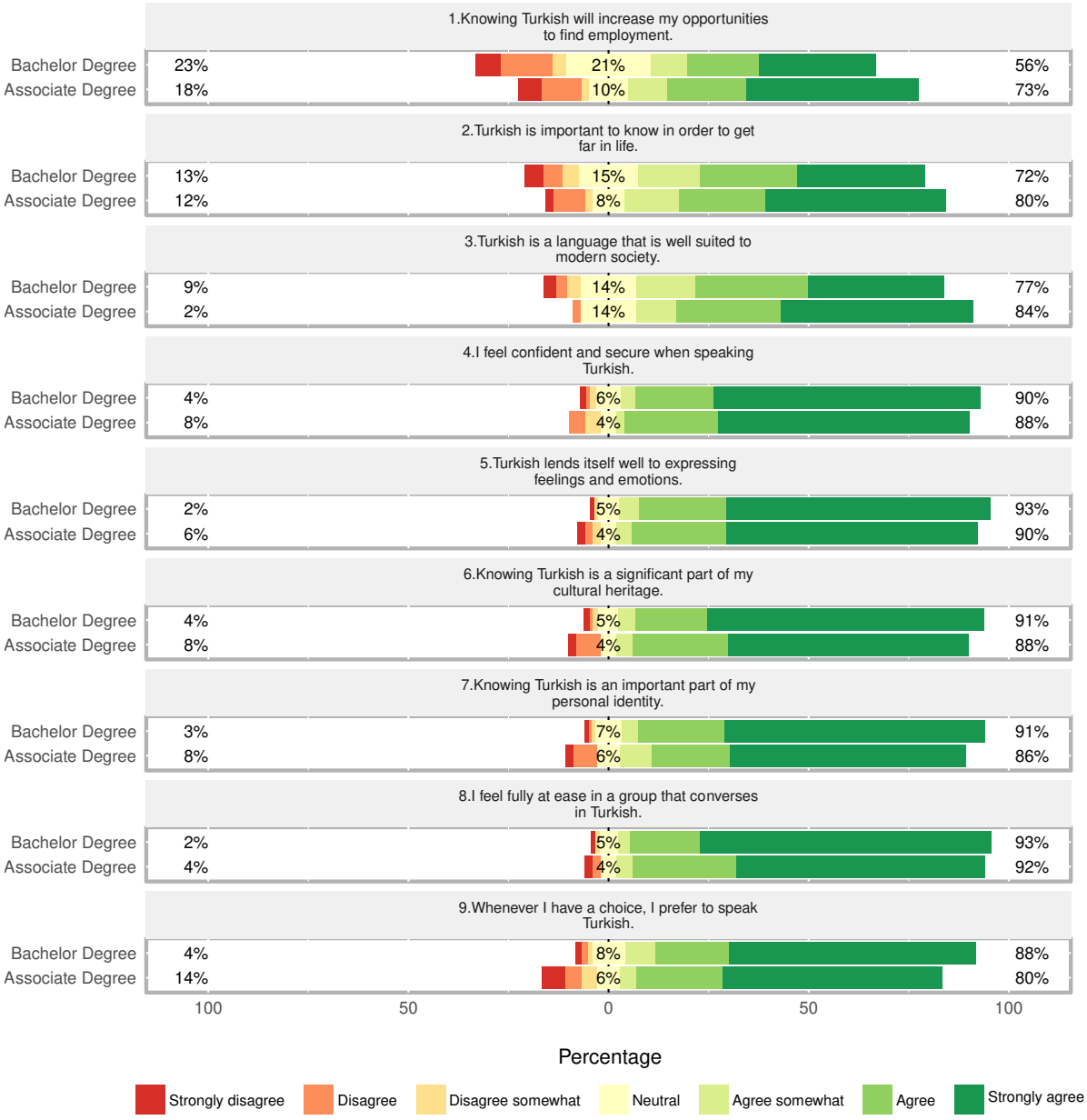


Figure 8.21: Turkish Attitudes per degree (*İstanbul University*)

associate degree cohort appears to have more positive attitudes towards Turkish than another study cohort, namely the bachelor degree.

The fourth statement, which is that I feel confident and secure when speaking Turkish, received higher positive scores from both student cohorts. This can be a good indicator for the mother tongue effect due to the majority of Turkish participants, as noted in the Turkish attitude findings of Bursa Uludağ University previously. Both cohorts (90 % of bachelor degree students and 88 % of associate degree students) have similar results compared to each other and have favourable attitudes towards speaking Turkish.

In addition to Turkish speaking skills, our next statement is about the Turkish language itself, and this fifth statement is that Turkish lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions (S5). It is another statement that has similar positive results from the two cohorts as 93 % of bachelor students and 90 % of associate students agreed with this statement. Along with the Turkish statements mentioned above, knowing Turkish is a significant part of my cultural heritage is our sixth statement (S6). The results provided that 91 % of bachelor degree students and 88 % of associate degree students agreed with this statement. It appears from the current study that Turkish language is connected to the cultural heritage of the participants as the percentages show accordingly.

When it comes to personal identity, our seventh statement, which is that knowing Turkish is an important part of my personal identity (S7), shows that it really is for university students. From the results of the collected data, 91 % of bachelor degree students agree with this attitude item compared to 86 % of associate degree students. For the eighth item of the questionnaire, which is I feel fully at ease in a group that converses in Turkish, the findings from the two cohorts are close to each other supporting the idea of feeling the easiness in Turkish conversation. Our last item in the questionnaire is that whenever I have a choice, I prefer to speak Turkish (S9). The data revealed that 88 % of bachelor degree students, and 80 % of associate degree students agree with it. On the whole, the bar plot visualizations of Turkish language attitude provide a summary of a considerable individual variation among the two study cohorts and participants. The associate degree cohort appears to have slightly more positive attitudes towards Turkish than the other group although it is hard to come to a conclusion due to the similar outcomes of the two study cohorts.

In summary, it can be clearly seen from the data of İstanbul University that Turkish appears to be accepted as a language of identity and cultural heritage when all results are combined. Returning briefly to the issue of the difference between the two study cohorts, associate degree students reported more favourable attitudes regarding Turkish attitude statements. The section that follows

moves on to summarize the whole attitude part of the questionnaire in two parts, which are central to this dissertation: English and Turkish language attitudes including the variables affecting attitudes in the current study.

8.4.7 Summary of the Results of Language Attitudes

In light of the aforementioned statistical analyses and bar plot visualizations in the attitude part of our results, it has become evident that the age variable signals a significant role in terms of unfavourable attitudes towards the Turkish language as the participants get older. These negatively correlated age variable may indicate that the central role of Turkish decreases with age for university students. By contrast, other major variables such as gender and citizenship have no roles according to the findings of the current study and we found no significant results regarding the relationship between these two variables such as gender and citizenship and language attitudes. Further outcomes that emerged at the latest stages of analyses are remarkable results in terms of attitudes towards the English and Turkish languages.

To start with the summary of English language attitudes, both study cohorts at sampled universities seem to have positive attitudes towards the English language. The ranges of agree statements for the two study cohorts are found to overlap although bachelor degree students seem to have slightly more positive attitudes towards English than their associate counterparts, in general. Nearly all students seem to have visibly more positive attitudes considering the role of English in their professional and personal life as well as the opportunities English brings to one's life. Additionally, they seem to have moderate attitudes towards the English language and its suitability for modern life. It has also been noted that there are issues about the role of English in their cultural heritage and personal identity regarding moderate attitudes. Given the results that have been shown, it is evident that participants have less favourable attitudes towards English in terms of speaking skills and being part of an English conversation.

Interestingly, the results related to Turkish attitude statements indicate that overall attitudes of both cohorts are highly positive, whereas associate degree students seem to have more favourable attitudes towards Turkish considering their career and life-oriented plans. As the majority of participants are Turkish, these findings suggest that they have more favourable attitudes towards Turkish considering their personal identity and cultural heritage. Linguistic nationalism might be one important issue here related to personal identity. For instance, the participants of the current study might see Turkish as their mother tongue and attribute more value to it. Lastly, we can see that participants seem to have

favourable attitudes towards Turkish in terms of their speaking skills, which is likely to be associated with the mother tongue effect.

In conclusion, the results of the quantitative part of the attitude questionnaire have indicated that English and Turkish attitudes differ from each other. The summary of the findings is shown in the bar plot design contrasting Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University in terms of English and Turkish attitudes in the Appendix (see A.3 and A.4). The next section moves on to the results of qualitative data in order to support the general findings of the current study.

8.5 Results of Qualitative Data Analysis

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 7, the qualitative data of the present study was collected through follow-up interviews, and this section presents the results of the interviews with students. The interview questions were formulated through the questionnaire items to elaborate on some crucial aspects generically addressed in the online questionnaire. Additionally, the qualitative findings aim to complement quantitative results by exploring the themes that emerged based on respondents' utterances during the interviews.

According to the analyzed data, there were two broad main themes: the English and the Turkish language. The qualitative data, therefore, contribute answers to research question 3 (i. e. What are the attitudes of students towards English contrasting the two different degrees?) indirectly, but in particular to research question 5 (i. e. What are the perceived benefits of being a multilingual speaker of English as a lingua franca compared to a monolingual speaker from the perspective of university students in Turkey?).

Furthermore, at the end of the coding process of the qualitative data, there were 21 codes identified, which were too many to be put into a framework. Hence, a second-level coding was run with a particular focus on how these codes might be related and similar to each other in terms of emerging concepts. With the help of the second coding step, it was easy to reduce the number of final codes to 12. Finally, these final codes were turned into topic-related categories that emerged from the data during interviews. Overall, we can observe that the final categories were combined under the themes shown in Table 8.20 and accurately listed with the participants such as the ID tag of the interviewees who responded for each of the specified categories (see Appendix A.3 for the background of the interview participants with their ID).

Table 8.20: Topic-related categories emerged from the interview data

Topics	*f*	Participants
English as a beautiful language	39	01, 02, 03, 04, 05, 06, 07, 08, 09, 11, 12, 14, 15, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 35, 36, 38, 39, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48
English as a useful language	46	01, 02, 03, 04, 05, 06, 07, 08, 09, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48
The difficulty level of English	26	01, 03, 06, 10, 11, 12, 16, 18, 19, 21, 25, 29, 30, 32, 33, 34, 35, 37, 38, 39, 40, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46
The advantage of other foreign language knowledge in learning English	13	10, 11, 12, 15, 16, 21, 24, 25, 28, 34, 35, 37, 40
The usefulness of English in relation to personal life	37	01, 02, 04, 06, 07, 08, 09, 10, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 25, 26, 28, 29, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 37, 38, 39, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48
The usefulness of English in relation to an academic career	41	01, 02, 03, 04, 05, 06, 07, 08, 09, 10, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 38, 39, 41, 43, 44, 45, 47, 48
The role of English in the future life	43	01, 02, 04, 05, 06, 07, 08, 09, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 41, 43, 44, 45, 47, 48
Turkish as a beautiful language	43	01, 02, 03, 04, 06, 09, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48
Turkish as a useful language	40	01, 04, 06, 07, 08, 09, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28, 30, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48
The usefulness of Turkish in relation to personal life	48	01, 02, 03, 04, 05, 06, 07, 08, 09, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48
The usefulness of Turkish in relation to an academic career	44	01, 02, 03, 04, 05, 06, 09, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48
The role of Turkish in the future life	43	01, 03, 04, 05, 06, 09, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48

It is important to note here that there are sub-themes involving several categories of codes. The most extensive group of codes was under the theme of the English language. Due to the fact that nearly all interview participants were Turkish, some sub-themes, such as the difficulty level of Turkish and the advantage of other foreign language knowledge for learning Turkish, did not bring any interesting outcomes. Lastly, the data is presented in the order of the English language sub-themes followed by the Turkish language sub-themes as shown in Table 8.20.

8.5.1 English as a beautiful language

According to the results of the analyses regarding the attitude part of the online questionnaire, many students have positive attitudes toward English and the notable outcome is related to the career or life opportunities that English creates for them. The question of whether students consider English beautiful was raised during the interviews to uncover their attitudes toward the English language. The majority of those who responded mentioned that they regard English as a beautiful language and explained their reasons:

> “ In my opinion, it is a beautiful language because it is different and it is the language for everyone and all countries. That is why English knowledge is very useful. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 4)*

The primary and commonly asserted reason seems to be the fact that the English language is a lingua franca and the most popular global language, which connects people from all around the world:

> “ Yes, of course, it is a beautiful language! The best part of it is that thanks to its universality, we can communicate with many people. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 38)*

Furthermore, several interviewees remarked that they should have a reasonable proficiency level in English to communicate with other people around the world, featuring the importance of high proficiency levels. For example, one of them said:

> “ In fact, it is a beautiful language. It is a world language, and we need to be really advanced because when it is language knowledge, you either know it or do not know it! There is nothing like a grey area that I know little ”

> “ English. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 12)*

Some participants acknowledged the importance of English and called it a beautiful language by highlighting the necessity of English to catch up with the latest developments in science and technology. One student highlighted the presence of English from a practical perspective:

> “ Since it is universal, it connects the world, and we need to learn it in order to catch up with technology and science. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 20)*

The quotes above illustrate that university students in Turkey value English as a beautiful language and are also aware of its importance as a global language. It is highly asserted that the English language is universal. Therefore, there is a great deal of necessity to learn it to catch up with the latest trends in the world and developments in science and technology. Finally, they expressed their thoughts that it is a mutual language that enables everyone in the world to communicate with each other which highlights ELF status. Further qualitative analysis is about English as a useful language, which is the next emerging theme in the present study.

8.5.2 English as a useful language

When students were asked whether they consider English a useful language, all students agreed that they regard English a useful language. The general theme of the usefulness of the English language highlights that English is regarded as a

> “ useful language because it is a language of universal communication ”
>
> *(Interviewee 14).*

The subcategories about the usefulness can vary, but the main subcategories found are its usefulness for business purposes as one student responded as:

> “ It is very useful because it is the language of all companies, and these companies have foreign partners. It makes you prioritized, especially when you apply for a job. All job interviews are in English, so it is really useful. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 4)*

Following that, its appearance in the global area in terms of both professional and social dimensions is another subcategory, as illustrated in the following excerpt:

> “ Yes. Because it is a language which is spoken around the world. Something we need professionally, socially, in every field. So, knowing this language makes you feel better. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 18)*

In addition, referring to the fields where English is useful for business purposes, one student stated:

> “ It is a useful language. Nowadays, we can see English everywhere and in every field regarding tourism and health. In terms of business as well, we need English. I believe that we all should learn it. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 2)*

It is clear from these extracts that university students underline the instrumental aspect of English language knowledge that is believed to be useful, in particular, for the business domain. When their opinions were asked in terms of the usefulness of English, the responses indicated that English is useful for international communication as a universal language and in terms of personal issues. As a result, it appears that English is everywhere, so it is seen as a door opener in all areas of life professionally, personally and socially from the perspective of university students.

8.5.3 The difficulty level of English

Furthermore, the participants were asked if they think that English is a difficult language to learn. Most of the respondents agreed that it is an easy language to learn. Still, one of the respondents, who thought that it is a difficult language, explained the reasons by blaming the education system and further commented:

> “ I think it is really difficult. For example, I have been studying English since the fourth grade, but, still, only learnt the basic things in English. Language education is insufficient and we, as students, do not study hard enough for it. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 8)*

Some participants stated that they are afraid of speaking English in public and pointed out that it is partly due to grammar-based instruction in the education

system and a lack of chances in everyday life to practice their speaking skills outside the classroom:

> “ Learning English is easy, it is us who make it difficult. In other words, I think that we are the ones who make it difficult because the education given at school is constantly on chunks and grammar. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 16)*

With regard to English speaking skills, a recurrent theme in the interviews is speaking anxiety. Incorrect pronunciation of the words and phrases in English has been indicated as a reason for the difficulty of English. One participant reflected by stating:

> “ I think English is not that much difficult. We, as students, hesitate to talk. Everyone is shy in case we pronounce it wrong in class. But in learning, we will learn effectively by pronouncing wrongly in the first try. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 1)*

Commenting on the difficulty of English, one of the interviewees also said that

> “ it is not a really difficult language to learn. Actually, everyone starts learning English at school at an early age, so we are somehow used to some vocabulary and words in English. That is why it is not difficult. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 38)*

Regarding the difficulty level of English, most interviewees explained why they think English is difficult or not. Whilst a minority mentioned that it is a difficult language to learn but blamed the education system for the teaching approaches, all agreed that they, as students, have to pay more attention to their lack of speaking skills, especially pronunciation, which is believed to be the direct result of grammar-based teaching approaches in the Turkish education system.

8.5.4 The advantage of other foreign language knowledge in learning English

In addition to their opinions about the English language, when asked about the advantage of other foreign language knowledge in learning English, some participants indicated that their mother tongue (Turkish language in many cases of the interviewees) does not have any effect at all on learning English. The role of Turkish is regarded as neutral by the participants in the sense that the structure

of the Turkish language is entirely different in terms of subject, verb, and object order. In other words, Turkish and English are not typologically similar. As one participant said:

> “ it did not contribute because English and Turkish are very different from each other. Similar words are very few. If it had any contribution, I would learn English ”
>
> *(Interviewee 10).*

Likewise, a significant number of students reported that Turkish has no contribution to their language learning process because Turkish and English are typologically different. It is crucial to bear in mind that in the present study, many interview participants are Turkish, so their mother tongue is Turkish. Therefore, for many, the mother tongue is believed to have a negative impact on foreign language learning if the additional foreign languages in the repertoire are typologically different from the mother tongue.

8.5.5 The usefulness of English in relation to personal life

According to our quantitative results from the attitude part of the online survey, the majority of students agreed that English is believed to bring them more career and life opportunities. When they were asked to comment on the usefulness of English in relation to personal life, most interviewees echoed this view. What is meant by the usefulness of English in personal life is their job-related plans, communication with international people in daily life, and following global trends on the news and social media. The following fragments show the perspective of the students:

> “ Since I have been studying for two years now, I will start my internship, and they consider English as a must in my CV. You really have to speak another language in addition to English. You already need to speak English. This is because English is not given much importance in our education. They require you to speak English. It has an effect on career. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 1)*

> “ English is very important in our personal life because we are studying now. When we graduate, we need to find a job. When applying for a job, they definitely require English. Therefore, it is very useful for us to learn English. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 4)*

> “ It is extremely useful. For my future, I think it will have a great benefit in my profession when I start my business life. I think it will help me improve myself. It contributes in every way, in my opinion. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 6)*

One student shared an anecdote from personal life, highlighting the prestigious role of English:

> “ I come across someone around the school who always asks for something in English. Speaking English makes me a more prestigious person. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 14)*

While one participant specified the usefulness of English in personal life for

> “ following the world news, watching movies and TV series and reading articles that have not been translated ”
>
> *(Interviewee 15),*

another participant mentioned the activities in personal life by stating that:

> “ I can follow global trends on social media and talk to people of my age from all over the world about my interests ”
>
> *(Interviewee 16).*

Pointing out the usefulness of English again, the overwhelming majority of participants seems to praise the value of English in their personal and career life. Thus, the next important theme that emerged from the data is the usefulness of English in relation to academic life.

8.5.6 Usefulness of English in relation to an academic career

As mentioned previously, English plays an essential role in their personal life, according to many participants. The rationale for this might be based on the role of English in the Turkish context, so it is crucial to ask university students about the usefulness of English in relation to an academic career. In all cases, the informants reported that English is useful and a must language for academia, and they further stressed that they want to have the required speaking skills at least. They responded as:

> “ Those who want to advance in academic career, English is a must. It is absolutely a need, so there is no such thing as whether I should learn or not. We definitely need to learn. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 3)*

> “ There is a competition in the academic career, and someone who speaks English can come to a better place than me. I agree that one stands out thanks to his/her English. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 7)*

> “ I want to do a master’s degree. I have to speak English to get a good score on the language test. Also, most of the articles written on academic topics I’m interested in are in English. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 14)*

The other crucial points that emerged from the data are working abroad, international communication with colleagues and keeping up with the latest publications in their field. As one student responded:

> “ I can read academic articles and research and also talk and communicate with my colleagues from abroad. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 43)*

The above answers show that students are aware of the necessity of English knowledge in academia and are willing to learn it properly. Interestingly, these results are similar to the outcomes of the role of English in personal life. In terms of highly favourable views about the English language, it becomes more evident that English knowledge plays an important role in personal and academic life regarding university students’ opinions. Likewise, the next theme is related to the role of English in future life.

8.5.7 The role of English in the future life

Students’ opinions about the role of English in their future life surfaced when they were asked about a description of the potential role of English in their future. Again, the overwhelming majority of the interviewees welcomed the opportunity to focus on career-related choices, living abroad and the prestigious role of English. They also added that there is a need to achieve certain proficiency levels in terms of English:

> “ Since everyone dreams of being abroad, we have naturally started to feel that way. As we do not have a positive opinion of living conditions in Turkey, we build our dreams abroad. So, it should definitely be learned. So, I absolutely need it, as we will definitely use it abroad. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 5)*

To illustrate, one participant shared a specific future plan regarding the role English plays:

> “ I plan to master English like my native language. I have career dreams abroad. I think I will make a difference with English. As a student, Erasmus is the right choice for many students and becoming an exchange student is also in my plans for the future. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 10)*

Joining the same theme, another interviewee reflected:

> “ I am currently in a certain period of moving. After finishing my exam, the first thing I will do is go to an English course and experience the advantage of English. Let’s think of it as a wristband I will wear on my arm. Because I have plans to go abroad, not just with the environment I live in. English, again, is going to help me. So, I want to increase my level of proficiency a little more. Since what I want to do in my future life is in this direction, it will inevitably be necessary. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 17)*

In addition to their above answers regarding the English language, almost all students agreed with the statement that English has a leading role in their future life.

In conclusion, it is clear that for students, English acts as the most important foreign language in their lives and the extracts above show how they conceive the role of English. As another category of the qualitative data section, it is important to mention the interview data analysis regarding the Turkish language. As far as students’ remarks are concerned, it emerged that views about Turkish are positive, but this is mainly a result of living in Turkey and students’ perception of nationalistic views. If we now turn to the qualitative data analysis of the Turkish language, we will see nearly the same themes as the English language, as shown in Table 8.20 for topic related categories. This is due to the fact that following the English language, we have the same versions of the interview questions for the Turkish language in the study. However, the views related to the Turkish language seem to differ among participants this time.

8.5.8 Turkish as a beautiful language

Recurring codes also consisted of the issue of the beauty of the Turkish language and a considerable number of students reported that Turkish is a beautiful language. The reason might be that it is the mother tongue of the majority of the participants. The following scripts exemplify students' beliefs about the Turkish language and indicate its cultural value.

> “ Yes, Turkish is a beautiful language but also sad that we only encounter it in Turkey. We can only use it in Turkey, but it dates back to historical times and updated itself since then. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 1)*

> “ Beautiful language. Because it is a magnificent language that contains the culture. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 26)*

The above extracts provide sufficient evidence to say that Turkish has a central role as a mother tongue in participants' lives. Similarly, the cultural aspect of the language is another issue we can see in students' remarks, which are associated with the beauty of the Turkish language and its culture.

8.5.9 Turkish as a useful language

Another theme that came out of the analysis is about Turkish as a useful language, all participants agreed that they have positive opinions about the Turkish language. By contrast, some interviewees argued that it is a useful language only for Turkish people and that Turkish knowledge is useful only in Turkey. If you want to be an international person or simply travel abroad, English language knowledge plays a leading role in your life. They responded as:

> “ Yes, Turkish is a useful language. I mean, it is only a useful language for Turkish people. English is used as a common language for abroad. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 2)*

> “ Useful, but it only works on the borders of Turkey. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 21)*

> “ Not outside of our own country. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 40)*

In summary, some feel that Turkish represents part of their culture, history and identity, while others consider that it is useful only within the nation’s borders. The interview participants seem to be aware that it is not an international language and it serves local or national purposes, unlike English, which represents a high amount of internationalization for them.

In the following subsections, the subsequent themes that emerged in the qualitative data analysis include the findings related to the usefulness of Turkish in terms of their personal life, academic career and future life. These three subsections have nearly the common findings, highlighting the national role of Turkish rather than an international role. Therefore, we will cover these in detail and summarize them together.

8.5.10 The usefulness of Turkish in relation to personal life

On the issue regarding the role of Turkish in their personal life, participants commented on the benefits of Turkish for their daily needs, social interaction and within the family communication. All of these roles bring out the usefulness of the Turkish language, which is attributed to the role as a national language of the country or as a mother tongue. Participants frequently highlighted this issue, as the following excerpts state:

> “ So, we live in Turkey. It’s a language we use all the time. It is important for us to speak this well and to influence people. Nice thing. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 18)*

> “ I live in Turkey; perhaps in my life I see the benefits. In terms of benefits, it helps me more than everything else. From meeting my daily needs to my social environment and from having necessary communication to poetry that I enjoy writing. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 37)*

> “ My friends, my family, everybody speaks Turkish. It allows me to communicate with them. It helps me live my daily life. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 43)*

8.5.11 The usefulness of Turkish in relation to academic career

When asked about the usefulness of Turkish in relation to an academic career, one participant mentioned his career plans within Turkey and clarified these plans by referring to the academic career. Being aware that the required language for international academia is English, he made it clear that he had no career plans abroad while highlighting that Turkish is useful for him only in Turkey. He commented:

> “It has the same degree of usefulness as English. On the other hand, because I am in Turkey now and I do not have any academic career plans abroad, I can survive with my Turkish.”
>
> *(Interviewee 9)*

Interestingly, another interviewee was particularly critical of the usefulness of Turkish. This specific critical view suggested that Turkish is important in Turkey but English stands out on the CV. The following is a representative excerpt from many respondents in terms of the usefulness of Turkish and the comparison of it with English.

> “As we live in Turkey, we constantly speak Turkish. Turkish has a significant effect in finding a job, improving ourselves in our workplace, and negotiating with foreign companies. In terms of finding a job, Turkish is important at the interview stage, but English is important for our CV.”
>
> *(Interviewee 18)*

Furthermore, one participant indicated that the medium of instruction is Turkish. Thus, Turkish is useful only for university subjects, projects, and presentations stating that:

> “I have my lessons in Turkish and Turkish is only useful for my projects and presentations which are in Turkish.”
>
> *(Interviewee 26)*

8.5.12 The role of Turkish in future life

Although the results of participants’ attitudes towards Turkish in the questionnaire give us some ideas about the role of Turkish in their life, there were some thought-provoking aspects identified and further discussed with the participants in one-to-one interviews. This aspect was the role of Turkish in the future life of

university students. One main reason given was the fact that for their future life abroad, Turkish has the minimum role for them. One participant stated that:

> “ In the future, I want to continue my life abroad. In case I return to Turkey at some point in my life, Turkish might be helpful for me in terms of my career. Alternatively, any job abroad which requires Turkish knowledge can contribute a lot to the role of Turkish in my life. But personally, I believe that the foreign language I should have is English for my career in the future. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 11)*

The following excerpts well represent the accounts of the students who have plans for abroad:

> “ I am planning to be in Turkey and have my life around the Turkish language, so it will be useful for my social interaction and interaction with my family. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 13)*

> “ In terms of my career, Turkish might be useful but for the career plans in my thirties, I do not think that Turkish will be that useful. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 14)*

> “ In my future life, it will have a neutral position as long as I want to follow a basic career. By saying a basic career, I mean, a job that does not require any foreign language knowledge. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 9)*

> “ In our future life, some people might want to live abroad, so Turkish will not be that effective. I am sure that I will plan my career abroad and in case I have an international marriage, I will teach my partner Turkish to be able to communicate with people during our visits to Turkey. That is the only possibility. ”
>
> *(Interviewee 21)*

What is apparent in the above extracts is the important role of Turkish, which is only popular within the borders of the nation. The possible future scenario for university students appears to build a career or life abroad and at that point, they seem sure that English knowledge comes into the stage as an important qualification. Interestingly, one of the participants labelled it a basic career when it includes no required English knowledge. Thus, Turkish might represent fewer

opportunities even in Turkey in terms of university students' career plans. Additionally, some informants commented that Turkish will only be the medium of communication with their social environment and their families no matter whether they leave Turkey or stay in the country.

To conclude, we can infer that Turkish has the role of the national language, and local functions for the interviewees in the present study, unlike the role of English as a lingua franca. Many students are aware of this situation: the local role of Turkish compared to the global status of English. Their answers indicate that they will keep it as their mother tongue only in order to maintain communication with their families and friends.

8.6 Summary of the Interview Data

Taken together, the interview results indicate that views associated with English are highly positive because of the better opportunities it is believed to bring one's life. At the same time, English represents the international world outside Turkey and also, students believe that they can double the opportunities with English knowledge in the repertoire. However, having Turkish as a mother tongue or in the linguistic repertoire is likely to mean that it does not make the English learning process easier, according to the interview participants. The interview data results suggest that the main reason for this belief is the fact that English and Turkish are typologically different. For instance, Spanish L1 users might learn French easier due to the typological similarities, but for Turkish L1 users, it is not the same while learning English. Moreover, another important theme is the lack of speaking skills in English and the majority of participants have unfavourable opinion for English speaking. They think that it is related to the education system as they have mostly grammar-based instruction during school years. By contrast, Turkish seems to represent the national functions in participants' immediate environment such as interaction with family and friends, yet they have fairly positive views of the Turkish language due to its role as a mother tongue.

9 Discussion

This chapter outlines the discussion of the main findings of the present study. The results of the analyses are discussed with an evaluation of key issues that were introduced before. First, we discuss the findings regarding the extent of multilingualism in relation to degree types at tertiary level education in section 9.1. Next, the relationship between multilingualism and self-reported language proficiencies is discussed in section 9.2 concerning linguistic models surrounding proficiencies. We also comment on the proficiency levels of each language in the participants' repertoires, and self-reported proficiency levels based on students' linguistic profiles, including bilingual, trilingual and quadrilingual individuals. In addition, the self-reported proficiency rankings of the languages considering oral and literal skills according to degree types are covered. Language attitudes are discussed in terms of students' attitudes towards English and Turkish languages in section 9.3. Moreover, the major linguistic profiles regarding monolingualism or bi- or multilingualism among university students are another fundamental issue that is addressed in the discussion of the findings (9.4). Lastly, in section 9.5, we discuss the advantages of being a speaker of English as a lingua franca compared to a monolingual speaker in the Turkish sociolinguistic context from the perspective of university students.

9.1 The Extent of Multilingualism in Relation to Degree Programs

This section focuses exclusively on the extent of multilingualism among university students regarding their degree types. It has been previously emphasized that the study cohorts examined in the current research are special degree types because they refer to specific study programs in the Turkish higher education system: associate degree and bachelor degree cohorts. These degree types have already been introduced with a detailed description in the methodology section 7.2.1, and the educational objectives and the differences for each degree cohort have been defined. To better understand the results we discuss in this section, it is essential to explicate the differences between these two study cohorts again as follows:

bachelor degree programs are primarily concerned with providing training for a particular career, whereas associate degree programs train human capacity in various occupations. Although these are two study cohorts offered by universities, the outcomes after graduation are different. More explicitly, the associate degree cohort either prepares students for employment after graduation or permits them to transfer to a bachelor degree program (Crosby, 2002). In contrast, a bachelor degree provides a qualification for a specific profession, higher lifetime earnings and prestigious jobs. In other words, in terms of academic fields, a bachelor degree offers numerous employment benefits, such as the opportunity to become a highly qualified professional in the fields of education, medicine, and law (e.g., teachers, doctors, engineers and lawyers) while associate degree cohort programs aim to fulfill the needs of service sectors for the qualified workforce; for example, tourism. As a result, the significant differences are found between the study cohorts in the current research population since the responses from students point to some results contrasting the two different study cohorts. What is meant by this is that the evident discrepancy in educational attainment is likely to affect the extent of multilingualism among university students.

Given the analysis results (recall Figures 8.3a, 8.3b, 8.4a and 8.4b), bilingualism is significantly the most frequent pattern observed in both degree cohorts. It is helpful to review the results at the institutional level to discuss the salient features of each degree cohort. In the case of Bursa Uludağ University, the associate's degree shows that monolingualism and bilingualism are the norms. In contrast, the norm is bilingualism and trilingualism for the students studying at bachelor's degrees. Unlike the associate cohort, monolingualism is very rare among bachelor students. In other words, we can observe that more students, who can speak at least two or more languages, exist in the bachelor degree cohort.

Focusing on the results from İstanbul University, what is not surprising is that the research has found evidence for more widespread multilingualism among bachelor degree students for whom the norm is bilingualism and trilingualism again. In addition, an increased number of quadrilingual speakers are present at İstanbul University. For this higher education institution, the general profile of associate degree students is monolingualism and bilingualism as analyzed. Having similar findings, both higher education institutions in the present study have more multilingual bachelor students than associate students.

Upon closer inspection, statistical results also showed that these two higher education institutions had similar results in terms of two different study cohorts. For instance, the bachelor degree students studying in Bursa ($M = 2.47$) and in İstanbul ($M = 2.45$) had higher mean values regarding the number of languages spoken compared to the associate degree cohorts of Bursa ($M = 1.94$) and İstanbul ($M = 2.19$). Thus, an important finding of the study supports that university

students studying in Turkey have a general pattern for language profiles, including monolingualism, bilingualism or trilingualism, which is a clear significance that can be derived from the study cohorts of the students.

The findings of the study also suggest that, primarily, many university students are reported to be bilingual, which could be referred to as the normative pattern, while trilingualism could be identified as the second most frequent pattern. When analysed according to their degree cohorts, associate's degree is the group that is comparably homogeneous as the common language profiles are monolingualism and bilingualism. At that point, the difference between the two study cohorts is evident again that bachelor degree students are comparably more multilingual than their associate counterparts with a considerably high number of trilingual and quadrilingual speakers. It is possible that these results are influenced by the value attributed to foreign languages, mainly English, concerning educational attainment. To interpret these valuable findings, it is crucial to contextualize the motivation behind higher education in Turkey to underline the multilingual repertoire of bachelor students.

One of the notable issues that emerges from the current study findings is that English is the second language spoken by the majority of study participants following the Turkish language. Therefore, it is clear that the major bilingualism or trilingualism observed at the bachelor degree level involves English in their linguistic profiles (see section 8.2 for the major linguistic profiles). In addition, the most popular foreign language in the country is English, which is known to become a widely taught foreign language in the nation. (Bayyurt, 2013; Kirkgöz, 2009). These two points lead to the conclusion that the difference between linguistic profiles of each study cohort is more noticeable in the case of participants from bachelor degree cohort, who are mostly bilingual or multilingual speakers involving the English language in the linguistic repertoire.

Having English in the linguistic repertoire, the discrepancy between the two study cohorts is likely due to the strong commitment to globalization of the study programs at the bachelor degree level since Turkish higher education institutions have become more international and attract many international students from around the world (Coleman, 2006). Among country's globalization initiatives (such as the Bologna process, which is covered in greater detail in section 3.4.2), higher education institutions are increasingly offering foreign (English-medium) study programs as it is the case in many parts of the world (see Kirkpatrick, 2011; Sussex and Kirkpatrick, 2012). Thus, the effects of this type of internationalization seem to appear in multilingual repertoires of university students, and this is to be expected, in particular, for bachelor degree study programs where English is the language medium of instruction in most of the academic disciplines in Turkish higher education (British Council, 2020). In other words, it is the case for

bachelor degree programs that they promote the English language and sometimes additional foreign language apart from English. For example, French may be an additional foreign language for the department of International Relations due to its role as the language of diplomacy. Although English is a global language for many academic disciplines (Galloway & Rose, 2015), when it comes to associate degree study programs, it is apparent that tourism departments of vocational schools prioritize the English language or other foreign languages in Turkey (Binbasioglu & Sad, 2019; Özer & Yılmaz, 2016). Due to the role vocational schools have in the education system such as training middle-level employees the labour market needs (Chostelidou et al., 2014), it appears that associate degree study programs are lack of the notion of internationalization, EMI and the promotion of multilingualism. As a result, when weighing the two groups of study degrees, the results point to the existence of more multilingual speakers who study at the bachelor degree level.

Consistent with the literature, several studies have also noted the difference between degree cohorts considering the lack of awareness (Chostelidou et al., 2014; Üstünel & Samur, 2010) and appreciation of foreign language knowledge (Binbasioglu & Sad, 2019; Özer & Yılmaz, 2016). Similarly, the difference in the extent of multilingualism found between bachelor and associate degree cohorts can also be attributed to the scarcity of language awareness and appreciation. This finding of the present research agrees with a study by Üstünel and Samur (2010) with two-year vocational school students (associate degree) at Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University in Turkey. The study reports that the English is regarded as an easy language to learn among students from associate degree cohorts. However, their success levels are not very high in terms of English language proficiency. In the same study, it is concluded that students need higher motivation, language-related goals or expectations to be successful. This might result from the lack of foreign language awareness among associate degree students, and as a result of this, the popularity of learning a foreign language is low among this group of students. The findings align with another study with vocational school students (equivalent to an associate degree in the present study) in Greece (Chostelidou et al., 2014). In the relevant study in Greece, the homogeneous pattern found in vocational school students, commonly, indicates the need to foster multilingualism and provide linguistic diversity among these students (Chostelidou et al., 2014). It is stated that the purposes of encouraging multilingualism should include the promotion of advantages such as being able to be up-to-date and competitive, as well as the widening of employability chances, student exchanges and mutual communication. Associate degree students might not be aware of the benefits of foreign language knowledge at the personal level, so they should be trained to be aware of English, or, for that matter, any foreign language. Creating an awareness could play a role to overcome these homogeneous profiles observed at associate

degree cohort. Therefore, it could conceivably be interpreted that higher levels of bilingualism and trilingualism among bachelor degree students are an effect of educational attainment as a result of the high popularity of foreign languages in bachelor degree programs along with the awareness of the advantages of foreign language knowledge.

Additionally, in Turkey, families support the demand for English language learning since English knowledge is believed to create more opportunities for their children and a better future (Ahmad, 1993; Kiziltepe, 2000; König, 1990). Thus, at the personal level, the number of bilingual speakers of English increases due to this major reason: better job or life opportunities that are associated with the English language (Bektaş-Çetinkaya & Oruç, 2010; Bingöl et al., 2019; Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998; Karahan, 2007; König, 1990; Selvi, 2021). Regarding the family-related factors, a noteworthy point to explain the difference between the two study cohorts is parents' educational level. This factor is confirmed significantly with positive correlation results between the parent's educational background and the number of languages known in the repertoire (see the results section 8.1.1.a). Likewise, the findings related to the socio-educational background of the family affirm that university and high school graduation rates of parents are markedly higher in bachelor degree cohorts. The significant correlation and graduation rates can be speculated as to whether it is connected to more support for their children in terms of academic success and foreign language learning. In particular, families with higher education degrees are likely to encourage and support their children to study bachelor degree programs whose completion qualifies their children to get better, prestigious and more paid professions such as engineers, doctors and teachers. In this regard, parents' educational level might reflect upon the educational and foreign language learning opportunities of their children and thus, might have implications for individual multilingualism. As a result, this can be representative of an emerging result of bi- or trilingualism observed among bachelor degree students.

As stated above, multilingual university students could be associated with parental support who have strong educational backgrounds. In other words, the fact that bachelor degree students' families have better educational backgrounds than the other study cohort means more opportunities for their children's language learning process as reflected in their bi- or multilingual profiles. This parental support suggests a link may exist between the socioeconomic background of parents and multilingual individuals. As Zok (2010) argues, the danger is the special place of English, becoming the language of intellectuals in Turkey. The findings indicate that support for Zok's claim (2010) is found since the socioeconomic gap related to the educational background of parents seems to bring the language gap. These findings are also in line with the work of Dogancay-

Aktuna and Kiziltepe (2005), who reported that English has become yet another barrier between the wealthier, better-educated urban populations and those from other socioeconomic and geographical groups in Turkey. It is not only the educational and socioeconomic background of parents that brings multilingualism; the opportunities connected to parental factors can have a major role. For example, most of the students who have "families with higher socio-economic background have already had contact with English speaking communities either for travelling or business purposes. As a result of this, they want to maintain this relationship" (Bektaş-Çetinkaya & Oruç, 2010: 4665). In this case, it is most likely that parental factors create opportunities for individuals in order to promote foreign language learning and in our study, this might be the reflection of multilingualism among bachelor students.

Moreover, we can also explain these findings in terms of a holistic view of multilingualism that bilingualism facilitates additional language (Cenoz & Todeva, 2009). These bilingual university students may be more motivated to learn an additional foreign language, and they appear assured that having Turkish and English in the repertoire makes it easier to learn another third language (Akkus Çakir & Ünlü, 2019; König, 2006). This may also be one of the reasons for the visibility considering the higher number of trilinguals or quadrilinguals among bachelor degree students who overperformed their associate degree counterparts in terms of bi-or multilingualism patterns.

The findings of the study also highlighted some facts that could be used as a reference for multiple foreign language competencies among Turkish university students, which may have been caused by global competitiveness (Djuraeva, 2022). In the present research, bachelor degree students appear to have bilingualism or trilingualism, and this phenomenon seems to be one of the normative patterns constituting their linguistic repertoire. The necessity of foreign language knowledge may be associated with standing out in professional life, especially in an era shaped by globalization. This association can also be a probable explanation for these more multilingual profiles in bachelor studies, which is the highest educational degree in the present study. For instance, in the case of including master's and doctoral students, it can be expected that there would be more multilinguals observed due to the requirements of higher academic qualifications (e.g. at least one foreign language knowledge in an advanced level to be able to pursue a master degree). As a result, multilingual profiles can be associated with educational attainment. In other words, educational attainment may influence students' linguistic profiles regarding globalization effects and the higher the education degree is, the more crucial it might be to establish multilingual profiles from the perspective of university students.

In conclusion, the extent of multilingualism observed in bachelor degree

study cohort is more widespread with their bilingual and trilingual profiles than in the associate degree cohorts. On the contrary, associate students appear to have monolingual and bilingual profiles. It seems that the desire and push for additional language learning may be common among bilinguals or multilinguals who are expected to be more motivated to learn another language according to a holistic view of multilingualism (Cenoz & Todeva, 2009). In addition, we cannot exclude the necessity of foreign language knowledge since it appears to play a major role in the professional life the degree brings. To a certain extent, it could also be argued that foreign language awareness is due to educational attainment, which has an impact on multilingual profiles. While educational attainment among students is important, the current study highlights that family-related factors such as parent's educational level and socioeconomic background are equally important for the promotion of multilingual individuals. Demonstrating that higher levels of parents' education result in students knowing more languages and more widespread multilingualism, it is possible to argue that foreign language knowledge indicates a status symbol creating a gap between better educated and other socioeconomic groups regarding Turkish higher education context. These are also potential explanations that are likely to reinforce the proficiency level outcomes, major linguistic profiles, and language attitudes which require a more detailed look and evaluation in the upcoming discussion sections.

9.2 The Relationship between Multilingualism and Self-reported Proficiency

In this section of the discussion chapter, the self-reported proficiency levels and the extent of multilingualism are investigated. Earlier in the literature review, theories and models that discuss the acquisition of additional language and the impact on proficiencies were introduced. These models will be briefly revisited whilst considering the proficiency levels found among university students connected with the participants' linguistic profiles. Finally, the current research question regarding proficiencies is discussed concerning oral and literal proficiencies.

Based on what we found beforehand, it is essential to mention the general linguistic profiles found among university students: monolingualism and bilingualism for the associate degree cohort and bi- and trilingualism, and even quadrilingualism for the bachelor degree cohort. These findings do not come as a surprise; on the contrary, these results confirm the outcomes of educational policies and reforms in Turkey, in particular policies implemented by the Council of Higher Education, which supports the learning of at least one foreign language

and even a second foreign language in the tertiary level education system (CoHE, 2007). According to these educational policies, as we referred to earlier, it can be assumed that English is already a part of learners' linguistic repertoires because it is a widely taught language in Turkey (Bayyurt, 2013), and many university students intend to learn a second foreign language (Selvi, 2011). Yet, it is essential to evaluate proficiency levels to explore the relationship between proficiency levels and the students' degree of multilingualism in this section. The languages in their repertoire will be explored in section 9.4.

As explained before in Chapter 7, the current study used solely self-reported proficiency results rather than objective tests. One of the significant advantages of using self-assessed proficiencies is the availability to collect relatively more data ($n = 588$) in a short period. The second advantage is that it does not have any additional expenses. Thirdly, previous studies, which have noted the importance of self-report measures, are frequently found to have strong correlations with actual performance related to linguistic skills such as proficiency levels (Delgado et al., 1999) and communicative language abilities (Bachman & Palmer, 1989), to name a few. However, we still need to consider the probability of the study's subjects underestimating or overestimating their proficiencies. Thus, we need to keep in mind that this study's self-reported proficiency ratings represent self-assessments when interpreting our findings.

It is apparent from the previous research question, which gives us the extent of multilingualism of Turkish tertiary level students, that the language proficiency levels of these students in their language repertoire need to be identified and discussed from a proficiency level perspective. One expected result of the recent findings is that nearly all respondents displayed high proficiency in their L1 (their mother tongue). This outcome related to L1 is the same for all degree types in the study. In addition, this notable finding is in line with another study at the tertiary level context in Turkey. The same result regarding students' competency in their mother tongue is found to be higher in comparison to subsequent languages (Demirbulak, 2011). By contrast, interesting findings have been presented in an earlier study concerning self-assessed proficiencies at the tertiary level. For instance, Siemund et al. (2014) examined self-reported proficiency levels of Singaporean university students and did not find any fully proficient outcomes in the participants' repertoires, even in their home language. They suggest that this result is due to Asian modesty. Although Turkey has 97 % of its territories in Asia, no evidence of Asian modesty seems to be detected in the current study. A likely explanation might be the differing characterization of Asian culture in the Singaporean and Turkish contexts. At this point, it is essential to point out that higher L1 proficiency in the current study is likely to represent Turkish language proficiency as a majority of participants are Turkish participants (i. e. 543 out of

588), and Turkey is an officially monolingual country (Bear, 1985). As a result, being a monolingual country, Turkish is the dominant factor for the high proficiency outcomes related to L1, unlike the multilingual Singaporean setting.

Moreover, among all quantitative analyses of language proficiency ratings explored in this study, there are considerable differences in the outcomes. We can see that the most commonly exhibited pattern is that a marginal decline starts from the speaker's first language to their second, third, and fourth. These results show a monotonical decrease with each additional language in the repertoires. Starting from the third language, the self-reported proficiency level seems to be around the 'fair' level, and the fourth language is slightly lower than the third language. This finding is in line with the arguments claimed in the literature by Siemund et al. (2014) and Leimgruber et al. (2018), in which a similar type of decline has been observed between self-assessed proficiency levels and linguistic profiles in the Singaporean context. Here, the difference must be noted again considering the function of various languages, mainly English, in the country (i. e. Singapore) involved in the referred studies. Singapore belongs to the Outer Circle countries, while Turkey is in the Expanding Circle (Kachru, 1992). In the Singaporean context, as part of its natural role in the Outer Circle country, English plays a vital role in interethnic communication, and "the functionality of English is recognised and accepted" (Bamgbose, 2003: 420). Yet, in the Turkish context, the primary function of English is seen as a foreign language, and it plays a crucial role as a lingua franca, which refers to international communication (Arik, 2020). With respect to patterns of decline, the outcomes may be similar; however, in terms of language recognition within the nation, these two countries (i. e. Singapore and Turkey) are not comparable.

Following the marginal decline, the findings related to linguistic proficiencies are rather interesting but consistent in terms of speakers' degree of multilingualism. Overall, these self-reported proficiencies indicate that the proficiencies appear to be affected by the respondents' degree of multilingualism and their competence in many languages seems to result in slightly lower proficiencies. Yet, there is not much difference between bilinguals and trilinguals. This data must be interpreted with caution because our findings of bilingual, trilingual and quadrilingual groups show only self-assessed results, which are not statistically significant. Bilinguals and trilinguals display almost the same proficiency levels, unlike the quadrilingual speakers who rated themselves lower than these groups. For the quarilingual group, we can consider an explanation highly connected to meta-knowledge, metalinguistic awareness, and learning strategies observed in multilingual individuals (Cenoz, 2003; Jessner, 1999). These speakers with many languages tend to display an enhanced metalinguistic awareness and metacognitive strategies (Jessner, 2006). Put differently, as the number of languages

in a linguistic repertoire increases, metalinguistic awareness of the learner is assumed to increase in the same way, and this awareness brings various advantages to the learners such as reflection on the rules, word groupings and so on. In the same vein, a recent by Nshiwi and Jessner (2021) draws attention to the clear link between metalinguistic awareness and proficiency levels that metalinguistic awareness predicts the fourth language scores depending on the context of the study and previously known languages. Additionally, the pioneering work by Peal and Lambert (1962) shed some light on the phenomenon of the crucial role of metalinguistic awareness in multilingualism, which is later supported by Vygotsky (1986), that multilingual learners demonstrate increased pragmatic skills. It seems plausible to conclude that this intriguing result that we observed in the proficiency ratings of the quadrilingual group could be attributed to the extent of their metalinguistic awareness and advanced language skills. Thus, we can argue that the higher level of metalinguistic awareness that quadrilinguals are supposed to possess implies that their self-reported proficiency ratings tend not to exaggerate the estimation of their language abilities.

As far as quadrilingual group is concerned, their more realistic assessment of self-reported proficiencies could also be based on the assumption that speakers with multilingual backgrounds are more experienced with not only language learning and strategies, but also language assessment, assuming that they can compare languages in their repertoire, thus they can report more realistic results than their bilingual and monolingual peers. For example, third language learners can utilise two languages as base languages during third language acquisition, but second language learners can only use their first language as a foundation language (Cenoz, 2003). The comparability of more languages, in turn, could result in realistic assessment outcomes for the quadrilingual group.

For the observation related to the quadrilinguals' slightly lower self-reported proficiencies, which has been foregrounded already in detail, we must remember that the quadrilingual group is a distinct language profile extensively seen in the bachelor degree cohort. In contrast, the associate degree cohort appears to be less multilingual and typically made up of monolinguals and bilinguals. The crucial point here is that the two different study cohorts are likely to rely on different criteria for their self-proficiency ratings. Therefore, a likely explanation might be the assumption that the two groups of respondents, considering the study cohorts, may reflect different proficiency ratings. We can speculate that variance in self-reported proficiencies, particularly for speakers of four languages, may have been caused by different self-rated proficiency standards due to educational attainment.

Nevertheless, all linguistic profiles, in general, seem to report proficiencies, which are ranging from 'very good' to 'fair' language proficiency with a system-

atic decline. These findings could be evidence against multilingualism models surrounding proficiencies. For instance, according to the CEM (Flynn et al., 2004), language acquisition is cumulative, and past languages might play a neutral or enhancing effect. This enhancing impact on the development of additional language proficiency has also been proposed for bilinguals in Cummins' Interdependence Hypothesis (1981). Another model that is congruent with supporting further language learning: The Dynamic Model of Multilingualism (Herdina & Jessner, 2002), which sees multilingual proficiency as dynamically interacting linguistic subsystems. The claims related to the models of multilingualism (e. g. CEM, DMM), which favour a positive impact for each additional language learnt, would particularly suggest that ratings in proficiencies are positively affected by the extent of multilingualism. In other words, all these linguistic models surrounding proficiencies are of significance in understanding the relationship between additional language learning and language proficiency. However, the findings in the current study cannot be explained by these models to support a positive effect for each additional language. Previous studies in Singapore by Leimgruber et al. (2018) and Siemund et al. (2014) whose research concentrated on tertiary level education and self-reported proficiency levels, also hide support for the models of multilingualism and affirms the result of the current study. Although these results have failed to confirm that linguistic models play a decisive role in proficiency levels, they still warrant further investigation of the relationship between models of multilingualism and proficiency ratings. In fact, the findings would have been more persuasive if we had assessed language proficiency levels or alternatively, asked official proficiency results.

Whilst highlighting the results from the study, it is essential to investigate self-reported proficiency levels from a slightly different perspective. This time, we assume that oral and literal skills are also suggestive of interesting findings. The oral skills mentioned in the study include listening and speaking, while reading and writing skills fall into the category of literal skills. Following the general discussion above regarding self-reported proficiency levels, the exhibition of literal and oral skills has been analysed separately. The results display interaction with degree type and suggest interesting differences. For instance, the Bursa Uludağ University results demonstrated that the associate cohort had slightly higher proficiency levels than their bachelor peers in terms of L1, L2, L3, and L4. When we look at the two cohorts together, their oral and literal skills are intertwined. However, there is still a finding that oral skills are reported to be higher than the participants' literal skills in each cohort, with two exceptions where oral skills have been noted to be intertwined but a bit lower. For İstanbul University, bachelor students claim to be slightly more proficient than their associate counterparts for L1 and L2, while this is reversed for the proficiency ratings related to L3 and L4. Still, we can conclude that the general trend observed with some differentials

is that oral skills are higher than literal skills for all study cohorts. They may be again connected to educational attainment since the self-reported proficiency levels might be biased by educational attainment, and bachelor degree students, representing a higher degree of multilingualism, are likely to have the ability to differentiate between first, second, third and other languages.

Although these findings are difficult to interpret, the desire for language use can be an explanation for the results related to oral skills. From a multilingual standpoint, language use is an activating function for language maintenance (Herdina & Jessner, 2002). To preserve language maintenance to the highest level, students tend to practise their speaking skills more than the other skills. For example, utilising technology in the digital era, Mustafa (2018) point out that social media networking such as YouTube, Skype, and WhatsApp have the chief role in improving university students' speaking skills. Skills related to daily life are claimed to be rated higher, including skills such as listening to songs and watching films in English (Peacock, 1999). Speaking skills can be an essential part of university students' daily lives when interacting with their international peers, playing online games, watching TV series, and producing social media content. Thus, oral skills may have the highest rating in their linguistic repertoire.

On the other hand, it can also be argued that reading and writing skills can require high cognitive order depending on the learner's motivation to learn a language (Chomsky, 1957), such as when understanding literary texts. Today's generation, which involves most of our participants' age group, is less interested in literary texts or traditional media resources as they have easy access to the online world. Generally, audiobooks have replaced conventional books so far. Another interpretation could be based on the fact that university students have become more international due to globalization and modernization. They desire to contact their international peers, which can be achieved easily with their smartphones and internet technologies. Therefore, the desire for international communication and travel abroad triggers the need to improve their oral skills rather than their literal skills. In the literature review part, it was also mentioned that Turkish university students have instrumental reasons to learn English, such as interaction with their international peers, studying abroad, and better job opportunities (Kiziltepe, 2000; König, 1990; Üzüm, 2007). We may propose higher oral proficiencies as a consequence of the instrumental value of English in the Expanding Circle countries. The higher self-reported oral proficiency skills might result from the fact that listening and speaking skills are needed more in comparison to literal skills to reach their specific academic-related or job-related dreams. For example, presentation skills in professional, as well as university life, require fluent and accurate speaking.

In sum, after examining the proficiency levels, there is likely a potential for

overestimation and underestimation of self-assessed proficiencies based on several individual factors. Objectively measured proficiencies are assumed to bring different results. However, this still allows us to speculate on the variation among other linguistic profiles. Some advantages may exist in multilingual learners compared to monolinguals; yet, this requires further analysis. Judging from the outcomes, the pattern we found in the current study does not precisely agree with the linguistic models surrounding proficiencies, such as the Interdependence Hypothesis, CUP, DMM and CEM as explained because these linguistic models hypothesized how they support, if not directly influence, additional language acquisition in terms of proficiencies. We can accept that all prior language knowledge is crucial and the multilingual profiles, such as bachelor degree students' cases, seem to provide stronger self-assessments. These stronger self-assessments may be related to a higher level of multilingual awareness due to their competence in many languages, which brings higher proficiency levels. Therefore, educational attainment can arguably be one of the factors. According to the current data, oral skills are generally reported to be higher than literal skills.

Taken together, there might be a relationship between self-assessed proficiencies and the extent of multilingualism with some differences, but this issue remains unresolved with the current data whether it is a negative or positive relationship. In the next section, we will turn our attention to the attitudes that are assumed to be in relation to our findings, including proficiency levels reported in this section and the extent of multilingualism across degree levels discussed in the first research question.

9.3 Language Attitudes

One of the determinant factors in language learning is the degree of variation in attitudes that learners have. Factors such as age (Akay & Toraman, 2015; Özer & Yılmaz, 2016; Tetik, 2016), gender (Akay & Toraman, 2015; Karataş et al., 2016; Kiziltan & Atli, 2013), parental influence (Kiziltepe, 2000), and curriculum (Akkus Çakir & Ünlü, 2019) have been proposed to account for this variation. In the present study, the attitude has been differentiated between two specific languages, i.e. English and Turkish. Furthermore, it's part of the research to determine whether language learners' views are positive or negative in terms of attitudes and discuss the findings. Hence, the notable findings related to the third research question address the attitudes towards the English and Turkish languages from the analysis of attitude statements in the online questionnaire. Seemingly, the findings have shown that attitude is a highly significant factor in language learning situations and the results confirm the relationship between

attitudes and language learning regarding a great deal of the previous work of language attitude studies conducted in Turkey (see section 6.7).

Previously, we discussed two study cohorts and investigated the discrepancy between associate and bachelor degree students. Again, the findings do not come as a surprise in terms of attitude statements and revealed the distinctive results concerning different language learner groups (e. g. bachelor and associate degree groups). In particular, the statistical differences between the two study cohorts draw our attention to other factors suggested in the literature. For instance, this discrepancy in the study cohorts could be attributed to the characterization of an attitude such as International Posture (Yashima, 2002) or two types of orientation affecting learners' attitudes including instrumental and integrative (Lambert, 1963). In other words, International Posture (IP), as defined by Yashima (2002), is a helpful yet crucial characterization of language attitudes toward the L2 language community and integration with the global society as opposed to assimilation with native speakers. In the present study, university students' favorable opinions toward other linguistic groups may be significantly influenced by their desire to work or reside overseas which can be referred to International Posture (Yashima, 2002) in that regard. Likewise, when considering the role of attitude in language learning, it is essential to remember Lambert (1963), who identified learners' attitudes toward the target language as the most important factor influencing language learning. Since English is taught widely in Turkey because of the opportunities it is thought to bring, instrumental orientation is more likely to produce positive attitudes regarding job or life related opportunities among university students while integrative motivation appears to be an affective concept in terms of students' language attitudes, according to Lambert (1963).

The present study was designed to determine the effect of language attitudes in a bit more detail considering the level of agreement and disagreement since attitudes towards English and Turkish yield highly interesting findings. There have been several rates of agreement or disagreement observed among the study cohorts and at the same time, some attitude statements have been viewed neither favourably nor unfavourably, which should be interpreted with caution. For instance, attitude statements, whose focus are 'speaking English', present the most neutral finding. In fact, we can interpret from the analyses that significant differences between bachelor and associate degree cohorts exist. More importantly, it is also helpful to discuss the results with relatively strong variables such as gender, age, and citizenship factor as part of the quantitative data analyses to interpret the findings.

Building on this brief description, a crucial finding of the attitude part is that variables such as gender and citizenship are found to have no significant effect on students' attitudes in the Turkish setting. Correspondingly, the results of other

attitude studies concerning gender variables have shown insignificant results for the gender variable in the Turkish context (Akay & Toraman, 2015; Karataş et al., 2016; Kiziltan & Atli, 2013). Among the variables, the age variable is found to be statistically significant and an important variable in terms of Turkish attitudes. The findings of the present study seem to be consistent with other research which found that Turkish attitudes appear to become more negative with ageing (Akay & Toraman, 2015; Özer & Yılmaz, 2016; Tetik, 2016).

In the current study, all participants are university students and the age group, which includes the majority of participants, is in the age cohort between 20 and 25 years old. Regarding the age factor, statistical results demonstrate a negative impact on attitudes, which is highly relevant for the study. Intriguingly, we obtained the most significant results regarding Turkish language attitudes that showed that age may adversely impact attitudes towards the Turkish language. In other words, age can be a source of unfavourable views towards Turkish, unlike the insignificant attitude results towards English. This requires some explanation as to why university students lose interest in Turkish with ageing. It is important to note here that in the current study, a great number of participants are L1 Turkish speakers. Therefore, from the findings, we can assume that their L1 (e. g. in this case Turkish) attitudes are due to change towards the disagreement part of the scale as they get older.

Although more research is needed to shed light on factors underlying the age variable, we can speculate that globalization, with the spread of technology, is likely to have an impact on this matter. This also refers to the accelerating hegemony of English, especially in Expanding Circle countries (Bamgbose, 2003). On the one hand, Turkey is officially a monolingual country (Bear, 1985); on the other hand, Turkish medium education has been challenged by the internationalization of universities and internationally supported exchange programs at tertiary level education (Coleman, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2011). As a result, Turkish university campuses have become more international settings with students from abroad. For example, facilitating and boosting international activities such as hosting international conferences and workshops, collaborating with international universities in terms of projects, exchange students and staff may be a likely explanation for positive attitudes towards language practices on campuses (e. g. English). The decreasing interest in the Turkish language, which is found in the specific educational context (higher education context in this study), can be a supportive result of this claim.

In addition to internationalization, in some ways, the exposure of the younger generation to global media is greater than older generations in the 21st century (see section 3.4.2). Rahimi and Yadollahi (2011) suggest that technology use is mostly age-dependent; younger generations are the most frequent users of

information and communication technologies thanks to globalization. Hence, we can argue that age is a significant factor when we want to talk about the rapidly evolving world around us. Since English is a global language and plays a big role in the international arena, this might result in decreasing interest in the mother tongue among younger generations. In the current study, the inclination of losing interest in the Turkish language with ageing can partly be due to information and communication technologies.

The findings on attitudes related to age at least hint that there is a difference between the attitudes toward the English language and the Turkish language among university students. Fundamentally, having analyzed the data, the findings also suggest that there is a clear difference between the two study cohorts of bachelor and associate degree students regarding their language attitudes, which is discussed in the next subsections: attitudes towards English (section 9.3.1) and attitudes towards Turkish (section 9.3.2).

9.3.1 Attitudes towards English

Contrasting two study cohorts, an initial objective of the present study was to seek answers to the question of what the attitudes of students towards English are. In this section, we will try to understand the general frame in terms of attitudes for the study cohorts. Yet, in the interpretation of the current results, we need to keep in mind that Turkey is officially a monolingual country and was never colonized (Bear, 1985). This means that English teaching is confined to schools and English is a widely taught language in the education system (Bayyurt, 2013) as exclusively mentioned in the history of foreign language education in Turkey (see section 3.3).

First, we will discuss the findings that had the highest mean score, this was the attitude statement emphasizing that English knowledge will increase students' opportunities to find employment (S1). These initial results are suggestive of a link between positive attitudes and English, which resonates with nearly all participants' responses. Here, it is interesting to note that learners studying in both cohorts have positive attitudes regarding English knowledge increasing their employability in the job market. What can be interpreted by this is that they regard English knowledge as useful and important for their professional life and career goals. These findings may help us to understand the current role of English in terms of the professional life domain in Turkey and corroborate the findings of a great deal of the previous work on positive attitudes towards English derived from the instrumental orientation, which mainly refers to the goals of getting well-paid jobs or better job opportunities in the Turkish setting (Bektaş-Çetinkaya

& Oruç, 2010; Bingöl et al., 2019; Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998; Kamasak & Ozbilgin, 2021; König, 1990; Selvi, 2021).

Moreover, the comprehensive review of literature has already shown that the role of English gained momentum with the reforms and Westernism movements started in the Republican era (see section 3.3.2). This was also highlighted by Zok (2010) that Turkey is under the effects of Westernization, so for its own sake, Turkey needs to keep up with Western countries in terms of scientific and economic development. Of course, these economic developments mean better job opportunities in the Turkish context and for the job market. Job opportunities will be abundant for individuals, who have a higher proficiency level in English (Arik, 2020; Djuraeva, 2022; König, 1990). At this point, we can argue that the positive attitudes are due to tertiary level students' awareness of the necessity of English language knowledge to maximize their employability.

Within the Turkish context, educational reforms paved a way for the popularity of English (Selvi, 2011), especially with support and encouragement from families (Ahmad, 1993; Kiziltepe, 2000) along with the Internet and media in professional life (Acar, 2004). As a result, this appreciation of English is a likely cause for learning the language regarding better career opportunities. Furthermore, the job market can be one of the potential sources for the general agreement on the high value of English for employment. For instance, in a study with 773 job vacancies appearing in 419 advertisements, the value of English in the job market was investigated, and it was found that 91 job vacancies were advertised in English while 426 of them required a good knowledge of English (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998). Another notable study in the Turkish context shows that more than half of the job advertisements sought knowledge of a foreign language, particularly English (Bingöl et al., 2019). In the 21st century, it is highly likely that the value and the necessity of English knowledge in terms of career opportunities have increased. The seemingly positive attitude towards English, at the same time, may explain the relatively good link between English and its instrumental value (Lambert, 1963). According to Lambert (1963) and Norris-Holt (2001), several factors can affect the instrumental value of English, one of which is finding better job opportunities. We can conclude that English has a big role in university students' life since it is believed to create better career opportunities. These positive attitudes are likely to arise from the fact that it is seen as "the key to desirable employment in the future" (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004: 34). For example, the desire for continuing their professional life abroad can be a good explanation for these positive attitudes since English is seen as a 'door opener'. Not only does English help with finding employment, but you can also get further in life with it. This leads us to our second attitude item in the questionnaire.

With respect to the second attitude item, English knowledge was viewed

favourably again, yet this time there are statistically significant findings from the two universities. Based on quantitative analyses of educational institutions, the students studying for a bachelor degree strongly agreed that English knowledge is important in order to get far in life (S2) compared to their associate counterparts. A statistically confirmed finding shows us another role of English at the tertiary level of education: better life opportunities. As globalization advances, the push and desire for English knowledge among bachelor degree students might be explained by the fact that they may want to live outside the country for better life opportunities (Çetinkaya, 2009), and in addition to this, it can be attributed to their desire to study abroad as their academic disciplines represent more global connections such as Erasmus exchange programs (Findik, 2016; Yağci, 2010). Thus, so far what has been observed in the current attitude item is that bachelor students have more positive attitudes towards English for better life opportunities it is attributed to. In a study by Çetinkaya (2009) with university students, a similar trend has already been noticed that the students have positive attitudes towards English and that notions such as power, economic, and technological development are associated with the English language. The present study confirms that English language is associated with better opportunities for getting far in life from learners' perspective. As a result, English, and the advantages it brings are likely to be seen as a key motivating factor for creating positive attitudes towards it among university students, which is in agreement with those obtained by Çetinkaya (2009), Dogancay-Aktuna and Kiziltepe (2005), Kirkgoz (2005), König (2006) and Tokoz Goktepe (2014) in the literature.

The next significant outcome of the current study relates to the third attitude statement that "English is a language that is well suited to modern society" (S3). Here, bachelor degree students agreed significantly more often than their peers studying for associate degree. Yet, this significant result is limited and only belongs to data from İstanbul University. Interestingly, there are no significant results from Bursa Uludağ University. This discrepancy between the two universities in our research setting, and the high ratings of agreement among students from İstanbul University might be because İstanbul is a more international city and therefore, language awareness of students, in general, could be higher (Kiziltepe, 2000). Although this difference is difficult to interpret and explain, we can speculate as to whether the cosmopolitan nature of İstanbul increases the exposure to English in everyday life more than the other city in the present study. As a result of this exposure, attitudes towards English might be positively affected.

Regarding the study cohorts specifically, bachelor degree students studying at İstanbul University believe that English is a language that is well suited to modern society in comparison to their associate counterparts. Therefore, English

seems to be welcomed by bachelor degree students, who are more multilingual than their associate counterparts as we already highlighted in our results. Their multilingual profiles are likely to be associated with positive attitudes towards English, that it is well suited to modern society and educational attainment, again, might be one of the important potential reasons for the value of foreign language knowledge for possessing positive attitudes. However, it should be insisted that not all the multilingual subjects provided positive attitudes towards the English language, at least in the case of the university students examined in this study.

There are some language skills that recent research investigates as essential parts of language attitudes. In this scope, the speaking skills were indirectly questioned through attitude statements and there seems to be a decline in agreement levels for the fourth attitude item of the questionnaire, which is about whether the respondents feel confident and secure when speaking English (S4). Across two study cohorts including all participants, there were no significant differences at all. In addition, interview data analyses convincingly illustrate that participants have anxiety while speaking English and they further added during interviews that they are afraid of appearing foolish due to their pronunciation in terms of their speaking skills. This finding is in line with a number of studies within the Turkish context that noted a lack of confidence in terms of Turkish students' speaking skills, anxiety levels, and low proficiency in skill-based assessments, particularly speaking (Çağatay, 2015; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2014; Tekir, 2021). Thus, the weak association between speaking and attitudes is interesting, but not surprising. The results show a monotonic pattern of agreement with nearly a quarter of respondents disagreeing and another quarter of participants being neutral. Hence, it is possible that a lack of confidence in speaking skills could account for some aspects of unfavourable views. We could discuss the factors behind negative attitudes here, but it will make more sense to discuss this finding with other attitude statements about speaking skills, which are the eighth and ninth items in the present study.

Concerning the fifth statement that "English lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions" (S5), it references the evaluation of the English language by expressing sentimentality. After discussing the attitude statements related to better career and life opportunities, and speaking skills, one unexpected finding associated with the fifth attitude statement is the significant results in the bachelor cohort of İstanbul University data. Respondents at İstanbul University tended to demonstrate favourable views of English, while it is concluded that participants from the Bursa Uludağ University did not differ significantly across degree cohorts. A relevant argument of these outcomes might be discussed after the evaluation of the outcomes of the sixth and seventh statements because these attitude statements are related to the presence of English as part of cultural herit-

age and personal identity. In fact, all three items refer to the evaluative dimension of the role of English extended to the personal level. Indeed, it seems that certain common factors need to be considered as to why some study cohorts have favourable views of the English language presence. To discuss these factors, we will evaluate the findings concerning the current (S5), sixth and seventh attitude statements at the same time, as some consistencies and inconsistencies need to be addressed to validate the findings.

Regarding consistent significant results, attitude item six, "Knowing English is a significant part of my cultural heritage" (S6), reveals significant outcomes only in the İstanbul University cohort. This significance further indicates the favorability of English among bachelor degree students. Again, it is very hard to interpret this specific finding. Yet, the findings are remarkable that all respondents in the present study have moderate attitudes towards the role of English as part of their cultural heritage in general. Keeping these moderate values in mind, our seventh attitude statement about "regarding English as part of personal identity" (S7) has generated no significant results from the current investigation. Still, all participants seem to have moderate attitudes. From the results of all three attitude statements regarding the presence of English from the personal perspective of university students, we can argue that these moderate attitudes are due to various reasons.

Firstly, for countries such as Turkey, where English has the role of a foreign language confined to schools, its dominance is a hotly-debated issue (Selvi, 2011; Üzüm, 2007). Although a large number of people are against the dominant role of English in terms of higher level education and all educational domains (see EMI debate in section 3.4.4), the State, which has a lot of power, supports education policies to encourage the English supremacy (CoHE, 2021). That means the State, including the people in charge of policy change, supports and implements the spread of English (Selvi, 2011). This is a superficial observation for the Turkish population, where the omnipresence of English has no functional role in society due to it being officially monolingual (Bear, 1985). According to some scholars, that is the main reason why the role of English as a foreign language is highly complex in Turkey (König, 1990; Selvi, 2014; Üzüm, 2007). In light of the current position of English and our findings, we could argue that these attitude results may give clues about the recent picture of the perceivable general ideology since the results illustrate that university students are not internally oriented toward English language learning. Even though the education system supports the dominant role of English, it does not represent any unique role from individuals' perspectives.

Secondly, these attitude results cast some doubt on how far the state-supported policies influence national identity because the national identity topic seems to

be closely tied to language (Cooper & Fishman, 1977). For example, the Turkish language and culture rely on cultural values (Karakaş, 2013). This cultural notion will be elaborated more regarding nationalistic views while discussing Turkish attitude statements (see section 9.3.2). Briefly, a possible explanation for the moderate attitudes towards English might be that national identity hinders internal orientation toward foreign languages (Üzüm, 2007).

Thirdly, the observed moderate attitudes might also be explained carefully in Lambert's proposition that there is a relationship between integrative motivation, which refers to being part of the target language environment, and attitudes (Lambert, 1963). This could simply mean that high integrative motivation is associated with positive attitudes (Gardner, 1985). Although our findings are not entirely generalisable, they may signal a lower level of integrative motivation among our participants because these attitude results are reflections of keywords such as cultural heritage and personal identity. This could be one of the characteristics of Expanding Circle countries where English solely has the role of a foreign language that is widely taught in the country (Bayyurt, 2013; König, 1990; Selvi, 2011). In fact, this may be socially an expected finding when the Turkish context is considered. That is, a low level of integrative orientation towards the English language exists although a high level of recognition can be seen among learners regarding the importance of the English language, namely instrumental orientation. This finding broadly supports the work of other studies in this area linking language attitudes with orientation type such as instrumental motivation in the Turkish context (Çetinkaya, 2009; Karahan, 2007; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2013).

To move on with the discussion of other attitude statements, it is worth mentioning the fourth attitude statement which unveiled the attitudes towards speaking English with the tendency of being neutral and disagreeing about feeling confident and secure while speaking English. Now, we need to discuss the other attitude items concerning speaking skills. The eighth attitude statement is one of them stating: "I feel fully at ease in a group that converses in English" (S8). Surprisingly, the eighth and ninth were the two attitude statements with the lowest mean scores in the scope of the current study because the ninth attitude statement is also equally relevant to speaking skills positing: "Whenever I have a choice, I prefer to speak English" (S9). These statements that consider speaking skills evidently reflect disagreements to some extent. Unquestionably, our findings must be interpreted with caution. We can conclude that attitude statements reflecting upon speaking skills have less agreement among university students. In addition, these attitude outcomes with low mean scores can reveal a lack of speaking skills, which may be a big concern for Turkish university students. What these speaking attitudes assume is that students' opportunities regarding English practice might be minimal outside the classroom environment unless they have

individual motivation (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; Thompson & Aslan, 2015).

In addition to the scarcity of speaking opportunities, foreign language speaking anxiety may be something that is sensitive to the unwillingness to speak English. It was pointed out by Dewaele et al. (2018) that speaking anxiety level also increases significantly from a learner's first language (L1) to second language (L2). In the same vein, several studies have been carried out within the Turkish context and reported that anxiety is high in productive skills such as speaking (Çağatay, 2015; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2014; Tekir, 2021).

Following these relevant studies, the lack of speaking skills and anxiety factors are also emphasized in the analyses of interviews. The interview findings show that participants are afraid of speaking English in the classroom because they do not feel proficient enough considering their pronunciation skills. Also, again in the interview findings, we can see that students do not have many chances to practise in the classroom environment since English education is generally based on teaching grammar rather than teaching skills such as speaking, reading, writing, and listening. Additionally, the interview findings further illustrate that accuracy in grammar is believed to be more critical than communicative competence, making learners feel incompetent in real-life situations. Özmen (2012) found evidence for the concerns of language use from the Turkish learners' perspective, and the evidence was traditional learning methods in the education system such as memorization.

Another reason might be the Turkish context, as learners do not need to use English for daily life since the country is officially monolingual (Bear, 1985). We need to emphasize the role of English here again. English has its place as a widely taught foreign language (Bayyurt, 2013) rather than the medium of communication in daily life in Turkey. This necessarily means that opportunities are rare to use English in natural communicative settings. Thus, the scarcity of chances to practice a foreign language in real-life situations may cause language learners to develop hesitation, stress, anxiety, and shyness. This was previously discussed by Dörnyei (1990) as the interaction with the target language community can be very limited because of fewer opportunities, resulting in a lack of some foreign language skills. At that point, instrumental motivation was emphasised again as it helps to increase a learner's motivation for various reasons such as education, friendship, and travel. Likewise, Çağatay (2015) is one example who analyzed students' speaking anxiety at a Turkish university and concluded that students should engage in authentic conversations with native speakers. Furthermore, she suggests social networking such as chat blogs and taking part in exchange programs to foster the chances of creating meaningful conversations. In terms of tertiary level students, international exchange programs such as Erasmus plus can be highly beneficial for Turkish students to connect their education with

universities in Europe, as well as to practise English skills. Their participation in conducting projects with their peers from abroad will help them overcome the incompetency of their speaking skills. They could become members of online networking platforms and seek opportunities to practice their English.

In summary, tertiary level students view English favourably in terms of some specific domains such as professional life. Thus, English is a source of positive attitudes. From these findings, we can further assume that the main role of English among tertiary level students is associated with better job and life opportunities. In addition, English seems to have the role of a foreign language rather than being part of students' identity. More importantly, their attitudes seem to be moderate regarding the role of English in terms of their personal identity, cultural heritage, and the suitability of English for the modern world. This directs us to the similar characteristics of Expanding Circle countries. Yet, participants seem to have a lack of confidence in terms of their speaking skills. Hence, respondents' attitudes are rather negative towards speaking English compared to aforementioned topics. The comparably lower attitudes towards speaking English might be associated with language teaching methods and educational policy in the nation. As indicated in the literature review part previously, we can argue that foreign language teaching reforms and national language policy and planning need to be constantly revised. This needs to be done according to the results of language attitude studies conducted in the relevant settings and therefore, current findings can be direct relevance to the sociolinguistics of higher education in the Turkish context and internationally.

9.3.2 Attitudes towards Turkish

Among all the attitude items investigated in the Turkish attitude part, there are significant findings, which will also pave the way for contributing to a better understanding of the English attitude results. This section of the discussion is meant to provide an overview of Turkish language attitudes (in this case, the mother tongue of the majority) and substantial differences across students' degree cohorts. In the end, the current findings related to Turkish attitudes may help us to explore the present situation better from the mother tongue perspective as a great number of respondents are Turkish. Additionally, we can interpret the ideal role of English in Turkey as to whether it may have the potential to replace a mother tongue (in the extreme case of weak agreement for Turkish attitude statements), or if English has the status of a foreign language in Turkey. Within this framework, attitudes toward the Turkish language can be a good indicator and the findings can enhance a better understanding of potential bias among university students.

In the current discussion, the statistically significant outcomes belong to the first attitude item in the questionnaire, "Knowing Turkish will increase my opportunities to find employment" (S1). In comparison to the bachelor degree cohort, associate degree students agree most with this statement when the data is analyzed. This might be due to their academic disciplines since at least one foreign language knowledge is desirable for professions related to bachelor degree. In other words, the less positive attitudes observed for the bachelor degree study cohort may be a representation of the value of Turkish in the job market. This observation about Turkish attitudes and the discrepancy in terms of appreciation of Turkish in the job market may support the hypothesis that attitudes towards Turkish (here recognized as L1) are highly dependent on educational attainment (e. g. degree cohort). That is, as we can interpret it, that the mother tongue might lose its importance in favour of the high international recognition of foreign languages, which are assumed to bring more career opportunities to students. In the Turkish context, successful career opportunities have made English more essential (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; König, 1990; Selvi, 2011, 2021). These findings related to educational attainment and attitudes towards Turkish are representative of an emerging trend among university students that knowing Turkish is not enough for the job market to achieve superior positions in career life, which are in line with other studies in the literature (Arik, 2020; Bektaş-Çetinkaya & Oruç, 2010; Dogancay-Aktuna & Kiziltepe, 2005; König, 1990; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2013; Tokoz Goktepe, 2014).

Another finding concerning the Turkish attitude part, "Turkish is important to know in order to get far in life" (S2), has significant results only at Bursa Uludağ University with the tendencies of more agreement (recall Figure 8.19). Interestingly, associate degree students agree more with this statement again according to statistically relevant results. It can be concluded that bachelor degree students are less in favour of Turkish due to life-related opportunities. These findings should be interpreted with caution. However, we can argue that the place of Turkish language among associate degree students might have greater value compared to their bachelor degree counterparts. This is noteworthy as it can also be linked to the role of foreign languages in associate students' lives regarding their education departments. This issue is also addressed by the low rate of interest for foreign languages of the associate degree cohort by Üstünel and Samur (2010). Further, Chostelidou et al. (2014) highlights that students at associate degree cohort are not aware of the personal benefits of foreign languages, which supports our findings. These points are also relevant to the current study. Foreign languages may not represent potential opportunities for associate degree students. As a result, this could be an explanation for the associate degree students' high level of agreement about the benefits of Turkish. In addition, the attitude outcomes for the current item seem to validate the findings that the bachelor

degree cohort value foreign language knowledge more in terms of life-related advancements than they do with Turkish.

Furthermore, the investigation of Turkish language attitudes revealed another important finding for the third attitude item, "Turkish is a language that is well suited to modern society" (S3). Regarding this notion, it is, again, associate degree students who acknowledge this notion significantly. The findings indicate that students from the associate degree cohort have more positive tendencies towards Turkish. Although it may not be generalizable, it is possible that these results are a true representation of the L1 effect (Turkish, in this case), which could potentially represent linguistic nationalism, to some extent, due to the strong role attributed to Turkish. These are important findings to keep in mind during the discussion of upcoming Turkish attitude statements. In the comprehensive review of literature, there are numerous studies that confirm favourable views towards the Turkish language under the notion of linguistic nationalism while perceiving any foreign language as a threat to national identity (Demirbulak, 2011; Erdemir, 2013; Kamasak et al., 2020; Karakaş, 2013; Üzüm, 2007), which will be discussed in the upcoming paragraphs in detail because there are other Turkish attitude statements worth discussing under the notion of linguistic nationalism.

Regarding the fourth attitude statement, "I feel confident and secure when speaking Turkish" (S4), the findings further support the idea of favourable views of Turkish. We can argue that the emergent pattern for attitudes towards Turkish is generally positive and shows a great deal of agreement across the two cohorts. For the current attitude item, the emphasis is, in fact, related to the mother tongue (L1). The consistency across study cohorts is a genuine reflection of feeling confident and secure when speaking in L1, which is Turkish for the majority of participants in the present study.

Moving on to similar results, during this part of the discussion it is useful to combine two specific attitude items. These statements are the fifth and eighth and are the two attitude items that have the highest mean values for Turkish attitude statements. Regarding the fifth statement, "Turkish lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions" (S5), the mean score of agreement levels is the second highest one. This highest mean score can be interpreted as the Turkish language being already rich in itself and that expression of meaning is successfully achieved. Apart from that, the findings illustrate that attitudes toward the Turkish language are very strong in combination with the easiness of conversing in Turkish. Statement eight "I feel fully at ease in a group that converses in Turkish" (S8) shows a similar pattern of agreement and also a similar mean score. This item has the highest mean score which also represents a positive attitude towards the mother tongue effect. Given the attitude results for which we

have again found positive attitudes in terms of speaking Turkish, an explanation for these findings may be the fact that Turkish is the respondents' first language.

As the attitude data shows, the propositions "Knowing Turkish is a significant part of my cultural heritage" (S6) and "an important part of my personal identity" (S7) allude to favourable views. Both items show consistency and there are robust findings supporting the high agreement levels in the study. What matters most here is that these findings are also remarkably positive and the likely explanation can be the nationalism factor behind these positive attitudes. For example, as personal values can unavoidably be culturally-informed, nationalism is likely to be influenced by the belief system of the society where the individuals live. We will revisit this nationalism topic later.

Our last attitude statement shows that there is an agreement to the proposition that "Whenever I have a choice, I prefer to speak Turkish" (S9). Likewise, this finding has resonated with the preceding results and discussion issues regarding positive attitudes towards Turkish speaking. Hence, there is a clear significance that can be derived from the Turkish attitude statements of the current research regarding speaking. It has emerged that among university students, it is common to have favourable views related to Turkish speaking.

Last but not least, the findings discussed in this section considering the Turkish attitudes demonstrate that positive attitudes towards Turkish are likely to be explained by the linguistic nationalism issue. This issue is also addressed, for instance, by Üzüm (2007) who points to linguistic nationalism which refers to a language loyalty caused by historical events and linguistic travel of Turkish in the Turkish sociolinguistic setting. Therefore, views towards Turkish are positive for preserving the native language in this sociolinguistic setting. In Bear (1985), we get a brief idea of the origin of linguistic nationalism that originally, the Turkish language used to have the mission of building and uniting the nation during the first years of Republican period and since then, the historical events and linguistic travel of the Turkish language have become the symbol of the interdependence in the country. Thus, it is likely that the specific linguistic nationalism in the Turkish context emerged in the form of positive attitudes that were fostered by being proud of their country's history. We can add also another dimension to linguistic nationalism with Fishman's words (1977: 307), "puristic and ideological views towards the national languages are the primary attitudinal predictors". We can understand from this that national language views clearly have an impact on attitudes, which are in line with our Turkish attitude results. This linguistic nationalism issue is in accord with recent studies indicating that conservative language policies regarding "one nation-one language" policy in Turkey create (normative) monolingualism (Karakaş, 2013) and even at a more

critical level, learning English represents colonization of the mind in the Turkish context (Kamasak et al., 2020).

Overall, the findings related to Turkish language attitudes indicate that the authenticity of Turkish is very well maintained among the associate degree group when compared to bachelor degree students. One reason for this might be the age factor as it was found to be significant. The associate degree students are only first and second year students. Hence, they are younger than their bachelor counterparts, who study for more years during their higher education. Since age factor is negatively correlated with Turkish attitudes, the younger study cohort, in this case associate degree, is likely to possess positive attitudes for Turkish.

The general pattern of positive attitudes may be subject to the high number of Turkish participants in the study, yet a key finding from the Turkish attitude part of the questionnaire is the fact that the associate degree cohort attitudes were more positive towards the Turkish language. At this point, we need to consider the most visible result from the English language part of the current questionnaire again, that there was more agreement from the bachelor degree cohort for the English language. Thus, we can assume that although the two study cohorts act similarly insofar as language attitudes are concerned, it is likely that bachelor degree students are in favour of English due to the job opportunities, while associate degree students are in favour of Turkish language due to a lack of awareness of the value of foreign language knowledge. Age is a significant factor affecting the results across the study cohorts. Based on the findings, these positive attitudes for Turkish statements can partly be explained by the linguistic nationalism notion in the Turkish sociolinguistic context.

9.4 Major Linguistic Patterns

This section is related to the first research question in the study where the discussion was centered around the extent of multilingualism among university students. As is apparent from the discussion related to the first research question, the general linguistic profile is monolingualism and bilingualism among associate degree students, while it is bilingualism and trilingualism among bachelor degree students. The principal aim of the current section is to explore these linguistic profiles in detail by focusing on the results of language combinations. It is also expected that the findings of the present study are likely to exhibit more linguistic patterns that exist at tertiary level education, as well as language combinations that appear frequently in these descriptive statistics. This section focuses on the three most frequent language combinations, which are the major linguistic

patterns found in the study due to the same results derived from the data of Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University.

A key finding of the descriptive analyses is that there are exactly the same linguistic patterns although the data belongs to two different higher education institutions. All language profiles are presented in the results section 8.2.1, and according to the results, the top three language combinations that occurred more frequently than others are shown respectively here: i) Turkish and English, ii) Turkish, iii) Turkish, English, and German. In order to elaborate on the outcomes concerning the major linguistic patterns in the present study, it is essential to start with discussing the general pattern of Turkish monolingualism, which may simply represent the fact that Turkey is one of the rare monolingual nations in the world and has never been colonized (Bear, 1985). Regarding the monolingualism of the country, the history of the Turkish language dates back to the beginning of the Republican Era, when sociopolitical transformation was on the rise including national, cultural, and educational reforms (see section 3.3.2). Objectives were set by policymakers "for the purification, standardization, authentication, and modernization of the Turkish language" with the Turkish Language Reform Act (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004: 34). Since then, Turkish has been the language of the country. Thus, the major linguistic pattern, Turkish monolingualism, evidently comes from the linguistic structure of the country which refers to having Turkish as an official language in the nation. Additionally, many respondents in the current study have Turkish as their first language, this can be another reasonable explanation for this result.

Regarding Turkish monolingualism, it could also be argued that some nations can be sensitive about their native language and this sensitivity brings linguistic loyalty issues. Üzüm (2007) claims that historical realities relating to the uniting power of the Turkish language since the Republican period have led to Turkish language loyalty in the sociolinguistic environment of the nation. It seems plausible that such language loyalty triggers Turkish monolingualism and any foreign language is seen as a threat to national identity in the Turkish context (Demirbulak, 2011; Erdemir, 2013). However, it would be possible to eliminate this situation with a carefully designed language curriculum that offers high-quality foreign language instruction without degrading the Turkish language and culture in the nation (Aslan, 2017). The current study provides additional support that among university students, there may still be some concerns that the spread of English and its influx can be threatening for the Turkish language (Arik, 2020; Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004). Since it is not the initial aim of the current research, we did not have any results regarding the degree of linguistic nationalism among university students, but it's worthwhile to consider the likely implications we can derive from this.

Another frequent linguistic profile found among university students is Turkish-English bilingualism. This bilingualism pattern could be attributed to the increasing popularity of English in the educational area as it is a widely taught language in more than a hundred countries (Crystal, 2003), as well as in the Turkish context since the 1980s (Bayyurt, 2013). Thus, it is the most desirable medium of education after Turkish because this popularity has an instrumental function with the aim of finding better job opportunities as echoed in many previous studies in the Turkish context. (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998; Dogancay-Aktuna & Kiziltepe, 2005; Kamasak & Ozbilgin, 2021; Kiziltepe, 2000; König, 2006; Koseoglu, 2013). The findings of the present study suggest that it is essential to take Turkish-English bilingualism into account when analyzing the Turkish sociolinguistic profile as Turkey is one of the Expanding Circle countries for which the instrumental value of English has been highlighted (Bamgbose, 2003). Also, these findings are in line with Jenkins (2014) in regard to the status of English in the educational domains of the Expanding Circle, which refers to English as an increasingly common medium of instruction at tertiary level education. Highlighting the results of the current study, we may argue that English has a special place in the educational domains of the Turkish sociolinguistic context. As a result, the current Turkish-English bilingualism findings support the role of English exactly in the same way as it is expected from an Expanding Circle country in terms of having a role in the educational domain only rather than an intranational communication role within the country (Bamgbose, 2003; Berns, 2005; Jenkins, 2014).

Since the 1980s, there have been many foreign languages in the history of foreign language education in Turkey (see Figure 3.1). Starting from the 80s, English gained popularity mostly due to educational policies and for political reasons (Kirkgoz, 2007). These findings, which are related to English-Turkish bilingualism as one of the common linguistic profile among university students, support the primary role of English in educational policies in the country. Agreeing with (Selvi, 2014), we can argue that English seems to be a requirement for every educated Turkish citizen although it does not meet intranational communication or basic communicational aims in Turkish society. As reflected in the current findings, a likely explanation might be that English has a prestigious position in Turkey, especially among university students. This popularity may stem from the instrumental value of English in the country, especially among the younger population. These findings add to a growing body of evidence that suggests that English has an instrumental value among university students in Expanding Circle countries such as Bangladesh (Shaw, 1981) and Uzbekistan (Djuraeva, 2022) as well as in Turkey (König, 2006). In addition, these results corroborate the ideas of Berns (2005: 87), who suggested that "know English, have a job, earn money" is a common motto describing the situation in many Expanding Circle countries. Turkey is obviously one example here according to the results of Turkish-English

bilingualism found in the current study.

Based on our results of language combinations, the third most common is Turkish-English-German trilingualism. This is the third general pattern and indicative that German is the second most popular foreign language in the Turkish context after English. Nevertheless, this finding needs to be interpreted with caution because this pattern involves only between 5 % and 8 % of the whole participant population. As illustrated by quantitative analysis, out of 38 participants with Turkish-English-German trilingualism, 4 participants have German ethnic backgrounds. This means that the current trilingual language combination in the study refers to 34 respondents in total excluding the native speakers of German. Seemingly, it is the third most highly observed language profile. Based on the findings, it can be proposed that Turkish, English, German trilinguals represent noticeably fewer speakers than that of other language profiles, therefore it cannot be considered as a major linguistic profile but rather as a trending linguistic profile in the Turkish sociolinguistic context, where learning German as a foreign language is highly supported although it is not as popular as English (Şimşek et al., 2007).

Moreover, it is of fundamental importance to discuss that the major linguistic profiles including bilingualism and trilingualism are likely to include German, Azerbaijani or Arabic due to several reasons. As discussed previously, the German language can be associated with the fact that it is the second most popular language taught at schools after English (Şimşek et al., 2007). Azerbaijani knowledge can be explained by having a land border with Azerbaijan, which is likely to promote exchange programs at the tertiary level between Azerbaijan and Turkey. Arabic is one of the most common languages we found and this is most likely related to the fact that the language of the Quran is Arabic and Turkey is an Islamic country. Religious factors seem to play a major role to learn the Arabic language. Another reason might be the latest refugee movements from Syria to Turkey (Schroeder, 2021), and Turkish higher education institutions want to accommodate Syrian students who are considered for unconditional admissions nationwide.

In summary, Turkish-English bilingualism and Turkish monolingualism are the major linguistic patterns found in Turkey according to this study. In this sociolinguistic context, Turkish monolingualism results from the fact that Turkish is the only official language. Considering the structure of bilingualism that Turkey has, Turkish-English bilingualism has its place since English is widely taught as a foreign language. Following English, our findings show that the second most popular foreign language in the Turkish education system is the German language. Overall, we can argue that the popularity and the opportunities that Turkish-English bilingualism brings to an individual's life are increasing in the modern

world, and also each additional foreign language in the learners' repertoires have potential benefits for better employment opportunities and future-oriented plans. Finally, we should realize that Turkish-English bilingualism still inhabits the major linguistic profiles within the nation and this profile, as an emic category, is extremely relevant to further sociolinguistic research.

9.5 Perceived Benefits of Being a Speaker of English as a Lingua Franca

The current study also investigates the advantages of being a speaker of English as a lingua franca from the university students' perspective concerning their personal careers, academic goals, and future life. Having analysed the qualitative findings, the study revealed that English is believed to bring advantages to their life, including career-related opportunities and international communication. The findings further illustrate that a great number of university students reported that English has a prestigious role and students feel more privileged with their English knowledge. In this section, the findings related to the advantages of being a speaker of English in tertiary level contexts and how it puts language learners into a desirable position will be discussed by drawing insights from the literature, and more importantly, they will be addressed based on the results of the qualitative findings. Prior to commencing, it is crucial to remember that ELF and EFL notions are already explained in Chapter 4, and are used interchangeably in this section referring to English users in the Expanding Circle one of which is Turkey.

Due to the role of English as a foreign language in the Turkish context, it has gained significance in the education system, undermining all other foreign languages (Arik, 2020; İnal & Özdemir, 2015). Promoting at least one lingua franca is important for the education policies of a nation (Kirkgoz, 2007) and English is an obvious choice in Turkey. This is a typical characteristic of Expanding Circle countries in terms of learning a language for instrumental value (Bamgbose, 2003; Berns, 2005), and the empowering status of English is on the rise in these countries. As the language someone speaks as a lingua franca is associated with some advantages (Jenkins, 2014), we can speculate that being a speaker of English is likely to have specific perceived benefits in the sociolinguistic context of Turkey as previously mentioned in the literature review part (see section 4.3).

The current study demonstrates that one of the emergent themes in the interview data analysis is the advantages associated with English. University students regard English as a universal language to catch up with the latest trends

in the world. Similarly, they believe that the English language brings them more career or life-related opportunities. Therefore, a possible explanation for the role of English is that English knowledge is considered to be advantageous for some goals in life and more beneficial for their job-related dreams. Ultimately, being a speaker of English is believed to increase their opportunities for better jobs that will help them obtain better socioeconomic conditions in life. These findings concur well with those reported in the literature, which have shown that in today's Turkey, English serves a variety of purposes, including job requirements or financial incentives in the workplace (Arik, 2020; Bingöl et al., 2019; Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998; Kamasak & Ozbilgin, 2021; Selvi, 2011) and putting individuals into superior position with their English knowledge in terms of professional and academic life (Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2013; Tokoz Goktepe, 2014).

Based on the qualitative data findings, we can suggest that university students learn English for the international area, in particular, for international communication. Besides, this international interaction refers to making contacts with their international peers and following global trends and being part of social media exchanges. For instance, students are motivated to become a part of international exchange programs such as the Erasmus program according to interviewees' contributions. That is to say, English is considered to be useful because it is regarded as a 'door opener' in every stage of personal life in terms of their plans (e. g. becoming an exchange student, travelling the world), and daily life (e. g. following global news) as their personal goals seem to not be limited to the Turkish language or the Turkish context, but instead are very international. Support for this claim is also found in a report by British Council (2020) and British Council and TEPAV (2015) that most university students want to study at an international university. Also joining Findik (2016) and Arik (2020), it is possible, therefore, that Erasmus is one of Turkey's most popular exchange programs among students at tertiary level education.

As also reported frequently by the participants, English proves to be useful since it allows university students to feel more privileged and elitist among their peers. The wider acceptance of English in society makes it a highly respected language for gaining personal status in Turkey (Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; Zok, 2010). When the qualitative data is analysed, the findings support this argument as university students signal their belonging to an intellectual group of people thanks to their English knowledge. We may further argue that English brings advantages to speakers that are part of a desired group in society due to the prestigious role of English.

When we consider the advantages of an academic career, the findings also illustrate that most university students believe English is useful and a 'must have' foreign language due to its advantages in academia. Besides, it is essential to

point out that not all participants reported having the view of the potential advantages of English regarding academic life. A likely reason could be associated with the participants' academic disciplines that they do not see any particular advantage of knowing English. For instance, we have participants from the Turkish language and literature department, favouring the knowledge of other foreign languages such as the Ottoman language to explore the history of the Ottoman Empire. Regarding this issue, it is perhaps essential to elaborate on which academic disciplines require English as a foreign language. For example, students from the department of Archaeology are likely to favour German as a foreign language, whereas English is recognized as a highly appreciated language for tourism studies. This desire for English among Turkish tourism students at tertiary level education is also reported in Binbasioglu and Sad (2019) who recommend that the quality of education in this academic discipline is crucial since the productivity of the tourism industry heavily depends on well-educated staff and high proficiency in English. Although English is believed to bring many advantages to an academic career, we can conclude that this is particularly reliant on the different requirements of academic disciplines.

Turning back to our primary concern, which refers to perceived benefits of English for an academic career, the findings show that there are many advantages that interview participants stated such as being able to read scholarly articles, communicate with international colleagues, working abroad at another higher education institution, and being up-to-date concerning the latest publications in their field. Educational attainment is a possible explanation for the main observation related to bachelor students' higher motivation of the academic career. One reason why the associate degree cohort is not interested in an academic career may be that this study cohort is closer to the private sector than academia. It is likely that bachelor degree students are more oriented for an academic career, display a heightened awareness, and will continue their studies with master and PhD degrees after graduation. By highlighting the differences between study cohorts, the current study provides evidence to what Chostelidou et al. (2014) states in their research about associate degree cohorts referring to their lack of awareness of the benefits of knowing a foreign language.

Concerning the advantages of English for future life, English knowledge is likely to have an impact and bring many advantages. According to our findings, the results clearly illustrate examples of what is called "instrumental value" by showing specific examples of job, life and academic career related opportunities. It seems English language knowledge increases their chances of success while looking for a job and would look good on their Curriculum Vitae (CV). Additionally, the English language is vital for their career goals, educational plans (i. e. Master's or PhD studies) and being competent in the international area (i. e. living or

working abroad, travelling, pursuing an international degree). We can also take from these findings that the prestigious role and the instrumental value associated with English might be more vital than the mother tongue in terms of future plans. Compared to existing studies, we can explain all these advantages in light of the need for foreign language learning and belief in its usefulness (Arik, 2020; Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; König, 1990; Selvi, 2011).

In summary, the results of the current study contribute to understanding the advantages of being a speaker of ELF in recognizing the significance of English for fulfilling goals. These advantages generally center around better life and job-related opportunities. Regarding the context of Turkey, the notion of being a Turkish-English bilingual speaker is likely to become clear after discussing the advantages of speaking English and English knowledge: it seems to be considered as highly positive. The advantages are highly attractive to university students because of several aspects, such as better life and job options, international communication and exchange, academic career opportunities, future global plans and other benefits it brings to an individual's life in terms of having a prestigious status in society.

10 Limitations

The present study describes university students' sociolinguistic profiles across bachelor and associate degree study cohorts in Turkey. It also shows the additional significance that degree type is an excellent predictor of the role of foreign languages, along with other factors such as proficiency level and attitudes. Yet, limitations are inevitable within each research project. Thus, it is essential to be aware of these limitations, briefly discussed in the following paragraphs.

Beginning with the research setting, which is limited to two state universities in Turkey, this study is limited by the absence of higher education institutions offering English-medium instruction, including EMI state universities and private universities in the Turkish context. This is particularly important within the scope of this study because the findings are limited to two state universities that offer Turkish-medium instruction. Any conclusions derived from the data cannot be applied directly to other higher education institutions. Participants studying at other EMI institutions, particularly private universities, could represent various linguistic and sociological backgrounds regarding the issues discussed in this research. Fundamentally, a critical factor here is the possibility that the proficiency levels for the languages in the linguistic repertoire, especially for the English language, might present higher scores since the courses and exams are offered in English at EMI institutions. It might be more beneficial if further research is conducted to investigate a more comprehensive picture of students' language backgrounds, proficiency levels and attitudes towards English at EMI institutions in Turkey. However, to our knowledge, it can be argued that the present study has covered new ground, given that no other comparable study within the Turkish higher education context has been completed earlier. Additionally, we would also argue that a number of key findings, as shown in the discussion, are directly relevant to the sociolinguistics of higher education in the Turkish and international contexts.

Moreover, the sampling involves participants from limited academic disciplines (i.e. Faculty of Engineering, but not all departments of engineering) and study cohorts. Nevertheless, this is not a shortcoming as the current research does not look for generalizations of these specific results related to academic disciplinary backgrounds. Instead, this study describes the language backgrounds,

self-assessed proficiencies and language attitudes from the individuals' perspectives sampled from tertiary level education context. Hence, any sociolinguistic issues taken from the current research primarily focus on associate and bachelor degree study cohorts. Building upon these limitations, it becomes evident that research into other academic disciplines (e.g. Archaeology, International Relations) might present different sociolinguistic findings to provide a comprehensive picture of Turkey. Given the need for diversity in academic disciplines, master's and doctoral degree cohorts should also be included in further research as these study cohorts are key actors in research activities at universities.

The substantial limitation in the current study concerns participants' proficiency levels because respondents have rated themselves regarding overall competence in their linguistic repertoire. Since the study is limited to respondents' self-reported proficiencies, we need to rely on what participants report in the online questionnaire. Although the respondents might overestimate or underestimate their proficiency levels, this is due to the advantage of reaching out to relatively large and meaningful samples by relying on self-assessed proficiencies. It would be time-consuming and expensive to replicate this study with almost 600 participants using objectively measured tests. Therefore, it is unclear how the findings described here may be generalized. One could argue that the results might have been different had standardised proficiency tests been applied. However, this is not a grave issue since we want to describe proficiencies considering linguistic profiles such as bilingualism and trilingualism rather than specifying the objective proficiency levels. Also, our research does not aim to generalize these proficiency results along with linguistic profiles but rather to explain the relationship between proficiencies and multilingualism. Ideally, this type of relationship should be observed over many years. A longitudinal and more observation-based research may be needed on similar issues to clarify these points.

In addition to the questionnaire data, qualitative data in the current study relies on what people say in the interviews, such as their self-reports. Therefore, any method that elicits people's narratives is prone to biases, for example, social desirability bias which can pollute the data and lead to incorrect results. The interviewees may tend to provide ideal biases according to social desirability issues rather than their honest opinion. Nonetheless, we can argue that the respondents had no prior intimate acquaintance with the interviewer (me) and this reduced, to some extent, the impact of such biases on the results. It is still possible that the data might be affected during the interviews and within this study.

Furthermore, only the relevant parts of the questionnaire, including the languages in the repertoire, proficiencies and attitudes have been investigated

although I collected a large amount of data. The parts examined in the analysis are related to the research questions in the current study. For example, other parts of the online questionnaire involve educational trajectory and the frequency of activities regarding language skills, such as writing and reading activities. Also, only the parts that refer to the role of English in terms of academic career, personal and future life in the interview data are included in the analysis because of their relevance to our research questions. Other interview questions have not been analysed. Thus, the data I collected is relatively rich. Due to the richness of the data, I believe that other scholars could use the same data to examine the relationship between language profiles and the frequency of activities. Exploring these variables is likely to yield notable findings as the respondents, particularly university students, come from different educational, regional and socio-economic backgrounds. They represent various settings regarding personal education background, which might show us other aspects of the data.

Last but not least, the study is limited by the absence of the same number of participants from each single study cohort, including bachelor and associate degrees. Even though we tried to reach the same number of respondents from each degree cohort, some limitations were caused by the associate degree cohort. For instance, the limited data for an associate degree cohort refers to İstanbul University since there is only one Vocational School. As a result, we decided to overcome this limitation by including all participants who completed the questionnaire parts relevant to our study. Otherwise, the data sample would not have contained too many respondents. Although we do not have a similar number of representatives from each study cohort, the statistical tests were carefully designed according to data and variables, such as using non-parametric tests.

Some of these limitations could be addressed in future research. Yet, the limitations mentioned here can be regarded as strengths of this study. For example, this research includes many respondents from two higher education institutions in Turkey. As a result, this research provided an opportunity to explore the effects of participants' disciplinary backgrounds on their responses and compare the outcomes in light of disciplinary diversity and different study cohorts.

As explained and suggested, further studies incorporate some of these limitations. The following chapter will cover the outlook and other extensions to the current research project.

11 Outlook

Based on the questions raised by this study, this research contributes to existing knowledge in the field of multilingualism through the individual linguistic repertoires, language proficiency levels and language attitudes, especially with regard to the Turkish sociolinguistic context. As pointed out earlier in Chapter 2, the participants are from bachelor and associate degree study cohorts. A greater focus on more study cohorts at tertiary level education such as Master's and PhD degree levels could produce interesting findings that account more for the extent of multilingualism and language proficiencies due to academic purposes. Therefore, further research should be designed to involve the participants studying in these study cohorts because it might be useful to investigate different contexts regarding various language combinations. Different outcomes could potentially be obtained in other study cohorts differing in size, gender, citizenship and age.

As part of this study aimed at documenting and analyzing the self-assessed proficiency levels, more information based on objective test results such as the scores of TOEFL, International English Language Testing System (IELTS) and the results of other language exams held in Turkey would help us to establish a greater degree of accuracy in this matter regarding students' proficiency levels. Further study should be repeated gathering language proficiency scores of the participants or choosing the participants from the subjects who have test scores. This might provide a better understanding of the relationship between language proficiencies and the degree of multilingualism. This is also true for metalinguistic awareness for which we did not use any additional test instruments. As was explained in Chapter 5, metalinguistic awareness is one of the key factors in multilingualism and proficiency levels. It is theoretically impossible to make any direct claims regarding the participants' level of metalinguistic awareness in terms of the design of the present study. More research testing metalinguistic knowledge is needed to compare the results with proficiency values and find out the relationship between metalinguistic awareness and the degree of multilingualism. In further research, the impact of metalinguistic awareness on proficiencies should be tested accordingly. For example, a Cloze Test and an untimed Grammaticality Judgment Test with a range of statistical analyses may be useful for future research.

This research has thrown up many questions in need of further investigation regarding attitudes toward English and Turkish. In the results section 8.4, it has been illustrated that age is a significant factor in the attitudes toward the Turkish language. The overwhelming majority of participants are Turkish citizens in the present study, which means that Turkish is the mother tongue for these participants. Thus, further research could usefully explore other factors that might influence the attitudinal change toward the mother tongue, as well as the age variable. The age variable would be fruitful for further work because the results can be changeable depending on life experiences. Therefore, it is crucial to look into the situation after five years, especially in an era when language use is highly affected by globalization and technology among the young generation. Researchers can also use a more developed attitude scale, including the attitudes towards English culture and English-speaking societies and a more developed socioeconomic status scale to find out whether there are matches and mismatches between socioeconomic variables in terms of the issues examined, such as having more foreign languages in the higher social strata.

Furthermore, this study has described the attitudes. However, attitudes do not occur in a short time (Coşkun & Taşgın, 2018). Thus, the variables that yield attitudinal change should be observed in a longitudinal study. In line with the outcomes of the current study, it is recommended to carry out longitudinal and experimental studies on language attitudes and the variables affecting, as well as to conduct extensive qualitative data collection about the potential variables. In terms of quantitative research, inferential statistics will provide more definitive evidence on the differences between attitudes and attitude-related variables, as well as attitudinal change in the process. What is meant by the process is conducting research in the form of a longitudinal study. The same longitudinal approach should also be applied to figure out the relationship between proficiency results and language attitudes. Again, the scores obtained from different time periods in the process could be calculated with inferential statistics in order to interpret the results statistically. In the end, tracking attitudinal and proficiency changes may provide outcomes that can be translated into viable results within the scope of the growth or changes in attitudinal and proficiency development.

Interestingly, there are no studies available that illustrate the students' attitudes towards Turkish or English during the Ottoman Empire and the Republican period in Turkey. Historical documents could be used to construct a broader picture and offer comparisons between the current situation and the past. Within this respect, a cross-national study involving other universities in different parts of Turkey is needed to keep a record of the sociolinguistic profile in the Turkish context. More broadly, research is also needed to determine the drastic sociolinguistic changes during different time periods in Turkey where EU membership is

valued and frequent language education reforms take place accordingly. Therefore, sampling universities from different regions in Turkey in a longitudinal suggested form could shed more light on the university students' sociolinguistic profile, which may help us compare and contrast the findings from different universities in different regions. A further longitudinal study could assess the correlations between the variables and proficiencies, as well as language attitudes. Inferential statistics should be conducted to analyze the differences to be able to explain the sociolinguistic changes (if any) statistically. Finally, qualitative data collection instruments such as semi-structured interviews should be carried out to support the quantitative findings.

12 Conclusion

12.1 Concluding remarks

The aim of the present research is to investigate the place of English in the under-researched sociolinguistic context of Turkey and to provide a detailed account of the extent of multilingualism, proficiency levels, and attitudes towards the English and Turkish languages among tertiary level students. By finding responses to five interrelated research questions, the present research has tried to achieve the goal of providing evidence for the Turkish sociolinguistic profile, in a particular higher education context, in terms of its place among Expanding Circle countries under the conceptualization of the Concentric Circle Model of World Englishes (Kachru, 1992). Despite increasing variability of English, surprisingly, Expanding Circle countries have not been the main focus of much research in the field, and the primary investigations concentrate on either Outer Circle countries such as Singapore (see Siemund et al., 2021) or East Asian countries in the Expanding Circle (see Berns, 2005; Djuraeva, 2022). As a result, the representation of the countries belonging to the Expanding Circle has been observed to be an uneven one (Berns, 2019). Therefore, the current research stems from the gap mentioned related to Expanding Circle settings and is based on the sociolinguistic profile of tertiary level students in Turkey.

In the present study, we have documented and analyzed the role of English in Turkey regarding English education and discussed how the attributional role of English has changed in a relatively short time within the nation. In addition, a brief description has been provided for an essential overview of the uses of English in the country to better understand the function of English in the Turkish context. Proceeding with the comprehensive review of the Turkish education system, we summarize that the educational reforms include the nationalistic view of Turkish (the only official language in the country), but at the same time, following the effects of westernism has given a way to more intellectual foreign language education, including German and French in the curriculum along with English (Selvi, 2011). The general responses to these reforms in foreign language education, especially English language education, have been positive and supported by the families as they want to create better opportunities for the future of

their children (Ahmad, 1993; Kiziltepe, 2000). As a result, it is possible to say that English is not an official language of the country, but it is "the most useful foreign language in the country" (König, 1990: 157). In the same way, we find out more about the English medium education in the country, which has caused many debates about the dominant role of English along with its advantages and disadvantages. Lastly, it is pointed out that there is no consensus about the ideal role of English in the Turkish education system highlighting that English is a widely taught foreign language (Bayyurt, 2013; Kirkgöz, 2009) and is a rising issue in Turkey's educational reforms and language policies despite the concerns and resistance to the dominance of English. Government-related policies still support the spread of English (Selvi, 2011) although the country is officially monolingual and has no colonial past (Bear, 1985).

The current research setting includes two higher education institutions in Turkey: Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University. The participants are two cohorts of tertiary level students including associate and bachelor degree. The data collection instrument is an online questionnaire which is the digitalized version of the questionnaire used by Leimgruber et al. (2018) and Siemund et al. (2014, 2021). The same questionnaire have, previously, been used among Singaporean university and polytechnic students and later in the context of the United Arab Emirates. In total, there are 588 respondents for the online survey, while there are 48 students for the interviews. For the analyses, we compare a general language background profile, self-assessed proficiency levels and language attitudes towards English and Turkish.

By exploring a clearer picture of the dynamic situation and multilingualism in the Turkish tertiary level education context, we found that (i) the extent of multilingualism in relation to the degree types is characterized by different outcomes with a clear discrepancy. By clear discrepancy, we mean that the findings are obviously different in regard to two separate degree programs and among tertiary level students. It is found that individual bilingualism is the most common linguistic pattern identified across both degree groups rather than multilingualism.

Drawing a further distinction between the degree cohorts carefully, the research has shown that bachelor degree students are more multilingual than their associate degree counterparts. In view of this distinction, the associate degree study cohorts are comparably homogeneous and include more monolingual and bilingual groups, while the general pattern among bachelor degree students is bilingualism and trilingualism. Additionally, we can see more quadrilingual students at the bachelor degree level. Building on these language profiles, the current study provides an indication of the extent of multilingualism in regard to degree types and concludes that multilingualism is more widespread among bachelor degree students compared to associate degree students. In other words, students

who study at bachelor degree disciplines are more multilingual than the students who study in associate degree programs.

For variables such as educational attainment and family-related factors, they are clearly important factors for the extent of multilingualism at tertiary level education. In this sense, bachelor degree students are more multilingual due to their academic disciplines for which knowledge of at least one foreign language is desirable after graduation, whereas for associate degree studies, training the human capacity is aimed unlike the appreciation of foreign language knowledge. Thus, one of the major findings is that foreign language awareness is due to educational attainment, which has an impact on multilingual profiles. Next, the relevance of family-related factors such as parents' educational level is clearly supported by the current findings. Bachelor students are at an advantage due to the socioeconomic and sociocultural backgrounds of their families, which seems to have a positive correlation with multilingualism. In other words, the relationship between multilingualism and parent's educational status is found to be highly related. Seemingly, English is one of the languages in these multilingual repertoires, and by the parents, it is an obvious choice as a foreign language that their children should learn. We agree with Arik (2020) and Zok (2010) that in Turkey, English still has the danger of becoming the language of intellectuals, who are one step ahead considering their educational background. Moreover, the findings of the current study confirm that English has become yet another barrier between the wealthier, better-educated urban populations and those from other socioeconomic and geographical groups as stated by Dogancay-Aktuna and Kiziltepe (2005) previously for the Turkish sociolinguistic context.

In addition to socio-educational factors, the contrast can be attributed to the argument that bilingualism supports the acquisition of additional languages, according to a holistic view of multilingualism (Cenoz & Todeva, 2009). University students who are bilingual may be more motivated to learn another language. Given the higher proportion of quadrilingual in the bachelor degree cohorts and the fact that they outperformed their associate degree counterparts in terms of bi- or multilingualism patterns, a holistic view of multilingualism could be one of the explanations for the increased visibility of widespread multilingualism.

Taken together, it is possible to determine that the extent of multilingualism changes across the degree types, which refers to widespread multilingualism in bachelor degree cohorts due to educational attainment and family background. We can also argue for foreign language awareness, which may be due to educational attainment, and a holistic view of multilingualism as triggering factors for the multilingual profiles at tertiary level education.

(ii) Multilingualism made no significant difference to answer the question

of whether there is a relationship between multilingualism and self-reported language proficiency level since this issue requires a more detailed analysis. The findings drawn from self-reported proficiencies illustrate that there is a systematic decline in the proficiency levels starting from the speaker's first language. While L1 proficiencies have been placed with the highest values, the proficiency levels, in general, appear to decline from one language to another language. A possible explanation for higher L1 proficiencies could be the mother tongue effect (in this case, e. g. Turkish due to the majority of Turkish participants). The investigation of proficiency levels has also shown that we cannot elaborate on these proficiency outcomes in the light of linguistic models such as CEM (Flynn et al., 2004), Cummins' Interdependence Hypothesis (1981) and the Dynamic Model of Multilingualism (Herdina & Jessner, 2002), which are all in favour of metacognitive and metalinguistic support for second or third language acquisition. In these models, the effect of multilingualism can be seen with additional languages in terms of proficiencies. However, many, but not all, university students seemed to report their proficiency levels with a systematic decline in the current study and thus, the findings fail to provide evidence of the possible effects of such metalinguistic support on the linguistic development of additional languages, as discussed in Chapter 9.

There is, however, a notable outcome for the speakers of four languages. Quadrilingual groups reported their self-assessed proficiencies slightly lower than the bilinguals and trilinguals. Based on these results, the factors such as the linguistic profile of the learner can be the decisive factor in the proficiency ratings. These proficiency outcomes of the quadrilingual group can be attributed to metalinguistic awareness and learning strategies observed in multilingual individuals facilitating language acquisition (Cenoz, 2003; Jessner, 1999). In quadrilinguals' case, there is a potential link found between metalinguistic awareness and proficiency levels, which can be a possible explanation for the development of linguistic meta-knowledge for more reliable assessments. That is, multilingual learners utilize their language repertoires, and as a result, they can reflect upon their linguistic abilities more precisely (Cenoz, 2003). As these multilingual learners are experienced with more languages, their self-reported proficiency levels have the potential to represent the right levels rather than overestimating their proficiencies. We could demonstrate the same in this study, and in general terms, this means that there is a relationship between multilingualism and self-reported proficiency in terms of metalinguistic knowledge.

In terms of participants' oral and literal skills, the results show that although these skills are reported to be intertwined, the general trend observed is that oral proficiencies are reported to be higher compared to literal skills in both study cohorts. Not surprisingly, skills related to daily life are claimed to be rated higher

since it is part of students' daily lives, such as listening to songs and watching films in English (Peacock, 1999). As the majority of the participants' needs can vary on the personal and professional level such as travelling, international communication with their peers, and academic exchange programs, thereby listening and speaking skills can be regarded as primarily needed skills for university students. We must also admit that social media networking, such as Youtube, Skype and Whatsapp, is likely to have the chief role in improving university students' speaking skills (Mustafa, 2018). If these daily-life related skills are understood as the basis of the development of listening and speaking skills, we can clearly argue for oral skills to be part of the daily lives of many young people, especially university students. Therefore, their oral skills proficiencies are higher than their literal skills- writing and reading.

(iii) On the question of language attitudes, students' attitudes towards English are highly positive in both degree programs. As was discussed within the analysis of attitude items, this study explored students' attitudes referring to three main themes for the conclusion: opportunities English brings, English speaking skills and English in terms of personal identity and the modern world. The findings in this study suggest that a high majority of tertiary level students have positive attitudes towards English as it is believed to bring them better job and life-related opportunities. Yet, bachelor students have slightly more positive attitudes than their associate counterparts. The English attitude outcomes can be interpreted as that English knowledge has a greater role in the lives of tertiary level students considering its instrumental role. This is certainly not surprising as the major role English has in Turkey is its instrumental function. Apparently, this understanding addresses the role of English warranting its place among Expanding Circle countries because it has an instrumental function in the Turkish context.

What we find more interesting in the attitudinal section of the results is participants' attitudes range between agreement and disagreement about feeling confident and secure when speaking English. Similarly, the same attitudinal range is found among university students who do not feel fully at ease in a group that converses in English and have English speaking preference. In this respect, their attitudes are more or less neutral underscoring a lack of speaking skills. This could be due to the education system, and the scarcity of English speaking opportunities outside the classroom because these factors play a role in self-confidence and English-speaking preference. In terms of tertiary level students, international exchange programs such as Erasmus plus can be highly beneficial for Turkish students to connect their education with the universities in Europe while improving their speaking skills. Moreover, their participation in conducting projects with their peers from abroad will highly help them overcome the incompetency for their speaking skills. Also, they could become members of online

networking tools and seek opportunities to practice their English.

Through the lens of students, their attitudes toward English in terms of personal identity, cultural heritage, and suitability of English for the modern world appear to be mildly positive in the Turkish sociolinguistic context. It is clear that English does not have any role in terms of participants' identity as Turkish seems to have the biggest role and an impact on their perceived language identity as well as attitudes. In the same way, a further supportive argument for attitudes towards English can be derived from Turkish attitude statements to understand English attitudes better. With respect to Turkish attitude items, we can say that they corroborate highly positive attitudes considering personal identity, cultural heritage, and suitability of Turkish for the modern world. From these findings, it becomes apparent that there is an existence of language loyalty and linguistic nationalism, which is, to a large part, due to the majority of Turkish participants and the special role of Turkish as a mother tongue. This so-called mother-tongue effect can also be an explanation for the highly positive attitudes toward Turkish attitude statements. Although these positive views can facilitate the mother tongue notion, we agree with Cooper and Fishman (1977) and Üzüm (2007) and acknowledge that an exaggerated level of linguistic nationalism may have a negative impact on the attitudes towards foreign languages such as English and learning a foreign language.

On the contrary, students somewhat agree that the Turkish language brings them job and life-related opportunities. Surprisingly, there is a discrepancy for this attitude item between study cohorts as associate degree students are in favour of Turkish. This could find support for their homogeneous linguistic profiles including monolingualism and bilingualism. Additionally, bachelor students report less positive responses to the opportunities Turkish brings to their life. This is, as we can interpret it, that the importance of the mother tongue may lose its importance in favour of the international recognition of a foreign language, which is assumed to bring more job or life-related opportunities. Thus, this could be further related to the extent of multilingualism observed among bachelor degree students highlighting the pivotal role of a foreign language (e.g. English) from the perspective of university students.

Considering attitudes, a closer analysis presented that there is only one significant factor in regard to attitude statements and it is the age variable, whereas gender and citizenship variables have no statistically significant results. As students get older, they appear to believe that English becomes more important in their lives and they are likely to lose interest in Turkish. Hence, we can make assumptions that attitudes towards English are positive and age is a significant factor in these positive attitudes. On the one hand, students have positive attitudes towards English because of its instrumental value in their life, on the other

hand, their attitudes differ in terms of the role of English in personal identity and in the modern world. Yet, they have a tendency towards moderate attitudes considering speaking English, which is an indicator of their lack of speaking practice.

(iv) Despite including diverse language profiles, the major bilingualism pattern in the present study includes Turkish-English bilingualism. As being the most widely taught language in the educational system of the country (Bayyurt, 2013), we confirm that English has a major role of the most common foreign language among university students in Turkey. This linguistic pattern includes both bachelor and associate degree cohorts.

Secondly, our next significant linguistic pattern is Turkish monolingualism. That is the direct result of being an officially monolingual country (Bear, 1985). Interestingly, the results of the investigation regarding the linguistic profiles have shown that the third most frequent pattern is Turkish, English, and German trilingualism. This third linguistic pattern shows us the evidence for another popular foreign language rising in the nation, and it is German. In the Turkish education system, English has the main role, while the German language follows it as being the second most popular foreign language. The Turkish-English-German trilingualism detected among university students highlights that each additional foreign language in a learner's repertoire has the potential to improve career opportunities and future-oriented plans. Contributing to the literature on the Turkish sociolinguistic profile, these major linguistic patterns are crucial regarding Expanding Circle countries, where a foreign language is associated with its instrumental value and perceived benefits for the speaker. Nevertheless, we should realize that Turkish-English bilingualism is still prevalent in the country's major linguistic profiles. As an emic category, this bilingual profile is vitally relevant to future sociolinguistic studies.

(v) The last question relates to the perceived benefits of being a multilingual speaker of English as a lingua franca compared to a monolingual speaker. The point highlighted in the literature review was that English knowledge has an important role and it has an instrumental value in order to achieve some other goals in life such as living or travelling abroad, especially in the globalized world. Hence, under the effect of globalization, the students at the tertiary level have Turkish-English bilingualism with the aim of reaching better employment and life opportunities, and they believe in the power of English knowledge in terms of the richness of the advantages. From the tertiary level students' perspective, the most obvious finding to emerge from this study is that it is considered to create better career and life opportunities because their L1 (e. g. Turkish in this case) does not seem to bring an advantage in the domestic job market.

Furthermore, it has an important role in the eyes of students for their future-oriented plans such as living abroad, travelling the world, better internship opportunities, international communication with their peers, being part of international exchange programs and more academic or career opportunities. Fundamentally, a significant number of university students stated that English plays a prestigious role in their lives, and they feel more privileged thanks to their English knowledge. As a result, there have been many advantages associated with English from the university students' perspective. Taken together, we can explain all these advantages in light of the belief in its usefulness (Arik, 2020; Büyükkantarcioglu, 2004; König, 1990). However, it is essential to acknowledge that this foreign language is English in particular. The English language is embraced by the young population as it is observed in the Turkish sociolinguistic context, especially in an era shaped by globalization. We can evidently not argue for a general advantage for all sociolinguistic contexts but rather suggest the need for further research on the benefits attributed to the English language considering ELF studies in addition to the research on ELF interactions.

In conclusion, the effects of the English language in the Turkish sociolinguistic context emerge bilaterally such as while it can be a source of sociocultural prosperity (e. g. westernization) and life-related opportunities, it can also be a part of the problem in terms of the degeneration of Turkish language, Turkish culture and identity.

In this section, we present the conclusions of the current study by revisiting each of the research questions that guided the present research. As a final subsection, this dissertation concludes with the theoretical, methodological and pedagogical contributions of the current study.

12.2 Contributions

Theoretically informed by multilingualism, language proficiency and individual linguistic repertoires including attitudes, the present study has theoretical and pedagogical contributions. On one hand, the current study theoretically has its value-added contributions to the research endeavours of wider linguistic ecologies. On the other hand, it has the potential for advancing up-to-date discussions centred around English and its unique role in the countries of Three Circles of English, as well as the variables that might affect individuals' linguistic profile in relation to the extent of multilingualism, proficiency levels and language attitudes towards Turkish and English. In conclusion, the results of the present study have

pedagogical contributions to English language education, policymakers of all educational levels including tertiary level education and authorities in the field. The following subsections address these theoretical and pedagogical implications.

12.2.1 Theoretical Contributions

Giving insights into the under-researched EFL context of Turkey, the current study is correlated with the role of English in Expanding Circle countries by paying attention to its unique role in Turkey considering language profiles and proficiency levels which are supported by attitudinal responses. This unique study is in complement to Three Circles of English defined by Kachru (1992), which discusses the role of English as a foreign language in Expanding Circle countries. As the results suggest, English is a widely taught foreign language in Turkey as being one of the Expanding Circle countries and has proven its instrumental role as defined by Kachru previously. Furthermore, as being officially a monolingual country, the Turkish higher education context represents great diversity as a result of the internationalization of higher education institutions. It is also clear that the country has been affected by westernization movements in trade, tourism and education because of its geographical proximity. We suggest that it might be useful to investigate different contexts rather than higher education environments for future research in order to see the presentations of various language profiles in relation to linguistic ecology.

This study joins the recent studies in Singapore, Dubai, Turkey, Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan by Arik (2020), Djuraeva (2022), Leimgruber et al. (2018), Siemund et al. (2014, 2021) and Thomas (2021). From a sociolinguistic perspective, this study has theoretical contributions to the understanding of the Expanding Circle countries regarding Turkey's context, which is evidently one of them since it supports the notion of non-native Englishes.

12.2.2 Pedagogical Contributions

By shedding light on the language use and language profiles of the students at tertiary level education, the study has pedagogical implications for the scholarship. Firstly, the results showed that the crucial role of English is highly-valued in Turkish society considering better life and job-related opportunities after graduation. Furthermore, the findings also revealed that the attitude toward English is quite positive from the perspective of the students including both cohorts. This can be noteworthy for the Council of Higher Education in order to design the curriculum of tertiary level education including English medium universities and revise the

place of academic English in degree programs, as well as for the Ministry of National Education for designing and revising the curriculum of English language education at primary, secondary and high school levels. Better foreign language opportunities in schools and universities will bring modern standards and as a result, desired English knowledge will bring a real variety of opportunities for students' future-oriented plans in the international area, especially in an age shaped by globalization.

Secondly, students need to improve their English language proficiency in order to speak more confidently in real life in terms of their attitudinal responses to speaking skills. Although English has its place in the primary school curriculum, the results indicated that a repetitive circle of grammar subjects and grammar-oriented approaches rather than communicative-based approaches make students feel like they are not competent enough to speak English in their daily life. In order to reach the proficient competence level, offering a good quality of English language education according to modern standards can be a good solution for speaking anxiety, and this will minimize the anxiety level when students reach a certain level of age such as tertiary level education for which they need to be proficient especially in oral skills for their internship, international exchange programs such as Erasmus, and future career plans. Then, they will become more proficient users of the English language professionally. Consequently, further curriculum innovations should focus on adopting communicative language teaching approaches in education planning.

Thirdly, based on the education at primary, secondary and high school levels, the interesting finding is that English has an important role and the second major finding was the existence of many teaching hours in their education history already as was stated by the respondents. Although the country is officially monolingual, the value which has been given to English resembles its status in the Outer Circle countries. Unlike Outer Circle countries, there is no official need to use English in the domains of government, law or other contexts in Turkey. In other words, English has no intranational function in the Turkish setting. However, it is still widely taught at educational institutions more than other school subjects. As a result of this system, higher proficiency levels are expected, but regardless of English education, the majority of the students do not feel fully proficient in real-life foreign language skills and have speaking anxiety. This should also be considered from the perspective of policymakers while designing foreign language education in the nation.

The last implication is for the authorities in the field that testing and evaluation methods of foreign language skills should be revised. It was found that there is a gap between the proficiency levels of the students in terms of literal

and oral skills. In addition, there is an urgent need in order to promote the development of four skills equally in foreign language teaching. As there is a switch from traditional teaching methods to more up-to-date teaching methods in the world, the educational objectives of foreign language teaching should be revised and designed accordingly to contribute to the equal development of reading, writing, speaking and listening skills. This step in terms of foreign language curriculum innovation is essential to ensure higher English proficiency levels in the country.

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A Appendix

A.1 Supplementary Figures

A.1.1 English Attitudes

Figure A.1: *English Attitudes* per disciplinary affiliation (*Bursa Uludağ University*)

Figure A.2: *English Attitudes* per disciplinary affiliation (*İstanbul University*)

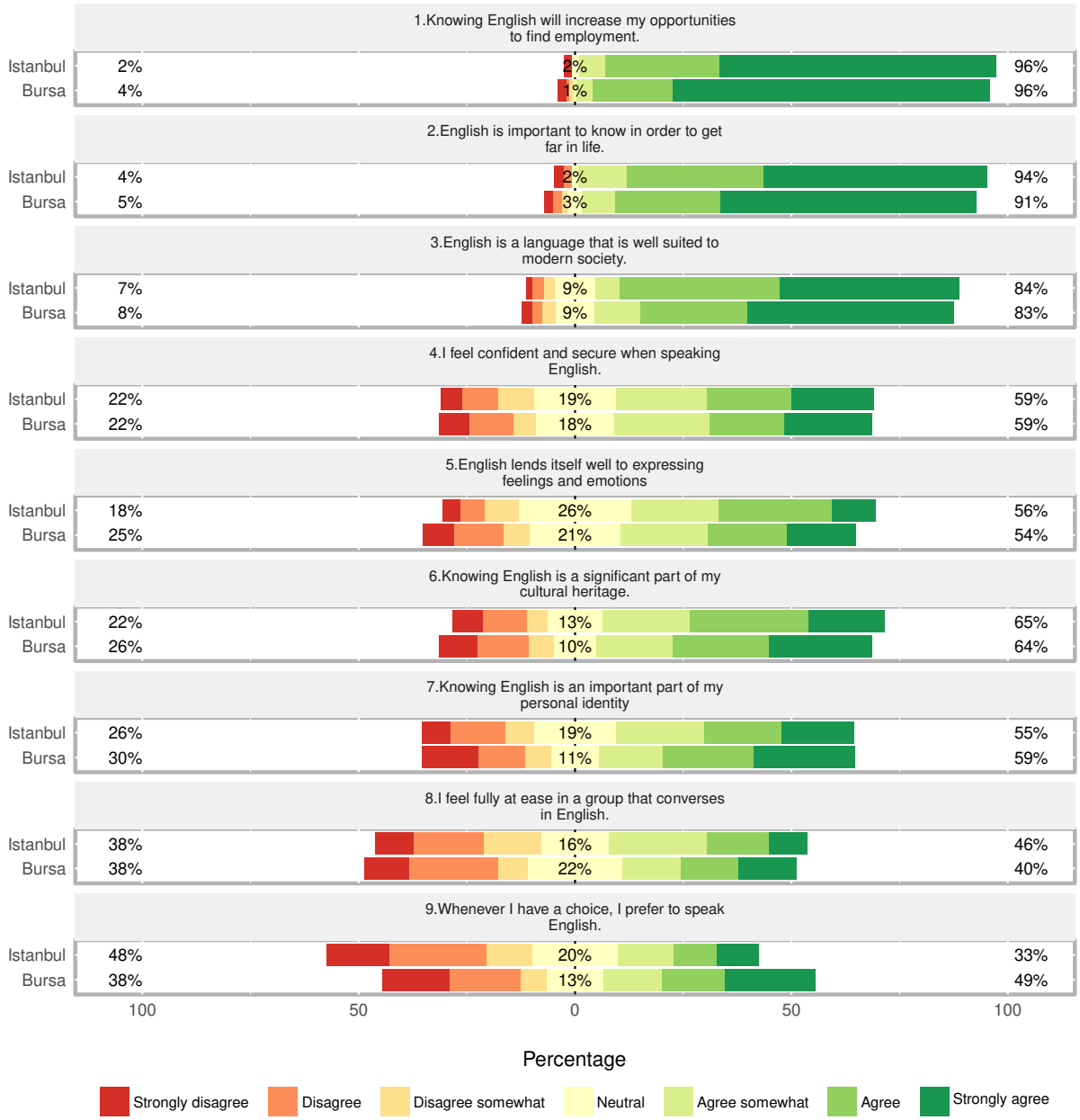


Figure A.3: *English Attitudes* per university

A.1.2 Turkish Attitudes

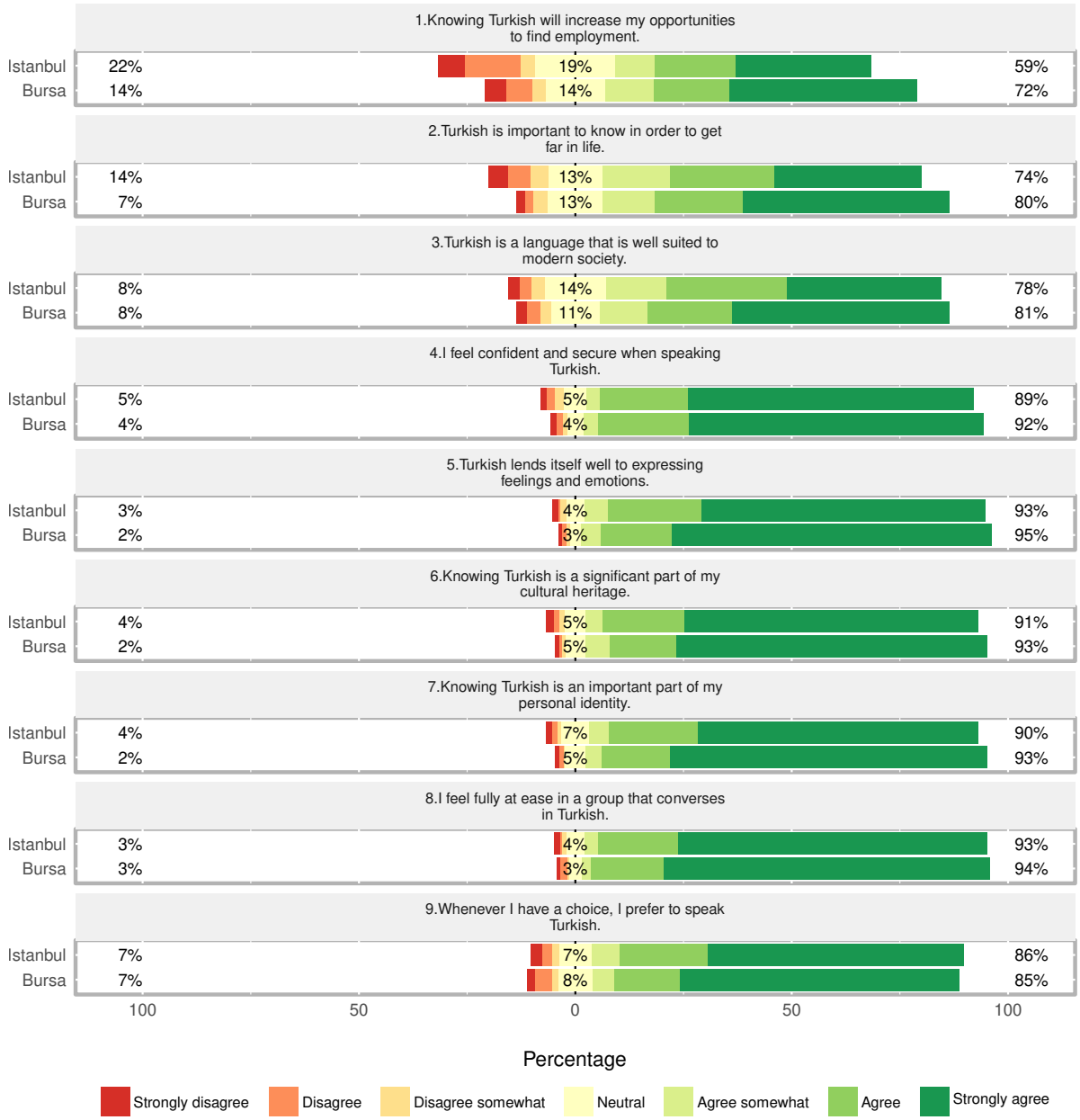


Figure A.4: *Turkish Attitudes* per university

Figure A.5: *Turkish Attitudes* per disciplinary affiliation (*Bursa Uludağ University*)

Figure A.6: *Turkish Attitudes* per disciplinary affiliation (*İstanbul University*)

A.2 Supplementary Tables

A.2.1 English Attitudes

Table A.1: Kruskal-Wallis test results: Comparisons of the groups by academic affiliation regarding *English Attitudes* at *Bursa Uludağ University* (M = mean, Mdn = median)

	Social Sciences		**Natural Sciences**		**Associate**			
	M	Mdn	M	Mdn	M	Mdn	Chi-Square	p-value
Knowing English will increase my opportunities to find employment.	6,59	7.0	6,59	7.0	6,39	7.0	1,379	0,502
English is important to know in order to get far in life.	6,34	7.0	6,40	7.0	6,03	7.0	4,704	0,095
English is a language that is well suited to modern society.	5,91	6.0	5,84	6,5	5,88	6.0	0,258	0,879
I feel confident and secure when speaking English.	4,50	5.0	4,80	5.0	4,77	5.0	1,295	0,523
English lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions.	5,10	6.0	5,09	5,5	5,75	7.0	9,667	0,008
Knowing English is a significant part of my cultural heritage.	5,74	6.0	5,52	6.0	6,02	7.0	6,676	0,036
Knowing English is an important part of my personal identity.	5,69	6.0	5,63	6.0	6,07	7.0	4,592	0,101
I feel fully at ease in a group that converses in English.	6,40	7.0	6,37	7.0	6,47	7.0	0,630	0,730
Whenever I have a choice, I prefer to speak English.	4,60	5.0	4,56	5.0	4,47	5.0	0,235	0,889

Table A.2: Kruskal-Wallis test results: Comparisons of the groups by academic affiliation regarding *English Attitudes* at *İstanbul University* (M = mean, Mdn = median)

	Social Sciences		**Natural Sciences**		**Associate**			
	M	Mdn	M	Mdn	M	Mdn	Chi-Square	p-value
Knowing English will increase my opportunities to find employment.	6,46	7.0	5,89	6.0	6,49	7.0	11,852	0,003
English is important to know in order to get far in life.	6,20	7.0	6,11	6,5	6,03	6.0	1,17	0,557
English is a language that is well suited to modern society.	5,92	6.0	5,83	6.0	5,91	6.0	0,394	0,821
I feel confident and secure when speaking English.	4,73	5.0	4,33	4,5	4,90	6.0	2,424	0,298
English lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions.	5,01	6.0	4,67	5.0	5,28	6.0	2,016	0,365
Knowing English is a significant part of my cultural heritage.	5,43	6.0	5,06	6.0	5,63	6.0	1,887	0,389
Knowing English is an important part of my personal identity.	5,66	6.0	5,35	5.0	5,84	6.0	1,72	0,423
I feel fully at ease in a group that converses in English.	6,32	7.0	6,56	7.0	6,28	7.0	0,547	0,761
Whenever I have a choice, I prefer to speak English.	4,80	5.0	4,88	5.0	4,65	5.0	0,762	0,683

A.2.2 Turkish Attitudes

Table A.3: Kruskal-Wallis test results: Comparisons of the groups by academic affiliation regarding *Turkish Attitudes* at *Bursa Uludağ University* (M = mean, Mdn = median)

	Social Sciences		**Natural Sciences**		**Associate**			
	M	Mdn	M	Mdn	M	Mdn	Chi-Square	p-value
Knowing Turkish will increase my opportunities to find employment.	4,77	5.0	4,80	5.0	4,78	5.0	0,086	0,958
Turkish is important to know in order to get far in life.	4,68	5.0	4,46	5.0	4,59	5.0	0,307	0,858
Turkish is a language that is well suited to modern society.	3,88	4.0	3,99	4.0	4,10	4.0	0,663	0,718
I feel confident and secure when speaking Turkish.	3,96	4.0	4,12	4.0	4,33	5.0	1,317	0,518
Turkish lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions.	6,50	7.0	6,52	7.0	6,55	7.0	0,034	0,983
Knowing Turkish is a significant part of my cultural heritage.	6,42	7.0	6,45	7.0	6,50	7.0	0,048	0,976
Knowing Turkish is an important part of my personal identity.	6,51	7.0	6,47	7.0	6,52	7.0	0,386	0,824
I feel fully at ease in a group that converses in Turkish.	6,52	7.0	6,58	7.0	6,56	7.0	0,515	0,773
Whenever I have a choice, I prefer to speak Turkish.	6,01	7.0	6,12	7.0	6,26	7.0	1,041	0,594

Table A.4: Kruskal-Wallis test results: Comparisons of the groups by academic affiliation regarding *Turkish Attitudes* at *İstanbul University* (M = mean, Mdn = median)

	Social Sciences		**Natural Sciences**		**Associate**			
	M	Mdn	M	Mdn	M	Mdn	Chi-Square	p-value
Knowing Turkish will increase my opportunities to find employment.	4,89	5.0	4,67	4,5	4,60	5.0	1,613	0,446
Turkish is important to know in order to get far in life.	4,50	5.0	4,33	4,5	4,76	5.0	1,889	0,389
Turkish is a language that is well suited to modern society.	4,06	4.0	4,33	5.0	3,97	4.0	0,604	0,739
I feel confident and secure when speaking Turkish.	3,71	4.0	3,94	4.0	4,11	4.0	2,022	0,364
Turkish lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions.	6,44	7.0	6,50	7.0	6,31	7.0	0,489	0,783
Knowing Turkish is a significant part of my cultural heritage.	6,46	7.0	6,28	7.0	6,13	7.0	5,775	0,056
Knowing Turkish is an important part of my personal identity.	6,43	7.0	6,35	7.0	6,08	7.0	3,647	0,161
I feel fully at ease in a group that converses in Turkish.	6,54	7.0	6,59	7.0	6,33	7.0	2,547	0,280
Whenever I have a choice, I prefer to speak Turkish.	6,21	7.0	6,22	7.0	5,89	7.0	2,258	0,323

A.3 Background of Interview Participants

Table A.5: Language profile of interviewees and their demographic and academic background (M = male, F = female, BUU = *Bursa Uludağ University*, IU = *İstanbul University*)

Interviewee ID	Age	Gender	University	Study Degree	Academic Discipline	Languages
1	21	F	BUU	Associate	Business	Turkish
2	20	M	BUU	Associate	Business	Turkish, English
3	20	M	BUU	Associate	Banking and Insurance Services	Turkish
4	20	F	BUU	Associate	Banking and Insurance Services	Turkish, English
5	18	M	BUU	Associate	Foreign Trade	Turkish, Azerbaijani and Russian
6	19	F	BUU	Associate	Marketing	Turkish, English
7	21	F	BUU	Associate	Office Management	Turkish
8	20	F	BUU	Associate	Office Management	Turkish
9	20	F	BUU	Associate	Marketing	Turkish
10	22	F	BUU	Bachelor	Mechanical Engineering	Turkish, English
11	21	F	BUU	Associate	Banking and Insurance Services	Turkish
12	19	F	BUU	Associate	Business	Turkish
13	22	F	IU	Bachelor	Turkish Literature	Turkish, Turkish
14	22	F	IU	Bachelor	Turkish Literature	Turkish, English
15	22	F	IU	Bachelor	Turkish Literature	Turkish, English
16	19	F	IU	Associate	Vocational School of Law	Turkish, English
17	22	F	IU	Bachelor	Turkish Literature	Turkish, English, French
18	22	F	BUU	Bachelor	Textile Engineering	Turkish, English
19	21	F	BUU	Bachelor	Textile Engineering	Turkish, English, German
20	22	F	BUU	Bachelor	Chemistry	Turkish, English
21	25	M	BUU	Bachelor	Veterinary	Turkish, English
22	21	M	BUU	Bachelor	Veterinary	Turkish, English
23	34	F	BUU	Bachelor	History	Turkish
24	24	F	BUU	Bachelor	History	Turkish
25	21	F	BUU	Bachelor	Mechanical Engineering	Turkish, English, Portuguese and German
26	22	M	BUU	Bachelor	Law	Turkish
27	25	M	BUU	Bachelor	Law	Turkish, English, Turkish, Macedonian and Albanian
28	21	F	BUU	Bachelor	English Language Teaching	Turkish, English and German
29	20	M	BUU	Bachelor	Electronical Engineering	Turkish, English
30	20	F	IU	Bachelor	Sociology	Turkish, English
31	19	F	IU	Bachelor	Sociology	Turkish, English
32	19	F	IU	Bachelor	Sociology	Turkish, English, and Spanish
33	19	F	IU	Bachelor	Sociology	Turkish, English
34	20	F	IU	Bachelor	Psychology	Turkish, English, Korean, Russian and Circassian
35	19	F	IU	Bachelor	Psychology	Turkish, English
36	19	M	IU	Bachelor	History	Turkish, English
37	19	F	IU	Bachelor	History	Turkish
38	20	F	IU	Bachelor	Sociology	Turkish, English
39	20	F	IU	Associate	Vocational School of Law	Turkish
40	21	M	IU	Associate	Vocational School of Law	Turkish, English
41	20	F	IU	Associate	Vocational School of Law	Turkish
42	25	F	IU	Associate	Vocational School of Law	Turkish
43	20	F	IU	Associate	Vocational School of Law	Turkish, English
44	20	F	IU	Bachelor	Law	Turkish, English
45	26	F	IU	Bachelor	Law	Turkish, English, Turkish and Armenian
46	19	F	IU	Bachelor	Sociology	Turkish
47	22	F	IU	Bachelor	Turkish Literature	Turkish, English
48	20	F	IU	Bachelor	Sociology	Turkish, English, Bosnian and Serbian

A.4 Questionnaire

As a digital questionnaire, two identical versions yet obviously tailored to the faculty and college names at Bursa Uludağ University and at İstanbul University were used.

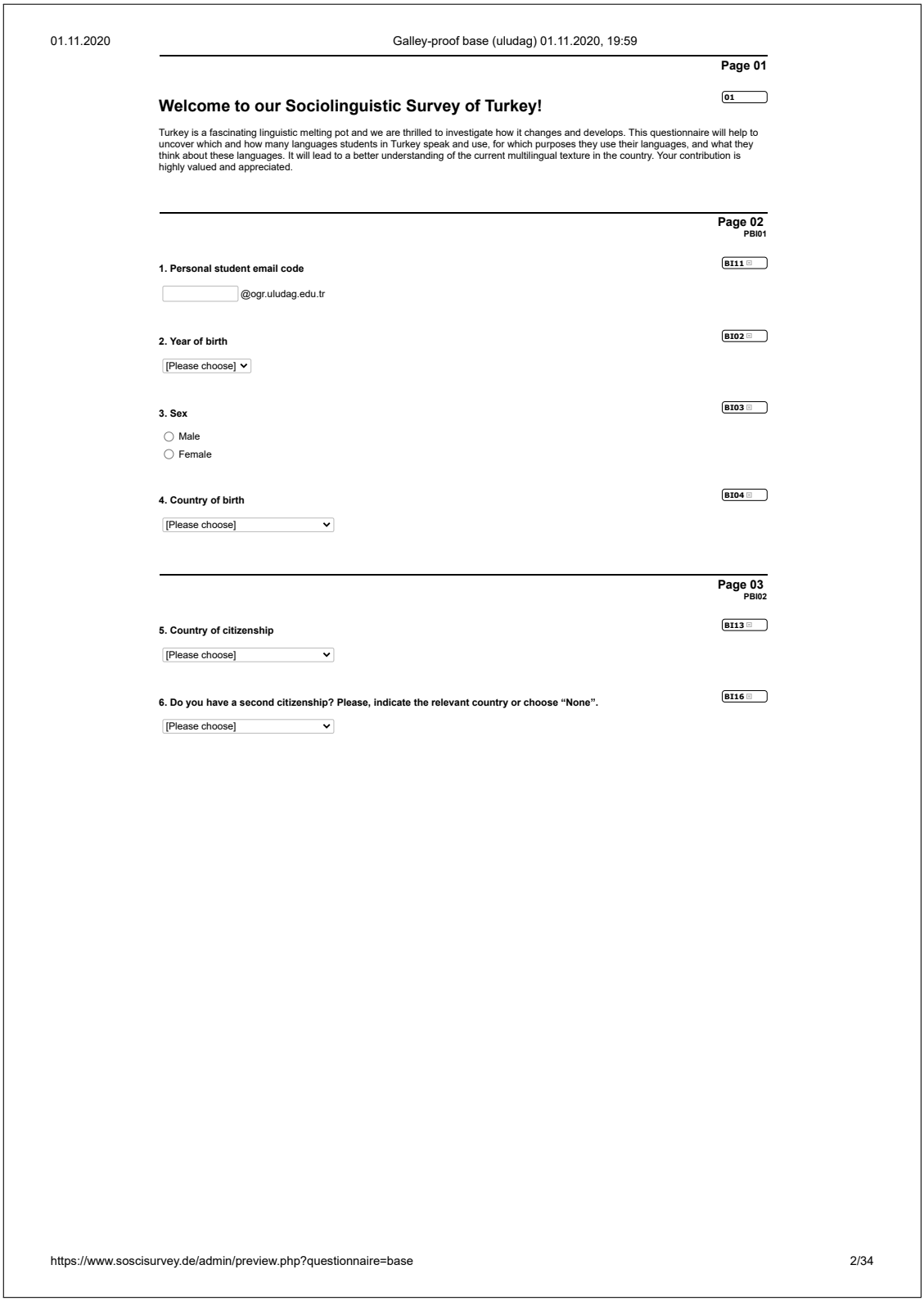

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

soSci
oFb - der onlineFragebogen

uludag → base 01.11.2020, 19:59

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 1/34

Figure A.7: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 01/34)



01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

Page 01

01

Welcome to our Sociolinguistic Survey of Turkey!

Turkey is a fascinating linguistic melting pot and we are thrilled to investigate how it changes and develops. This questionnaire will help to uncover which and how many languages students in Turkey speak and use, for which purposes they use their languages, and what they think about these languages. It will lead to a better understanding of the current multilingual texture in the country. Your contribution is highly valued and appreciated.

Page 02
PBI01

BI11

1. Personal student email code

@ogr.uludag.edu.tr

BIO2

2. Year of birth

[Please choose]

BIO3

3. Sex

Male
Female

BIO4

4. Country of birth

[Please choose]

Page 03
PBI02

BI13

5. Country of citizenship

[Please choose]

BI16

6. Do you have a second citizenship? Please, indicate the relevant country or choose "None".

[Please choose]

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 2/34

Figure A.8: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 02/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

Page 04
PBI03

BI05

7. Which faculty/vocational school are you currently enrolled in?

[Please choose]

BI06

8. What is your major?

BI12

9. For which degree level are you studying?

[Please choose]

BI07

10. What is your academic status?

- First year
- Second year
- Third year
- Fourth year
- More than 4 years

BI17

11. In which range is your GPA?

- 3.50-4.00
- 3.00-3.49
- 2.50-2.99
- Below 2.50

Page 05
PBI04

PHP code

```
question('BI39', 'show-items=no', 'spacing=10');
prepare_input('BI18');
prepare_input('BI19');
prepare_input('BI20');
prepare_input('BI21');
prepare_input('BI27');
prepare_input('BI33');
prepare_input('BI22');
prepare_input('BI28');
prepare_input('BI34');
prepare_input('BI23');
prepare_input('BI29');
prepare_input('BI35');
prepare_input('BI24');
prepare_input('BI30');
prepare_input('BI36');
prepare_input('BI25');
prepare_input('BI31');
prepare_input('BI37');
prepare_input('BI26');
prepare_input('BI32');
prepare_input('BI38');
text('05', 'spacing=default');
```

question('BI39', 'show-items=no', 'spacing=10')

BI39

12. Please tell us where you have lived (12 months or more) from as early as you can remember.

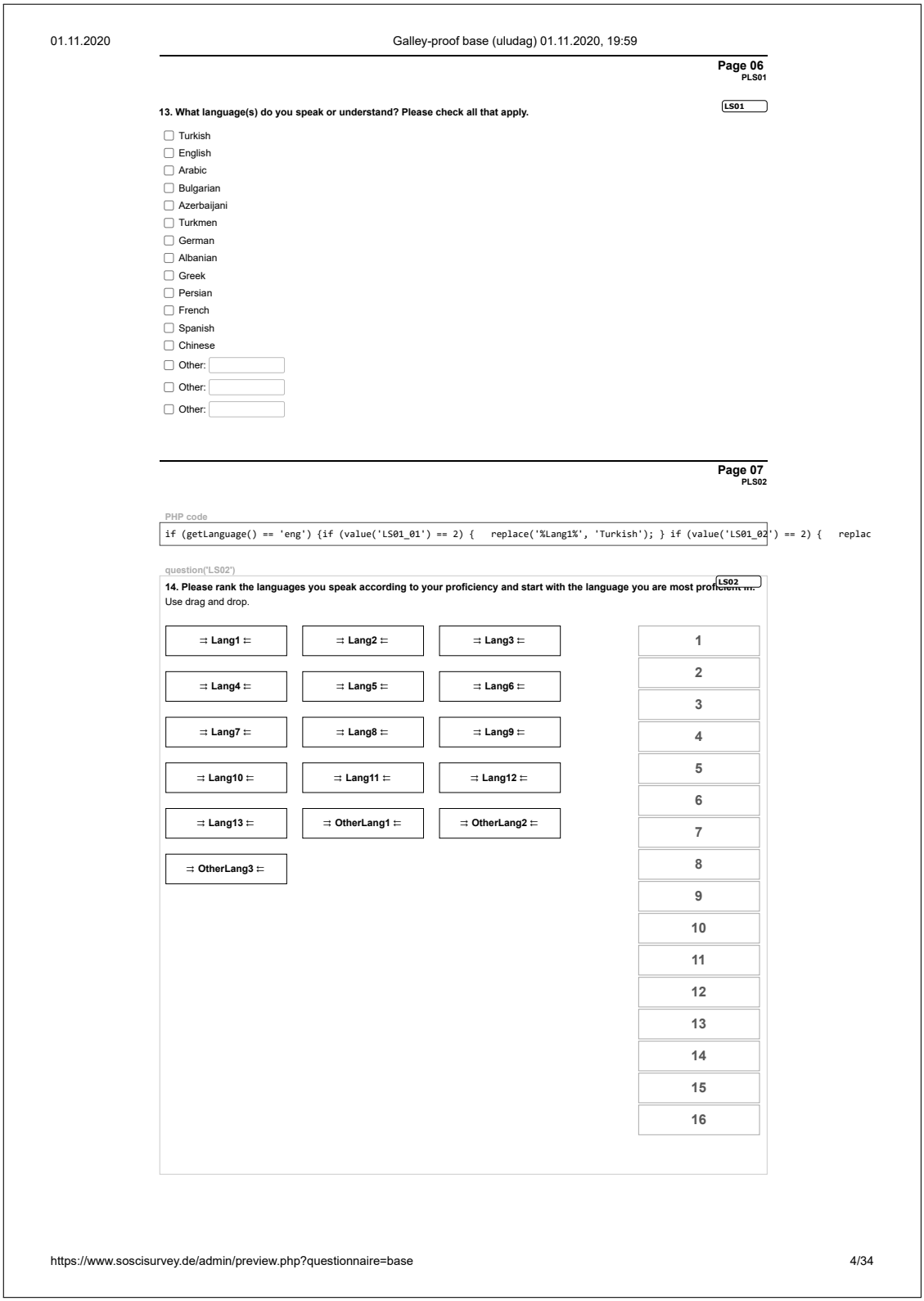
text('05', 'spacing=default')

05

from: ⇉ BI18 ⇇	to: ⇉ BI19 ⇇	in country: ⇉ BI20 ⇇
from: ⇉ BI21 ⇇	to: ⇉ BI27 ⇇	in country: ⇉ BI33 ⇇
from: ⇉ BI22 ⇇	to: ⇉ BI28 ⇇	in country: ⇉ BI34 ⇇
from: ⇉ BI23 ⇇	to: ⇉ BI29 ⇇	in country: ⇉ BI35 ⇇
from: ⇉ BI24 ⇇	to: ⇉ BI30 ⇇	in country: ⇉ BI36 ⇇
from: ⇉ BI25 ⇇	to: ⇉ BI31 ⇇	in country: ⇉ BI37 ⇇
from: ⇉ BI26 ⇇	to: ⇉ BI32 ⇇	in country: ⇉ BI38 ⇇

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 3/34

Figure A.9: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 03/34)



01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

Page 06
PLS01

LS01

13. What language(s) do you speak or understand? Please check all that apply.

- [ ] Turkish
- [ ] English
- [ ] Arabic
- [ ] Bulgarian
- [ ] Azerbaijani
- [ ] Turkmen
- [ ] German
- [ ] Albanian
- [ ] Greek
- [ ] Persian
- [ ] French
- [ ] Spanish
- [ ] Chinese
- [ ] Other:
- [ ] Other:
- [ ] Other:

Page 07
PLS02

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   replace('%Lang1%', 'Turkish'); } if (value('LS01_02') == 2) {   replac
```

question('LS02')

LS02

14. Please rank the languages you speak according to your proficiency and start with the language you are most proficient in.
Use drag and drop.

Lang1	Lang2	Lang3	1
Lang4	Lang5	Lang6	2
Lang7	Lang8	Lang9	3
Lang10	Lang11	Lang12	4
Lang13	OtherLang1	OtherLang2	5
OtherLang3			6
			7
			8
			9
			10
			11
			12
			13
			14
			15
			16

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 4/34

Figure A.10: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 04/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

Page 08
PLS05

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   $language = value('LS02_01');   if ($language == 1) {     replace('%Ab
```

15. Rate your ability in ⇉ AbilityLanguage1 ⇇ on the following aspects. LS05

Listening / understanding

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

Speaking fluency

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

Reading proficiency

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

Writing proficiency

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 5/34

Figure A.11: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 05/34)

Page 09
PLS07

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {$itemliste = getItems('LS01', 'is', 2); if (count($itemliste) == 1) {   goToPage('PLS12'); }  if (val
```

16. Rate your ability in ⇉ AbilityLanguage2 ⇇ on the following aspects. LS07

Listening / understanding

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

Speaking fluency

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

Reading proficiency

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

Writing proficiency

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

Figure A.12: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 06/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

Page 10
PLS08

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {$itemliste = getItems('LS01', 'is', 2); if (count($itemliste) == 2) {   goToPage('PLS12'); }  if (val
```

17. Rate your ability in ⇉ AbilityLanguage3 ⇇ on the following aspects. LS09

Listening / understanding

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

Speaking fluency

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

Reading proficiency

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

Writing proficiency

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 7/34

Figure A.13: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 07/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

Page 11
PLS11

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {$itemliste = getItems('LS01', 'is', 2); if (count($itemliste) == 3) {   goToPage('PLS12'); }  if (val
```

18. Rate your ability in ⇉ AbilityLanguage4 ⇇ on the following aspects. LS11

Listening / understanding

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

Speaking fluency

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

Reading proficiency

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

Writing proficiency

mastery
advanced
upper intermediate
intermediate
elementary
beginner

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 8/34

Figure A.14: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 08/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

Page 12
PLS12

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   $language = value('LS02_01');   if ($language == 1) {     replace('%Fr
```

LS12

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 9/34

Figure A.15: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 09/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

19. Have a look at the activities listed below. How often do you do them in ⇉ FrequencyLanguage1 ⇇?

listen to the radio

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

watch TV

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

watch movies

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

play computer games

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write letters

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write e-mails

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write text messages

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 10/34

Figure A.16: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 10/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

write an internet blog

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write on Facebook

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

chat online

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

talk on your mobile phone

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read a novel

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read a scientific book

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read a newspaper

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 11/34

Figure A.17: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 11/34)

read a magazine

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read comics or mangas

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

Figure A.18: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 12/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

Page 13
PLS13

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {$itemliste = getItems('LS01', 'is', 2); if (count($itemliste) == 1) {   goToPage('PLS16'); }  if (val
```

LS13

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 13/34

Figure A.19: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 13/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

20. Have a look at the activities listed below. How often do you do them in ⇉ FrequencyLanguage2 ⇇?

listen to the radio

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

watch TV

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

watch movies

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

play computer games

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write letters

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write e-mails

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write text messages

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 14/34

Figure A.20: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 14/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

write an internet blog

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write on Facebook

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

chat online

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

talk on your mobile phone

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read a novel

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read a scientific book

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read a newspaper

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 15/34

Figure A.21: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 15/34)

read a magazine

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read comics or mangas

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

Figure A.22: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 16/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

Page 14
PLS14

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {$itemliste = getItems('LS01', 'is', 2); if (count($itemliste) == 2) {   goToPage('PLS16'); }  if (val
```

LS14

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 17/34

Figure A.23: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 17/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

21. Have a look at the activities listed below. How often do you do them in ⇉ FrequencyLanguage3 ⇇?

listen to the radio

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

watch TV

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

watch movies

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

play computer games

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write letters

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write e-mails

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write text messages

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 18/34

Figure A.24: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 18/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

write an internet blog

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write on Facebook

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

chat online

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

talk on your mobile phone

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read a novel

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read a scientific book

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read a newspaper

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 19/34

Figure A.25: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 19/34)

read a magazine

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read comics or mangas

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

Figure A.26: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 20/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

Page 15
PLS15

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {$itemliste = getItems('LS01', 'is', 2); if (count($itemliste) == 3) {   goToPage('PLS16'); }  if (val
```

LS15

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 21/34

Figure A.27: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 21/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

22. Have a look at the activities listed below. How often do you do them in ⇉ FrequencyLanguage4 ⇇?

listen to the radio

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

watch TV

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

watch movies

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

play computer games

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write letters

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write e-mails

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write text messages

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 22/34

Figure A.28: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 22/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

write an internet blog

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

write on Facebook

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

chat online

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

talk on your mobile phone

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read a novel

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read a scientific book

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read a newspaper

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 23/34

Figure A.29: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 23/34)

read a magazine

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

read comics or mangas

Every day
A few times a week
A few times a month
A few times a year
Never
I don't know.

Figure A.30: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 24/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

Page 16
PLS16

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   replace('%Lang1%', 'Turkish'); } if (value('LS01_02') == 2) {   replac
```

question('LS19')

23. What was the first language you spoke as long as you can remember? LS19

- ⇉ Lang1 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang2 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang3 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang4 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang5 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang6 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang7 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang8 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang9 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang10 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang11 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang12 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang13 ⇇
- ⇉ OtherLang1 ⇇
- ⇉ OtherLang2 ⇇
- ⇉ OtherLang3 ⇇

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {$itemliste = getItems('LS01', 'is', 2); if (count($itemliste) == 1) {   goToPage("PFA01"); } if (valu
```

question('LS20')

24. Did you learn any of these languages simultaneously with another? LS20

Check all that apply.

- ⇉ Lang1 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang2 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang3 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang4 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang5 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang6 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang7 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang8 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang9 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang10 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang11 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang12 ⇇
- ⇉ Lang13 ⇇
- ⇉ OtherLang1 ⇇
- ⇉ OtherLang2 ⇇
- ⇉ OtherLang3 ⇇

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 25/34

Figure A.31: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 25/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

Page 17
PFA01

FA01

25. What is your father's education?

[Please choose]

FA02

26. What is your mother's education?

[Please choose]

FA03

27. What is your father's current occupation?

[Please choose]

FA04

28. What is your mother's current occupation?

[Please choose]

Page 18
PLL01

PHP code

```
question('LL54', 'show-items=no', 'spacing=10'); prepare_input('LL34'); prepare_input('LL39'); prepare_input('LL44'); prepare_inpu
text('18', 'spacing=default');
```

question('LL54', 'show-items=no', 'spacing=10')

LL54

29. What did your education journey look like?
Please check ALL boxes that apply.

text('18', 'spacing=default')

18

Kindergarten:	⇉ LL34 ⇇	from: ⇉ LL39 ⇇	to: ⇉ LL44 ⇇	in country: ⇉ LL49 ⇇
Primary School:	⇉ LL35 ⇇	from: ⇉ LL40 ⇇	to: ⇉ LL45 ⇇	in country: ⇉ LL50 ⇇
Secondary School:	⇉ LL36 ⇇	from: ⇉ LL41 ⇇	to: ⇉ LL46 ⇇	in country: ⇉ LL51 ⇇
High School:	⇉ LL37 ⇇	from: ⇉ LL42 ⇇	to: ⇉ LL47 ⇇	in country: ⇉ LL52 ⇇
Vocational School:	⇉ LL38 ⇇	from: ⇉ LL43 ⇇	to: ⇉ LL48 ⇇	in country: ⇉ LL53 ⇇
University:	⇉ LL55 ⇇	from: ⇉ LL56 ⇇	to: ⇉ LL57 ⇇	in country: ⇉ LL58 ⇇

Page 19
PLL06

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   $language = value('LS02_01');   if ($language == 1) {     replace('%Fr
```

LL04

30. Did you learn ⇉ AbilityLanguage1 ⇇ at home?

- ○ yes
- ○ no

LL07

31. Please specify the age at which you started to study ⇉ AbilityLanguage1 ⇇ at school, the number of years of instruction you received, and the number of hours of instruction per week.

age started:

number of years:

hours per week:

☐ I did not study ⇉ AbilityLanguage1 ⇇ at school.

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 26/34

Figure A.32: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 26/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

Page 20
PLL07

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {$itemliste = getItems('LS01', 'is', 2); if (count($itemliste) == 1) {   goToPage('PLU23'); }} else {$
```

LL05

32. Did you learn ⇉ AbilityLanguage2 ⇇ at home?

- ○ yes
- ○ no

LL08

33. Please specify the age at which you started to study ⇉ AbilityLanguage2 ⇇ at school, the number of years of instruction you received, and the number of hours of instruction per week.

age started: ☐ ☐ I did not study ⇉ AbilityLanguage2 ⇇ at school.

number of years: ☐

hours per week: ☐

Page 21
PLL08

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {$itemliste = getItems('LS01', 'is', 2); if (count($itemliste) == 2) {   goToPage('PLU23'); }} else {$
```

LL19

34. Did you learn ⇉ AbilityLanguage3 ⇇ at home?

- ○ yes
- ○ no

LL21

35. Please specify the age at which you started to study ⇉ AbilityLanguage3 ⇇ at school, the number of years of instruction you received, and the number of hours of instruction per week.

age started: ☐ ☐ I did not study ⇉ AbilityLanguage3 ⇇ at school.

number of years: ☐

hours per week: ☐

Page 22
PLL090

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {$itemliste = getItems('LS01', 'is', 2); if (count($itemliste) == 3) {   goToPage('PLU23'); }} else {$
```

LL20

36. Did you learn ⇉ AbilityLanguage4 ⇇ at home?

- ○ yes
- ○ no

LL22

37. Please specify the age at which you started to study ⇉ AbilityLanguage4 ⇇ at school, the number of years of instruction you received, and the number of hours of instruction per week.

age started: ☐ ☐ I did not study ⇉ AbilityLanguage4 ⇇ at school.

number of years: ☐

hours per week: ☐

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 27/34

Figure A.33: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 27/34)

Page 23
PLU23

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   replace('%Lang1%', 'Turkish'); } if (value('LS01_02') == 2) {   replac
```

question('LU23')

LU23

38. What language or languages does your family primarily speak at home?

- ☐ ⇉ Lang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang3 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang4 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang5 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang6 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang7 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang8 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang9 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang10 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang11 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang12 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang13 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang3 ⇇

☐ Does not apply

Page 24
PLU24

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   replace('%Lang1%', 'Turkish'); } if (value('LS01_02') == 2) {   replac
```

question('LU24')

LU24

39. What language or languages do your parents primarily speak when they talk to each other?

- ☐ ⇉ Lang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang3 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang4 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang5 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang6 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang7 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang8 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang9 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang10 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang11 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang12 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang13 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang3 ⇇

☐ Does not apply

Figure A.34: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 28/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

Page 25
PLU26

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   replace('%Lang1%', 'Turkish'); } if (value('LS01_02') == 2) {   replac
```

question('LU26')

LU26

40. What language or languages do you primarily speak when you talk to your mother?

- ☐ ⇉ Lang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang3 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang4 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang5 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang6 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang7 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang8 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang9 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang10 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang11 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang12 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang13 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang3 ⇇

☐ Does not apply

Page 26
PLU27

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   replace('%Lang1%', 'Turkish'); } if (value('LS01_02') == 2) {   replac
```

question('LU27')

LU27

41. What language or languages do you primarily speak when you talk to your father?

- ☐ ⇉ Lang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang3 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang4 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang5 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang6 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang7 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang8 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang9 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang10 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang11 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang12 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang13 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang3 ⇇

☐ Does not apply

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 29/34

Figure A.35: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 29/34)

Page 27
PLU28

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   replace('%Lang1%', 'Turkish'); } if (value('LS01_02') == 2) {   replac
```

question('LU28')

42. What language or languages do you primarily speak when you talk to your grandmother or your grandfather? LU28

- ☐ ⇉ Lang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang3 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang4 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang5 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang6 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang7 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang8 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang9 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang10 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang11 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang12 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang13 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang3 ⇇

☐ Does not apply

Page 28
PLU29

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   replace('%Lang1%', 'Turkish'); } if (value('LS01_02') == 2) {   replac
```

question('LU29')

43. What language or languages do you primarily speak when you talk to your siblings? LU29

- ☐ ⇉ Lang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang3 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang4 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang5 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang6 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang7 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang8 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang9 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang10 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang11 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang12 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang13 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang3 ⇇

☐ Does not apply

Figure A.36: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 30/34)

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Page 29
PLU31

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   replace('%Lang1%', 'Turkish'); } if (value('LS01_02') == 2) {   replac
```

question('LU31')

44. What language or languages do you speak with your best friends? LU31

- ☐ ⇉ Lang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang3 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang4 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang5 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang6 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang7 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang8 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang9 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang10 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang11 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang12 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang13 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang3 ⇇

☐ Does not apply

Page 30
PLU35

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   replace('%Lang1%', 'Turkish'); } if (value('LS01_02') == 2) {   replac
```

question('LU35')

45. What language or languages do you use while you are thinking alone and talking to yourself? LU35

- ☐ ⇉ Lang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang3 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang4 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang5 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang6 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang7 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang8 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang9 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang10 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang11 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang12 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang13 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang3 ⇇

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 31/34

Figure A.37: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 31/34)

Page 31
PLU36

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   replace('%Lang1%', 'Turkish'); } if (value('LS01_02') == 2) {   replac
```

question('LU36')

46. What language or languages do you use to swear? LU36

- ☐ ⇉ Lang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang3 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang4 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang5 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang6 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang7 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang8 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang9 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang10 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang11 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang12 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang13 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang3 ⇇

Page 32
PLU37

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   replace('%Lang1%', 'Turkish'); } if (value('LS01_02') == 2) {   replac
```

question('LU37')

47. What language or languages do you use while dreaming? LU37

- ☐ ⇉ Lang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang3 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang4 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang5 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang6 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang7 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang8 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang9 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang10 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang11 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang12 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang13 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang3 ⇇

Figure A.38: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 32/34)

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Page 33
PLU38

PHP code

```
if (getLanguage() == 'eng') {if (value('LS01_01') == 2) {   replace('%Lang1%', 'Turkish'); } if (value('LS01_02') == 2) {   replac
```

question('LU38')

LU38

48. What language or languages do you use to count?

- ☐ ⇉ Lang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang3 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang4 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang5 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang6 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang7 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang8 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang9 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang10 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang11 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang12 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ Lang13 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang1 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang2 ⇇
- ☐ ⇉ OtherLang3 ⇇

Page 34
PLU39

LU39

49. Respond to the following statements on the basis of how you feel about the language in question. There are no right or wrong answers to any of these statements. Please read each statement carefully, and respond by choosing the option that best corresponds to your agreement/disagreement to the statement.

Knowing English will increase my opportunities to find employment.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

English is important to know in order to get far in life.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

English is a language that is well suited to modern society.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

I feel confident and secure when speaking English.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

LU40

English lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

Knowing English is a significant part of my cultural heritage.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

Knowing English is an important part of my personal identity.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

I feel fully at ease in a group that converses in English.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

Whenever I have a choice, I prefer to speak English.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 33/34

Figure A.39: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 33/34)

01.11.2020 Galley-proof base (uludag) 01.11.2020, 19:59

Page 35
PLU40

LU41

50. Respond to the following statements on the basis of how you feel about the language in question. There are no right or wrong answers to any of these statements. Please read each statement carefully, and respond by choosing the option that best corresponds to your agreement/disagreement to the statement.

Knowing Turkish will increase my opportunities to find employment.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

Turkish is important to know in order to get far in life.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

Turkish is a language that is well suited to modern society.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

I feel confident and secure when speaking Turkish.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

LU42

Turkish lends itself well to expressing feelings and emotions.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

Knowing Turkish is a significant part of my cultural heritage.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

Knowing Turkish is an important part of my personal identity.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

I feel fully at ease in a group that converses in Turkish.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

Whenever I have a choice, I prefer to speak Turkish.

strongly disagree	disagree	disagree somewhat	neutral	agree somewhat	agree	strongly agree

Page 36

PI01

51. Thank you very much for your contribution. The questionnaire ends here. If you want to change or adapt your answers, you can always go back. Otherwise, please, click on *next* to submit the questionnaire. As announced earlier, we would like to conduct a personal interview with you on similar questions. If you are interested in contributing to a better understanding of the multilingual setting in Turkey, please enter your valid university-email- address in the text box below. We do look forward to working with you.

Last Page

Thank you for completing this questionnaire!

Your answers were transmitted, you may close the browser window or tab now.

M.A. Özge Öztürk, Uludag University – 2019

https://www.soscisurvey.de/admin/preview.php?questionnaire=base 34/34

Figure A.40: Implementation of the digital questionnaire (Page 34/34)

A.5 Semi-structured Interview Questions

PERSONAL QUESTIONS

01 How old are you?

02 What do you study?

03 How long have you been living in Turkey?

04 Where do you live?

- a City area
- b Dormitory / private apartment

LANGUAGE BIOGRAPHY

05 In which countries have you been living?

06 Which languages do you speak?

07 Which language(s) were you raised with?

- a Which language do your parents speak with each other?

08 Which languages did you learn in school?

- a For how long have you been learning them?
- b In which country did you take the lessons?

09 Was there any other way in which you encountered a language?

10 Which languages do you speak with your family?

- a Which ones do you use when talking to friends?

11 Which languages do you need for social life (going out, shopping etc.)?

- a Which languages do you need for administrative purposes (authorities, filling out an application form for residency, id card etc.)?

12 How would you describe your abilities in these languages?

- a In which of these are you fluent, which do you speak or write not so well?

13 How often do you speak your native language?

- a Daily, a few times a week, once a week, monthly, a few times a year, never?

14 How often do you read or write in your native language?

   a Daily, a few times a week, once a week, monthly, a few times a year, never?

15 How often do you speak English?

   a a. Daily, a few times a week, once a week, monthly, a few times a year, never?

16 How often do you read or write in English?

   a Daily, a few times a week, once a week, monthly, a few times a year, never?

17 How often do you speak Turkish?

   a Daily, a few times a week, one a week, monthly, a few times a year, never?

18 How often do you read or write in Turkish?

   a Daily, a few times a week, one a week, monthly, a few times a year, never?

19 When you think of media, is there any difference in the way you use your languages?

   a Which do you use mainly to watch TV, read novels / academic texts or chat online?

ATTITUDES

20 Do you consider English as a beautiful language? And why?

21 Do you consider English as a useful language? And why?

22 Do you consider Turkish as a beautiful language? And why?

23 Do you consider Turkish as a useful language? And why?

24 Do you think that English is a difficult or an easy language to learn?

25 Do you think that Turkish is a difficult or an easy language to learn?

26 What do you relate to the English language?

   a emotions

   b activities

   c objects

27 What do you relate to the Turkish language?

a emotions

b activities

c objects

28 Have the other languages you know turned out to be a disadvantage or an advantage in the acquisition of English? And why?

29 In what way did the other languages you know influence your English?

30 In what way did the other languages you know influence your Turkish?

31 What similarities or differences could you name between the other languages you know and English?

32 What similarities or differences could you name between the other languages you know and Turkish?

33 To what extent has English been useful for you in relation to your personal life?

34 To what extent has English been useful for you in relation to your academic career?

35 To what extent has Turkish been useful for you in relation to your personal life?

36 To what extent has Turkish been useful for you in relation to your academic career?

37 How important is the acquisition of English to you?

38 How important is Turkish to you?

39 How important is it for you to be fluent in English?

40 How important is it for you to be fluent in Turkish?

41 Taking your proficiency level of English into consideration, are you satisfied with it?

42 How would you define the role of English in your future life?

43 How would you define the role of Turkish in your future life?

44 If you have to choose only one of the languages you know, which one would it be? And why?

EDUCATIONAL TRAJECTORY

A) HOME

45 Tell me about your parents. What are their professions?

46 Do they encourage you to speak any particular language at home or at school?

B) SCHOOL

47 At what age did you start to go to preschool/primary school?

48 Where did you attend preschool/primary school? In your home country? Other countries? Specify.

49 Types of schools attended:

- a How is the school system in your country? (Primary school, secondary school, high school)? (Government or private schools)?
- b Why types of school are there in your home country? (e.g. primary, secondary or high school, government or private schools?)
- c Which one did you attend?
- d Examination system: Is there any major examination between each transitional point?

50 How long/how many years have you attended school?

51 What is the instructional language of your school? English? Turkish? Or both? Or other languages?

52 Have you ever visited English-speaking countries?

- a Yes / no: How many time?
- b At what age?
- c For how long?
- d For what purpose? Exchange, working holidays, language course?

B Abstract

In terms of rapidly expanding users and uses, International English cannot be properly understood without taking wider linguistic ecologies into consideration. This study, therefore, aims to make a valuable contribution to previous sociolinguistic studies and to provide a detailed account of the sociolinguistic profile of English within the under-researched national context of Turkey. A useful point of departure is Kachru's (1985) Three Circles Model according to which Turkey gets a place in the Expanding Circle countries where English has the status of a foreign language and is taught at schools only. With the aim of assessing the role of English in the Turkish context, which is a conspicuously absent sociolinguistic profile in World Englishes studies (Arik, 2020; Berns, 2005, 2019, 2020), the current study investigates the extent of multilingualism, and the major linguistic patterns, self-assessed proficiencies, and language attitudes found within the Turkish tertiary level education.

This study focuses on two cohorts of tertiary level students: bachelor degree students and post-secondary vocational school students (associate degree students) studying at two state universities located in different cities in Turkey. The comparison of degree cohorts is aimed at considering students' linguistic repertoires, the extent of multilingualism, and their self-reported proficiency levels in these languages. In addition to individual linguistic repertoires, the attitudes towards English and Turkish are investigated with a conclusion of theoretical and pedagogical implications. Therefore, a comprehensive sample of bachelor degree students and post-secondary Vocational school students ($n = 588$), who study at Bursa Uludağ University and İstanbul University, completed a digitalized version of the questionnaire by Leimgruber et al. (2018) and Siemund et al. (2014, 2021) which had previously been used in the Singaporean, and later United Arab Emirates contexts. The questionnaire consists of four parts: (a) a general language background profile, (b) a language use profile, (c) an educational and socio-economic profile and (d) a language attitude profile, and follows an interactive design, with up to 70 questions, depending on the answers. Additionally, 48 students were interviewed to obtain a deeper understanding of the results related to the Turkish sociolinguistic context.

The main research aim is to contribute to the current literature with the less-known context of English spread among Expanding Circle countries. Therefore, (i) the extent of multilingualism in relation to degree types at tertiary level education is explored to explicate how widespread multilingualism is across bachelor and associate degree study cohorts. In an attempt to shed light on the relationship between multilingualism and self-reported language proficiencies, the current study analyzes (ii) the proficiency levels of each language in the participants' repertoires. Similarly, self-reported proficiency levels are investigated based on students' linguistic profiles including bilingual, trilingual and quadrilingual individuals, and this proficiency section includes self-reported proficiency rankings of the languages considering oral and literal skills according to degree types. The study also adds (iii) broad insights to student's attitudes towards English and Turkish languages. Moreover, it analyzes (iv) the major linguistic profiles in terms of monolingualism or bi- or multilingualism among university students. The advantages of being a speaker of English as a lingua franca compared to a monolingual speaker are discovered in the last part of the study (v).

The findings show that the degree cohort plays a big role in terms of multilingual profiles. Bachelor degree students possess a more multilingual repertoire than their associate degree counterparts: we can observe more trilingual and quadrilingual individuals in the bachelor degree study cohort. Conversely, the associates' degree group is quite homogeneous, since monolingualism and bilingualism are the most common language profiles for this group. Therefore, multilingualism is more widespread among bachelor degree students which confirms the educational attainment factor. Part of the reason for this is the effects of family-related factors, such as parents' educational level which is positively correlated with the number of languages the students know. Thus, it is argued that foreign language education, especially English, which is the most popular language in the nation, is in danger of becoming the language of intellectuals, creating a gap between the better-educated population and groups from other socio-educational backgrounds.

According to the results, it is hard to conclude that there is a relationship between multilingualism and self-reported language proficiency levels because based on self-reported proficiency levels, there is a systematic decline from the speaker's first language to the fourth language. Linguistic models such as DMM and CEM, which favour a positive impact for each additional language learnt, would particularly suggest that ratings in proficiencies are positively affected by the extent of multilingualism. In addition, it is the quadrilingual group that reports slightly lower proficiencies compared to bilingual and trilingual groups. Considering participants' oral and literal skills, the results show that oral proficiencies are reported to be higher compared to literal skills. This can be explained by the aca-

demic and job-related needs of tertiary level students, as oral skills are regarded as the most essential skills in daily life.

Furthermore, all respondents have highly positive attitudes towards the English language as a means to better employment and life opportunities. A closer analysis reveals that English knowledge has an important role as a foreign language with an instrumental value, in particular among bachelor degree students. However, neither cohort feels competent enough with their speaking skills. As a result, they report more or less neutral attitudes toward speaking English. Their attitudes toward English in terms of personal identity, cultural heritage, and suitability of English for the modern world appear to be mildly positive. Regarding the variables of age, gender, and citizenship, age is the most significant variable with respect to attitudes: As the students get older, they tend to have more positive attitudes towards English rather than Turkish.

Clearly, Turkish monolingualism is still one of the major linguistic patterns among university students though Turkish-English bilingualism is comparably the most frequent pattern in the linguistic repertoire of the students at tertiary level education. Turkish-English-German trilingualism is identified as the third most frequent pattern. These major linguistic profiles show that English still has its unique place as being a widely taught and learnt language in the nation. This could be due to the advantages of being a speaker of English, which is the last argument in the current study. The results demonstrate that these advantages are related to better job or life-related opportunities, future-oriented plans such as living abroad, and academic career. More importantly, English symbolizes the prestigious role attributed to English in the Turkish sociolinguistic context. Taken together, the current research makes a valuable theoretical contribution to the country profiles in Three Circles of English defined by Kachru (1985, 1992), and on the Englishes of Expanding Circle. The trans-continental Turkish context spanning Europe and Asia proposes that university students as part of the young population have English in their repertoire due to globalization although there are issues about linguistic nationalism favouring Turkish and debates against English-medium instruction. These suggest that careful foreign language planning and policy-making are required in the Expanding Circle countries while steps are taken to maintain the status of the native language (Turkish, in this case) as these countries have never been colonized in history.

This study could be expanded to other countries, which may help us compare and contrast the results differing in linguistic profiles, proficiencies and attitudes. Researchers can also investigate these variables, especially proficiencies and language attitudes, in a longitudinal format.

C Kurzzusammenfassung

In Anbetracht der rasch wachsenden Zahl von Englischsprechenden kann das internationale Englisch nicht richtig verstanden werden, ohne die breitere linguistische Ökologie zu berücksichtigen. Die vorliegende Studie soll einen wertvollen Beitrag zu bisherigen soziolinguistischen Studien leisten und das soziolinguistische Profil des Englischen in dem wenig erforschten nationalen Kontext der Türkei detailliert darstellen. Ein nützlicher Ausgangspunkt ist das Three Circles Model von Kachru (1985), demzufolge die Türkei zu den Ländern des Expanding Circle gehört, in denen Englisch den Status einer Fremdsprache hat und nur an Schulen unterrichtet wird. Mit dem Ziel, die Rolle des Englischen im türkischen Kontext zu bewerten, welcher in den Studien zum Weltenglisch ein auffällig fehlendes soziolinguistisches Profil darstellt (Arik, 2020; Berns, 2005, 2019, 2020), untersucht die vorliegende Studie das Ausmaß der Mehrsprachigkeit und die wichtigsten sprachlichen Muster, selbst eingeschätzten Kompetenzen und Einstellungen, die in der türkischen Hochschulbildung zu finden sind.

Diese Studie konzentriert sich auf zwei Kohorten von Studierenden des tertiären Bereichs: *Bachelor*-Studierende und *Associate*-Studierende (Berufshochschul-Studierende, die (noch) keinen Bachelor-Abschluss anstreben), die an zwei staatlichen Universitäten in verschiedenen Städten der Türkei studieren. Der Vergleich der Abschlusskohorten zielt darauf ab, das sprachliche Repertoire der Studierenden, das Ausmaß der Mehrsprachigkeit und das von ihnen selbst angegebene Sprachniveau in diesen Sprachen zu untersuchen. Zusätzlich zu den individuellen Sprachrepertoires werden die Einstellungen gegenüber Englisch und Türkisch untersucht, um daraus theoretische und pädagogische Schlussfolgerungen zu ziehen. Zu diesem Zweck füllte eine umfassende Stichprobe von *Bachelor*- und *Associate*-Studierenden ($n = 588$), die an der Bursa Uludağ Universität und der İstanbul Universität studieren, einen digitalen Fragebogen aus, der von Leimgruber et al. (2018) und Siemund et al. (2014, 2021) entwickelt und bereits im Kontext von Singapur und später den Vereinigten Arabischen Emiraten eingesetzt wurde. Der Fragebogen besteht aus vier Teilen (a) zum allgemeinen Sprachhintergrundprofil, (b) zum Sprachverwendungsprofil, (c) zum Profil der Bildung und des sozioökonomischen Hintergrundes und (d) zum Spracheinstellungsprofil. Hierbei folgt der Fragebogen einem interaktiven Design mit bis zu 70 von den vorherigen Antworten abhängigen Fragen. Zusätzlich wurden 48 Studierende

interviewt, um ein tieferes Verständnis der Ergebnisse im Zusammenhang mit dem türkischen soziolinguistischen Kontext zu erhalten.

Das Hauptziel der Studie ist es, aktuellen Stand der Forschung um den weniger bekannten Kontext der Verbreitung des Englischen in der Türkei als Land aus dem Expanding Circle zu erweitern. Hierzu wird (i) das Ausmaß der Mehrsprachigkeit in Bezug auf die Abschlussarten im tertiären Bildungsbereich untersucht, um herauszufinden, wie weitverbreitet die Mehrsprachigkeit in *Bachelor*- und *Associate*-Abschlusskohorten ist. Um die Beziehung zwischen Mehrsprachigkeit und den selbst angegebenen Sprachkenntnissen zu beleuchten, werden in der aktuellen Studie (ii) die Sprachkenntnisse der einzelnen Sprachen in den Repertoires der Teilnehmer analysiert. In ähnlicher Weise werden die selbst angegebenen Sprachniveaus auf der Grundlage der linguistischen Profile der Studierenden untersucht, einschließlich zwei-, drei- und viersprachiger Personen. Der Abschnitt zur Sprachbeherrschung umfasst die selbstberichtete Einstufung der Sprachbeherrschung unter Berücksichtigung der mündlichen und schriftlichen Fertigkeiten nach Abschlussarten. Die Studie gibt auch (iii) einen umfassenden Einblick in die Einstellungen der Schüler gegenüber der englischen und der türkischen Sprache. Ebenso werden (iv) die wichtigsten sprachlichen Merkmale der Einsprachigkeit bzw. Zwei- oder Mehrsprachigkeit unter Universitätsstudierenden analysiert. Im letzten Teil der Studie (v) werden die Vorteile der englischen Sprache als Lingua franca im Vergleich zur Einsprachigkeit herausgearbeitet.

Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass die Art des angestrebten Abschlusses eine große Rolle bei den mehrsprachigen Profilen spielt. *Bachelor*-Studierende verfügen über ein größeres mehrsprachiges Repertoire als *Associate*-Studierende: Wir können mehr dreisprachige und viersprachige Personen in der Studienkohorte mit *Bachelor*-Abschluss beobachten. Im Gegensatz dazu ist die Gruppe der *Associate*-Studierenden recht homogen, da Einsprachigkeit und Zweisprachigkeit die häufigsten Sprachprofile in dieser Gruppe sind. Folglich ist die Mehrsprachigkeit unter den *Bachelor*-Studierenden weiter verbreitet, was den Einfluss des Bildungsgrades bestätigt. Dies ist zum Teil auf die Auswirkungen familienbezogener Faktoren zurückzuführen, z. B. das Bildungsniveau der Eltern, das positiv mit der Anzahl der beherrschten Sprachen korreliert. Daher wird argumentiert, dass der Fremdsprachenunterricht, insbesondere Englisch, die beliebteste Sprache des Landes, Gefahr läuft, zur Sprache der Intellektuellen zu werden und eine Kluft zwischen der besser gebildeten Bevölkerung und Gruppen mit anderem sozioökonomischem Hintergrund zu schaffen.

Aus den Ergebnissen lässt sich nicht schließen, ob es einen Zusammenhang zwischen Mehrsprachigkeit und selbst eingeschätzten Sprachkenntnissen gibt, weil letztere systematisch von der ersten Sprache der Sprecher zur vierten Sprache

abnehmen. Linguistische Modelle, wie das DMM und das CEM, die eine positive Auswirkung für jede zusätzlich erlernte Sprache nahelegen, lassen primär darauf schließen, dass die Kompetenzeinschätzungen durch das Ausmaß der Mehrsprachigkeit positiv beeinflusst werden. Dennoch ist es nur die viersprachige Gruppe, die im Vergleich zu den zwei- und dreisprachigen Gruppen etwas geringere Kenntnisse angibt. Betrachtet man die mündlichen und schriftlichen Fertigkeiten der Teilnehmer, so zeigen die Ergebnisse, dass die mündlichen Fertigkeiten im Vergleich zu den schriftlichen Fertigkeiten als höher eingeschätzt werden. Dies lässt sich durch die akademischen und beruflichen Anforderungen von Hochschulstudierenden erklären, da mündliche Fähigkeiten als eine der wichtigsten Fähigkeiten im täglichen Leben angesehen werden.

Überdies haben alle Befragten eine sehr positive Einstellung gegenüber der englischen Sprache als Mittel zur Verbesserung der Beschäftigungs- und Lebenschancen. Eine genauere Analyse zeigt, dass Englischkenntnisse eine wichtige Rolle als Fremdsprache mit einem instrumentellen Wert spielen, insbesondere bei *Bachelor*-Studierenden. Jedoch fühlt sich keine der beiden Kohorten mit ihren Sprachkenntnissen ausreichend kompetent. Infolgedessen geben sie eine mehr oder weniger neutrale Einstellung zum Sprechen der englischen Sprache an. Ihre Einstellung zum Englischen in Bezug auf die persönliche Identität, das kulturelle Erbe und die Eignung des Englischen für die moderne Welt scheint leicht positiv zu sein. Bei den Variablen Alter, Geschlecht und Staatsangehörigkeit ist das Alter die signifikanteste Variable in Bezug auf die Einstellung: Je älter die Schülerinnen und Schüler werden, desto positiver ist ihre Einstellung zum Englischen gegenüber dem Türkischen.

Offensichtlich ist die türkische Einsprachigkeit nach wie vor eines der wichtigsten Sprachmuster unter den Hochschulstudierenden, obwohl die türkisch-englische Zweisprachigkeit vergleichsweise das häufigste Muster im Sprachrepertoire der Studierenden im tertiären Bildungsbereich ist. Die Dreisprachigkeit Türkisch-Englisch-Deutsch wird als dritthäufigstes Muster identifiziert. Diese dominierenden Sprachprofile zeigen, dass Englisch nach wie vor die am häufigsten gelehrte und gelernte Sprache in der Türkei ist. Dies könnte auf die Vorteile zurückzuführen sein, die sich aus der Beherrschung der englischen Sprache ergeben, was das letzte Argument in der vorliegenden Studie ist. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass diese Vorteile mit besseren Berufs- oder Lebenschancen, zukunftsorientierten Plänen, wie einem Auslandsaufenthalt und einer akademischen Karriere zusammenhängen. Noch wichtiger ist, dass Englisch die prestigeträchtige Rolle symbolisiert, die dem Englischen im türkischen soziolinguistischen Kontext zugeschrieben wird. Insgesamt leistet die vorliegende Untersuchung einen wertvollen theoretischen Beitrag zu den von Kachru (1985, 1992) definierten Länderprofilen in den Three Circles of English und zu den Englishes of Expanding Circle. Der trans-

kontinentale, Europa und Asien umspannende türkische Kontext, legt nahe, dass Universitätsstudierende als Teil der jungen Bevölkerung aufgrund der Globalisierung Englisch in ihrem Repertoire haben, obwohl es sprachlichen Nationalismus zugunsten des Türkischen und Debatten gegen englischsprachigen Unterricht gibt. Dies deutet darauf hin, dass in den Ländern des Expanding Circle eine sorgfältige Fremdsprachenplanung und -politik erforderlich ist, während gleichzeitig Schritte unternommen werden, um den Status der Muttersprache (in diesem Fall Türkisch) zu erhalten, da diese Länder in der Geschichte nie kolonisiert wurden.

Diese Studie könnte auf andere Länder ausgeweitet werden, um die Ergebnisse auf Unterschiede in Bezug auf sprachliche Profile, Sprachkenntnisse und Einstellungen zu untersuchen. Die Forscher können diese Variablen, insbesondere die Sprachkenntnisse und Einstellungen auch in einer Längsschnittstudie untersuchen.

Eigenständigkeitserklärung

Hierdurch versichere ich an Eides Statt, dass ich die vorliegende Dissertation selbstständig angefertigt, andere als die von mir angegebenen Quellen und Hilfsmittel nicht benutzt und die den herangezogenen Werken wörtlich oder inhaltlich entnommenen Stellen als solche kenntlich gemacht habe.

Hamburg, 4th February 2025

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