

Language Growth in Turkish-English Bilingual Children in the United Kingdom

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Abstract

This thesis focuses on understanding the heritage language growth of Turkish – English bilingual children in the UK. The aim was to investigate the effects of Turkish supplementary school and home language linguistic environments on the growth of Turkish and English lexical vocabulary and narrative storytelling skills by 4-8-year-old bilinguals by comparing students who attend Turkish supplementary schools and those who do not. A mixed-methods design was used, aiming to triangulate the data through both quantitative (vocabulary and narrative tasks and questionnaires) and qualitative (interviews) methods of data collection.

The participants of the present study consist of children recruited from Turkish supplementary schools (attendees, $n = 19$) and Turkish communities (non-attendees, $n = 22$) in Doncaster, London, Manchester, Nottingham and York, and their parents ($n = 39$), who took part in two phases of data collection. Twenty-two teachers recruited from Turkish supplementary schools in the UK also participated in the study.

The data were gathered from teachers in several supplementary schools, to examine their specific teaching environment, teaching techniques and teachers' perceptions in relation to heritage children's language and family environment profiles providing background information about the Turkish supplementary schools in the UK.

The results from time 1 (t_1) indicated that children who attend Turkish supplementary schools underperformed in comparison to their non-attendee peers in vocabulary size in the production and comprehension of nouns and verbs and in their narrative skills in Turkish, although their proficiency in English was comparable to their peers.

The cross-sectional design analysis revealed that the lexical knowledge of both groups of children showed significant growth from t_1 to t_2 . However, despite the observed gains, the attendee children continued to lag behind their non-attendee peers in the language knowledge of Turkish. Moreover, attendance status did not make a significant difference in English vocabulary knowledge.

Unexpectedly, the findings showed that the attendee children did not perform as well in Turkish language skills tasks as non-attendee children. This can be explained by data from the family bilingual background questionnaire which showed that the non-attendee children were exposed to and spoke Turkish at home more than the attendee children. Although the attendee children's language skills improved during their attendance at the supplementary school, language practice and input at home seems to have great importance to bilingual language growth, and future studies should take home practices and language use into account.

Table of content

Abstract	ii
Table of content	iii
List of tables.....	x
List of figures.....	xiii
Acknowledgement	xiv
Author's Declaration.....	xvi
Dedication	xvii
Chapter 1 Introduction	18
1.Overview	18
1.1. Background of the Study	18
1.2. Rationale of the Study.....	19
1.3. Significance of the Study	20
1.4. Outline of the Thesis.....	23
Chapter 2 Literature Review	25
2.1. Introduction.....	25
2.2. Supplementary/Heritage Schools.....	28
2.2.1. Turkish Supplementary/Heritage Schools	32

2.3. Language Development and Bilingualism.....	33
2.3.1. Bilingual First Language Acquisition (FLA).....	37
2.3.2. Bilingualism.....	40
2.4. Vocabulary Skills of Bilingual Children.....	42
2.4.1. Heritage Language Growth.....	45
2.4.2. Turkish as a Minority Language in the UK	47
2.5. Issues of Language Practice and Input in Heritage Language Contexts.....	48
2.5.1. Family Language Practice and Use.....	52
2.6. Conclusion	57
Chapter 3 Methodology	58
3.1. Introduction.....	58
3.1.1. Research Questions and Rationale.....	58
3.2. Research Strategy.....	61
3.3. Research Design.....	64
3.3.1. Participants.....	66
3.3.2. Data Collection Instruments	67
3.4. Pilot Study.....	79
3.4.1. Conducting the Pilot Study	79

3.5. Methodological Changes in the Lights of the Pilot Study	81
3.6. Data Analysis	84
3.6.1. Questionnaire	85
3.6.2. Interviews.....	86
3.6.3. Cross-linguistic Lexical Tasks (CLTs)	89
3.6.4. Narrative Storytelling Task.....	89
3.7. Ethical Considerations	93
3.8. Validity and Reliability.....	94
3.8.1. Validity	94
3.8.2. Reliability.....	95
3.9. Conclusion	96
Chapter 4 Analysis of the Turkish Supplementary Schools’ Teachers’ Data.....	97
4.1. Introduction.....	97
4.2. Study Aims and Research Questions for This Chapter.....	98
4.3. Methods.....	98
4.3.1. Participants.....	98
4.3.2. Data Collection Instruments	99
4.3.3. Procedures.....	99

4.3.4. Results of Questionnaire Data	100
4.3.5. Results of Interview Data.....	115
4.3.6. Integrating the Questionnaire and Interview Findings.....	119
4.4. Discussion	122
4.5. Conclusion	125
Chapter 5 Analysis of the Bilingual Children’s Language Skills	126
5.1. Introduction.....	126
5.2. Study Aims and Research Questions in This Chapter	127
5.3. Method	128
5.3.1. Participants.....	128
5.3.2. Materials	129
5.3.3. Procedure	129
5.4. Results.....	131
5.4.1. Production and Comprehension of Vocabulary	131
5.4.2. Narrative Task.....	137
5.4.3. The Relationship Between Narrative and Vocabulary Skills	142
5.4.4. Regression Analysis.....	148
5.5. Discussion	152

5.6. Conclusion	155
Chapter 6 Analysis of the Bilingual Children’s Home Literacy Environment.....	157
6.1. Introduction.....	157
6.2. Study Aims and Research Questions for This Chapter.....	158
6.3. Method	159
6.3.1. Participants.....	159
6.3.2. Instruments.....	160
6.3.3. Procedure	160
6.4. Results.....	161
6.4.1. Descriptive Analysis	161
6.4.2. The Relationship Between Home Literacy Environment and Child Language Skills	174
6.5. Discussion.....	181
6.6. Conclusion	184
Chapter 7 Discussion and Conclusion	186
7.1. Introduction.....	186
7.2. Summary of Key Findings	187
7.2.1. Turkish Supplementary School Practice and Input on Bilingual Children..	187

7.2.2. Lexical and Narrative Knowledge of Bilingual Children	190
7.2.3. Family Language Practice, Use and Input in Bilingual Children’s Language Growth	196
7.3. Strengths and Limitations	200
7.4. Contribution to the Knowledge.....	203
7.5. Implications of Key Findings.....	205
7.5.1. Implications for Practice	205
7.5.2. Implications for Schools	207
7.5.3. Implications for Teachers	207
7.5.4. Implications for the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) in Turkey....	207
7.5.5. Recommendations for Further Research.....	208
7.6. Final Conclusion	209
Appendices.....	211
Appendix 1 Parental, School and teacher Consent Forms and Information sheets	211
Appendix 2 English and Turkish version of CLT and its score sheet	224
Appendix 3 Full script of Frog Story	264
Appendix 4 Parental Questionnaire (BLBEQ) in English and Turkish version	268
Appendix 5 Teacher Questionnaire in English and Turkish version	296

Appendix 6 Teacher Interview questions in English and Turkish version	314
Appendix 7 An example of thematic analysis of Interview transcription	316
Appendix 8 Teacher Interview transcriptions in Turkish	317
Appendix 9 Analysis of Frogs Turkish transcriptions of Ayhan Aksu-Koc, and Aarssen and Bos (CHILDES – TALKBANK).....	334
References.....	337

List of tables

Table 2.1. Structural and pragmatic development in 6- to 8-year-old children.....	37
Table 2.2. Milestones in BLFA children's early language development (De Houwer, 2009, p.37)	39
Table 3.1. Research questions matched to data collection tools.....	68
Table 3.2. The pilot study timetable	81
Table 3.3. The main data collection procedure.....	84
Table 3.4. Phases of thematic analysis(Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.87)	87
Table 3.5. Story Grammar proportion and corresponding definitions.....	92
Table 4.1. Age of the participants	101
Table 4.2. Statement related to a teaching environment.....	105
Table 4.3. Statements related to teaching technique.....	106
Table 4.4. Statements related to teachers' perceptions.....	107
Table 4.5. Teaching Environment-item correlation.....	109
Table 4.6. Teaching Technique-item correlation.....	111
Table 4.7. Teachers' teaching environment and technique by demographic characteristics .	112
Table 4.8. Teachers' perception by demographic characteristics.....	113
Table 4.9. Integrating questionnaire (factors) and interview (themes) findings.....	121

Table 5.1. Results of the descriptive analysis of Turkish vocabulary.....	133
Table 5.2. Results of the descriptive analysis of English vocabulary.....	135
Table 5.3. The performance of bilingual children on measures of productivity, sentence organisation, and story grammar by groups and languages.....	138
Table 5.4. Frequency of story grammar categories by children.....	141
Table 5.5. Cross-language correlation (Spearman's rho) of narrative skills.....	143
Table 5.6. The correlation (Spearman's rho) between CLT scores at time 1 and Turkish narrative skills.....	144
Table 5.7. The correlation (Spearman's rho) between CLT scores at time 2 and English narrative skills.....	145
Table 5.8. Correlations (Spearman's rho) of cross-language and within language at time1..	146
Table 5.9. Correlations (Spearman's rho) of cross-language and within language at time2..	147
Table 5.10. Comprehension and production of verb and noun, and story-telling skills in Turkish.....	149
Table 5.11. Comprehension and production of verb and noun, and story-telling skills in English.....	151
Table 6.1. Academic qualification of parents	162
Table 6.2. Occupation of the parents	163
Table 6.3. Frequency of speaking Turkish.....	166

Table 6.4. Child language input and practice	169
Table 6.5. Language preferences with mother, father, siblings and friends	170
Table 6.6. Correlation between demographic data and language skills.....	175
Table 6.7. Correlation between child language input and language skills.....	178
Table 6.8. Correlation between parents' perception of child language skills and language skills	180

List of figures

Figure 3.1. Cross-sectional research design.....	65
Figure 6.1. Family nationality by group (attendee vs non-attendee).....	162
Figure 6.2. Number of children and birth order by group (attendee vs non-attendee).....	164
Figure 6.3. Proficiency of speaking Turkish of parents by group (attendee vs non-attendee).....	165
Figure 6.4. Proficiency of speaking English of parents by group (attendee vs non-attendee).....	165
Figure 6.5. Language preferences to speak with spouse by group (attendee vs non-attendee).....	167
Figure 6.6. Language preferences to speak with child by group (attendee vs non-attendee).....	167
Figure 6.7. Importance of maintaining Turkish.....	171
Figure 6.8. Encourage to speak in Turkish by group (attendee vs non-attendee).....	172
Figure 6.9. Encourage to write in Turkish by group (attendee vs non-attendee).....	172
Figure 6.10. Child Language Proficiency by group (attendee vs non-attendee).....	173

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Author's Declaration

I declare that this thesis is a presentation of original work and I am the sole author. This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, University. All sources are acknowledged as References. Selected aspects of the work have been presented elsewhere:

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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my mother and father for their unconditional love, support, and prayers.

Bu tezi, koşulsuz sevgileri, destekleri ve duaları için anneme ve babama ithaf ediyorum.

Chapter 1 Introduction

1. Overview

This introductory chapter presents the background, purpose, rationale and significance of the study, and ends with an outline of the thesis.

1.1. Background of the Study

One of the most important elements of human development is the acquisition of language. Language acquisition generally refers to first language (L1) acquisition, which investigates the acquisition by babies of their native language, which according to Chomsky (Crain, 2015; Durkin, 1986; Rogers, 1975) is an inborn capacity.

This study focuses on understanding if and how the heritage language development of Turkish bilingual children is supported in the UK. Many children grow up in bilingual or multilingual contexts (Hoff, 2015) and all (normally developing) children in the world have the potential to acquire the language(s) of their community and the social environment in which they have immersed plays a huge role (Cummins, 2001). For example, a child growing up in England who has another heritage background, may learn and speak both English and their family language to various extents. Early childhood language development is affected by social interaction, thus, it can be said that communication in the target language is crucial in the process of acquisition (Cummins, 2001). This research aims to investigate the effects of Turkish supplementary school and linguistic environments at home on the growth of Turkish and English lexical vocabulary and narrative storytelling skills by 4-8-year-old bilinguals by comparing those who do and those who do not attend Turkish supplementary schools. Input is crucial in determining the extent to which a bilingual child's two languages are acquired (De Houwer, 2011; Hoff et al., 2014). So, this study

also investigates the children's home linguistic environment and Turkish supplementary schools in order to better understand in what ways the language growth in bilingual children may be affected.

1.2. Rationale of the Study

Language is the link between the social and cognitive worlds and stands at the centre of social life. Most children grow up being exposed to more than one language and three-quarters of all children in the world are exposed to two languages from birth, many of whom become bilingual (De Houwer, 2007).

The interest in the study of the language development of bilingual children has increased in the last decade. This is associated with two major factors; first, the current need to distinguish between monolingualism from bilingualism. That is to understand who is called monolingual or bilingual. The second factor is the growing interest in cross-linguistic studies of language development (De Houwer, 2017; Hoff, 2015). The research on heritage language has become a line of scientific inquiry in the globalised world and its importance has gradually been recognised for theoretical linguistic and sociolinguistic work on the development of minority languages (Bayram & Wright, 2018). According to He (2011) and Rothman (2009), a heritage language is one that is spoken only at home or minority environment for communication with family members or among minority communities.

The global era has increased new educational responses to social diversity and change in communities (Mulvey, 2016). Heritage language schools have been in England since the mid-19th century and their number has increased since the 1950s (Minty et al., 2008). Heritage language schools have attracted the attention of researchers in the UK, the USA, Australia and Canada since the late 1990s (Mulvey, 2016). In the literature, supplementary schools in England are also referred

to as community language schools, complementary schools or heritage language schools (Baker & Sienkewicz, 2000; Mulvey, 2016; Strand, 2007).

Supplementary schooling means extra schooling organisation applied by and for particular ethnic or minority groups apart from mainstream schooling (Strand, 2007). Although these schools are run mainly on Saturdays and are often called Saturday schools, they can also be organised on Sundays or weekdays before or after mainstream school (Baker & Sienkewicz, 2000; Mulvey, 2016; Strand, 2007). A supplementary school is therefore defined as education run outside the mainstream school curriculum, and it usually provides knowledge of the religion, culture or heritage language of the ethnic group (Strand, 2007).

1.3. Significance of the Study

For families with bilingual children who grow up in a country where the majority language is different from their heritage language, it is important that both languages their children speak are supported. This allows the child to learn and understand the majority language of the society as well as to develop communicative skills in the heritage language. The role of the heritage language here is crucial as it is what enables the children to communicate with relatives and learn their cultures and values. Families often think that a heritage language education might protect their children's ethnic identity for the second or next generation.

I was teaching Turkish-English bilingual children as a volunteer at the supplementary school run by the Nottingham Centre of Turkish Language and Culture which is set for teaching Turkish language and culture to bilingual children. Before this, I was a preschool teacher in Turkey. From these experiences, I developed an interest in child development, especially the process of language acquisition in bilinguals and the potential effectiveness of supplementary schools. Little is known about Turkish heritage language development and the effect of supporting schools on Turkish-

English bilingual children's language development at preschool level although there is a lot of literature on Turkish and other European languages (e.g., -German, -Dutch and -Swedish etc.). This is because Turkish is typologically different from the Indo-European languages (Bayram, 2020). Turkish is an SOV (Subject+Object+Verb) language and a highly inflected, agglutinative language where each morpheme expresses a single grammatical function (Bayram, 2020). The fact that there is so little research on Turkish as a heritage language in the UK and that Turkish belongs to a different language family reveals the necessity of this study. Moreover, its typological difference from English makes this group of heritage speakers very interesting, while very few studies have focused on language use of Turkish parents in the UK and how Turkish supplementary schools are structured in the UK. However, the objectives of the Turkish authorities who sponsor supplementary schools, the perspectives of the teachers and actual practices in the schools, as well as parental expectations may not always align (Çavuşoğlu, 2014). Çavuşoğlu (2014) points out that even if parents send their children to a supplementary school, they may not get involved in school activities or follow up on children's learning at home. She also claims that teachers often do not have enough practical knowledge or educational experience with the UK education system which may also cause problems in relation to the aims and practices of the supplementary schools. For example, in official documents, a school functions as a place where parents are educated about educational opportunities and the system, and what is available in terms of assistance at the school. Therefore, the current study aims to make a contribution to the existing body of knowledge on language practice and use in bilingual children who are sent to supplementary schools by further investigating the language practice of children in Turkish supplementary schools and at home.

There are approximately six million people with a Turkish background estimated to reside in Europe, as ethnic minorities (Bayram, 2020). Of those, there are about three million Turkish immigrants in Germany; one million in France, 500,000 in Austria; 500,000 in the Netherlands; and 300,000 in the UK (De Bel-Air, 2016). There are almost 200,000 Turkish speakers in the

London area, from a range of ethnic backgrounds including Western European Turks, British Cypriots, Turkish Kurds and mainland Turks (Backus, 2013; Issa, 2004). It is significant to study bilingual children because it provides a better knowledge of how children acquire two languages successfully and helps them to speak the languages that is culturally transmitted to them within their environment (De Houwer, 2017). So, as one of the most widely spoken minority language around Europe and the UK, it is important to study Turkish bilingualism in England. Many studies in the field of bilingualism have examined language development in bilinguals in comparison to their monolingual peers. Among these, very few have explicitly compared the linguistic development of a bilingual in the two languages they speak. This study focuses on the impact of different aspects of vocabulary acquisition between two bilingual groups; those who attend a Turkish supplementary school and those who do not. The effects of supplementary schooling on vocabulary growth are examined over a period of time via a pre- and post-test.

This study investigates the following three research questions:

Research question 1. What does the Turkish supplementary school system look like in the UK?

- a. Do teachers' teaching environment (TE), techniques (TT) and perceptions (TP) on Turkish language learning vary according to demographic variables such as gender, education, training, general teaching experience, and teaching experience at a Turkish supplementary school?
- b. How do the teachers in supplementary schools apply the teaching in a classroom?
- c. What are the perceptions of teachers in Turkish supplementary schools in the UK?

Research Question 2. Which variables can explain performance on CLTs and narrative tasks in English and Turkish of 4-8-year-old bilingual Turkish-English children?

- a. Do the Turkish and English language skills of the bilingual children differ depending on Turkish supplementary school attendance status, age, SES and parental language strategies?
- b. How do the vocabulary, narrative production and narrative quality skills in Turkish and English in Turkish-English bilingual children change?
- c. How are vocabulary and narrative productivity skills related to each other within and across languages?
- d. Are there differences between monolingual and bilingual children?

Research Question 3. Do parental perspectives affect the child's bilingual language learning?

- a. What are the family characteristics of attendees and non-attendee children?
- b. What are those children's language input and practices within their home settings in Turkish and English?
- c. What is the relationship between bilingual children's performance in language skills and their home literacy environment?

1.4. Outline of the Thesis

This thesis consists of seven chapters: The first chapter presented the overview and background, rationale, significance, purpose and aim of the study, and outlined the research questions of the study.

Chapter two presents the literature review pertinent to this research and is divided into four distinct subsections. The first section provides an explanation of language development, exploring what is meant by bilingualism. The second section addresses in detail language and vocabulary acquisition, comprehension and production of verbs and nouns and narrative storytelling in particular. The third section discusses the issue of language practice and input in children's language growth in the heritage language context. The fourth section reviews the background of supplementary/heritage

schools in general and in the UK and finally provides information about Turkish supplementary schools in the UK.

Chapter three presents the methodology used to guide the design and application of data collection, analysis and presentation adopted for the present study. Three aspects of the studies conducted for this thesis: The chapter first provides an overview of the aim of each of the three levels of data collection, (supplementary schools, children, and families) and the main research questions addressed in these three aspects. The second section of this chapter justifies the combination of quantitative (vocabulary tasks, narrative task and questionnaires) and qualitative (interviews) research methods adopted and present the rationale for employing multiple data collection approaches in this research. Next, the overall design for the pilot study is outlined and the findings of the pilot study to clarify the methodology for the main study are presented. The next sections set out the general data analysis procedures, ethical considerations and the validity and reliability of the instruments employed.

Chapters four to six includes presentation of the results of the study with a brief discussion of the findings. In accordance with the research questions, the chapters present the data in the levels: i) Turkish supplementary schools and teachers, ii) bilingual children's language skills (vocabulary knowledge and narrative skills), and iii) bilingual home literacy environment.

Chapter seven collates the research findings in a critical discussion, drawing on relevant theoretical perspectives and previous research evidence. The strengths and limitations of the research are considered, and the chapter concludes with a summary of the main findings, a presentation of the educational implications, and a proposal of possible avenues for further research.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

Language is the critical link between the social and cognitive worlds. The majority of children in the world grow up being exposed to more than one language (Hoff, 2015) and three-quarters of children are fluent enough to be classed as bilingual (De Houwer, 2007). However, the fact that being merely exposed to more than one language does not necessarily entail that children will become bilingual (De Houwer, 2007) perhaps causes more questions about bilingualism than its answers. Bilingualism is a complex concept with no single definition. For example, according to Bloomfield (1933), bilingualism is the acquisition of native-like proficiency in two languages while Grosjean (1989) states that it is enough to communicate effectively in each language to make one a bilingual speaker. Many researchers differentiate between simultaneous and sequential bilingualism (De Houwer, 2007). That is, children who are exposed to two languages from birth are considered simultaneous bilinguals and those who first acquire their mother tongue and then are exposed to a second language at a later point in time in childhood are defined as sequential (Grosjean, 2001). Therefore, it can be seen that language type, the time and amount of input and use of the two languages are crucial for defining bilingualism. It can be also said that choosing when to speak which language for a bilingual child depends on a number of factors. According to Wei (2000), these include whom the child is speaking to (e.g., family members, friends, neighbours etc.), the specific social setting (e.g., home, school, neighbourhood area etc.) and the topic of the speech (e.g., family, house chores, games, etc.). Thus, learning and speaking a language depends on a number of complex and interacting factors. Nowadays, the predictors of language acquisition in bilingual children are largely acknowledged in many educational fields, and a considerable body of research confirms that language environment and language input greatly impacts the learning of a bilingual child's two languages (De Houwer, 2011; Hoff, 2006). In almost all studies on bilingual

acquisition, how environmental language input impacts language development focuses on the comparison between bilingual and monolingual children (e.g., Bohnacker, Lindgren & Öztekin, 2016; Fiestas & Peña, 2004; Haman et al., 2017). In contrast, the current study compares two groups of bilingual children, between four and eight years old, to investigate the role that attending supplementary schools plays in heritage language development. This chapter lays out the theoretical underpinnings of the current study by reviewing the relevant literature surrounding three major topics of the study, namely bilingual language acquisition; family language input, practice and use; and supplementary heritage language schools.

Many children grow up with a minority language which is spoken at home that is different from the majority language spoken by the citizens of the country in which they live (Dijkstra, Kuiken, Jorna & Klinkenberg, 2016). This study focuses on the effects of Turkish supplementary school and home language linguistic environments on the growth of Turkish and English lexical vocabulary and narrative storytelling skills by 4-8-year-old bilinguals comparing those who do and those who do not attend Turkish supplementary schools. While reviewing the literature on bilingualism, a number of research gaps emerge. For instance, larger-scale studies on children in immigrant families tend to document children's linguistic abilities in the majority language, and not on the children's language development in both majority and minority languages (Hoff, 2015). There is a sizeable literature about language acquisition in Turkish bilingual children and other European languages (German, Dutch and Swedish for example) (Lytra & Jørgensen, 2008; Vanbuel et al., 2018) or among other European languages (e.g., Polish and Spanish) (De Houwer, 2007, 2011; Mieszkowska et al., 2017). Moreover, a few studies also focused on Turkish supplementary schools in the UK (Creese, Lytra, Barac & Yağcıoğlu-Ali, 2007) although they dealt with the cultural or multilingualism aspects of the schools. One of the differences that underlines the significance of the present study is that the previous studies mentioned above focussed on the supplementary school learning environment and teachers' teaching techniques. In the current study,

in addition to the supplementary school learning environment, children's language growth was followed up cross-sectionally and background information was gathered about family language environment to compare all the three aspects to fill the gap in the literature. The study of heritage language learning in supplementary schools is important since heritage language speaking children may lack opportunities to be exposed to the minority language in the dominant community or at home and supplementary schools provide additional minority language input. For example, parents may send their children to a Turkish supplementary school in preparation for GCSE or A-level exams in Turkish (Lytra, 2012). DfES (2007) and Ofsted (2008) have reported that students who attend Turkish supplementary schools to improve their Turkish achieve high grades in Turkish GCSE (Çavuşoğlu, 2014). On the other hand, it is not only the supplementary school that is important for language learning but any kind of language input (e.g., family, community etc.) is also crucial in all language learning, including bilingual development. Very few studies have focused on the process of language learning, how it develops over time, and what role the supplementary schools and family language use and practices at home may play in this development. In contrast, this study investigates language development and family language input, and leads to the following research questions:

Research question 1. What does the Turkish supplementary school system look like in the UK?

Research Question 2. Which variables can explain performance on CLTs and narrative tasks in English and Turkish of 4-8-year-old bilingual Turkish-English children?

Research Question 3. Do parental perspectives affect the child's bilingual language learning?

In this study, both the family and home environment input to learn Turkish and English is investigated, as well as the effect of supplementary schools on heritage language development.

The first section of this chapter provides an overview of supplementary schools in general and specifically in the UK. The second section discusses language development in children and in particular, learning a heritage language in the UK. The third section discusses bilingualism, heritage language growth and Turkish as a minority heritage language in the UK. This is followed by the relevant literature on vocabulary learning in bilingual children, and the chapter closes with the issue of family language practice, input and use.

2.2. Supplementary/Heritage Schools

For global education, bilingualism has been a crucial issue (Luchtenberg, 2002) as continuous immigration between countries takes place for aims such as work, study and marriage etc. However, heritage bilingual education is a controversial issue. As Baker (2011) states, bilingual education is the teaching of both the heritage (minority) and the majority language. One of the studies built on previous research in this area (teaching a mother tongue to bilingual children living internationally) was carried out by UNESCO in the early 1950s. UNESCO (2003) issued a statement that supported improving the quality of education as a means to improve skills in heritage language education in contexts where the wider society speaks a different language as a majority language. Almost 70 years ago, UNESCO (1953; in Cazden, 1972, p. 167) reported on the use of the mother tongue in education:

We believe that educationists must carry public opinion with them if their policy is to be effective in the long run, since the people of a country must always be in a position to express their free choice in the matter of the language in which their children are to be educated. This requirement entails that the educational authorities (Administrators and Policy Makers) should make every effort to take the people into consultation and win their confidence. The problem will lose many of its elements of conflict if the people are confident that the use of languages in the educational system does not favour any section of the population at the expense of others (Hispanics over African Americans, for example). If people as a whole will not accept the policy of education in the mother tongue, efforts should be exerted to persuade a group to accept it at least for experimental purposes. We believe that when people as a whole have an opportunity of

observing the results of education in the mother tongue, they will be convinced that is a sound policy (UNESCO, 1953; cited in Cazden, 1972, p. 167).

Bilingualism is described as a necessity in order to achieve social equality at all education levels. It was stated that learning a heritage language helps children's linguistic and educational development, developing their linguistic skills in the heritage language, improving communication with relatives who speak the same language, and facilitating effective learning of their cultural background values and identities (Cummins, 2001).

There are few research studies on supplementary/heritage schools in the literature. As outlined in earlier sections, the definition of heritage is the experience of a group of people who deliberately sets out to protect and pass the language and culture to the further generation (Blackledge & Creese, 2010). There might be different perspectives on heritage language learning and teaching and because of these differences, approaches and the various programmes may be affected by schools' teaching and learning strategy choices (Mulvey, 2016).

One of the crucial rationales of heritage language schools is that language is taught as 'cultural heritage', because language teaching is interlaced with the 'culture and language' teaching (Blackledge & Creese, 2010). 'Heritage' includes language ideologies which can be defined as any set of beliefs about languages (Mulvey, 2016) and language ideologies always affect language practices. It is also noted that language practices shape language ideologies (Blackledge & Creese, 2010). In other words, one's beliefs about their own as well as others' languages affect their language practice and vice versa (Mulvey, 2016).

Heritage language schools are also called community language schools, complementary schools or supplementary schools in England (Baker & Sienkewicz, 2000; Mulvey, 2016; Strand, 2007). However, Martin et al. (2006) prefer to use 'complementary' to define these schools rather than

‘supplementary’. According to them, these schools are not a ‘supplement’ to add something on, they are for ‘completing’ on heritage’s purpose.

Supplementary schooling means extra schooling applied by and for particular ethnic or minority groups on top of mainstream schooling (Strand, 2007). Many of these schools open mainly on Saturdays, therefore, have been called Saturday schools, but others are organised on Sundays or weekdays before or after mainstream school (Baker & Sienkewicz, 2000; Mulvey, 2016; Strand, 2007). The supplementary school is described as education run outside the mainstream school curriculum, which usually aims to provide knowledge of the religion, culture or heritage language of the ethnic group (Strand, 2007).

Most supplementary schools are run in community centres, places of worship, youth clubs and state-maintained schools for three or four hours a week (Strand, 2007). These schools are non-profit organisations usually run as charities and rely on enthusiastic and dedicated volunteers, (Strand, 2007). They have a different curriculum to that which is taught in mainstream schools. It is not known how many supplementary schools exist in the UK, as there is no official record (Strand, 2007). Although supplementary schools are set and run by different communities, they have similar aims, such as developing and maintaining the minority child’s ethnic identity, self-esteem and self-confidence; improving heritage language; and developing the mainstream schooling achievement of minority ethnic children (Baker & Sienkewicz, 2000; Strand, 2007). National Resource Centre for Supplementary Education (NRCSE) (2019) broadly defined supplementary schools as follows:

‘Supplementary schools (sometimes known as Complementary Schools, Saturday Schools or Mother-tongue Schools) normally operate outside of normal school hours typically at the weekend, evenings or during the school holidays. Supplementary schools are community-inspired education initiatives. Normally these have been set up by communities in response to a perceived need by parents or the community. This can include support for mainstream learning but could also include home language teaching, and cultural and religious instruction. Some supplementary schools may also run other activities such as family-based

learning, sports activities or other activities helpful to the community such as advice on avoiding anti-social behaviour, sexual health etc.’ (NRCSE, 2019, pg. 8).

Heritage language schools have been garnering the attention of researchers in the UK, USA, Australia and Canada since the late 1990s, when most of these schools started to appear (Mulvey, 2016). However, these language schools were set up in England, in the mid-19th century, although they increased since the 1950s with the increase in the population of different communities (Minty et al., 2008). After World War II with the arrival of refugees from Eastern Europe and immigration from Commonwealth countries, heritage schools became more common in the second half of the 19th century (Minty et al., 2008; Pillas, 1992). The number has increased again more recently because of war-caused migrations, refugees and asylum-seekers arriving in the UK (Abdelrazak, 2001; Maylor et al., 2013). According to the NRCSE (2019), there are around 3,000-5,000 such schools in England. The largest number of heritage schools in the UK respectively belong to Jewish, Eastern European, Greek, Albanian, Italian, Turkish, Chinese, South-East Asian, African and African-Caribbean communities.

There are two main reasons for the set-up of supplementary schools in the UK. Firstly, Angela Creese, Bhatt, Bhojani & Martin (2006) state these schools were set up by minority ethnic community members to protect the heritage language and customs, and their cultural/ethnic identities of their country of origin, and/or their faith. This assumption seems valid for Turkish supplementary schools, whose main aim is to maintain Turkish culture and promote heritage language teaching (Issa, 2004). Secondly, supplementary schools were established to support immigrant parents to improve their perspective on the mainstream education system (Hall, Ozerk, Zulfiqar & Tan, 2002; Kenner & Ruby, 2013). For example, immigrant families usually do not have knowledge about the education system in the country they immigrate to at first and supplementary schools give consultation for them to the mainstream education system or give an additional course for the learner to support their languages or modules. Francis, Archer & Mau

(2009) studied six Chinese schools in England, and they interviewed 60 British-Chinese students and parents. They found that 37% of participants attended Chinese supplementary schools because of their parents' decision. Although they began to attend supplementary school by their parents' request, during the period they attended, they were happy to take supplementary schools. Parents want their children to learn their heritage culture, language and identities by attending these kinds of supplementary/heritage schools.

2.2.1. Turkish Supplementary/Heritage Schools

Turkish supplementary schools have been set up with the aim of teaching the Turkish language and culture to children who are growing up in the UK (Creese et al., 2006; Issa, 2005; Lytra, 2012; Lytra et al., 2008). The first Turkish supplementary schools started to emerge in the early 1980s (Lytra and Baraç, 2008). There are currently 37 Turkish Supplementary Schools in the UK affiliated with the Ministry of Education in Turkey and the Turkish Education Consultancy in London. Moreover, teachers in these schools are appointed by the Ministry of Education in Turkey. The eligibility criteria include experience of teaching for at least five years in Turkey and to pass an English language proficiency exam to be able to undertake this job. These schools mainly focus on the Turkish language and culture as well as Turkish traditional music, folk dancing, etc. In addition, to these, where requested by families, they may provide some GCSE and A-level preparation classes such as maths, literature, and history in Turkish. The mission is to maintain and improve the heritage language and culture of children who come from immigrant backgrounds (Issa, 2005; Otcu, 2010). For example, the schools celebrate all Turkish national and religious festivals, as well as other days celebrated in Turkey as a cultural event. Even if these celebrations are explained in English, they are presented in relation to the heritage language and culture (Issa, 2005). For instance, while defining a festival of *Eid* or *Bayram*, it is explained in Turkish. One of the traditional practices that take place particularly frequently during the Eid is kissing the hand of

older people to show respect to them. It makes children explore the culture and potentially transfer it to their own experiences. The teachers' role in this is to explain the background of the traditional practices and beliefs in both languages and help learners understand and gain this awareness at the supplementary schools.

The curricula and teaching materials used in all Turkish supplementary schools are provided by the Ministry of Education in Turkey. However, enactment of the curriculum and use of the materials depend on teachers' methods although are mainly based on the curriculum. There are two classroom language ideologies in Turkish supplementary schools as 'separate bilingualism' and 'flexible bilingualism' (Creese et al., 2007; Lytra et al., 2008). 'Separate bilingualism' is where the English language is not used at all in the classroom. However, some teachers use the 'flexible bilingualism' ideology and use both languages. Flexible bilingualism enables teachers and students to feel free to communicate and organise classroom materials and offer teachers flexibility to design the class according to students' language levels.

These features (e.g., teaching strategies, curriculum, materials etc.) of the supplementary schools cover a range of important factors that may generally affect the children's linguistic performance and language knowledge. As the current study explores the role Turkish supplementary schools play in Turkish (heritage) language growth of 4-8-year-old bilingual Turkish-English children, the teaching environment in supplementary schools, teachers and their teaching strategies and perceptions will be explored.

2.3. Language Development and Bilingualism

Bilingualism is a complex concept, and the term has been applied and defined in different ways in the literature. A great deal of previous research into bilingual language acquisition has focused on answering a range of questions including empirical questions and theoretical questions, or

questions that address both theoretical and empirical issues. Studies with empirical questions tend to aim to answer questions such as; ‘does a bilingual baby’s language growth follow the same chronological order as their monolingual peers?’ (Oller, Eilers, Urbano & Cobo-Lewis, 1997). On the other hand, theoretical questions include questions such as whether linguistic and cognitive knowledge development in one language contribute to the development in another language (Cummins, 1981). The third type of studies aim to answer research questions such as whether being a bilingual confers cognitive advantages compared to monolinguals (Bialystok, 1999). Although many questions remain neglected, it seems clear from previous research that language input (the bilingual context) and how proficient or dominant a child is in each of their languages are significant. In other words, although humans are adapted to acquiring more than one language, not every child who is exposed to two or more languages will necessarily become bilingual, and the extent to which children develop proficiency in each of their languages will depend on the type and amount of exposure to each (De Houwer, 2007). Thus, the concept of bilingualism is complex, and this will be discussed further in the following sections.

Before discussing the concept of bilingualism in more detail, it is important to first have an overview of language development in general. There have been several attempts at trying to understand and explain how language is acquired. Nativists such as Chomsky (1980) argue that children are born with innate capacity to acquire linguistic knowledge and that humans have an inborn ability to acquire language (the ‘Language Acquisition Device’, LAD) which allows them to acquire language rapidly and in the face of what is argued to be impoverished input and without explicit instruction (Chomsky, 1980; Durkin, 1986; Rogers, 1975). Nativists focus mostly on the acquisition of grammar and phonology and assume that much of the acquisition is completed by around 4-5 years old (Durkin, 1986). Under this account, language acquisition is a biologically-driven process and therefore it is argued to be subject to a ‘critical period’, like other maturational processes (Poulin-Dubois & Goodz, 2001; c.f., Lennenberg, 1969). According to this view, after

this period, language acquisition is more difficult (Zhao & Morgan, 2004). There is much debate on this topic, but it can be said that there is no certain age or cut-off point for the end of the critical period (Byers-Heinlein & Lew-Williams, 2013) and research in this area focuses on understanding the interaction between environmental and biological factors (Byers-Heinlein & Lew-Williams, 2013).

Researchers working within other theoretical frameworks (e.g., Tomasello, 1990) assume language acquisition involves not only acquiring the surface structure of linguistic utterances but also semantics and pragmatics of the language. Therefore, it is concluded that language development continues throughout life with learners adding new lexical items and pragmatic aspects of language. Nativists do not emphasise the role of the input for language acquisition (it is a ‘trigger’), whereas constructivists or emergentists see the language input as central to the acquisition process (e.g., Kidd, Lieven & Tomasello, 2010; Tomasello, 1990). For bilingual acquisition, and for the current thesis, this latter approach (a focus on input) is taken. One of the reasons that bilingualism is a complex concept is that the input of bilingual children differs vastly from child to child and may change for one child over their lifetime. For instance, in the UK, some children learn and speak the majority language (English) as the first language (L1), and then they may additionally learn their heritage language as a second language (L2). In this latter scenario, they first learn heritage language as a minority language that exposed at home, and when they start going to school, children are exposed to English as the official and therefore majority language. This will, however, surely depend on the individual circumstances of each child’s family. This will be discussed in greater detail below in section 2.5.1.

Whichever theoretical framework one adopts, research has shown that there seems to be a natural order in language acquisition, like in other developmental areas (Chomsky, 1986; Crain, 2015; Krashen, 2019; McCarthy, 1975). According to this, infants tend to learn certain aspects of

language in a similar order; phonology (the sound system), semantics (purpose and meaning), and syntax (grammatical structure) (Durkin, 1986; Rogers, 1975), respectively. During their first year, children start to ‘babble’ (playing with sounds) (De Houwer, 2009; Rogers, 1975). Most children start to produce meaningful utterances in 12 and 24 months, and by about 21 months they tend to have acquired about 100 words and can use them in one or two-word utterances (Brooks & Kempe, 2012; Hoff et al., 2013). By around 36 months, children tend to make sentences consisting of three or more words (Crain, 2015). Research shows that at the two-word stage, children tend to order words according to the structure of the language to which they are exposed. For instance, if the word order of a language is Subject + Verb + Object (SVO), the child tends to produce words in that order such as SV (e.g., mommy go) or VO (e.g., go home) but not OV (e.g., home go). At initial stages of acquisition, children usually do not produce grammatical morphemes, and when inflectional morphemes appear, they develop in a relatively fixed order as SVO (e.g., mommy goes home). By 30 months, the utterances children use become longer and more complex, and they gradually use morphemes in adult-like contexts (Montrul and Polinsky, 2019). By the time monolingual children start preschool, at age 5 or 6, they produce 4,000 to 6,000 words, with verbs produced with adult-like morphology (Brown, 1973; Carey & Bartlett, 1978). Towards the end of their sixth year, children develop vocabulary, depending on their interests in specific areas of knowledge and their vocabulary size can range from 8,000 to 13,000 words (Montrul & Polinsky, 2019). During this period, semantic and formal relationships between words and morphological relatedness are also acquired. Table 2.1 shows some of the features of later language development (Montrul and Polinsky, 2019, p.8).

Table 2.1. Structural and pragmatic development in 6- to 8-year-old children

(Montrul & Polinsky, 2019, p.8)

Category		Change
Grammar	Syntax	Sentence length increases (e.g., I see the boy who I played with yesterday)
		Combining structures becomes more frequent (through complementation, conjunction, subordination) (e.g., She likes me to do homework before watching television)
Morphology	Lexicon	Prefixing and suffixing increases (e.g., unhappiness, disapprove, discussion)
		Use of abstract categories increases (e.g., liberty, vast, imagination)
		Synonyms and antonyms are used more widely (e.g., large, big, huge, small, little, minute)
		Multisyllabic words appear more frequently (e.g., disappointment, unhappiness)
	Phonology	Stress rules of language acquired (e.g., history, historical, influence, influential) Morpho-phonological rules (e.g., a car, an apple)
Pragmatics	Conversation	Begin to take the perspective of others Begin to make relevant responses
	Storytelling	Begin to be listener-friendly Begin to follow story grammar
	Explanation	Begin to move from personal reference to abstract knowledge

2.3.1. Bilingual First Language Acquisition (FLA)

Theories of language acquisition have focused on the milestones of monolingual children, despite the fact that the majority of the world's population is, in fact, bi- or multilingual, and therefore the human mind is 'primed' to acquire more than one language at a time (Brooks & Kempe, 2012;

Hoff et al., 2013; Montrul & Polinsky, 2019). Children who are exposed to two languages from birth can distinguish one language from another language in the input within the first 12-18 months (De Houwer, 2009; Montrul & Polinsky, 2019). Bilingual infants follow the same stages of acquisition and similar linguistic milestones as monolinguals, although there may be some small delays, particularly with lexical acquisition, since bilingual children are acquiring twice the number of lexical items compared to monolinguals (De Houwer, 2009; Montrul & Polinsky, 2019). By examining 13 English – French bilingual infants, Poulin-Dubois & Goodz (2001) concluded that there is no difference between French and English bilingual contexts in the babbling stage. However, it was found that monolingual French learners produced more ‘babbling’ than monolingual English learners. It might be reflected in French input. In other words, they perhaps heard more French. On the other hand, another study with 20 Spanish – English bilingual infants at similar ages investigated canonical babbling (production of well-formed syllables) and results indicated similar quantities of canonical babbling and vowel-like sounds for both languages (Oller, Eilers, Urbano & Cobo-Lewis, 1997). That is, Spanish-English bilingual infants performed similarly in both languages while canonical babbling. Another factor that contributes to the complexity of bilingual acquisition is typological distance, which refers to the similarities and differences between two languages of a bilingual. For instance, because not all features are acquired at the same speed for both languages and not all features are applicable in all languages, in Dutch, the acquisition of gender in nouns and definite determiners tend to be acquired quite late by Dutch-speaking bilingual children after age four (Gillis & De Houwer, 2001) or even by six years old (Unsworth & Hulk, 2010), while gender agreement in Spanish is acquired by three years old (Montrul, 2004). It can be highlighted that the complexity of the concept differs with regard to the amount of input for individual kids. The milestones of bilingual first language acquisition (BFLA) is demonstrated in Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2. Milestones in BLFA children's early language development (De Houwer, 2009, p.37)

When? (roughly)	What?
6 to 12 months	Babbling in syllables
By 12 months	Comprehension of many words and phrases in each of the two languages
Soon after 12 months	Production of what sounds like single words in one or two languages
18 to 24 months	Noticeable increase in the number of different words produced
Around 24 months	Production of combinations of two words in one breath
30 to 36 months	Production of short sentences with at least some bound morphemes and/or closed-class grammatical words
Around 42 months	Child is mostly understandable to unfamiliar adults who speak the same language(s)
Around 48 months	Production of complex sentences
54 to 60 months	Ability to tell a short story that hangs together

As mentioned above, bilingual children acquire a number of aspects of their languages at a similar stage and at a similar rate to monolinguals apart from context-based vocabulary acquisition which is distributed between the two languages (Montrul & Polinsky, 2019). Bilingual children who attend mainstream education in the majority language develop more quickly in the majority than in the minority language (Merino, 1983) since language input plays an important role in vocabulary acquisition (Menyuk & Brisk, 2005). At school, children gain metalinguistic awareness and become more aware of the language and its morphological and grammatical forms and structures (Montrul & Polinsky, 2019). They are also exposed to different kinds of discourse and therefore more abstract vocabulary development is required as is the use of more complex semantic, syntactic and pragmatic structures.

2.3.2. Bilingualism

In the previous section, a brief overview of bilingual first language acquisition was provided, however, as noted above, the concept of bilingualism is highly complex. There is no exact definition of bilingualism, and it often depends on what researchers' views are on language acquisition. For example, it depends on whether one follows the nativist tradition of focusing on linguistic, and in particular structural elements (Brown, 1973; Chomsky, 1980), or on the social aspects of bilingualism (Pearson, 2007). Haugen's (1953) view is that a bilingual is someone who can use meaningful language whereas Bloomfield (1993) suggests that bilingualism refers to being fully fluent in both languages (Romanie, 1995). One thing that can be agreed upon, however, is that bilingualism is formed of real interactions with both languages (Romanie, 1995). Recently, many researchers define bilinguals as people who have high linguistic proficiency in both languages and can use them in their everyday lives (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2014). Accordingly, a person who has two languages and uses them fluently, s/he is called bilingual irrespective of whether they acquired them simultaneously or sequentially.

Bilingualism is dynamic and complex (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2014). According to Baker (2011), bilingualism is divided into two types; simultaneous and sequential. Simultaneous bilingualism involves the child acquiring two languages from birth or very shortly after (Hoff, 2015). However, it is highly unusual for a child to have exactly the same type and quantity of input in both languages such as when the children are exposed to their two languages in similar quantities during both informal and formal contexts (Allman, 2005; Byers-Heinlein & Lew-Williams, 2013). This is relevant to the current study which focuses on the majority (English) and heritage/minority language acquisition (Turkish). Sequential bilingualism (where one language is acquired after another) is the more common bilingual situation and with regard to education, the effectiveness of the use of both languages is argued to be based on first language development (Cummins, 2001).

As outlined above, the definition of bilingualism is not clear cut and heavily depends on when (and to what extent) language acquisition begins for each of the bilingual's two languages. Given the critical period hypothesis, the earlier a child is exposed to a language the better acquisition occurs (Byers-Heinlein & Lew-Williams, 2013; Zhao & Morgan, 2004), although the optimal age to start to learn a second language has been a much-argued issue. As noted above, simultaneous bilingualism is the acquisition of two languages from birth (with roughly equal amounts) (BFLA) and early second language acquisition (ESLA). However, it cannot be generalised to all children who hear two languages, they may understand two languages, but they can speak only one. De Houwer (2009) states that although BFLA children actively speak two languages, they may not acquire both languages to the same level of proficiency. That is, one of the languages is more dominant and this will depend on a number of factors including the amount and type of input. Sequential bilingualism, where the second language is acquired later in childhood is defined as Early Second Language Acquisition (ESLA) (De Houwer, 2009). Proficiency levels will be determined by a number of interacting factors including the social environment (Byers-Heinlein & Lew-Williams, 2013; D. Martin, 1999; Li Wei, 2000; Zhao & Morgan, 2004). Butler (2013) summarizes the complexities of the concept of bilingualism as follows:

‘...the relationship between language proficiencies in two languages (balanced and dominant bilinguals); the functional ability (receptive and productive bilinguals); the age of acquisition (simultaneous, sequential and late bilinguals); the organisation of linguistic codes and meaning units (compound, coordinate and subordinate bilinguals); language status and learning environments (elite/elective and folk/circumstantial bilinguals); the effect of L2 learning on the retention of L1 (additive and subtractive bilinguals); cultural identity (L1 monocultural, L2 acculture and uncultured bilinguals) and so forth.’ (Butler, 2013, p. 112).

The extent to which a bilingual will acquire each language, therefore, depends on the content, purpose, psychological conditions, and social settings (formal or informal environment) to name a few factors (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2014). The social complexity of the concept of bilingualism is clearly evident when one looks at majority and minority or heritage languages. For instance, a child

may use the majority language with friends and/or in the classroom, however, the same child might alternate between two languages when he speaks with his brother who is also bilingual. The exact social relationship between the two languages in society also impacts bilingualism. For instance, the minority language may have less prestige than the majority language and thus may not be supported at home to the same extent. Therefore, context and environment can shape language use and fluency in the two languages. These issues will be explored in the sections on heritage language use below.

This thesis takes the viewpoint that bilingual language growth is context-bound and hence when carrying out empirical research it is important to determine the context in which the minority language as the children's heritage language is taking place. In doing so, possible trends in contexts that allow for a more refined understanding of bilingual language growth may emerge. Before we turn to discussions on heritage languages, and the Turkish case in particular, a brief overview of bilingual lexical acquisition is presented since this is a major focus of the current research.

2.4. Vocabulary Skills of Bilingual Children

A great deal of previous research into bi- and multilingual development has focused on structural-grammatical aspects and general language development. In recent years, there has been an increasing amount of literature on vocabulary development and growth in bilingual children (e.g., Bohnacker, Lindgren & Öztekin, 2016; Haman et al., 2017; Hoff et al., 2014). There is a concern about the acquisition of the lexicons of children growing up in a bilingual environment because lexical acquisition is one area of language that has been found to be delayed in contrast to monolingual acquisition. Early gaps in bilingual lexical development can be observed between receptive and productive vocabularies of the child's two languages (Hoff, 2015). Receptive vocabulary knowledge refers to spoken or written words that a listener recognises, while productive vocabulary refers to spoken or written words that a learner is able to produce. Learners usually

understand more words than they are able to use and often perform more strongly in receptive than productive vocabulary. This may be explained by the fact that productive vocabulary requires speakers to go through additional processes of articulation at the same time, for example, efficient word finding and phonological processing (Ouellette, 2006). The later acquisition of contextual clues or their similarity to other words can be explained by the fact that receptive vocabulary can be used to make unfamiliar words understandable (Wagner, Muse & Tannenbaum, 2007). Almost every work on bilingual vocabulary development includes a section relating to a comparison between comprehension and production skills. A bilingual's two languages are active to some extent all the time, however, children's performance differs for a particular language. That is, they may actively speak two languages but not perform equally well (De Houwer, 2009). A possible reason for this may be that bilingual children usually are not exposed to each language equally. So, language input in two languages is necessary for acquisition of both although children do not necessarily speak both languages with the same level of proficiency.

Research investigating the lexical development of bilingual children usually compares their performance to that of their monolingual peers while much fewer studies focus on their lexical growth in both languages. Hoff et al. (2014) reported a study on Spanish-English simultaneous bilingual children at 48 months from bilingual homes (with one [$n = 15$] and two [$n = 11$] native Spanish speaker parents) comparing their vocabulary growth with that of English monolingual children ($n = 31$). The comparison of English vocabulary growth of bilingual children who have two Spanish speaker parents with English monolingual children, showed that the bilingual children underperformed. However, bilingual children who have one Spanish speaker parent scored relatively closer to their English monolingual peers. Clearly, the use of English at home will have a positive effect on English vocabulary growth (Hoff et al., 2014). It can be said that several experimental studies have focused on a comparison of vocabulary acquisition between bilingual children and their monolingual peers. Across the previous studies on bilingual language

development, there is consistent evidence that lexical vocabulary acquisition in bilingual children is influenced by not only language exposure but also language practice and input in their daily lives and especially in the home language literacy environment. Although there is a sizeable literature on the comparison of language growth between bilingual and monolingual children (e.g., Bohnacker, Lindgren & Oztekin, 2016; Fiestas & Peña, 2004; Haman; Luniewska; & Pomiechowska, 2015; Haman et al., 2017; Leseman, 2000), and the effect of language exposure and input on vocabulary growth in bilingual children (De Houwer, 2007, 2009, 2011), there is a lack of research on the comparison between vocabulary growth and narrative knowledge of different types of bilingual children. There has also not been a large amount of research on the relationship between the development of the comprehension and production of verbs and nouns in heritage/minority and majority language, taking into account language exposure at home and school. The present study aims to contribute to the existing body of knowledge by addressing this gap.

A small-scale longitudinal study of productive and receptive vocabulary development in Turkish and Dutch in bilingual and Dutch monolingual children in the Netherlands by Leseman (2000) reported that the developmental pattern of Turkish children's comprehension and productive knowledge of Dutch was lower than Dutch monolingual children. However, all the children's comprehension skills were greater than their productive skills. Similarly, Hoff et al. (2014) found that when vocabulary knowledge in Spanish-English bilingual and English monolingual children's majority language was considered longitudinally, monolingual children outperformed the bilinguals. There are also, studies that have found no difference when comparing bilingual and monolingual children's language development. For example, De Houwer, Bornstein & Putnick (2014) investigated comprehension and production vocabulary size in 31 firstborn Dutch-French bilingual and 30 Dutch monolingual children; and Smithson, Paradis & Nicolas (2014) focused on acquisition of receptive vocabulary among French-English bilinguals in Canada and both studies

resulted in the same conclusion. This discrepancy in results may be explained by the great differences in language input that the bilingual children in these studies were exposed to. If vocabulary development in bilingual children mainly compares vocabulary size and use in bilingual and monolingual children, it is usually the case that only one language is investigated. It is therefore unsurprising that bilinguals underperform in receptive and productive vocabulary scores compared to their monolingual peers (Bohnacker, Lindgren & Oztekin, 2016). These studies clearly indicate that the differences in the quality and quantity of language exposure have an effect on vocabulary scores in bilingual and monolingual children. Since bilingual children are exposed to two languages at home language to varying degrees, the quality and quantity of language exposure are usually less than the language exposure of monolingual children. This idea led to comparing the two languages of bilinguals by considering language exposure differences in bilingual and monolingual children. This study will provide a clearer picture of what role the language exposure (by Turkish supplementary school and family language literacy environment) plays in Turkish and English language growth of 4-8-year-old bilingual Turkish-English children and comparison of language skills (vocabulary and narrative knowledge) within and across the languages. Having introduced research into bilingualism and vocabulary skills, the next section will explore the heritage language and heritage language growth.

2.4.1. Heritage Language Growth

A heritage language is defined in many different ways. Kramsch (2017) states that a language is learnt by members of an ethnic or minority group to connect with their families' culture and is often used at home or inherited from home (He, 2011; Rothman, 2009). It might offer familial, personal and cultural resources (He, 2011). Research on heritage languages has recently become a topic of interest. Chinen & Tucker (2005) define a heritage language as follows:

The term heritage language' denotes a language other than [the majority language] that is associated with an individual's ethnic or cultural background and a 'heritage speaker' is someone who speaks or understands a language (other than [the majority]) that was spoken at home (Chinen & Tucker, 2005, p.27).

There is, however, no precise agreed definition of a heritage language and a heritage language learner. The term heritage language often refers to a language that is used as an ancestral, immigrant or indigenous language (Cummins, 2005; Fishman & Peyton, 2001; He, 2011) as opposed to a native, official or community language (Park, 2013). However, according to Rothman (2009), unlike the language spoken by the majority, a heritage language is the language that is spoken at home and is understandable to family members. There have been many relevant studies on heritage languages which have generally used synonymously terms such as 'community language', 'native language', 'mother tongue' and 'home language' to denote languages used by immigrants and their children, except for English as a language in Canada, the US and the UK (He, 2011). Nonetheless, Rothman (2009) points out that although all heritage learners are bilinguals, it cannot be said that all bilinguals are heritage learners. Rothman (2009) explains to a heritage learner as follows:

Crucially, what characterises heritage speakers as such is the particular sociolinguistic situation in which they are immersed in two languages: they are exposed to the family language since birth at home, but they also acquire and are educated in the majority language spoken by the community (Rothman, 2009, p.156).

Heritage language speakers are also native speakers, and acquire a home language naturally from an early age, however, they are also exposed to and acquire the majority language which is spoken by the community in which they live at the same time and this language may often slowly become their primary language (e.g., in the UK, Turkish at home and English at school and elsewhere) (Montrul & Polinsky, 2019). Throughout the school-age period, the majority language then will often become the child's dominant language. However, although a heritage language speaker is exposed to the heritage language at home and may acquire some level of qualification in it, they may not necessarily speak it fluently (Rothman, 2009; Valdés, 2001). This is due to the fact that not all bilingual children have the opportunity to use both languages equally (Baker, 2011), as

discussed in earlier sections. Although the level of language proficiency is highlighted, according to Fishman (2001) the family's interests and ethnolinguistic affiliation are important for heritage language learners. Families' interests in language practice at home and the generation of the family in the majority country have an effect on heritage language learners' language proficiency. For example, if a parent is the first generation speaking the majority language, they tend to speak their heritage language at home, which allows the children to be exposed to and practice the minority language. However, if the parents are second or later born generation in the majority country or they have concerns about their children's success in mainstream school, they may be keen to speak the majority language. Nevertheless, heritage language speakers grow up in a home where the spoken language may not be the majority language (e.g., English) and they speak or understand the language at the same level as both the heritage language and the majority language (Valdés, 2001). Additionally, the terms used to describe heritage language learners include 'native speakers', 'residual speakers', 'quasi-native speakers', 'home-background speakers' and 'bilingual speakers' (Valdés, 2001).

2.4.2. Turkish as a Minority Language in the UK

People from different language backgrounds and different ethnic identities have been living together as a requirement of the increasingly globalised world. Such people live away from their own countries and cultures, and they learn the host country's language (the majority language) in order to live together with native people and to progress in that society. In this study, Turkish people are a good example of those who are exposed to this situation. Throughout history, Turkish people have spread across the world, especially to European countries (Germany, France, Austria, the Netherlands, Belgium, and the UK) and lived alongside new languages and cultures.

This movement of Turkish people has, for economic reasons, caused them to immigrate particularly to the UK. The Turkish population in Britain has been increasing since the 1940s following the

Second World War, but this population is mostly Turkish Cypriots due to the fact that they were granted British citizenship in 1878 (Issa, 2005; Lytra, 2011; Okur, 2014). However, immigration from Turkey to the UK started in the 1970s and also Turkish Cypriots immigrated to the UK because of the conflict in 1971 as there was a ready market for cheap labour and an improved educational system (Issa, 2005; Lytra, 2011). Turkish-speaking people in the UK also increased between the 1980s and 1990s because of immigration to the UK via European countries (Issa, 2005; Lytra, 2011). Although there is no specific information about how many Turkish people are living in the UK because they have immigrated at different times, from different ways and countries, and for different reasons, the whole Turkish population is estimated to be approximately 500,000 people (Lytra et al., 2008; Okur, 2014). Most of the population in the UK is in London, especially the northern part of the city. There are almost 200,000 Turkish speakers in the London area, but many of them have different ethnic identities, for example, Western European Turks, British Cypriots, Turkish Kurds and original Turks (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2014; Issa, 2005; Lytra, 2012).

Since Turkish people have settled in London, the Turkish language has become one of the most widely spoken languages there (Okur, 2014), unlike the rest of England, where it is still the minority language all around the country. As far as language is concerned, parents who have children make an effort to preserve their children's Turkish language and culture (Lytra, 2012). In order to teach Turkish to Turkish children who were born in the UK or are growing up in the UK, Turkish heritage/supplementary schools were set up by cooperation between the Turkish government and the British education system (Issa, 2005; Okur, 2014).

2.5. Issues of Language Practice and Input in Heritage Language Contexts

As outlined in earlier sections, language acquisition and a child's vocabulary size are related to language input (Mieszkowska et al., 2017). The communicative environment, which is divided into a social and object interaction environment, is a crucial predictor of the acquisition of a child's

language. For example, according to De Houwer (2011), the social interaction environment refers to parents, other caregivers, friends, siblings and other people who have direct contact with the child. Especially, parents' behaviours, attitudes and expectations are important factors affecting the child's language acquisition (De Houwer, 2011; Roulstone et al., 2010). However, the acquisition of a heritage language is not only related to parental attitudes (Rowland, 2014), but also to the society in which a child is growing up. De Houwer (2007) conducted a large-scale study with 2000 bilingual families in which one of the partners spoke the minority language and the other the majority, focusing on the variety of factors affecting the use of home language in bilingual children. It is stated that most of the parents used both a minority (heritage) language and a majority language at home although 25% of the bilingual children could not speak the minority language (De Houwer, 2007). Still, Hoff et al. (2012) believe that it is enough for a child to hear a language as at least 20% of their input to speak the language. The most common approach to language input among families is one person one language (OPOL) (see 2.4.1. Family Language Practice and use below). However, it is not necessary to speak two languages to equal levels of proficiency for children who grow up in a multilingual environment.

The theories of Piagetian and Vygotskian perspectives state that children's interaction with objects plays a significant role in a child's cognitive development and understanding of the world (Roulstone et al., 2010). Among others, the objects a child can interact with include toys, books, games, and TV programmes.

It is not just the quantity but also the quality of input that is important. The quality of input refers to the richness of the language exposure in terms of the variety and complexity of vocabulary and structures (Montrul & Polinsky, 2019). Various situations and activities contribute to the quality and quantity of input in children including the percentage of time speaking heritage language versus the majority language. Other factors include the number of different people with whom the

language is spoken, the percentage of time that the language is used in daily activities (e.g., reading books, watching TV, playing games etc.), the frequency of activities children attend in the target language (e.g., playing with children who also speak the target language, supplementary schools etc.) (Montrul & Polinsky, 2019). These situations are strongly related to factors such as the family's socioeconomic status (SES) including parents' educational level and cultural background, etc. (Leseman, 2000). For example, Leseman's study (2000) with 31 Turkish-Dutch bilingual children and 77 Dutch children from age three to four to investigate vocabulary size in Turkish and Dutch of Turkish immigrant children showed that children who have low-SES underperformed by comparing high-SES children before they began to early years education department of primary school.

To determine the effects of language input/exposure in bilingual children, Willard et al.(2015) compared the relationship between the home language environment, the family's language use and preferences, and immigrant children's Turkish vocabulary size in Germany. According to their study, Turkish vocabulary scores in bilingual children were positively correlated with the language that mothers used with the child which provided a rich home language environment. Children who are provided with a rich language environment outperform their peers who are exposed to poorer language environments (De Houwer, 2011; Hoff, 2006; Willard et al., 2015).

What is surprising is that the relationship between the father's language use with the child and a child's vocabulary score was found to be significantly negatively correlated (Willard et al., 2015). In a study with 119 pre-schoolers and 121 fourth graders in Germany, Willard et al. (2015) investigated the family predictors (background, the home literacy environment and mother's language use) of Turkish heritage vocabulary size. One of the results of their study by bivariate correlations between the child's vocabulary and the father's language use showed a statistically significant opposite effect in a subsample. It means that children with a father who speaks less

Turkish than German tended to score higher in Turkish vocabulary size. It can potentially be explained by marriages in which one partner is a first and the other an earlier generation Turkish immigrant in Germany. Accordingly, the language that the father uses may be under shadowed by the language which the mother uses, the children's vocabulary size in each language could be explained according to with whom the child spends most of the time (Leseman, 2000; Willard et al., 2015). Willard et al. (2015) also examined the effect of a mother's background on children's language development. If the mother is a second or earlier generation of Turkish immigrant in Germany, she usually tends to speak German with her children, thus the children outperformed in German than Turkish vocabulary size. However, the child who has a higher educated mother or father may perform more highly in Turkish vocabulary. They did not assess what processes were responsible for this relationship but according to Hoff (2006), richer input may be provided by a higher educated father or Pearson (2007) stated those parents place more value on maintaining the heritage language. However, the study was established by Hoff et al. (2014) with children with one native Spanish and one native English-speaker ($n = 15$) and two native Spanish-speaker ($n = 11$) parents stated that among the children with one native English-speaking parent and one Spanish-speaking parent, children with native English speaking mothers showed larger English vocabulary size than children who have native English-speaking fathers. In contrast to this, a study of the effects of family background on children's vocabulary conducted by Willard et al. (2015) showed that there was no link between language use of fathers and children's vocabulary size. On the other hand, this study also concluded that mothers' background and language use have an effect on the vocabulary size in bilingual children. Taken together, these studies support the notion that family language background is an important predictor of bilingual children's vocabulary growth as well as mothers' or fathers' language preferences and language use with children also affect children's vocabulary knowledge.

2.5.1. Family Language Practice and Use

In looking at the complex cultural and linguistic background of a bilingual child, it is important to examine the relation between the child's language use and language preference and the family members' language practice, use and input (Curd-Christiansen, 2013; King & Fogle, 2013) and child-caretaker communication (De Houwer, 2011). Family language practice and use have been recently gained scholarly attention from child language acquisition, bilingualism and early second language learning researchers. Even though the study of childhood bilingual development has been ongoing for more than 50 years, the focus on family language policy is comparatively new (King & Fogle, 2013). Researchers on family language practice and use investigate questions such as how (and why) children grow up bilingual or monolingual in the same society, and what the families' practices are with regards to the teaching of a particular language (Curd-Christiansen, 2013). For example, Pillai, Soh & Kajita (2014) interviewed five families (including at least 3 generations) in the Portuguese Settlement in Malacca about their family language practice and use. They found that using Malacca Portuguese Creole (MPC) is related to family language practice and use among the younger generation, however, there is also language slippage across generations. Importantly, participants were aware of choosing a language to speak with previous generations. For example, older generations generally used MPC at home, but their children and grandchildren respond in English. Nevertheless, they assume that when using MPC among the generation dies out, it changes English becomes the language of communication within the family if the parents do not practice MPC at home. It can be said that depending on the specific practices of a family or social group, heritage languages pass from the oldest generation to younger generations but may diminish over time.

This type of research is different from psycholinguistic studies of bilingualism in that it does not focus on the child, but rather focus is on family language practice and use by looking at the balance

between language use among members of the family (King, Fogle & Logan-Terry, 2008; King & Fogle, 2013). For this reason, research on family language practice and use aims to investigate learning and using languages related to parental ideologies, as well as the cultural and social context of family life (Curdt-Christiansen, 2013; King & Fogle, 2013). It means that the study of language practice, use and input analyses the language ideology of family members (what the families' language beliefs are), language practices (what families are doing with language), and language management (what they do to maintain language) (Spolsky, 2004, 2012). The language ideology of parents refers to how children learn language/s and the parents' role in this learning process on language practice and management (De Houwer, 2017; Spolsky, 2007).

Bilingual/multilingual development and maintenance of heritage (minority) language are affected by family language practice and use regarding which language(s) to speak and in which contexts (Xiao Lan Curdt-Christiansen, 2013). Many families try to raise their children bilingual, by using the most recommended approach by doctors, magazines and popular parenting books (King & Fogle, 2006) called 'one-parent, one-language' (OPOL). OPOL is advised for parents who share different native languages and one of the parents usually speaks majority language in the society, and while applying this approach, each parent speaks their native language to the children (Döpke, 1992; Hoff, 2015; King, Fogle & Logan-Terry, 2008; Romanie, 1995; Takeuchi, 2006). Döpke (1992) examined the bilingual acquisition of six children, growing up in Australia in German-English bilingual families. She aimed to find how children's verbal environment affects the minority (German) and majority (English) language receptive skills. She reported that conversation between parents and children was related to children's bilingual acquisition (Döpke, 1992). For example, if the parents are keen to speak the minority (heritage) language, children's performance of vocabulary in that language is wider than children who are exposed to less or no minority language at home. In order to address this result, supporting and practising the minority (heritage)

language by parents, caretakers and wider family members has an effect on bilingual children's language acquisition.

However, Döpke (1992) stated that OPOL cannot be applied to all family types (e.g., one of the partners is a native speaker in a minority language or both of the partners are native speakers in the minority language). Home language practice is designed to pay attention to families' beliefs, ideas and behaviour about language (Spolsky, 2004). Furthermore, it is not only a family's beliefs that are important for raising a bilingual child but the family's practices and use also play a significant role. This is reflected through in which case the family practices and uses which language (e.g., while talking with partner or reading book etc.). Schwartz (2008) reports the results of a structured questionnaire with 70 Russian-Hebrew school-aged children and parents in Israel to investigate family language practice and use to find out factors affecting second-generation Russian-Jewish immigrants on first language maintenance. She found that most participants suggested the acquisition of the home language has a crucial role in minority language knowledge, as well as non-linguistic factors (demographic, cultural and social) which determine the survival of the heritage language. For example, communicating with a relative or friend provides a different social environment than the majority, or some idioms in language do not have a direct translation to refer to in some cultures, it is only represented in a specific culture.

Family language practice and use are affected by several aspects of the family's background (Schwartz, 2008, 2010) such as demographic, psychological and socio-cultural factors. These are directly related to a family's decision as to whether they do or do not support the heritage language. *Family structure*, especially the presence of older children and siblings, has a significant role in the generation-to-generation transmission of minority (heritage) language (Schwartz, 2010; Spolsky, 2007). It may also be that an older sibling/child plays an important role in the language socialisation of the younger child (Hua & Wei, 2005; Spolsky, 2007). According to Spolsky (2007), the older

child carries the majority of language into the home and communicates in that language with parents and younger siblings. Nevertheless, Kopeliovich (2010) studied eight children, four of whom had younger siblings. She found that until the siblings started their formal preschool education, they mainly spoke their heritage language with younger siblings. Thus, all siblings may affect a family's language policy and younger children's language knowledge in both majority and minority language use, but it remains unclear whether this has a positive or negative effect on the acquisition of the heritage language.

Another influential factor in family language practice is the *acculturation of the parents* into the host country's culture. Baker (2011) stated that the length of residence in the host country is related to immigrant children's majority language proficiency and/or loss. The longer the time spent in the host country get, the more the majority language develops, and at the same time, the less the minority language tends to be used. Pease-Alvarez (2003) conducted an in-depth interview study with 63 parents who are first- and second-generation immigrants from Mexico in California. The results showed that some participants preferred to use only English rather than Spanish, in order to develop their cultural identity and social status and become American (and adopt Anglo-Saxon values). Family language policy and acquisition of language at home are therefore influenced by families' own concerns and the extent of their wish to belong to the host country.

The research findings on family language practice and the use of *parental education* are conflicting. It has often been argued that in order to provide minority language and ethnic identity, children need to have educational experience in their own language and traditions (Schwartz, 2010). Curdt-Christiansen (2009) used interviews and participant observation to investigate 10 Chinese immigrant families in Quebec, Canada in order to examine how family language policy was planned and developed. She suggested that family language practice and use are affected by not only socioeconomic and political factors but also parents' educational background, cultural

identity, and immigration experiences. That is, parents who have a high educational background and undertake daily literacy practices in the heritage language at home contribute to children's knowledge of the language.

This section has emphasised the importance of family language practice, use and input for children's language acquisition. It is also suggested that a bilingual child's knowledge of vocabulary and language productivity in each language can be affected by how language literacy environment, such as language choice to speak with the child or partner, frequency of reading and watching in the target language etc. This thesis aims to extend the understanding of language knowledge in Turkish and English of Turkish-English bilingual children who attend Turkish supplementary school, by employing measures beyond the typically used lexical vocabulary assessment and wordless picture storybook, and to document how this compares to the language knowledge of children who do not attend. While a relatively consistent language scores profile emerges from English, for example, attendee children have comparable majority language knowledge to their non-attendee peers, but their minority (heritage) language scores are often significantly lower. The present research has focused on examining multiple aspects of language growth, including the different dimensions of vocabulary knowledge (comprehension and production of verbs and nouns), narrative productivity, home language literacy and supplementary schools and their role in children's language outcomes, particularly in the UK.

In the following section and subsections supplementary/heritage schools will be discussed, including definitions of supplementary schools in general, along with information regarding how they work and what their practices are. This will be followed by a review and discussion of common curricula of supplementary schools with a particular focus on Turkish supplementary schools in the United Kingdom.

2.6. Conclusion

This chapter presented a review of the literature on supplementary schools, language acquisition, bilingualism, bilingual vocabulary growth, and family language practice, input, and use. In particular, the chapter was organised to map the existing body of knowledge about the supplementary schools and their affect on language development and bilingualism. More specifically, it has dealt with factors affecting how bilingual children are raised and explored the different language input patterns and language practices of families raising bilingual children.

The review above outlines the knowledge gaps in the areas of Turkish-English bilingual language growth and the effects of attendance at Turkish supplementary/heritage schools on language development, as well as the potential effects of the family linguistic environment on bilingual language development. Although there is a lot of literature on bilingual language acquisition, some researchers focussed on the comparison between monolingual and bilingual vocabulary in one language while others looked at only supplementary schools or the importance of the home language environment. Moreover, there is a sizable literature on bilingual Turkish language development. Nevertheless, there are some studies conducted in European countries (e.g., the Netherlands, Germany, Switzerland etc.), but there is no study that investigates Turkish-English bilingual language acquisition in the UK. The present study duly aims to investigate Turkish-English bilingual children's language growth in both languages by comparing children who attend Turkish supplementary school and who do not attend with regard to the supplementary school and the effect of family literacy and language environment.

The next chapter describes the methodology of this project.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3.1. Introduction

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the present study was designed to investigate the impact of different variables (school attendance status, age, SES, parental language strategies) on vocabulary growth between two groups of 4-8-year-old bilingual children. One group attend a Turkish supplementary school and the other do not. This chapter describes the methods and procedures employed to conduct the present research and answer the research questions.

This chapter begins by setting out the research questions and aims before describing the research methods and procedures adopted for the study. Following this is a description of the research design which combines;

- i. quantitative (vocabulary test, narrative story-telling and questionnaire) and qualitative (interview) research methods;
- ii. the sample,
- iii. data collection materials,
- iv. the rationale for employing multiple data collection tools,
- v. how the pilot study was conducted, and the changes made accordingly,
- vi. data analysis procedures;
- vii. ethical issues, and
- viii. validity and reliability.

3.1.1. Research Questions and Rationale

Given the lack of empirical evidence found in the research literature on the heritage language development of Turkish-English bilingual children in the UK, this project set out to explore the

heritage language growth in vocabulary and narrative story-telling skills of 4-8-year-old Turkish-English bilingual children in order to investigate the role of Turkish supplementary schools, the supplementary schools' teachers, age, SES, as well as family language background and preferences. This study makes a significant contribution to our understanding of heritage language development in that it focuses on combining the roles of Turkish supplementary schools, teachers, and families rather than focusing only on schools.

To address the aforementioned gaps in the literature, this study attempts to answer the following research questions:

Research question 1. What does the Turkish supplementary school system look like in the UK?

- a. Do teachers' teaching environment (TE), techniques (TT) and perceptions (TP) on Turkish language learning vary according to demographic variables such as gender, education, training, general teaching experience, and teaching experience at a Turkish supplementary school?
- b. How do the teachers in supplementary schools apply the teaching in a classroom?
- c. What are the perceptions of teachers in Turkish supplementary schools in the UK?
- d. Are there differences between monolingual and bilingual children?

Research Question 2. Which variables can explain performance on CLTs and narrative tasks in English and Turkish of 4-8-year-old bilingual Turkish-English children?

- a. Do the Turkish and English language skills of bilingual children differ depending on Turkish supplementary school attendance status, age, SES, and parental language strategies?
- b. How do the vocabulary, narrative production and narrative quality skills in Turkish and English in Turkish-English bilingual children change?

- c. How are vocabulary and narrative productivity skills related to each other within and across languages?

Research Question 3. Do parental perspectives affect the child's bilingual language learning?

- a. What are the family characteristics of attendees and non-attendee children?
- b. What are those children's language input and practices within their home settings in Turkish and English?
- c. What is the relationship between bilingual children's performance in language skills and their home literacy environment?

In order to address the three main research questions above, this study was designed with a mixed-method approach as a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods (Creswell, 2014; Dörnyei, 2007). The following sections provide the rationale and explanations for this methodological preference.

For this study, the following five instruments were used;

- i. teachers' questionnaires
- ii. teachers' interviews;
- iii. language vocabulary task
- iv. narrative task and
- v. parental language background questionnaires.

Adopting these instruments, data were collected over a period of six months from teachers working at the Turkish supplementary schools, students and families. To answer the first research question, questionnaires and interviews were conducted with teachers. As for the second question, 4-8-year-old bilingual children were asked to complete the vocabulary comprehension and production task

and narrative story-telling tasks. Lastly, parents were asked to complete a parental language and home language linguistic environment questionnaire to answer the third research question. These three different sources and instruments of data collection were used to triangulate the results and to provide a detailed understanding of heritage language growth in the language of Turkish-English bilingual children in the UK. The sample was chosen using purposive sampling as this allowed for the checking of whether all the participants were eligible to take place in the study. The first phase of the study (2017 - 2018) consisted of a pilot study carried out with the aim of informing data collection for the main study (2018 - 2019).

3.2. Research Strategy

As mentioned above, a mixed-method approach was applied in this study. That is, quantitative (vocabulary task, narrative story-telling task, and questionnaires) and qualitative (interviews) methods were used to identify bilingual children's language growth and to investigate family and supplementary schools' effects on children's language growth. This section highlights the different data collection methods and the rationale for using mixed methods. Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2011, p. 23) state that methods are the 'range of approaches used in educational research to gather data which are to be used as a basis for inference and interpretation, for explanation and prediction'. Research methods have traditionally been categorised under the three types of quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods, which have their own characteristic strengths and weaknesses (Brannen, 2017; Robson, 2011). Depending on research aims, different criteria are applied while choosing which approach to adopt for a research study (Bryman, 2016; Creswell, 2009). Nevertheless, according to Bryman (2016) and Grix (2019), the research question shows that a methodological approach is implemented in the research. The qualitative method used in this project was semi-structured teacher interviews. The quantitative methods were a parental questionnaire and teacher questionnaire, and a language task [Cross-linguistic Lexical Tasks

(CLTs; Haman, Luniewska & Pomiechowska, 2015)] which yielded marks and points that illustrate the child's noun and verb production and comprehension in Turkish and English; and a narrative task [Frog Story (Mayer, 1969)].

According to Dörnyei (2007) and Patton (2002), using multiple sources to gather information in data collection can be used to broaden the scope of the study. A mixed-methods approach allows collection of rich and comprehensive data because data from different sources provides elaborate or complementary data from each other (Creswell, 2012). For this study, having multiple data sources helped remarkably in answering the research questions more clearly.

Qualitative research prioritizes the quality of the data over its quantity, so it examines events in-depth to understand the meaning of social phenomena instead of merely focusing on statistical data (Miller & Brewer, 2003). The qualitative method provides flexibility and reflection with the subjective understanding of participants' phenomena instead of theoretical concepts and categories (McCracken, 1988). Besides, it allows collecting data through face-to-face interaction with the participant by doing teachers interviews with teachers and testing children. According to Creswell (2012), while collecting data, qualitative findings can complement quantitative results by highlighting attitudes and acting behaviour. Creswell (2012, p.356) explains 'attitudes, opinions or beliefs as ways in which individuals think about issues, whereas practices are their actual behaviour'. Furthermore, Denzin & Lincoln (2013, p.17) state that qualitative data emphasises 'how social experience is created and given meaning' with relatively smaller data and more in-depth approach than that of quantitative methods (Bryman, 2016).

On the other hand, the defining feature of quantitative research is collecting numerical data to explain particular questions that are answered and analysed using mathematical methods (Bryman, 2016). For example, do parental perspectives affect the child's bilingual vocabulary learning? What

are the differences in vocabulary level of children between pre- and post-test?. These are the questions that it is looked at quantitatively, and the data needs to be collected in numerical form.

On the basis of the above statements, the mixed methods approach was used in this study. The mixed-methods approach is defined as:

‘...an approach to research in the social, behavioural, and health sciences in which the investigator gathers both quantitative (closed-ended) and qualitative (open-ended) data, integrates the two and then draws interpretations based on the combined strengths of both sets of data to understand research problems’ (Creswell, 2014, p.2).

In order to examine the research questions, mixed-methods design is advantageous because it offers researchers the opportunity to use several data collection methods at once for a better understanding of the research findings. For example, observation, interviews, audio/video recording, questionnaire, testing and documentary evidence (Creswell, 2012; Grix, 2019) are some instruments among many others. In this study, both qualitative and quantitative methods were employed as they can facilitate the triangulation of data which can be used to verify and cross-check the research findings in order to obtain more validity and reliability. Triangulation is defined as the use of two or more methods to collect data (Bryman, 2016; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). Methodological triangulation refers to using the same method for a different situation or different methods for the same situation (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). In this study, a mixed-methods approach is useful for identifying and investigating the impact of different variables (supplementary school attendance status, age, SES, family language practice and input) on the 4-8-year-old bilingual Turkish-English children’s performance on CLTs and narrative tasks. This mixed-methods approach enables us to answer the research questions (see section 3.1.1. Research questions and rationale).

3.3. Research Design

According to Bryman (2016), there are five types of research design that are appropriate for both qualitative and quantitative methods. These are, ‘experimental design, cross-sectional design (survey design), longitudinal design, case study and comparative design’ (p. 40). This project adopts a cross-sectional design, one of the most commonly used research designs. Bryman (2016, p.53) explains a cross-sectional research design as:

‘...the collection of data in more than one case (usually quite a lot more than one) and at a single point in time in order to collect a body of quantitative or quantifiable data in connection with two or more variables (usually many more than two), which are then examined to detect patterns of association.’ (Bryman, 2016, p.53)

In bilingualism research, a cross-sectional design usually uses a few groups which are different in certain variables such as exposure to a target language or a language proficiency (Wei & Moyer, 2009) but share other characteristics, e.g., ethnicity or socioeconomic status. In this project, the variables of interest are;

- i) the language growth of the participants, depending on their supplementary school attendance status (attendees or non-attendees at a Turkish supplementary school) and
- ii) family language use and practice, as the aim is to investigate which variables may explain performance on language growth in Turkish and English of 4-8-year-old bilingual Turkish-English children.

By looking at similar characteristics of the participants across variables, it can be assumed that any differences between groups can be attributed to the variable differences. In order to investigate the potential effectiveness of supplementary schools on the children’s vocabulary growth, the CLTs are carried out twice to allow comparisons before and after a six-month interval.

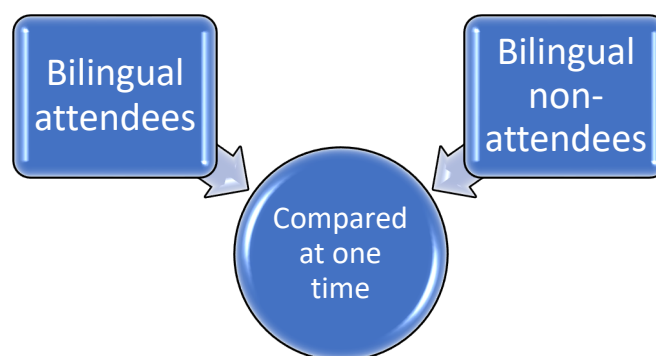


Figure 3.1. Cross-sectional research design

Wei and Moyer (2008) state that a cross-sectional study always has both advantages and disadvantages, which therefore also apply to this study. Limitations include a potential lack of accuracy (since one cannot fully verify data if it is only gathered at a one-time point) and are less effective to analyse relationships over an extended period of time. On the other hand, cross-sectional studies allow researchers to collect a large amount of data over a shorter period of time and therefore it is often quicker and more practical than carrying out a longitudinal study and can allow the researcher to make stronger generalisations and claims. It is a practical solution to analysing larger amounts of data both qualitatively and quantitatively. According to Wei and Moyer (2008), a cross-sectional study is important for ‘replicability’ (p. 91), which is described as;

‘...an advantage that cannot be overlooked in the field of multilingualism research, in which similarities and differences in developmental patterns of children speaking different languages or language pairs are an important issue. One way of mapping similarities and differences in such a context is to compare the normative data collected through cross-sectional studies carried out with comparable criteria. Alternatively, language background can serve as a variable, and the effect of different language backgrounds on developmental patterns is examined.’ (Wei & Moyer, 2008, p. 91)

In summary, due to its methodological advantages, the current study involved a cross-sectional design, comparing two groups of Turkish heritage-speaking children.

3.3.1. Participants

For sampling, the present study utilised a purposive sampling approach. Purposive sampling is adopted for accessing in-depth information about specific issues, problems or experiences (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). When choosing purposeful samples, the number and quality of the samples, the agreement between the research purposes and the selection of the sample, the access and approval of the samples, and the background of the samples need to be considered (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Creswell, 2009). In this study, there were three types of participants, namely teachers working at Turkish supplementary schools', bilingual children, and their parents. The participants of the present study consists of 27 Turkish supplementary school teachers, 22 of whom completed the questionnaires and five kindly agreed to be interviewed. In addition, a total of 41 Turkish-English 4-8-year-old bilingual children (25 girls and 16 boys with an age range between 49 and 122 months); and their parents (30 mothers and nine fathers) participated in the research. There were 19 Turkish-English bilingual children who attended a Turkish supplementary school and 22 Turkish-English children who did not. The respondents also attended mainstream schools where they reside in the UK. This leads to the assumption that their English input mainly comes from their exposure during their mainstream school days (weekdays). Moreover, they receive English and Turkish input from their parents, siblings, and friends in their daily lives. Attendee children attended supplementary schools for approximately three hours at the weekends (two days per week), which offered them additional Turkish input from the supplementary schools, unlike the non-attendees.

The supplementary schools were chosen from London, Manchester and Nottingham and non-attendee children were selected from London, York and Doncaster where the Turkish population is high to reach as many as participants.

The process of recruiting participants started with sourcing the supplementary schools' list from the Education Counsellor of the Turkish Embassy in London website as schools teaching Turkish to Turkish-English bilingual children (MEBLEM, 2019). The website provides some information (names, addresses and contact details) on 37 Turkish Supplementary Schools in the UK-affiliated Ministry of Education in Turkey and Turkish Education Consultancy in London (MEBLEM, 2019). I divided it into schools according to the Turkish residents' population size in a city and the schools' accessibility. This means that the sample was chosen from cities where the density of the Turkish population is higher and the I had personal contacts. The call for participants was distributed to as many people as possible as I asked my contacts to contact any potential participants they could. I was familiar with the Turkish Community in those cities because I used to be a teacher myself in the Nottingham Turkish Community School in the 2015 - 2016 academic year. Exactly the same data from each participant was gathered in order to be able to make an accurate comparison of the findings. Because of the accessibility of schools and Turkish residents, with the aim of reaching more participants, Doncaster, London, Manchester, Nottingham and York were chosen.

3.3.2. Data Collection Instruments

There are several tools for collecting data in qualitative and quantitative research. Creswell & Poth (2016) states four basic groups; interview (open-ended and close-ended), observation (participant and non-participant), questionnaire, tests, audio-visual materials (e.g., photographs or videotapes) and documents (keeping a journal, public and private). Research tools need to comply with the research questions posed and the research methodology and they should complement each other. Moreover, the chosen tools should contribute to increasing the trustworthiness of the research (Bryman, 2016; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). In this section, the rationale of each data collection tool is presented. It involves the use of the language task, narrative task, questionnaires,

and interviews. A summary of the different data collection instruments used in this study is shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Research questions matched to data collection tools

Research Questions	Interviews	Questionnaires	Language tasks
RQ1.What does the Turkish supplementary school system look like in the UK?		√	
a.Do teachers' teaching environment (TE), techniques (TT) and perceptions (TP) on Turkish language learning vary according to demographic variables such as gender, education, training, general teaching experience, and teaching experience at a Turkish supplementary school?		√	
b.How do the teachers in supplementary schools apply the teaching in a classroom?	√	√	
c.What are the perceptions of teachers in Turkish supplementary schools in the UK?	√	√	
RQ2.Which variables can explain performance on CLTs and narrative tasks in English and Turkish of 4-8-year-old bilingual Turkish-English children?		√	√
a.Do the Turkish and English language skills of bilingual children differ depending on Turkish supplementary school attendance status, age, SES, and parental language strategies?		√	√
b.How do the vocabulary, narrative production and narrative quality skills in Turkish and English in Turkish-English bilingual children change?			√
c.How are vocabulary and narrative productivity skills related to each other within and across languages?			√
d.Are there differences between monolingual and bilingual children?			
RQ3.Do parental perspectives affect the child's bilingual language learning?		√	√
a.What are the family characteristics of attendees and non-attendee children?		√	
b.What are those children's language input and practices within their home settings in Turkish and English?		√	
c.What is the relationship between bilingual children's performance in language skills and their home literacy environment?		√	√

To answer the first research question and the sub-questions, the background information about the Turkish supplementary schools and teachers and teachers' perspectives on learning and teaching Turkish as one family's heritage language is gathered. Demographic and background information is obtained, and perspectives of the teachers' data were collected via teachers' questionnaires and interviews.

For the second research question and its sub-questions on the impact of variables in the language growth of the 4-8-year-old Turkish-English bilingual children, data is gathered via two language tasks [Cross-linguistic Lexical Task (CLTs) and Narrative task (the Frog Story)]. Data on children's comprehension and production of nouns and verbs were gathered through the use of the CLTs, and the narrative ability of story-telling was collected by using Frog story, in Turkish and English.

The answer to the third research question and sub-questions, which investigated the perspective of the family on the bilingual language growth, language preferences in a home and daily environment, is sought through data gathered via the Bilingual Language Background Environment Questionnaire (BLBEQ) in order to understand how far parental beliefs and language choices might affect a child's language development (De Houwer, 2007). Moreover, in order to investigate the relationship between family language environment and children's language growth, BLBEQ and language tasks (CLTs and Frog story) were analysed by correlating the language tasks' scores and the BLBEQ answers for each child individually.

The following section presents the different methods of data collection used in this study. It considers the questionnaire, interview and language tasks, respectively.

3.3.2.1. Questionnaire

A questionnaire was used to gather quantitative data from the participants. The advantage of using a questionnaire is that it provides a significant amount of data collected from a large number of people in a short period of time and in a relatively efficient way (Bryman, 2016; Wei & Moyer, 2008). The data can then be very quickly analysed statistically by using software packages (in this study SPSS 26).

The teachers' questionnaires and bilingual language background environment questionnaire (BLBEQ) were designed in English by using Qualtrics software, an online questionnaire designing programme. Once the questionnaires were finalised in English, they were translated into Turkish (see Appendix 4 Parental Questionnaire (BLBEQ) in English and Turkish and Appendix 5 Teacher Questionnaire in English and Turkish version). I was aware that translation is crucial because I considered that some of the Turkish families might not be proficient in Turkish as much as in English and the translation was significant to ensure that the questions would have the same meaning to all participants (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2016). Because of this, translating the questionnaires was done by myself and checked via back translation by an academic colleague who is native in Turkish and native-like in English.

3.3.2.1.1. Teachers' Questionnaire

I designed the teacher questionnaire using other existing questionnaires (e.g., Lytra et al., 2008; Martin et al., 2006; Mete, 2012; Mete & Gürsoy, 2013; Otcu, 2010) in order to answer the first research question one and its sub-questions. The first research question is 'what does the Turkish supplementary school system look like in the UK?' (for sub-questions see section 3.1.1. Research questions and rationale). The teacher questionnaire was used to collect the teachers' biographical data (e.g., gender, age, education, teaching experience in general, teaching experience in a

supplementary school etc.), the teaching environment (e.g., *“Most teachers in this school are interested in what students have to say.”*), teaching technique (e.g., *“I use pictures and objects for my students to make connections between words and the associated objects.”*) and teachers’ perceptions (e.g., *“Do you think the supplementary schools play a role in the students’ language development?”*).

The questionnaire was made up of two sections – Demographics and Instruction. Each section consisted of a mixture of closed questions, multiple-choice questions and open-ended questions (See Appendix 5 Teacher Questionnaire in English and Turkish version). The Instruction section was predominantly composed of Likert scales where respondents rate their levels of agreement with each statement by selecting strongly agree (1), agree (2), neither agree nor disagree (3), disagree (4) or strongly disagree (5).

The questionnaire addressed the following areas:

1. Demographic background data: gender, age, languages proficiency in Turkish and English
2. Educational background: education, where obtained, general teaching experience, and teaching experience in a supplementary school
3. Where the individual teaches, size of the school, details about the children
4. Self-identification of the teaching environment, techniques, and perceptions of teaching and learning the Turkish language in a supplementary school

The 22 teachers in the Turkish supplementary schools undertook the questionnaire, and the data was collected using an online questionnaire system (Qualtrics).

3.3.2.1.2. Bilingual Language Background Environment Questionnaire (BLBEQ)

The bilingual language background environment questionnaire (BLBEQ) in this study was designed using other existing questionnaires and adapting them to Turkish-English bilinguals in the UK by the researcher (The Alberta Language Environment Questionnaire, The Language History Questionnaire, The Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire). The reason for using the parental background questionnaire was to answer the third research question and its sub-questions ‘*Research Question 3: Do parental perspectives affect the child’s bilingual language learning?*’ (for sub-questions see section 3.1.1. Research questions and rationale) to investigate whether the child’s bilingual language growth is affected by the parents; their personality, familial and educational background, and language preferences, etc.

The questionnaire includes three types of information; biographical, behavioural and attitudinal (Wei & Moyer, 2008). Biographical information refers to the participants’ name, schooling, occupation, place of residence and language learning background. Behavioural questions are concerned with using language, chosen language and communication behaviour in various settings. Attitudinal questions are motivated to learn language and linguistic competence.

The BLBEQ was undertaken by 39 parents of the bilingual Turkish-English children who took part in the study. It was designed for a parent to gather information on the home background and linguistic environment of the bilingual children. The questionnaire checks a list of demographic and environmental variables which shows a bilingual child’s sociolinguistic background, for example, parental language input and practice. It includes both general questions about the parents and the language input of the child. It includes closed-ended (yes/no) and Likert-type questions (from positive statements to negative statements, strongly agree to strongly disagree). The BLBEQ consists of five sections of the impression of the home environment background and language use of the family and their bilingual children in England. It includes personality, educational

background and language using preferences. For instance, the first section is the home environment background information that consists of educational level, occupation and language competence. The second section is about language background, the third section is about family language use at home with another parent and child. The fourth section is about child language use and choice at home. The last part of the questionnaire is the parent's attitude toward a child's language learning and use. The questionnaire was intended to be completed by all participant children's parents during the data collection period.

3.3.2.2. Teachers' Interviews

According to Silverman (2013), it cannot be said that there are right or wrong research methods. Rather, the important thing is to choose a research method that should answer the topic and the research questions. Because of this reason, I selected a semi-structured interview with teachers to answer the research questions (see *RQI*, in section 3.1.1. Research questions and rationale). In this research, it was significant to understand what the Turkish supplementary school system looks like and what teachers thought about the learning and teaching of Turkish and what they use as a language teaching technique. To understand the teachers' approach and language use, face-to-face interaction with them was an opportunity for me. When in confusion, I made it clear in time, to allow me to seek appropriate answers.

A semi-structured interview was chosen as a method to meet the aims of answering the first research question and RQ 1b and 1c (see section 3.1.1. Research questions and rationale). Most researchers in the field use unstructured interviews for qualitative research because they allow participants to answer questions freely (Bryman, 2016). Nevertheless, in this research, a semi-structured interview was chosen, (see Appendix 6 Teacher Interview questions in English and Turkish version) which is defined as "a context in which the interviewer has a series of questions that are in the general form of an interview schedule but is able to vary the sequence of questions"

(Bryman, 2016, p.201). A semi-structured interview is arguably more flexible than a structured interview because the researcher can ask further questions for gathering in-depth information (Bryman, 2016; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). For example, when the teachers were asked “Which method do you use while teaching?”, it was expanded to “do you use any specific books?”. This allowed addressing RQ 3b more effectively.

Prior to the interviews, participants’ consent and permission was taken to audio record. This allowed me to pay attention to the interview and follow the questions and improve questions when necessary (Bryman, 2016). Moreover, it reduced data loss and saved time. Importantly, recording the interview ensures a clearer and more reliable transcription of the data. However, there are disadvantages to using audio recordings. The recorder might break down or have a lack of data storage (Bryman, 2016). For data protection, the interview data including all recordings and transcriptions were kept in password-protected computers and files.

3.3.2.3. Language Tasks

An effective language task should allow for an investigation of linguistic strengths, weaknesses and difficulties experienced by a child, helps detect the reason for these weaknesses or strengths (Bryman, 2016). It needs to have several items focusing on the same feature, for example, using language tasks in language competence to understand a child’s interactional and comprehension skills (Bryman, 2016). In this study, there are two different tasks that were used to investigate a child’s vocabulary knowledge and production, comprehension skills and narrative ability in both their languages. These are the Cross-linguistic Lexical Tasks (CLTs) and ‘Frog Story’.

3.3.2.3.1. Cross-Linguistic Lexical Tasks (CLTs)

The Cross-linguistic Lexical Task (CLTs) is a picture-based vocabulary task consisting of four parts: noun comprehension, verb comprehension, noun production, and verb production. The aim

of the CLTs is to measure the level of expressive and receptive vocabulary size (Haman, Luniewska & Pomiechowska, 2015). The rationale behind the task is to create a comparable test of lexical ability for many different languages, which can also be used with bilingual children (Haman, Luniewska & Pomiechowska, 2015). CLTs use a shared picture database and a common list of concepts for objects and actions/events that have translation equivalents in translated languages. From this common list of concepts, target words chosen for each language version are cross-culturally appropriate and constitutes an appropriate mix of different levels of difficulty. For example, in this research, English and Turkish versions of CLT were conducted and the Turkish version of the CLT (Appendix 2 English and Turkish version of CLT and its score sheet) was developed by Özlem Ünal-Logacev, Aylin Müge Tuncer and Pınar Ege (Haman, Luniewska & Pomiechowska, 2015).

The CLTs consist of four parts, each of which contains 32 test items. To test the children's comprehension of nouns and verbs, a picture-identification task is employed, where the child is shown a page with a four-coloured picture containing one picture for the target word and three distractor pictures and is asked to point to the correct picture. For example, the production tasks were; 'what/who is this?' for nouns (e.g., bear), 'what is happening here?' for stative verbs (e.g., boiling) and 'what is s/he doing?' for action verbs (e.g., smelling). The form of the comprehension tasks was; 'where is the x (target noun, e.g., ant)?', 'where is x-ing (target verb, e.g., raining)?' and 'who is x-ing (for action verb, e.g., listening)?'.

Many studies on bilingual children's vocabulary size often assess children in only one of their languages and the results are then compared to those of their monolingual peers. Testing a child in one of her/his languages and comparing it with monolinguals can only assist in predicting her/his ability in one language, however, and it can cause two problems. First, being exposed to only one language in the input is quite different for monolingual children than for bilingual children. For

example, English monolingual children who live in an English-speaking country receive and practice English more than English-Spanish bilingual children in daily life (Hoff et al., 2014). Because of this, bilingual children often have fewer vocabulary sizes than their monolingual pairs (Haman; Luniewska; & Pomiechowska, 2015), but a single vocabulary assessment does not represent the full knowledge of bilinguals. In order to avoid these problems, this study compares the development of both languages for each child rather than comparing bilinguals (one language) with monolinguals. For example, Turkish-English bilingual children were tested in both languages (Turkish and English) and all comprehension and production of nouns and verbs skills at different times. Testing both word classes in production and comprehension in the two languages allows for the opportunity to compare possible similarities and differences between each other.

In order to find out what role Turkish supplementary schools may play in the vocabulary growth of 4-8-year-old bilingual children, these CLT tasks were conducted twice in Turkish and English as pre- and post-tests over a six-month period, comparing children who attend a Turkish supplementary school and children who do not. The data was gathered between September 2018 and June 2019, as it is the beginning (September – October 2019) and end (April – May 2019) of the school term.

3.3.2.3.2. Narrative Task (Frog story)

A narrative task is an effective tool for language testing in order to understand narrative skills and vocabulary knowledge, sentence structure, and organisation. To this end, the Frog Story, '*Frog, where are you?*' was used for this phase of data collection (Reilly, Losh, Bellugi & Wulfeck, 2004). The first reason for the choice of the story was that this story has been used a great deal of earlier research, and therefore it is arguably a reliable elicitation task for the current study; and the second reason is that '*Frog, where are you?*' is the first book of the frog story series, so it makes the story more appropriate for the ages of the children in this study. The book presents children with a 24-

page wordless picture story and requires children to tell the story. The book is about a boy and his dog, and they are looking for their missing pet frog. In this process, the boy and dog come across various forest animals that in some way interfere with their search for the frog. After all of these, the boy and dog find the frog with a mate and a clutch of baby frogs. The end of the story is that the boy and dog go back to their home with one of the babies as their new pet frog. This picture book is used extensively in cross-linguistic work (Cameron & Wang, 1999; Heilmann et al., 2016; Reilly et al., 2004) to assess narrative productivity (the total number of words, the total number of different words and the total number of morphemes), how children organise a sentence (C-Unit, percentage of grammatically acceptable C-Unit) and macro-structural aspects (settings, initiating events, plan, attempt/action, consequence and ending) because it is a popular elicitation instrument in monolingual and bilingual first language acquisition: it is a picture story without text, suitable for children and because it is fairly long, it will generally generate a good sample of spoken language from children. It is also suitable for analysing macrostructural aspects of story telling because of the complexity of the narrative. Additionally, the story elicits narrative talk by moving not only from place to place but also through time. For example, the story begins at night. While the boy and his dog were sleeping, the frog jumped out of a jar. They found it when they woke up the next morning (see the full script, Appendix 3 Full script of Frog story). It is effective in the investigation of how children make a connection between the situations and interpret characters' relationships, thoughts, feelings and motivations during the story. Fiestas & Peña (2004) studied 20 Spanish-English bilingual children by applying the Frog story and they found children performed equally complex in both languages. Nevertheless, children produced more consequences in English while using more attempts and initiating events in Spanish.

To assess children's narrative productivity (total number of words, total number of different words and total number of morphemes), sentence organisation (C-Unit, Percentage of grammatically acceptable C-Unit) and story macro-structural aspects (settings, initiating events, plan,

attempt/action, consequence and ending), this task was used once in each language in two different occasions (at t1 in Turkish and at t2 in English) because it was considered that children might remember the story when telling it in Turkish and English at the same occasion. It may reduce the reliability of the test because this narrative storytelling was used once in each language. Moreover, the same story was presented in both languages to investigate children's narrative ability in the same way and also to save time.

The task started with a warm-up and presentation of the book and introduction: 'It is a story about a boy, a dog and a frog. I would like you to first look through the pictures and tell me the story as you look'. All narratives were audio-recorded and transcribed by the researcher. The transcripts were divided into morphemes (Brown, 1973) and communication units (C-Units) (Schneider, Dubé & Hayward, 2002).

A morpheme is a word or a part of a word that has a meaning; a unit of meaning (Brown, 1973). It does not necessarily relate to the syllable or word count of an utterance. For instance, the following two sentences were counted by morphemes:

"The dog is look-ing at the thing that has frog in it." (13 morphemes)

"Çocuk ve köpek uyu-du yatağ-ı-na." (8 morphemes)

Child and dog sleep-PST bed-POSS3-DAT

"The child and the dog sleep in the bed."

C-unit is basically a sentence, that includes all the story-related utterances. When deciding the C-units, it is necessary to classify independent and dependent clauses. The independent clauses were divided with their combined simple coordinate conjunctions, such as *and*, *but* etc. while dependent clauses were considered that sentence begins with *because*, *although* etc. For example, the following two sentences are counted as one C-unit:

“He jumped out of an open window.” (independent clause)

“When the boy and the dog woke up the next morning (dependent clause), they saw that the jar was empty (independent clause)”.

In order to minimise the mistake of any conflict of the transcription or the segmenting, another academic colleague of mine who is native in Turkish and native-like in English, reviewed the records, transcribed and segmented. Once transcription and back-transcription were done, the narratives were coded for analysis.

3.4. Pilot Study

A pilot study was run in order to refine the data collection instruments, for example, interview questions, observation checklist and questionnaire, to check the validity of these instruments and whether the questions could be understood and applied in the main study (Yin, 2013). Running a pilot study also help ensure that research instruments work well (Bryman, 2016). Moreover, it allows the researcher to be familiar with the data collection process and experience of the instruments. For this study, carrying out the pilot study was important to see if all instruments work well and if it needs to improve for the main study, the instruments can be fixed, so possible errors can be minimised.

3.4.1. Conducting the Pilot Study

The pilot study was designed to answer the following research questions:

Research Question: How do bilingual Turkish-English speaking pre-school children develop Turkish vocabulary?

- a. How is Turkish a minority language supported in the United Kingdom?

- b. How important is the home environment for learning Turkish?
- c. Do parental language ideologies affect how children acquire Turkish?

The pilot study was designed as a multiple-case study. The instruments of data collection were the parental and the teacher questionnaires, the parents and the teacher interviews, classroom observation, home-recording and language tasks with the children.

The study population of the pilot study (in Nottingham) comprised of three Turkish-English bilingual pre-school age children who attend Turkish supplementary school, and five parents of the bilingual children in the supplementary school, and one of their teachers. The sampling was purposive and deliberately selected bilingual Turkish-English schools and target students. For the pilot study, I chose three students as the ‘target children’ from one of the same schools in which the main study took place. A target child is the ‘a child that a study is about’ (De Houwer, 2007, p. 368). One child was selected from the group to observe and follow her/his development for the aim of the study. The children attend both mainstream schools and Turkish supplementary schools in England.

The draft of the questionnaires and the interview were pre-piloted to two colleagues at the University of York. One was a native Turkish speaker who commented on the English and Turkish translated materials, and another was a native speaker in English who checked on the original tools on the nature of the questions that informed further improvement. Based on the pre-piloted items, the pilot study was conducted between November 2017 and February 2018 as follows (see Table 3.2).

Table 3.2. The pilot study timetable

November 2017	November 2017	December 2017	January 2018	February 2018
Signed consent forms by the headteacher, the teacher and parents	Questionnaires (families+teacher)	Interview (teacher)	Interview (Parents)	Interview (Parents)
	BPVS III (in Turkish)	Frog Story (in Turkish and English)	BPVS III (in English)	Frog story (in Turkish and English)
	Natural conversation (in Turkish and English)		Natural conversation (in Turkish and English)	
	Classroom observation	Classroom observation	Classroom observation	Classroom observation

First, I went to Nottingham Turkish supplementary school where I informed the headteacher, the teacher and the parents in advance, to get consent from them, in November 2017. Consent was obtained from the participants, and then the interviews and questionnaires were undertaken by a teacher and the parents at the school, the language tasks were British Picture Vocabulary Scale III (BPVS-III which assesses receptive vocabulary knowledge) and Frog story with natural conversation was conducted with children. At the end of February 2018, I collected all the pilot data bar one. I had intended to do a home recording of children and parents at their homes, but this was not possible.

The general interpretation of the pilot study is set out below (see section 3.5. Methodological changes in the lights of the pilot study).

3.5. Methodological Changes in the Lights of the Pilot Study

This section highlights the changes that were made to the main study after piloting. First of all, the research questions were redefined to those in section 3.1.1. Research questions and rationale in order to focus on the main aim of the study. Secondly, the research design was modified as a cross-sectional study rather than an ethnographic and multiple case study because having more

participants to follow up with allows the results to be more generalisable. Thirdly, the sample of the main study was changed to bilingual attendee (x20) and non-attendee (x20) children at a Turkish supplementary school rather than 10 bilingual attendee target children. At the end of the main study, however, Turkish-English bilingual 19 attendees and 22 non-attendees at a Turkish supplementary school were conducted.

Fourthly, although there were not a lot of changes needed to the research instruments, I made some changes to them as follows:

- *The Questionnaires:* I used the questionnaires as one of the methods but made the following modifications:
 - a. I removed some of the unclear questions;

The questionnaires were piloted, and participants commented that they could not understand the question of ‘speaking language instead of Turkish and English’. Moreover, they could understand the questions, but they did not know the exact answer of timing and found them redundant. I took into account these comments and I made the necessary modifications.

- b. I decided to do only questionnaires with parents, and not interviews. Also, the questionnaire and interviews were kept for teachers.

Although I had planned to do the questionnaire with both parents, I decided to ask one of the parents to fill in the questionnaire because it would increase their chance of returning the questionnaire in time and it was difficult to reach all the parents, especially when the parents were divorced and one of them took care of the child. I initially intended to ask all the teachers who work at a Turkish supplementary school in England to fill in the questionnaire rather than only teachers of children who take part in this study for the sake of reliability and generalisability of the findings. Unfortunately, it was neither possible nor feasible to survey all the teachers.

- *The Interview:* Although there were not many changes needed on the interview questions, the questions were amended to be made clearer and shorter because some questions mainly seek the same response. Because of this, those questions were removed. Some of the interview questions were too general to answer the research questions (see section 3.1.1. Research questions and rationale). I therefore rearranged the interview questions and focused on the questions that would help answer the research questions. I, additionally, received help from an academic colleague who is native in Turkish and native-like English to check the translated questions and to undertake back-translation to make the questions clear.
- *The Language Task:* I decided to replace the BPVS-III with Cross-linguistic Lexical Tasks (CLTs; Haman; Luniewska; & Pomiechowska, 2015) because BPVS-III measures just receptive vocabulary (i.e., comprehension) knowledge, whereas CLTs assess not only receptive language but also expressive language (i.e., production), concept and directions, word classes and language structure. Also, I decided to use only one picture story which is called “Frog, where are you?” to see if there would be differences in the narrative ability of the children in Turkish and English story-telling.
- *Home Recording:* I was hoping to do a home-recording to explore how parents’ attitudes to language use and how their approach to their child’s language learning at home. For the pilot study, although this was the plan, I could not apply home-recording to the participants because they already knew me as a friend, and they did not see me as a researcher, which may have biased them.

After all of the changes above, the main study data collection procedure was planned as follows (see Table 3.3)

Table 3.3. The main data collection procedure

What data was collected for RQs?		Timeline of the data collection	How much data to answer RQs?	
			Bilingual attendees	Bilingual non-attendees
CLTs	Time 1	September-December 2018	x19	x22
	Time 2	March-June 2019	x19	x22
Narrative task (Frog story)	Turkish	September 2018 – April 2019	x17	x12
	English	September 2018 – April 2019	x11	x16
Questionnaire	Parents	September 2018 – April 2019	x17	x22
	Teachers	September 2018 – February 2019		x22
Interview	Teachers	March – April 2019		x5

3.6. Data Analysis

Data in the current study were analysed and interpreted in relation to the research questions. As specified earlier, using a mixed-methods approach, more than one analysis technique was used in this study. The quantitative data were collected from the questionnaires, and cross-linguistic lexical tasks. Also, narrative storytelling (frog story) qualitative data were transferred as quantitative data by using coding. Qualitative data in this study was gathered from the teachers' interviews.

3.6.1. Questionnaire

The data gathered from the parents' and teachers' questionnaires were coded by the researcher and entered into the SPSS 26 software programme, as reported in Chapter 4 (teacher questionnaire and interviews) and Chapter 6 (parental questionnaire). First, for both of the questionnaires, Cronbach's Alpha values were calculated to check the reliability of the items. In order to interpret the participants' distribution, descriptive statistics were used in terms of percentages, frequencies and means.

To answer the first research question and sub-questions '*Research Question 1*. What does the Turkish supplementary school system look like in the UK?', a descriptive analysis was conducted to explore the characteristics of the Turkish supplementary schools (size, place etc.) and demographics of the teachers (age, education, experience etc.). Secondly, another descriptive analysis was run to examine the teaching environment, teaching techniques and teachers' perceptions of the teaching and learning of Turkish. Lastly, with regard to the teacher questionnaire data, questionnaire items correlation was checked to each statement, and non-parametric tests (Mann-Whitney *U*) were applied to determine statistically significant differences in the teaching environment, teaching techniques and teachers' perceptions with regards to the teachers' demographic variables.

To answer the third research question and sub-questions '*Research Question 3*. Do parental perspectives affect the child's bilingual language learning?', a descriptive analysis was run to gather parents' perceptions of their children's bilingual language learning. It allowed investigation of family characteristics (family type, education etc.) and the children's language input and practice in home settings. Following this, a series of Spearman's rank-order correlation analyses were conducted in order to see to what extent the bilingual children's language performance was affected by their home language literacy environment.

3.6.2. Interviews

According to Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2011), how the analysis of qualitative data is conducted should be decided based on how it fits the research questions. In order to address the research question 1b and 1c (see *RQI*, section 3.1.1. Research questions and rationale), I needed to decide on the appropriate way to transcribe, translate and code the data. This study employed “thematic analysis” as a method of analysing the data. According to Braun & Clarke, thematic analysis is ‘a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data’ (2006, p. 79). The reasons for adopting thematic analysis are as follows; to shorten large data sets and allow a ‘thick description’; to emphasize differences and similarities of the data set; and that it allows flexibility for the interpretation of data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The stages suggested for thematic analysis by Braun & Clarke (2006) and how thematic analysis was conducted and linked in this study are presented in table 3.4.

Table 3.4. Phases of thematic analysis(Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.87)

Phase	Description of the process
i. Familiarizing yourself with your data	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
ii. Generating initial codes	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.
iii. Searching for themes	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
iv. Reviewing themes	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic ‘map’ of the analysis.
v. Defining and naming themes	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
vi. Producing the report	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, the final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

- i. Familiarization with data: I was familiar with the data collected from the teacher questionnaire as I had time to review the questionnaire multiple times while redesigning the interview questions. After finishing the questionnaire analysis, I was able to decide on a list of questions that would support the result of the questionnaire. Straight after each

interview, each audio recording was transcribed. Initial ideas were noted while transcribing. After that, I checked grammar and spelling and kept writing down notes.

- ii. Generating initial codes: This stage took place after reading and being familiarised with the data and identifying a number of relevant themes on the collected data.
- iii. Searching for themes: The initial codes were reviewed, and potential codes were considered. Initial themes were grouped by considering the colour-coded data according to questionnaire themes (Teachers' teaching environment, teaching technique and teaching perceptions) (see Table 4.9 for details) and concentrated on these preliminary basic themes for organising the raw data. Similar codes were highlighted in the same colour. For example, as the main themes, teachers' teaching environment includes the sub-themes curriculum, building etc. and teaching techniques relate to using picture books, technology or using the target language in the classroom etc.
- iv. Reviewing themes: The themes were cross-checked with the data set (questionnaire) and improved as necessary and finalised. The previous steps were repeated until the researcher could not find any new themes.
- v. Defining and naming themes: As part of the checking process, the result of the study was analysed, and cross-referenced with the data set. Definitions for each theme were refined and named accordingly. In this study, themes were organised and arranged in three categories regarding the questionnaire themes (Teachers' teaching environment, teaching technique and teaching perceptions).
- vi. Producing the report: Quotes that were considered to highlight the key findings were chosen and written into the thesis. The findings were evaluated and discussed in relation to the relevant literature and concluded.

An example of the thematic analysis can be seen in Appendix 7 An example of thematic analysis of interview transcription.

3.6.3. Cross-linguistic Lexical Tasks (CLTs)

The data gathered from the CLTs were anonymised and recorded in the SPSS 26 programme with the same name as the parents' questionnaire data and the result was reported in Chapter 6.

In order to answer the RQ2, 'which variables can explain performance on CLTs and narrative tasks in English and Turkish of 4-8-year-old bilingual Turkish-English children?', RQ 2*a* 'do the Turkish and English language skills of the bilingual children differ depending on Turkish supplementary school attendance status, age, SES, and parental language strategies?' and RQ 2*b* 'how do the vocabulary, narrative production and narrative quality skills in Turkish and English in Turkish-English bilingual children change?' a series of mixed ANOVAs were conducted to see if there was any difference in children's pre- and post-test performance (within subject factor of time) and in between children who attend Turkish supplementary schools and children who do not (between subject factors of the group) in vocabulary size. Additionally, a series of univariate ANCOVAs were run to assess the effects of the group (attendee and non-attendee) on the results of post-test vocabulary size after controlling for the pre-test in Turkish and English (Jennings & Cribbie, 2016). Separate analyses were carried out for each score (comprehension and production of nouns and verbs) in both Turkish and English. The statistical distribution of participants was reported by using descriptive statistics, such as frequencies, mean and percentage.

3.6.4. Narrative Storytelling Task

Once transcribed, narratives were coded by three aspects of development; productivity (total number of words, the total number of different words and the total number of morphemes), sentence organisation (total number of C-units and percentage of grammatically acceptable C-unit) and the macro-structural aspects of the story (Fiestas & Peña, 2004; Muñoz, Gillam, Peña & Gulley-

Faehnle, 2003). This analytical categorisation allowed exploration of linguistic development at the level of the words, sentences and connected discourses.

Productivity: Three measures of productivity were assessed, namely the total number of words (TNW), the total number of different words (NDW) and the total number of morphemes (TNM) in the story. TNW provided an explanation of the story length. NDW provided a measure of richness in word usage. TNM provided a measure of richness in meaningful word usage. For example, one child might have said:

“The frog is climbing out of the jar.”

TNW in this script is 8 words whilst NDW is 7 words and 9 morphemes.

“Bir de kurbağa çık-tı ev-i-nden.”

Also frog leave-PST house-POSS3-DAT

“Also, the frog left the house.”

TNW in this sentence is 5 words and NDW is also 5 words while TNM is 8 morphemes.

TNW, NDW and TNM were frequency counts calculated manually by myself in two times (on different occasions) and by an academic colleague in Turkish and in English.

Sentence organisation: two measures of sentence organisation were calculated, namely the number of C units and the percentage of grammatically acceptable C units. The total of C units provided measures of story length. The percentage of grammatically acceptable C units was measured by dividing the number of acceptable C units by the total number of C units. Each C unit was categorised as acceptable and unacceptable for syntactic structure. Grammatically acceptable C units were described as utterances that were produced by the majority of speakers (Muñoz et al., 2003). For example, one child might have uttered the following;

“The deer stopped suddenly, and the boy and the dog fell over the edge of the cliff.”

The C-unit of this sentence was calculated as:

“The deer stopped suddenly/ and / the boy and the dog fell over the edge of the cliff.”

And this shows that there are two C-units in this sentence.

However, another child might have said:

“the frog getting out.”

This sentence has one C-unit, but it is not a grammatically acceptable utterance. If it was structured as “The frog is getting out.”, it would be counted as a grammatically acceptable utterance.

Story macro-structural aspects define the criteria of story production in preschool and school-aged children (see Table 3.5) (Muñoz et al., 2003). Repeated, revised and incomplete utterances were not coded. For instance, if a child repeated ‘the boy looked at the boats for the frog’ twice at the beginning of the story, only the first was coded. Similarly, if the setting information was repeated using different words, the first was coded. I coded the transcriptions of the storytelling and scored in terms of the aforementioned factors.

Table 3.5. Story Grammar proportion and corresponding definitions

(Muñoz et al., 2003, p.336)

Proposition	Definition	Examples
Setting	Introduce characters and context	Once upon a time there was a boy that had a frog and a dog.
Initiating event	Causes a response in the main character that sets the story in motion	The frog is getting out.
Attempt	Actions in pursuit of the goal	He looked outside.
Plan	Expression of intended actions	He is planning to climb the tree.
Internal response	Thoughts and feelings in response to initiating event	N/A
Reaction	Affective responses related to the chain of events not related to the initiating event	N/A
Consequence	Attainment or non-attainment of the goal	And then they found his little frog.

The child with the highest score means that s/he has fewer errors in language production. In order to answer the RQ 2b ‘how do the vocabulary, narrative production and narrative quality skills in Turkish and English in Turkish-English bilingual children change?’, a series of Mann-Whitney *U* tests were run and descriptive frequency statistics were calculated for the story grammar element of the task in each language.

All the data was uploaded to SPSS 26 and linked to the CLT data. To answer the RQ 2c. ‘how are vocabulary and narrative productivity skills related to each other within and across languages?’ a series of Spearman rank-order correlations were conducted in order to see whether there was any relation between vocabulary scores and narrative productivity and sentence organisation skills. Lastly, a simple linear regression analysis was conducted in order to see whether the children’s age had an effect on their vocabulary and narrative scores.

The next section presents the ethical consideration of the thesis.

3.7. Ethical Considerations

The British Educational Research Association's ethical guidelines for conducting research (British Educational Research Association, 2011) highlight that researchers who intend to improve his or her professional knowledge should adhere to ethical considerations of respect for people, democratic values, knowledge, the quality of academic freedom and educational research. The point to be noted is that participation in research should be completely voluntary.

The current study followed the primary ethical considerations of access and acceptance, the anonymity of participants, informed consent, and confidentiality at all stages of the data collection and data analysis. Firstly, the information sheets and consent forms (see Appendix 1 Parental, School and teacher consent forms and information sheets) were sent out to the University of York, Department of Education's Ethics Board in July 2017. The ethics approval for the study was received via email from the Ethics Committee at the University in November 2017. Consent forms and information sheets were given to the participants a week prior to the pilot data collection for the pilot study.

The participants were informed that their participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw from the research at any time. They were also informed that the data collection carried out would be audio-recorded interviews, questionnaires, and audio to language tasks. Throughout the data collection period, participants' regular activities were not disturbed in any situation. The participants were made to feel free and comfortable and were not under pressure during the interviews and language tasks. For example, while interviewing the teachers, if they felt under pressure, they might want to answer the questions in a way that they think I would like to hear or

how it should be; it is called as “the observers’ paradox” (Labov, 1972). Thus, I could not gather reliable findings from this research as an interviewer.

Ethical considerations should be agreed upon between researchers and research participants before starting the research (Bell, 2005). I assured the participants that consent forms and other documents were confidential and anonymous. In this study, I avoided using the participants’ names, each child and their parent were given a number to ensure confidentiality. Additionally, paper-based documents were kept in a locked cabinet and electronic data were kept in a password-protected file, to which only I had access. I obtained permission from the schools’ principals, the teachers and the parents to include them in this study.

3.8. Validity and Reliability

3.8.1. Validity

According to Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2011), research validity depends on many things including but not limited to the time a study is conducted, having appropriate resources to conduct the research, adopting an appropriate approach to answer the research questions, selecting the appropriate participants, using suitable instruments and materials to collect data.

With regard to participant validity, there were three groups of child participants. These students were Turkish-English bilinguals of approximately the same age and had been living in the UK for the last five years. Almost half of them were taking a Turkish supplementary school and others were not. The second group of participants was the parents who were the caregiver of the children who took in part of the study. The third group was the teachers at Turkish supplementary schools. To ensure that the appropriate approach and materials were chosen, the materials were piloted and translated. To enhance validity, the materials which were questionnaires and interviews were translated into Turkish and as noted above, back translation was undertaken by a bilingual Turkish-

English academic colleague. After the back translation, the materials were checked in order to make sure that they were neither unclear nor misleading. Also, the transcription of the interviews and narrative storytelling data were translated in the same way to ensure that there was no missing data. However, validity does not confirm reliability (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). The next section discusses the reliability of this study.

3.8.2. Reliability

Reliability refers to that the research could be carried out again with a similar group of participants in a similar population, with similar findings (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Nonetheless, this does not indicate that the same results will be found, because two different researchers undertaking the same research might find different results as data interpretation can differ. However, both results can be considered reliable (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). To ensure reliability as far as possible, triangulation was used in this study. Results from the children's data from the CLTs, narrative story-telling and natural conversation, and the parents' questionnaires were combined and compared to enhance reliability.

The teacher interviews were conducted one-to-one and face-to-face. This provided a better understanding of their perceptions through facial expressions. I used a neutral tone of voice at all times attempted to avoid any extra comments when conducting the CLTs with the students. This is because children might think that the researcher stresses the correct vocabulary to help the participants. This increased the reliability of the findings from the language tasks.

The results of the quantitative data from questionnaires and language tasks (CLTs and narrative story-telling) were calculated by using an SPSS 26 software programme.

3.9. Conclusion

This chapter presented the methodology used in this study in order to answer the research questions. The research design was discussed by explaining the mixed methods approach taken and why this approach was used to examine the role of different variables (supplementary school attendance status, age, SES, family language strategies) in bilingual children's language development. An overview of the research location was outlined. The participants of the project and the methods of sampling were also described in detail. The research tools were explained, including how they were piloted and used in the data collection. Then, the main data collection instruments and procedures as well as analysis of the data were also discussed. It was followed by the ethical consideration and validity and reliability of the study.

The following five chapters present the analysis and findings of the study.

Chapter 4 Analysis of the Turkish Supplementary Schools' Teachers' Data

4.1. Introduction

Children acquire language under different environmental circumstances constructed with the influence of factors including parents, siblings, peers, television, schools and so on (Hoff, 2006). Different environments provide different quality and quantity of exposure to language. This study will deal with how children perform in different family settings and their supplementary school attendance status. It is therefore important to set out how supplementary schools in the UK are run and the nature of their teaching environment and teachers' teaching methods and applications. In reviewing the literature, school teaching environment and teachers' techniques and perceptions also have an effect on children's language acquisition (e.g., Maylor et al., 2013; Minty et al., 2008; Okur, 2014).

The importance of supplementary schools has become increasingly emphasised through research and government reports (Çavuşoğlu, 2014). These schools make a significant educational contribution, particularly in teaching the minority language, culture, and religion or supplementing mainstream education, such as math and literature (Szczeppek-Reed, Said, Dvies & Bengsch, 2020).

This chapter presents an analysis of the data gathered by means of a questionnaire aimed at teachers, divided into eight sections. Section 2 reproduces the aims and the research questions of the present study, while section 3 describes the method (i.e., materials, participants, and procedures). Section 4 presents the findings from the questionnaire data, and Section 5 includes findings from the interview data. Section 6 presents the integrated data of the questionnaire and interview findings. This is followed by Section 7, where the results of the data are discussed in relation to the previous literature and the results are presented under the light of the research question. The chapter closes with Section 8, which presents a summary of the chapter.

4.2. Study Aims and Research Questions for This Chapter

The present study was designed to establish what the Turkish supplementary school system looks like in the UK. For purposes of this research, demographics, teaching environment, teaching technique and teachers' perceptions were evaluated by the teacher questionnaire. The research questions addressed by the teachers' questionnaire were as follows:

Research Question 1. What does the Turkish supplementary school system look like in the UK?

- a. Do teachers' teaching environment (TE), techniques (TT) and perceptions (TP) on Turkish language learning vary according to demographic variables such as gender, education, training, general teaching experience, and teaching experience at a Turkish supplementary school?
- b. How do the teachers in supplementary schools apply the teaching in a classroom?
- c. What are the perceptions of teachers in Turkish supplementary schools in the UK?

4.3. Methods

4.3.1. Participants

This chapter presents the data gathering from the teachers through questionnaires and interviews. For the questionnaire, 22 teachers from Turkish supplementary schools in the UK were recruited. The interviews were conducted with five teachers who work at Turkish supplementary schools where the student participants of in this study attend. The teachers were selected on purpose with the criterion being that they were working as a formal teacher at a Turkish supplementary school. Each teacher was approached, either directly through known contacts, or through the Turkish Embassy Education Consultancy in London, in order to develop a database of all the teachers working in each supplementary school. The Education Consultancy website provided the list of the

supplementary schools and teachers' names. From the lists provided by the Education Consultancy, there are 38 teachers (31 who teach and seven who work as administrators, were not included) (MEBLEM, 2019).

4.3.2. Data Collection Instruments

4.3.2.1. Teacher Questionnaire

The teacher questionnaire data was collected using an online questionnaire system (Qualtrics). The questionnaire was designed on the basis of previous questionnaires in the literature, and the literature on language teaching techniques. Before carrying out the questionnaires, reliability analysis ($\alpha = .854$) was done to find a correlation between the questionnaire's statements.

4.3.2.2. Interviews

Interview data were gathered sometime after the questionnaire had been completed by the teachers. The teachers were consulted for exploring what they apply in a classroom and what their perceptions on teaching and learning Turkish as a heritage language are. See Chapter 3 for further details regarding the interview questions.

4.3.3. Procedures

The online questionnaire was sent to all teachers who work in a supplementary school via the Education Consultancy through email. The email contained the information sheet and a link to the online questionnaire (Qualtrics) to be filled in by the teachers. Once this phase of data collection was completed, questionnaire data were coded and uploaded to the SPSS 26 analysis package.

The interviews were conducted face-to-face. The audio-recorded interviews were transcribed and reviewed several times to gain a full understanding of the respondents' perceptions. Then, for the

aim of the thematic coding, the transcripts were read and reread employing colour coding aiming to find similarities and differences in the data.

4.3.4. Results of Questionnaire Data

The questionnaires were accessible online between September 2018 and January 2019 and distributed to 38 Turkish supplementary schools' teachers in England. As a result, 22 participants completed the questionnaire, achieving a response rate of 57.9%. However, seven teachers out of 38 had to be excluded from this research as they do not work in a supplementary school. The final response rate was 71% out of 31 teachers, which is regarded as very good by any standards (Bryman, 2015; Tymms, 2012).

4.3.4.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

This section presents the results of the descriptive data analysis, showing the relevant demographic characteristics of the sample. Descriptive statistics, in general, describes quantitative information, summarises, graphs and organises the data (Johnson, 2016). Therefore, the first aim of this section is to present a description of the characteristics of the participants in this study, while the second is to compare all responses using a frequency and percentage analysis in terms of five characteristics: gender, education, training, general teaching experience, and teaching experience at supplementary school.

Teachers were asked to indicate their gender as “female”, “male” and “other”. All participants responded to the question; female ($n = 11$) and male ($n = 11$) participants.

Teachers were asked to identify their age in years from a range of five categories, each representing a range of 10 years (“Under 25” = 1, “25-29” = 2, “30-39” = 3, “40-49” = 4, “Over 50” = 5), and the results are presented in Table 4.1. The majority of teachers (72.7%) were aged between 30 and

39 years. The second most populous age group was 40 - 49, which made up 18.2% of the participants. Only two participants were in the group of 25 - 29 (9.1%) and none of the participants was under 25 or over 50. The data also showed equal numbers of male and female teachers in each age group.

Table 4.1. Age of the participants

(n = 22)			Frequency	%
Teachers' age in years	Under 25	Female	0	0
		Male	0	0
	25-29	Female	1	4.55
		Male	1	4.55
	30-39	Female	8	36.35
		Male	8	36.35
	40-49	Female	2	9.1
		Male	2	9.1
	Over 50	Female	0	0
		Male	0	0

Participants were asked what the highest level of education they have completed (“4-year degree”, “Professional degree”, “Doctorate”) was and where they had their most recent education. The participants varied in their educational level from 4-year of bachelor’s degree (45.5%) to a professional degree (54.5%). There were just two teachers (9%) who had their most recent education in England while the other 91 per cent of teachers graduated from one of the universities in Turkey. In addition, teachers were asked to indicate which subject of training they had.

Although the teachers teach Turkish in the supplementary schools, teachers were asked in which subject area they were trained as a teacher (“Pre-school teacher” = 1, “Primary school teacher” = 2, “English Language Teacher” = 3, “Turkish Language Teacher” = 4, “Other” =5). Only 45.5% of teachers hold a degree in Turkish Language and Literature teaching. Only 27.3% of teachers stated that they have a primary school teacher qualification and 13.6% hold a BA in English

Language Teaching. The least common qualification was the Diploma in preschool teaching (4.5%).

Therefore, of those teachers who provide Turkish language education in a Turkish supplementary school, 59.1% have training in language education. Teachers were also asked about their level of language proficiency in Turkish, English and any other languages. The great majority of teachers (54.5%) reported that as regards proficiency, they classified themselves as “moderately well” in English while only 4.5% of teachers had native or native-like proficiency in English. 36.3% of teachers replied they were “well” in English. However, most of the teachers (77.3%) reported they were “native”, and others (22.7%) were “very well” in Turkish. Moreover, some of the teachers (31.8%) spoke one more additional language except Turkish and English.

Teachers were asked to indicate how many years they had been teaching in total among six categories (“1-3 years” = 1, “3-5 years” = 2, “5-7 years” = 3, “7-9 years” = 4, “10-15 years” = 5, “more than 15 years” = 6). Results revealed that the majority of teachers had more than 10 years of experience (68.2%), with similar proportions having either more than 15- or 10-15 years’ experience (36.4% and 31.8%, respectively). The smallest groups are both 3-5 and 5-7 years (each 4.5%) while the smaller proportion (9.1%) had less than 3 years of experience. Of the highest and smallest groups, 13.6% had 7-9 years of experience. It is clear that the majority of teachers were relatively more experienced, with more than 10 years, whereas the less experienced teachers with under 10 years of experience, made up 31.7% of the total.

The participants were also asked how many years they had been teaching in a supplementary school in England (“the first-year” = 1, “2” = 2, “3” = 3, “4” = 4, “5” = 5). A very small proportion of teachers (4.5%) had taught two years in a supplementary school, while a slightly larger number (31.8%) had five years of experience, followed by 27.3% in their first year of teaching in a supplementary school. However, teachers who had been teaching in a supplementary school for

three and four years had the same percentage (18.2% each). There was no teacher who had an experience of more than five years in a supplementary school. However, this is not surprising because the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Turkey and the Turkish Embassy in London only allow teachers to work in a supplementary school for up to five years (MoNE, 2019) (see Chapter 2 Literature Review).

4.3.4.2. Turkish Supplementary Schools' Characteristics in the UK

Participants were given the option of writing the name and the city of their supplementary school on the questionnaire. All teachers filled in the city of the school and a small number of teachers wrote the name of the school. There were responses from seven cities out of the 20 cities (MEBLEM, 2019). The most responses were from supplementary schools in London (68.2%), followed by Nottingham (9.1%) and the rest are from Bristol, Coventry, Manchester, Newport and Swindon (4.5% each). No responses were received from 13 cities. The Turkish Supplementary Schools in this context rented places from other communities or mainstream schools. The majority of the schools run on the weekends either Saturday or Sunday, or both, while some of them run after school (MEBLEM, 2019). These schools are voluntary and teachers are paid by parents and the Ministry of Education in Turkey (MoNE, 2019).

In the questionnaire, teachers reported that their schools ranged in terms of size and responses were coded into eight categories, each representing a range of 10 students. The highest proportion of teachers reported that the school had 150 students (one school, in London). Most of the Turkish supplementary schools were the same size or had less than 40 pupils (76.1%). One teacher did not answer this question (Swindon). The schools in London have the most crowded population (71.4%), followed by Nottingham at 9.5%, and the others have 4.8% each. The students were grouped by their age or language proficiency which is assessed by taking a language exam before

school starts. Many students start attending these schools from five years old and continue until 14 years old.

Teachers were asked how they defined their students' Turkish language skills in this school within the range of five categories: "Excellent" (0), "Good" (1), "Average" (2), "Poor" (3) and "Terrible" (4). The most popular answer was "Good" (54.5%). Only 13.6 per cent of teachers described their students' vocabulary level as "Excellent". No one responded to this question as poor or terrible.

Teachers also were asked a question about how they use language instructional materials for students with different vocabulary knowledge. Of the 22 teachers, more than half of the participants (72.7%) stated that "I use different materials with students at a different level.". The minority of the teachers (4.5%) responded to the question that they use the same material with all students regardless of level.

4.3.4.3. Descriptive Analysis of Teachers' Responses in Teachers' Teaching Environment, Technique and Perceptions

In the Instruction section of the questionnaire, teachers were asked several five-point Likert scale questions ("1 = strongly agree", "2 = Agree", "3 = neither agree nor disagree", "4 = Disagree" and "5 = strongly disagree") to gather their views on the Teaching Environment (8 items), Teaching Technique (14 items) and Teachers' Perceptions (4 items).

4.3.4.3.1. Teaching Environment (TE)

As Table 4.2 shows below, the average response regarding the teachers' teaching environment questions was mostly viewed as "agree". It indicates that overall, teachers have positive views of their teaching environment. According to the responses, teachers care to create a pleasant learning atmosphere, they are satisfied with their job and feel that they make a significant educational

difference in the students' lives. The statement "I lose quite a lot of time because of students interrupting the lesson" yielded an average response that was lower than other responses and varied quite a lot between teachers (strongly agree to strongly disagree). Only 36.4% of the teachers agreed that they were interested in what students had to say and most of them chose "strongly agree" or "agree" to that if the students need extra assistance, they could provide it (27.3% and 40.9%, respectively). Based on the samples, this suggests that the teachers are happy with their teaching environment and agree to create a friendly learning atmosphere.

Table 4.2. Statement related to a teaching environment

(n = 22)	Mean	SD	Min	Max
All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	1.86	.834	1	4
I feel that I am making a significant educational difference in the lives of my students.	2.05	.653	1	3
Most teachers in this school are interested in what students have to say.	2.32	.839	1	4
If a student from this school needs extra assistance, I can provide it.	2.23	1.152	1	5
I work with individual students.	2.18	.853	1	5
I take care to create a pleasant learning atmosphere.	1.64	.658	1	3
I lose quite a lot of time because of students interrupting the lesson.	2.82	1.181	1	6
I use video and audio material in Turkish.	1.82	.907	1	4

4.3.4.3.2. Teaching Technique (TT)

As shown below (Table 4.3), the average response regarding the teachers' teaching technique indicates that overall, teachers had positive views of their teaching technique. According to the responses, teachers used the target language and gave examples such as pictures and gestures. Teachers focused on teaching the language, however, they agreed to plan teaching activities

themselves rather than asking about students' interests. For example, the statements "It is better when the teacher – not the student – decides what activities are to be done." (40.9% "disagree") and "I ask my students to suggest or to help plan classroom activities or topics." (40.8% "neither agree nor disagree" nor less) showed an average response that was lower than other responses. Based on the sample, teachers tend to give improvement instructions and use mainly the Turkish language to teach the target language, but they plan the lecture themselves.

Table 4.3. Statements related to teaching technique

(n = 22)	Mean	SD	Min	Max
I usually know how to get through to students.	1.73	.703	1	3
It is better when the teacher – not the student – decides what activities are to be done.	2.77	1.152	1	4
I always use Turkish in the class.	2.00	1.113	1	4
I always prepare the teaching material before arriving at the school.	1.36	.727	1	4
I present new topics for the class (lecture-style presentation).	1.91	.750	1	4
I review with the students the homework they have prepared.	1.77	.752	1	3
I ask my students to suggest or help plan classroom activities or topics.	2.32	1.211	1	5
I track the study process.	1.82	.664	1	3
I use pictures and objects for my students to make connections between words and the associated objects.	1.64	.790	1	4
I speak the target language and I ask a question and give instructions in Turkish.	1.50	.673	1	3
I assign activities that require a group.	1.82	.733	1	3
I use Turkish texts which accommodate real-life language use.	1.55	.596	1	3
I correct the students in a sensible way.	1.50	.598	1	3
I give commands through one word along with gestures such as pointing which provides opportunities for initiating the interaction among students.	2.09	.921	1	5

4.3.4.3.3. Teachers' Perceptions (TP)

Teachers were asked about their perceptions of supplementary schools and teaching and learning the Turkish language. Table 4.4 shows that most of the teachers (90.9%) strongly agreed that teaching Turkish is important to young children in the UK, and they (95.5%) also thought Turkish would be beneficial for the student in their future life or career. However, none of the teachers answered, “strongly agree” with the item “supplementary schools play an important role to teach and learn the language”. The average response regarding the teachers' perception of the supplementary schools' role in the students' language development was “neither agree nor disagree” (40.9%). Based on the responses, teachers' perception of learning and teaching the Turkish language was positive, it is beneficial for the students' lives.

Table 4.4. Statements related to teachers' perceptions

(<i>n</i> = 22)	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Do you think is it important to teach Turkish to young children in the UK?	1.18	.664	1	4
Do you think Turkish will benefit the students in the future?	1.05	.213	1	2
Do you think any certain ideas that can only communicate in Turkish not very well in English?	2.23	.922	1	3
Do you think the supplementary schools play a role in the students' language development?	3.00	.873	2	5

4.3.4.4. Analyses of TE, TT and TP Based on Demographic Characteristics

The next set of analyses was carried out to explore whether responses to the TE, TT and TP items varied as a result of the demographic characteristics. In order to provide a comprehensive set of analyses, it was desirable to reduce the number of items on the questionnaire. As such, initial reliability analyses were carried out on the items in the TE and TT sections of the questionnaire to

assess whether a single score could be calculated for these dimensions. TP items were excluded as there were only four items in this section and subsequent analyses were carried out on these items individually.

4.3.4.4.1. Reliability

a. Teaching Environment (TE)

Cronbach's alpha for the eight TE items in the teacher questionnaire was .47 suggesting that the use of these items as a unitary scale to measure TE was not advisable. To explore this in more detail, the correlations between all eight items in the TE section of the questionnaire were calculated. Table 4.5 shows that three of the items in this section did not correlate well with the other items. These items were “If a student from this school needs extra assistance, I can provide it.” (TE4); “I work with individual students.” (TE5); and “I lose quite a lot of time because of students interrupting the lesson.” (TE7). *Cronbach's alpha* was performed with these items removed and reliability increased to .78. Consequently, these items were dropped by the TE group, and all subsequent analyses are based on teachers' responses to the remaining five items.

Table 4.5 indicates the three strongest correlations, which imply that teachers who believe that they make a significant educational difference in the students' lives also believe they are satisfied with their job. Also, most teachers are interested in what the students have to say. Moreover, the teachers who are satisfied with their job are also likely to create a pleasant learning atmosphere. The findings of using video and audio material were interesting, where the teachers feel making a significant difference in students' lives also use video and audio materials in Turkish.

Table 4.5. Teaching Environment-item correlation

	TE1	TE2	TE3	TE4	TE5	TE6	TE7
TE1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.							
TE2. I feel that I am making a significant educational difference in the lives of my students.	.712**						
TE3. Most teachers in this school are interested in what students have to say.	.406	.581**					
TE4. If a student from this school needs extra assistance, I can provide it.	.034	-.078	-.078				
TE5. I work with individual students.	.304	.412	.315	.247			
TE6. I take care to create a pleasant learning atmosphere.	.513*	.373	.220	-.011	.208		
TE7. I lose quite a lot of time because of students interrupting the lesson.	-.123	-.174	-.275	-.178	-.107	-.334	
TE8. I use video and audio material in Turkish.	.281	.497*	.393	.133	.353	.363	-.477**

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

b. Teaching Technique (TT)

The reliability of 14-item TT groups has high internal consistency ($\alpha = .85$). Although this can be highly reliable for research purposes, examination of the correlations between the items suggested that one item was not performing well in relation to the others; “It is better when the teacher – not

the student – decides what activities are to be done.” *Cronbach’s alpha* increased to .88 when this item was removed. This item was therefore discarded, and the remaining 13 items were used in all subsequent analyses.

Correlations for each pair of items of TT group questions on the questionnaire were conducted and Table 4.6 shows to strong correlations were found. As the table indicates, many items were moderately correlated. The strongest correlation was between teachers who speak the target language and ask questions, and give instructions in Turkish, and teachers who sensibly correct the students. There were strong correlations found between items referring to teachers who know how to get through the students and present a new topic to the class; review the students’ homework; ask the students to suggest or plan the classroom activities and use word-related pictures or objects. The teachers who review the students’ homework, also present a new topic in the class; ask the students to suggest or plan the classroom activities; keep track of the study process; use pictures and objects to make connections between words and the associated objects; speak the target language; assign group activities; use Turkish texts which accommodate real-life language use; and correct students in a sensible way.

A series of Mann-Whitney *U* tests were conducted to determine whether the groups of TE and TT items and individual items of TP of Turkish language learning and teaching vary in terms of demographic variables such as the teachers’ gender, education, training, general teaching experience and experience at a supplementary school.

Table 4.6. Teaching Technique-item correlation

	TT1	TT2	TT3	TT4	TT5	TT6	TT7	TT8	TT9	TT10	TT11	TT12	TT13	TT14
TT1. I usually know how to get through to students.														
TT2. It is better when the teacher – not the student – decides what activities are to be done.	-.257													
TT3. I always use Turkish in the class.	.122	.186												
TT4. I always prepare the teaching material before arriving in the school.	.390	-.067	.118											
TT5. I present new topics for the class (lecture-style presentation).	.583**	-.190	.399	.500*										
TT6. I review with the students the homework they have prepared.	.599**	.048	.342	.333	.637**									
TT7. I ask my students to suggest or help plan classroom activities or topics.	.443*	-.253	-.035	.241	.558**	.607**								
TT8. I track the study process.	.399	.130	.386	.538**	.634**	.581**	.431*							
TT9. I use pictures and objects for my students to make connections between words and the associated objects.	.671**	-.305	.271	.573**	.745**	.496*	.476*	.413						
TT10. I speak the target language and I ask a question and give instructions in Turkish.	.302	.031	.636**	.000	.378	.518*	.088	.320	.359					
TT11. I assign activities that require a group.	.362	.231	.292	.309	.402	.700**	.283	.418	.210	.483*				
TT12. I use Turkish texts which accommodate real-life language use.	.372	-.088	.359	.180	.542**	.715**	.474*	.383	.442*	.713**	.674**			
TT13. I correct the students in a sensible way.	.340	.173	.573**	.000	.319	.689**	.099	.360	.303	.889**	.653**	.669**		
TT14. I give commands through one word along with gestures such as pointing which provides opportunities for initiating the interaction among students.	.261	-.024	.046	.233	.219	.375	.613**	.495*	.244	.154	.237	.166	.260	

******.Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) *****. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The results of the Mann-Whitney U tests indicated that there was no impact of gender, education, training, teaching experience in general and teaching experience at a supplementary school on responses between Teaching Environment and Teaching Technique (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7. Teachers' teaching environment and technique by demographic characteristics

		Teaching environment	Teaching technique
Gender	Mann-Whitney U	58.50	50.00
	p (2-tailed)	.89	.49
Education	Mann-Whitney U	56.50	52.50
	p (2-tailed)	.82	.62
Training	Mann-Whitney U	45.50	46.50
	p (2-tailed)	.38	.42
Teaching experience	Mann-Whitney U	40.50	38.00
	p (2-tailed)	.39	.31
Teaching experience at supplementary school	Mann-Whitney U	49.00	43.00
	p (2-tailed)	.44	.25

The Table 4.8 below shows that teachers' perception was not impacted by teachers' gender, education, teacher training, teaching experience and teaching experience at a supplementary school.

Table 4.8. Teachers' perception by demographic characteristics

		Do you think is it important to teach Turkish to young children in the UK?	Do you think Turkish will benefit the students in the future?	Do you think any certain ideas that can only communicate in Turkish not very well in English?	Do you think the supplementary schools play a role in the students' language development?
Gender	Mann-Whitney <i>U</i>	60.000	55.000	45.500	56.000
	<i>p</i> (2-tailed)	.948	.317	.272	.754
Education	Mann-Whitney <i>U</i>	50.000	54.000	52.500	55.000
	<i>p</i> (2-tailed)	.186	.273	.581	.727
Training	Mann-Whitney <i>U</i>	49.500	54.000	46.000	40.000
	<i>p</i> (2-tailed)	.228	.405	.352	.190
Teaching experience	Mann-Whitney <i>U</i>	45.500	49.000	30.000	49.000
	<i>p</i> (2-tailed)	.323	.495	.077	.794
Teaching experience at supplementary school	Mann-Whitney <i>U</i>	49.5000	55.000	58.000	35.000
	<i>p</i> (2-tailed)	.148	.317	.855	.076

4.3.4.5. Summary of the Questionnaire Findings

This chapter has presented an analysis of the data collected by the supplementary school teacher questionnaire. Most of the participants were aged between 30 and 39 years (72.7%) and more than half of the sample (54.5%) hold a professional degree, while others (45.5%) have a 4-year degree. Interestingly, 59.1% of teachers who teach Turkish in a supplementary school, have language

teacher training. Most of the teachers (68.2%) had more than 10 years of general teaching experience.

Turkish supplementary schools are run in 20 cities in the UK. Out of 20, responses were received from seven cities. One of the schools in London has 150 students and the fewest number of students are also in London schools ($1 \leq 10$). On average, teachers respond that students have a “Good” level of Turkish vocabulary. Most of the participants (72.7%) use different materials for a student with a different level of Turkish vocabulary.

According to the teacher questionnaire, correlations between items indicated that teachers who were satisfied with their jobs also felt that they were making a significant difference in the students’ lives and that they cared about creating a pleasant atmosphere.

Findings on teachers’ teaching techniques show that teachers give improvement instructions and use mainly the Turkish language to teach the target language, but they plan the lecture themselves. Items in The Teaching Technique group appear to be moderately correlated with each other. The significant correlation was between teachers who use the target language for giving instructions, also correct the students in a sensible way. Moreover, the strongest correlations were among teachers who know how to get through to the students and review the students’ homework; present a new topic to the class; ask the students to suggest or plan the classroom activities and use word-related pictures or objects.

According to responses to teachers’ perception-related items, teachers have a positive perception of the supplementary school and learning and teaching Turkish, they thought it is a benefit for the students’ future.

As to demographic variables, the results showed that teachers’ teaching environment (TE), teaching techniques (TT) on Turkish language learning, and Teachers’ Perceptions did not vary depending

on teachers' gender, education, training, teaching experience and experience at a supplementary school. This result suggests that although there were no variations in teaching practices, children who attended different Turkish supplementary schools (Nottingham, Manchester and London), performed differently.

4.3.5. Results of Interview Data

After gathering data from the teacher questionnaire to get in-depth information about teachers' teaching environment, techniques and perceptions on teaching and learning Turkish, interviews were carried out with the teachers working at supplementary schools' where the children who took part in the study attend. Interviewees were selected randomly in Turkish supplementary schools where the main study took place (London, Manchester and Nottingham). A results report was generated by exporting the list to an excel spreadsheet and thereafter, initial themes were developed based on the responses and codes. Three broad themes emerged from the analysis, based on the interview and questionnaire questions. The themes that emerged are discussed below.

4.3.5.1. Theme 1 – Teaching Environment

In response to questions regarding views on the teaching environment itself, teaching curriculum, classes, the general consensus was that most schools do not have permanent buildings, they use rented charity buildings. However, the teachers responded that Turkish supplementary schools are run voluntarily:

“most of the students do not want to attend the classes on the weekends as the school's attendance is voluntary, they would prefer to take off from the mainstream schools.” (T1)

One respondent commented that there are not only Turkish classes in supplementary schools (SS):

“schools are run only at the weekend or after mainstream school and it is only three hours a week as two hours Turkish language and culture and one-hour religious studies.” (T3)

and:

“at the same time, we teach Turkish culture.” (T5).

Most interviewees felt that they did not have:

“enough time for doing practices” (T1).

When asked about teaching curriculum and books in SS, the answer was there is no:

“appropriate curriculum for bilingual children although it is provided with a curriculum by the Turkey MoNE. The book is provided, is not appropriate and does not meet the expectations because students are varied and their level of Turkish and speed of learning are also different. My colleagues and I combine different books to use.” (T2)

While another opined that:

“there is a curriculum provided and I do not use only that one. I use different materials and books based on the curriculum by adopting them for students’ needs.” (T1)

Whilst the teachers mentioned that the schools have an important role in learning Turkish, all agreed that the home language environment is more important than the schools:

“some of the students have one non-native Turkish parent. If the student has both native parents, it is easy to practice at home; however, if s/he has one non-native parent, I think they speak English at home, so they do not have a chance to practice.” (T3)

The majority of the participants agreed that the teaching environment is not appropriate and efficient. In all cases, the interviewees reported that because of the voluntary attendance system students are not willing to attend the school. Interestingly, the teachers created new material or adopted provided materials and books to teach even though there was a set curriculum and materials provided. In this study, the teachers’ responses show that if teachers follow the curriculum and use the materials which were provided (see Chapter 2 Literature Review), the students fail follow the teaching because of their level of the language. What can be inferred from these responses is that the teaching environment through the provided curriculum can be considered as a way forward in addressing the issues related to age and language knowledge.

This result suggested that teachers could provide an effective teaching environment as much as the supplementary schools' environment allows the applicability. It is possible that children performed lower scores because they were not provided with curriculum and materials appropriate for their age and language knowledge.

4.3.5.2. Theme 2 – Teaching Technique

In response to the question of teaching technique, strategy, books, materials and activities, teachers were of the belief that the students:

“should expose the language because of this, I always use Turkish in the classroom and stick some teaching posters in Turkish or provide visual information (PowerPoint, pictures etc.) on the walls.” (T5)

Another teacher stated that the:

“exposure is important to learn a language however, I consider the students' readiness for the language and then I enrich the learning environment with visual materials. I also provide them with a song or film, or puppet show to teach a new vocabulary. The students like role-play activity, crosswords, vocabulary match so an activity by doing students themselves.” (T2)

Another teacher reported that:

“English is the majority language here and the students expose to English more than Turkish because of this I use English to teach Turkish by translating one word to Turkish from English. Moreover, teaching poems and songs also play an important role therefore, the students learn by enjoying and they easily remember short poems and songs.” (T4)

One interviewee when asked about promoting family intervention in language learning, said:

“I let the families know about what the student did in the classroom like ‘we did this activity today; it would be good for you to do more practice about it at home.’ I gave the completed activity sheets to students to take home and show their parents.” (T1)

Another response to this question included:

“unfortunately, the learning practice does not move to home because most of the families do not speak Turkish at home. I do not give them homework because they already have homework from their mainstream schools. Even if we do, there

is no feedback from the students and families. However, when they learn songs, some of them sing at home and the parents let me know. The problem is for this group of students' one of the parents is a non-native Turkish speaker.” (T2)

Most teachers believe that exposure to language is essential in language acquisition. They use Turkish and provide materials in Turkish during the class, however, one teacher stated that he uses a translation by first instructing in Turkish and translating it into English. While all the teachers use different techniques to teach Turkish, they agreed that visual material and activities by students themselves are more effective than others (teacher-centred etc.).

There were some negative comments about family intervention. The teachers felt that not only schools but also family and home environment are important in language acquisition. The respondents suggested the students can be taught in a school, but they should also practice at home. It is shown in Chapter 6 Analysis of the bilingual children's home literacy environment that children whose parents usually practice and use the target language and provide a rich language environment performed higher.

4.3.5.3. Theme 3 – Teaching Perceptions

When teachers asked about the aim of teaching Turkish to bilingual children, in all cases the informants reported that:

“the general aim is that the students learn Turkish and improve their knowledge, and also when they visit Turkey, they can be able to speak Turkish with their relatives.” (T2)

And:

“Turkish is their mother tongue and I believe that mother tongue should be maintained.” (T5)

Another teacher stated that:

“the main aim is to live their heritage culture, speak their own language. When we live in another majority country, we have to speak the majority language.

However, we suppose that these students do not lose their heritage background as the state policy.” (T1)

Teachers also asked about the benefit of learning Turkish by the bilingual children. One respondent believes that:

“first of all, they have Turkish background, and they can maintain their heritage culture and language. Additionally, they can communicate with their relatives in Turkey. Secondly, learning Turkish contributes to their academic achievement and perception of life.” (T2)

Another teacher said:

“learning Turkish allows them to learn Turkish culture and communicate with grandparents. It also helps them to take an exam in Turkish for A-level grade.” (T1)

During the face-to-face interviews, teachers stated that students’ level of Turkish vocabulary depends on practising the language at home, so it means that students’ parents have an important role in it. However, the teachers perceived that rich material is also important to teaching the target language.

The respondents believe that learning a language is important moreover, their aim to teach Turkish is to maintain the language and improve the students’ knowledge. Moreover, they thought that learning Turkish and heritage culture would allow the students to communicate with their relatives. On the other hand, learning Turkish gives some benefits to the students academically and in view of life.

4.3.6. Integrating the Questionnaire and Interview Findings

The themes which are teachers’ teaching environment, teaching technique and teaching perceptions from the interview analysis were compared and contrasted with the data from the questionnaire analysis, in order to present the information in a triangulated format. The integration of mixed data was enabled by a process of triangulation. The meaning of themes emerging from the interview

data analysis was compared with the factors extracted and named. In order to triangulate the data, the findings from each method component were listed together on Table 4.9. In most cases, due to producing interview questions from the questionnaire data, the data from the questionnaires and interviews either converged or complemented each other. On the questionnaire, the sections were close to interpretation, but the interview was designed to expand the questionnaire answers.

The questionnaire and interview data also appeared to complement each other. This is evident in the findings, which are compared and elaborated below. Although the questionnaire findings show that teachers are happy with their job and working environment, the interviewees claimed that the teaching environment is always not appropriate and efficient. To be more effective in the teaching environment, teachers tend to use and give instructions in Turkish during class. Moreover, they create or adapt materials to teach the language at a level appropriate the students' existing knowledge. The teachers believed that Turkish supplementary schools have an important role in students' Turkish language growth and their lives in different ways, for example, the students' A-level exams, communication with relatives and speaking a second language. However, they tend to believe that schools are not enough to learn and maintain the target language and that the home language environment also has a significant role.

Table 4.9. Integrating questionnaire (factors) and interview (themes) findings

	Questionnaire findings (factors/statements)	Interview findings (Themes)
Teachers' teaching environment	All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	
	I feel that I am making a significant educational difference in the lives of my students.	
	Most teachers in this school are interested in what students have to say.	Classes
	If a student from this school needs extra assistance, I can provide it.	Time
	I work with individual students.	Curriculum
	I take care to create a pleasant learning atmosphere.	
	I lose quite a lot of time because of students interrupting the lesson.	Language environment
	I use video and audio material in Turkish.	
Teachers' teaching technique	I usually know how to get through to students.	
	It is better when the teacher – not the student – decides what activities are to be done.	
	I always use Turkish in the class.	
	I always prepare the teaching material before arriving at the school.	
	I present new topics for the class (lecture-style presentation).	Using target language
	I review with the students the homework they have prepared.	Teaching technique
	I ask my students to suggest or help plan classroom activities or topics.	Teaching strategy
	I track the study process.	Books
	I use pictures and objects for my students to make connections between words and the associated objects.	Materials
	I speak the target language and I ask a question and give instructions in Turkish.	Activities
	I assign activities that require a group.	Homework
	I use Turkish texts which accommodate real-life language use.	Family interaction
	I correct the students in a sensible way.	
	I give commands through one word along with gestures such as pointing which provides opportunities for initiating the interaction among students.	
Teachers' perception	Do you think is it important to teach Turkish to young children in the UK?	
	Do you think Turkish will benefit the students in the future?	Importance of teaching Turkish
	Do you think any certain ideas that can only communicate in Turkish not very well in English?	Aim of teaching Turkish
	Do you think the supplementary schools play a role in the students' language development?	Benefit of learning Turkish

4.4. Discussion

This chapter aimed to investigate and set out the characteristics of Turkish supplementary schools in the UK and the teachers' teaching environment, teaching techniques and teachers' perceptions about teaching and learning Turkish as the bilingual children's heritage language. It was predicted that the teachers who work in a Turkish supplementary school to teach Turkish, hold the same degree of teaching qualification. There was no specific expectation concerning the teachers' teaching environment and teaching technique in terms of how the schools are run by the Turkish Education Consultancy in London (MEBLEM) and the Ministry of National Education in Turkey (MoNE). Furthermore, a number of preliminary literature analyses were done to investigate Turkish supplementary schools' curriculum and application policy, and it was predicted that the supplementary schools would apply the same or similar teaching programmes and use the same or parallel curriculum and books which are provided by MEBLEM and MoNE.

Overall, teaching Turkish as a heritage language is gaining importance in the UK. Therefore, the need for Turkish language teachers is rising. However, in this study, participants had a variety of teaching experience in years. Since there is no bachelor's degree programme in the profession of teaching Turkish as an L2 to bilingual children. It is known that MoNE (2019) provides a special course which equals to a Master's degree for "teaching Turkish as a heritage language abroad" but there is no specific programme to teach Turkish. One interesting finding of this study is that most teachers who teach Turkish in Turkish supplementary schools do not have to hold teaching Turkish qualifications although some of them have teaching qualifications in different fields. These results reflect those of Mete (2012) who also found that 54 teachers who teach Turkish as an L2, have different qualifications but some of them have language teaching qualifications in different languages. The only first language of the teachers

is Turkish, and they speak and understand Turkish, but it should be noted that speaking, having knowledge of the language and being Turkish are different from teaching the language.

The teachers who teach Turkish in Turkish supplementary schools hold undergraduate or postgraduate degrees in different subjects (Turkish language teacher, English language teacher, preschool teacher etc.). In addition, their training, teaching experience and age varied. However, the results of this study show that those variables did not impact teachers' teaching environment and teaching techniques. This finding broadly supports the findings of other studies in this area linking language teaching and learning and teachers' qualifications and performance (Mete & Gürsoy, 2013).

Overall, the results revealed that Turkish supplementary schools and teachers have their own characteristics. Additionally, this study found that although there are certain eligibility criteria to be selected as a supplementary school teacher to teach Turkish, there is no specific requirement to hold any diplomas or certificates of a program related to teaching language to bilingual children.

The standard application with regard to the language used as the medium of instruction in the classrooms is that the teachers mainly speak Turkish, and the students mainly speak English. This result supports findings from previous studies (Creese et al., 2007; Martin et al., 2004; Martin et al., 2006). Although the teachers often speak Turkish, the students are keen to respond in English. This can be explained by that in most classrooms, English is the first language of students. However, some teachers occasionally use translation to teach a word, by saying it in one language and asking students to translate it into the other language. This practice is described as 'bilingual label quests' in supplementary classrooms (Martin et al., 2006). Across the teachers' questionnaires and interview data, it was not common that teachers reported that they pushed students to speak Turkish. This also accords with the earlier studies, which found

that the important thing in language teaching is the students' interests and motivation to learn. Mete & Gürsoy (2013) suggested that the technique and strategy to teach a language should attract the attention of the target learner. For example, the teaching and teaching materials should be designed for the students and their needs. Based on this, teachers should be taught to use technology and create different materials for different classroom settings.

Family interaction is also important in language learning. Teachers believe that students should practice the language at home or in their daily lives. A comparison of the findings with those of other studies confirms teaching language should be supported out of the school by practicing the language in daily life (Mete & Gürsoy, 2013).

Most of the teachers in the current study face some difficulties finding or adapting the teaching materials, curriculum and activities to the bilingual children specific to their school because of the level of their language knowledge. In line with the present results, previous studies have demonstrated that teachers have difficulties finding appropriate materials for L2 learners in Turkish (Mete & Gürsoy, 2013).

Teaching a language is also teaching the culture. The teachers stated that the aim of these schools is not only to teach Turkish but also to teach Turkish culture. These results reflect those of Mete and Gürsoy (2013) who also found that teachers who teach Turkish as a heritage language, should have rich cultural as well as linguistic knowledge.

Language environment is important to acquire and improve the language. It is not only schools, but family is also effective. Although children who attended Turkish supplementary school underperformed the children who did not attend, the attendee's vocabulary size increased during their attendance.

4.5. Conclusion

The present chapter investigated Turkish supplementary schools' characteristics and policy in the UK, and the teachers' perceptions on teaching environment, techniques, and perceptions. These findings can provide teachers with a good understanding of how to evaluate classroom environment and teaching techniques and important factors can be considered. Although the study aimed to reach all the Turkish supplementary schools' teachers in the UK, it could not be achieved.

Supplementary schools are aim at teaching language, culture and religion. The results revealed that the supplementary schools only focus on language teaching, although this would be examined in greater detail in further studies, enabling a clearer understanding of the role that the supplementary schools play on heritage language teaching. Despite the study's limitations, the results presented in this chapter support previous literature that identifies the teachers working on teaching Turkish as a foreign language rather than teaching Turkish as a heritage language to bilingual children because of the lack of research.

Chapter 5 Analysis of the Bilingual Children's Language Skills

5.1. Introduction

Several research studies on bilingual language acquisition of young school-aged Turkish immigrant children has been conducted in Europe (e.g., Germany, the Netherlands and Sweden; see Bayram & Wright, 2018; Bohnacker, Lindgren & Öztekin, 2016; Leseman, 2000). The focus of this earlier research usually includes comparison of monolingual and bilingual vocabulary development or narrative skills and cross-linguistic differences. However, there is little research on Turkish-English bilingual language development in the UK. Moreover, although much work on bilingualism has investigated similar aspects (monolingual-bilingual comparison, language input or cross-linguistic aspects) in language development (e.g., Bohnacker, Lindgren & Öztekin, 2016; Fiestas & Peña, 2004; Haman et al., 2017) this study focuses on the role of the Turkish supplementary schools in bilingual children's language development.

Recent Department for Education (DfE) statistics show that 50.9% of both nursery and primary school children in the UK are growing up with a home language other than English (Department for Education, 2019). One of the most pervasive of these spoken languages is Turkish (Demie, 2015). Issa (2005) estimated that Turkish is currently spoken among 500,000 people in the UK. The present study deals with the central aspect of the role of Turkish supplementary schools in England in supporting different areas of language growth. Specifically, this study investigates the language development of Turkish-English bilingual children who attend supplementary school compared with those who do not. To this end, it delves into the differences between Turkish and English language growth in both attendees and non-attendees; and a comparison of the growth of vocabulary skills and narrative skills. The results have the potential to suggest which parameters (school curriculum, family input etc.)

may be changed or optimised to improve heritage language growth in children in a country where their heritage language is a minority language. The study was designed to collect data cross-sectionally between the beginning and end of the supplementary school terms for 4-8-year-old children from homes where Turkish was spoken, to investigate their language growth and identify factors influencing their progress in both languages. In this chapter, the focus is on the investigation of the growth of the vocabulary and narrative skills of Turkish-English bilingual students, and the relationship between these oral language skills in both Turkish and English.

5.2. Study Aims and Research Questions in This Chapter

This chapter reports findings from analysis of the data collected to investigate the differences in vocabulary and narrative skills between children who attend Turkish supplementary schools and children who do not. In particular, vocabulary size; production and comprehension of nouns and verbs; and knowledge and narrative productivity and quality within and across Turkish and English are investigated. In accordance with the aim of the research, this chapter focuses on answering the following research question:

Research Question 2. Which variables can explain performance on CLTs and narrative tasks in English and Turkish of 4-8-year-old bilingual Turkish-English children?

- a. Do the Turkish and English language skills of the bilingual children differ depending on Turkish supplementary school attendance status, age, SES, and parental language strategies?
- b. How do the vocabulary, narrative production and narrative quality skills in Turkish and English in Turkish-English bilingual children change?

- c. How are vocabulary and narrative productivity skills related to each other within and across languages?
- d. Are there differences between monolingual and bilingual children?

5.3. Method

5.3.1. Participants

The participants were 41 Turkish-English bilingual children (25 girls and 16 boys) with an age range between 49 and 122 months ($M = 71.85$, $SD = 14.31$). The distribution of participants was not equal across age groups (given a one-year interval). The largest age groups were 5 and 6-year-olds (each year comprising 32% of all children), followed by 4-year-olds (20%) and 7- and 8-year-olds (each year group comprising 8% of all children). Specifically, the participants and age groups are as follows:

Age 4: four students who attend Turkish supplementary school and three students who do not attend;

Age 5: five attendees and nine non-attendees;

Age 6: eight attendees and eight non-attendees;

Age 7-8: two attendees and two non-attendees.

Participants were recruited through Turkish supplementary schools, Turkish communities, through advertisements on social media (Facebook, Twitter etc.) and through my personal network. In order to be eligible to take part in the study, the children had to be typically developing with no previous diagnosis of language or cognitive disabilities. Half of the participants were attending a Turkish supplementary school, while half of them were not; and both groups of children had been exposed to both Turkish and English for at least four years. In addition, based on parent reports, and at least one of their parents was a native Turkish speaker. In terms of these criteria, 19 children (Mean Age = 71.05 months, $SD = 14.12$) were

recruited from Turkish supplementary schools and 22 (Mean Age = 72.54 months, *SD* = 14.77) children were recruited who did not attend supplementary school. Twenty-six children came from bilingual homes in which both parents were native Turkish speakers (16 girls and 10 boys), and 15 children came from bilingual homes in which one parent was a native Turkish speaker only (10 fathers and five mothers). The majority of the children in the sample were born in England (84.6%), four children were born in Turkey, and two children were born in different countries.

5.3.2. Materials

The participants were assessed in terms of vocabulary size i.e. production and comprehension of nouns and verbs by using the Cross-linguistic Lexical task (CLT; Haman, Luniewska & Pomiechowska, 2015) in both English and Turkish. A computer-based version of the CLT was used, with pictures presented on the computer screen. However, the automatic saving of responses was not available, so responses were recorded manually. Narrative productivity and quality were assessed by using the narrative task (Frog story; Mayer, 1969). See Chapter 3 Methodology for the instruments used to assess in both Turkish and English.

5.3.3. Procedure

One-on-one assessment sessions were conducted with all participants and each session took approximately 40 minutes. The children who attend a supplementary school were assessed in their supplementary schools in a quiet place (such as a private room). The children who do not attend a supplementary school were mostly assessed at their homes, while a few parents chose to meet in a café. While the children were carrying out the task, parents were present but they were not involved in the assessment. Children were allowed to stop the testing at any time during the assessment session.

To assess children's vocabulary growth, the CLT was used. The CLT data were collected twice in both Turkish and English through a pre-test (T1) and a post-test (T2) over a six-month period. The pre-test was conducted at the beginning of the academic year for the supplementary schools (September - October 2018) and the post-test took place as soon as possible after six months from the original testing date (April - May 2019) for both groups. Narrative data were collected once in Turkish at pre-test and once in English at post-test. The participants were informed about the procedure and steps included by the researcher prior to the assessment. The procedure was as similar as possible for each child.

The assessment began with the CLT (Haman, Luniewska, & Pomiechowska, 2015). The children were told that they were going to look at a series of pictures on the computer screen and would be asked about the pictures or to point to one picture. It was natural and play-like by using appropriate simple vocabulary for children. Tasks were administered in a set, noun comprehension, noun production, and verb comprehension and verb production. In the comprehension task children were asked "where is the x (e.g., gate, apple)" and "who is y-ing (e.g., kissing, bathing)?" In the production tasks, they were asked "what/who is this?" or "what is happening here?". The same type of verbal feedback, such as "yes", "okay", or "ah", was given for both correct and incorrect answers. If they gave an incorrect answer, it was written on the answer sheet. Once all the tasks were completed the children were thanked and praised for how well they did. A short break was taken before the children completed the narrative task.

To assess narrative skills, the Frog Story (Mayer, 1969) was used and children were asked to tell the story on two different occasions, at T1 in Turkish and at T2 in English. The task was completed by children who were willing ($n = 29$ for Turkish; $n = 27$ for English), as some were unable to express themselves in the minority language. The book was shown to the children and while they looked at the pictures, the researcher gave instructions as follows in Turkish at

time 1 and English at time 2: “I have a picture book here that tells a story. I want you to look at the pictures as long as you want, and I want you to tell me a story about what is happening in the pictures.” After the child viewed the pictures, they were told to tell the story. While the child was narrating the story, s/he was asked minimal questions: “Anything else you want to add or tell?”. The storytelling continued until the child announced that the story ended, or they stopped talking. The storytelling was recorded and transcribed.

The assessment was finalised by thanking and praising the children and parents, and once T1 was completed they were informed about the time for T2.

5.4. Results

This section presents the findings from the vocabulary (CLT) and narrative (Frog Story) tasks. It describes three sets of results from different phases of data collection. The first analysis was the vocabulary task, the second is the narrative task and the third is the relationship between vocabulary and narrative skills. The purpose of this chapter is to provide the answers to research question listed previously. The chapter is organised to present the results of the data analysis of the research question 2 and each sub-question. Several quantitative data analysis steps were completed in an attempt to answer the research questions of this chapter. The students’ vocabulary (CLT) and narrative (Frog Story) scores were calculated, the participants’ scores on production and comprehension of verb and noun were compared, and narrative productivity skills in Turkish and English were calculated by divided groups (attendee and non-attendee) and over time.

5.4.1. Production and Comprehension of Vocabulary

Initial analyses showed that the English and Turkish versions of the CLT had good reliability. Children were given the CLT tasks in Turkish and English which include comprehension and

production of verbs and nouns, where they were shown a page of pictures and asked the name or show as many pictures as they were able to. The children were given a score out of 32. The reliability of this vocabulary task was a Cronbach's alpha for the Turkish task was $\alpha = .94$ at Time 1 and $\alpha = .95$ for Time 2. The English CLT task's reliability was reported as $\alpha = .91$ for Time 1 and $\alpha = .79$ for Time 2.

Vocabulary task data included scores of comprehension and production of nouns and verbs in both Turkish and English. The data were then analysed to explore between group differences (attendee and non-attendee) using a mixed ANOVA with a within-subject factor of time (pre- and post-test) and a between-subject factor of group (attendees and non-attendees). Separate analyses were carried out for comprehension of verbs, comprehension of nouns, production of verbs and production of nouns in both Turkish and English. In addition to ANOVA, to test whether there was no difference between scores of the attendee and non-attendee group post-test, conditional on the pre-test (Jennings & Cribbie, 2016), a univariate ANCOVA was run to assess for effects of group (attendee and non-attendee) on results of post-test vocabulary size after controlling for the pre-test in each language. ANCOVA increases the power to determine whether a treatment effect is present by adjusting pre-test scores (Jennings & Cribbie, 2016).

5.4.1.1. Analysis of Production and Comprehension Vocabulary Skills in Turkish

Table 5.1. Results of the descriptive analysis of Turkish vocabulary

Measure	Time 1		Time 2	
	Attendees	Non-Attendees	Attendees	Non-Attendees
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
Turkish Verb Comprehension	21.74(7.18)	26.82(5.46)	22.58(7.17)	28.32(3.88)
Turkish Noun Comprehension	23.05(8.15)	28.45(3.38)	24.21(7.41)	29.36(3.98)
Turkish Verb Production	10.74(8.92)	19.23(5.54)	12.74(9.85)	22.77(5.18)
Turkish Noun Production	9.74(8.34)	18.95(6.13)	11.16(8.77)	20.91(7.18)

5.4.1.1.1. Verb Comprehension Skills in Turkish

The ANOVA results showed that the effect of time on Turkish verb comprehension almost reaches a significance level, $F(1, 39) = 3.75, p = .06, \eta_p^2 = .088$, indicating that over the six months both groups had increased in Turkish verb comprehension. There is no interaction between time and group, $F(1, 39) = .30, p = .59, \eta_p^2 = .01$ but there is a significant effect of group, $F(1, 39) = 9.29, p = .00, \eta_p^2 = .19$. The effect of the group shows that the children who do not attend a supplementary school have a higher Turkish verb comprehension score than children who do attend. Considering the difference between groups in pre-test scores, there was no significant effect of group on levels of verb comprehension in Turkish after controlling for the pre-test, $F(1, 38) = 3.29, p = .08$.

5.4.1.1.2. Noun Comprehension Skills in Turkish

In terms of Turkish noun comprehension, there is a statistically significant effect of time, $F(1, 39) = 6.38, p = .02, \eta_p^2 = .14$. This effect suggests that over the six months, both groups' Turkish noun comprehension skills increased. There is no interaction between time and group, $F(1, 39) = .09, p = .76, \eta_p^2 = .00$ but there is a significant effect of group, $F(1, 39) = 8.44, p = .00, \eta_p^2 = .18$ signalling that attendees performed better on this task than non-attendees. Although there is a significant effect of group, after controlling for the effect of the pre-test there was no significant effect of group on levels of noun comprehension in Turkish, $F(1, 38) = .29, p = .60$.

5.4.1.1.3. Verb Production Skills in Turkish

A significant effect of time was found for Turkish verb production, $F(1, 39) = 24.29, p = .00, \eta_p^2 = .38$, indicating that verb production of both groups in Turkish increased between pre-test and post-test. There is no interaction between time and group, $F(1, 39) = 1.87, p = .18, \eta_p^2 = .05$ but there is a significant effect of group, $F(1, 39) = 16.50, p = .00, \eta_p^2 = .30$ indicating that non-attendees have a higher score on this measure of Turkish verb comprehension than attendees. However, there was no significant effect of the group on levels of verb production in Turkish after controlling for the effect of the pre-test, $F(1, 38) = 2.53, p = .12$.

5.4.1.1.4. Noun Production Skills in Turkish

In terms of Turkish noun production, there is a significant effect of time, $F(1, 39) = 5.49, p = .02, \eta_p^2 = .12$ indicating that over the six months both groups have increased in Turkish noun production. There is no interaction between time and group, $F(1, 39) = .14, p = .71, \eta_p^2 = .00$ but there is a significant effect of group, $F(1, 39) = 17.46, p = .00, \eta_p^2 = .31$. Although both groups of children show an increase in noun production in Turkish, non-attendees scored higher

than attendees since there was no significant effect of group on levels of noun production in Turkish after controlling for the effect of pre-test, $F(1, 38) = .70, p = .41$.

These results show that both groups increased in comprehension and production of verbs and nouns in Turkish over six months. The descriptive results for Turkish vocabulary are shown in Table 5.1.

5.4.1.2. Analysis of Production and Comprehension Vocabulary Skills in English

Table 5.2. Results of the descriptive analysis of English vocabulary

Measure	Time 1		Time 2	
	Attendees	Non-Attendees	Attendees	Non-Attendees
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
English Noun Comprehension	28.31(3.18)	26.64(7.11)	30.26(2.38)	29.91(1.77)
English Verb Comprehension	24.74(5.10)	22.86(7.80)	28.53(3.42)	26.73(2.91)
English Noun Production	22.47(8.58)	23.23(7.07)	25.74(7.58)	25.95(3.77)
English Verb Production	17.37(7.65)	16.41(6.46)	20.42(7.78)	20.82(3.80)

5.4.1.2.1. Verb Comprehension Skills in English

In terms of verb comprehension in English, there is a statistically significant effect of time, $F(1, 39) = 20.99, p = .00, \eta_p^2 = .35$, indicating that over six months, scores for English verb comprehension increased for both groups of children. However, there is no interaction between time and group, $F(1, 39) = .00, p = .97, \eta_p^2 = .00$; and there is no significant effect of group, $F(1, 39) = 1.70, p = .20, \eta_p^2 = .04$. Additionally, there was no significant effect of group on levels

of verb comprehension in English after controlling for the effect of pre-test, $F(1, 38) = 2.48, p = .12$.

5.4.1.2.2. Noun Comprehension Skills in English

A significant effect of time was found for English noun comprehension, $F(1, 39) = 13.26, p = .00, \eta_p^2 = .25$, indicating that over the six months both groups had increased in terms of English noun comprehension skills. There is no interaction between time and group, $F(1, 39) = .86, p = .36, \eta_p^2 = .02$; and there is no significant effect of group, $F(1, 39) = .82, p = .37, \eta_p^2 = .02$. Considering the difference between group in pre-test scores, there was no significant effect of group on levels of noun comprehension in English after controlling for the effect of pre-test, $F(1, 38) = .01, p = .93$.

5.4.1.2.3. Verb Production Skills in English

There was a significant effect of time found for English verb production, $F(1, 39) = 20.88, p = .00, \eta_p^2 = .35$. This result suggests that for six months, both groups' scores on a measure of verb production in English increased. There is no interaction between time and group, $F(1, 39) = .69, p = .41, \eta_p^2 = .02$; there is also no significant effect of group, $F(1, 39) = .69, p = .88, \eta_p^2 = .00$. Moreover, there was no significant effect of group on levels of verb production in English after controlling for the effect of pre-test, $F(1, 38) = .49, p = .49$.

5.4.1.2.4. Noun Production Skills in English

In terms of noun production in English, there is a statistically significant effect of time, $F(1, 39) = 11.36, p = .00, \eta_p^2 = .23$, indicating both groups of children's English noun production score have increased over six months. However, there is no interaction between time and group, $F(1, 39) = .09, p = .77, \eta_p^2 = .00$; and there is also no significant effect of group, $F(1, 39) =$

.06, $p = .81$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Additionally, there was no significant effect of group on levels of noun production in English after controlling for the effect of pre-test, $F(1, 38) = .02$, $p = .90$.

The descriptive results in Table 5.2. show that over the six months, both groups' production skills for nouns and verbs increased in English. Children who attend supplementary schools started with higher levels of verb production and lower levels of noun production than children who do not attend supplementary schools, however, at the end of the six-months, both groups finished with almost the same scores in the production of verbs and nouns in English.

5.4.2. Narrative Task

The wordless picture book narrative data were analysed for productivity (total number of words, total number of different words, total number of morphemes), sentence organisation (C-Unit, Percentage of grammatically acceptable C-Unit), and macro-structural aspects of story in each language using a series of Mann-Whitney U tests (see Chapter 3 Methodology). Descriptive statistics for the story grammar element of the task in each language (Turkish and English; see Table 5.3.).

Table 5.3. The performance of bilingual children on measures of productivity, sentence organisation, and story grammar by groups and languages

Measure	Turkish		English	
	Attendees (<i>n</i> = 17)	Non-Attendees (<i>n</i> = 12)	Attendees (<i>n</i> = 11)	Non-Attendees (<i>n</i> = 16)
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
TNW	124.09(72.97)	105.08(79.71)	190.27(88.71)	213.83(123.86)
NDW	59.27(34.73)	56.50(38.50)	68.73(28.26)	77.33(42.37)
TNM	186.82(110.90)	181.55(122.42)	244.36(80.65)	260.64(120.01)
Productivity	79.84(83.23)	109.33(81.67)	181.82(58.26)	132.52(116.94)
C-Unit	27.46(15.65)	22.08(14.76)	28.46(11.41)	28.67(15.47)
% of C-unit	53.28(27.69)	76.83(26.78)	57.46(21.86)	67.05(32.30)
Sentence organisation	40.37(20.56)	49.46(17.02)	42.96(16.20)	47.86(22.86)
Macro-structural aspects	.64(.33)	.52(.25)	.62(.24)	.65(.31)

5.4.2.1. Productivity

The effect of supplementary school on productivity measures was analysed using a Mann-Whitney *U* test with scores (total number of words, total number of different words, total number of morphemes) as dependent variables and groups were independent variables (attendees and non-attendees).

In regard to productivity in Turkish, the results from the narrative story-telling show that there was no significant difference between groups for the total number of words (TNW) and groups ($U = 74.00, p = .21$); the total number of different words (NDW) ($U = 74.00, p = .21$); total number of morphemes (TNM) ($U = 58.50, p = .90$) or general productivity in Turkish ($U = 72.00, p = .198$). Attendees and non-attendees performed at a comparable level on each of these measures.

In terms of productivity in English, there was no impact of the group on TNW ($U = 85.00, p = .88$); NDW ($U = 86.50, p = .94$); TNM ($U = 45.00, p = .31$) or general productivity ($U = 74.00, p = .49$) meaning that children who attend and who do not attend supplementary school showed comparable scores on these measures.

However, the score of general productivity means (TNW, NDW and TNM) of both groups of children, by using the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test, there is a significant difference between Turkish and English productivity across both groups ($Z = -3.07, p = .00$). This shows that children are better in English ($M = 152.61$) than Turkish ($M = 92.05$) across both groups. However, there is no difference between the attendees ($Z = -1.51, p = .13$) but there is a difference between non-attendees ($Z = -2.67, p = .01$) in Turkish and English. Children who attend supplementary school have about the same score both in Turkish and English but the children who do not attend supplementary school have better scores in English than Turkish.

5.4.2.2. Sentence Organisation

In order to investigate how the narrative task might have affected grammatical sentence organisation in the children's sentence organisation in each language, the impact of the group on sentence organisation was calculated using a Mann-Whitney U test for scores (number of C-Units and percentage of Grammatically acceptable C-Unit).

The results of sentence organisation in Turkish of the Mann-Whitney U test indicated that there was no impact of the group on the total number of C Unit (C Unit; $U = 81.50, p = .36$), indicating that the children who attend and who do not attend supplementary school used an almost equal number of C units in Turkish. However, there was a significant difference in the percentage of grammatically acceptable C Units (% C Unit; $U = 20.50, p = .00$) which indicated that children who do not attend supplementary school ($M = 76.83$) combined more grammatically acceptable sentences than children who do attend ($M = 53.28$). In terms of general sentence organisation in Turkish, children who do not attend supplementary school showed statistically significantly higher scores than children who attend ($U = 44.00, p = .01$).

In sentence organisation in English, a Mann-Whitney U test showed there was no difference ($U = 76.50, p = .57$) between groups in the number of C units. There was also no difference ($U = 73.00, p = .46$) between groups in % C unit. In general sentence organisation score, no significant difference was found ($U = 76.00, p = .55$) between children who attend and who do not attend a supplementary school (see Table 5.3).

In terms of languages comparison, the score of general sentence organisation (means of C unit and % of C Unit) of both groups of children, by using the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test, no difference was observed between Turkish and English across both groups ($Z = -.24, p = .81$). This shows that children performed comparatively well in English and Turkish across both groups.

5.4.2.3. Macro-structural Aspects of Story

Table 5.4. Frequency of story grammar categories by children

Measure	Turkish		English	
	Attendees (<i>n</i> = 17)	Non-Attendees (<i>n</i> = 12)	Attendees (<i>n</i> = 11)	Non-Attendees (<i>n</i> = 16)
Settings	9	9	10	10
Initial Event	9	11	9	10
Initial response	7	5	5	7
Plan	3	0	1	1
Attempt/ Action	8	9	10	10
Consequence	9	9	9	10
Ending	4	1	4	6

The macro-structural aspects range from 0 to 1, where 0 is ‘did not occur’ and 1 is ‘occurred’ for both groups of children (Table 5.4). Macro-structural aspects of story with the highest frequency were Initial Events for the Turkish narrative, and Settings and Attempt for the English narrative. Additionally, in Turkish, for children who attend supplementary school, Settings, Initial Event and Consequence were the most frequent aspect, while Plan was the least used aspect. On the other hand, for the children who do not attend supplementary school, Initial Event was the most frequently used aspect, while Setting, Attempt/Action and Consequence were the second most frequent aspect and Plan was not used by any of them.

Similarly, Settings, Attempt and Initial events were the most frequent categories for attendees in English, while Plan was the least frequent aspect for both languages and both groups. For children who do not attend, Settings, Initial Event, Attempt/Action, and consequence were the most frequent aspects, and Plan was the least frequent aspect.

A series of Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted to analyse narrative story-telling data between groups and languages. Analysis of the grammar elements for the story in Turkish data shows that there was no significant difference between groups ($U = 94.00, p = .72$). Regarding macro-structural aspects of story for English, there was also no significance ($U = 84.5, p = .86$) between groups.

To find the comparison of languages for macro-structural aspects of story, the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was run, and no significant difference was found between Turkish and English across both groups ($Z = -.63, p = .53$). This shows that children showed comparable performance in English and Turkish across both groups.

5.4.3. The Relationship Between Narrative and Vocabulary Skills

A series of Spearman rank-order correlations were conducted to determine if there were any relationships between narrative and vocabulary skills because the data had a non-parametric distribution. Table 5.5 displays the cross-language correlations for narrative skills; Table 5.6 illustrates correlations between Turkish narrative skills and T1 vocabulary skills; and Table 5.7 shows relations between English narrative skills and T2 vocabulary skills. Table 5.8, Table 5.9 and Table 5.10 demonstrate cross-language correlations within and between T1 and T2, respectively.

Table 5.5. Cross-language correlation (Spearman's rho) of narrative skills

			Turkish						English					
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Turkish	1	Total Number of words	1											
	2	Total number of different words	.95**	1										
	3	Total number of morphemes	.99**	.90**	1									
	4	Number of C-units	.96**	.95**	.91**	1								
	5	percentage of Grammatically acceptable C-Units	.50**	.54**	-0.06	.52**	1							
	6	Macro-structural aspects	.821**	.816**	.597**	.823**	.494**	1						
English	7	Total Number of words	0.40	0.34	0.34	0.26	0.12	0.31	1					
	8	Total Number of different words	0.33	0.31	0.27	0.20	0.1	0.16	.95**	1				
	9	Total number of morphemes	0.34	0.27	0.36	0.18	0.04	0.18	.99**	.91**	1			
	10	Number of C-units	0.37	0.34	0.30	0.26	0.09	0.39	.97**	.91**	.93**	1		
	11	percentage of Grammatically acceptable C-Units	-0.00	0.08	-0.06	0.00	.50*	-0.04	.67**	.67**	.43*	.65**	1	
	12	Macro-structural aspects	0.124	-0.056	0.037	0.034	0.108	0.115	.511**	.557**	0.2	.453*	.635**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

A Spearman's rank-order correlation was run to determine the relationship between children's Turkish and English narrative story grammar scores (see Table 5.5). There was a positive, strong correlation within languages in all aspects. Moreover, there are some significant correlations between languages in all aspects. For example, Turkish TNW and NDW correlated with English TNW and the total number of C Units in English. In other words, children who used a higher number of words in Turkish also used a higher number of words in English TNW. Similarly, the percentage of grammatically acceptable C Units (% C unit) in Turkish correlated with the percentage of grammatically acceptable C Units in English. That is, if children

included a higher % of C units in Turkish, they also used a higher % of C units in English. However, the total number of C Units and macro-structural aspects of story in Turkish was not correlated with any of the English scores.

Table 5.6. The correlation (Spearman's rho) between CLT scores at time 1 and Turkish narrative skills

		TNW	NDW	TNM	C Unit	% C Unit	Macro- structural aspects
Turkish	Verb Comprehension	.58**	.64**	.26	.47**	.67**	.63**
	Noun Comprehension	.59**	.62**	.25	.55**	.58**	.64**
	Verb Production	.69**	.73**	.34	.64**	.69**	.68**
	Noun Production	.67**	.74**	.32	.64**	.70**	.72**
English	Verb Comprehension	-.05	-.13	.27	-.10	-.20	-.24
	Noun Comprehension	.02	-.13	.26	-.02	-.10	-.11
	Verb Production	-.20	-.26	.01	-.21	-.17	-.30
	Noun Production	-.03	-.10	.27	-.09	-.19	-.18

*correlation is significant at the .05 level **correlation is significant at the .01 level

A Spearman rank correlation was carried out to investigate the relationships between Turkish narrative story-telling and vocabulary skills at Time 1 when Turkish narrative story-telling data were gathered. Table 5.6 shows that there were strong positive correlations between all the Turkish narrative storytelling subjects and Turkish vocabulary skills in all categories, except the total number of morphemes. Children with larger Turkish vocabularies tended to have higher scores on the Turkish narrative measures. However, there is no relation between Turkish narrative skills and English vocabulary skills.

Table 5.7. The correlation (Spearman's rho) between CLT scores at time 2 and English narrative skills

		TNW	NDW	TNM	C Unit	% C Unit	Macro- structural aspects
Turkish	Verb Comprehension	.07	.02	.28	.08	.19	-.06
	Noun Comprehension	.16	.08	.27	.17	.02	-.03
	Verb Production	.22	.22	.37	.16	.14	-.00
	Noun Production	.91	.07	.32	.06	.07	-.12
English	Verb Comprehension	.41*	.42*	.51*	.36	.26	.46*
	Noun Comprehension	.50**	.54**	.64**	.42*	.34	.37
	Verb Production	.25	.37	.51*	.19	.26	.26
	Noun Production	.38	.40*	.58**	.24	.14	.41*

*correlation is significant at the .05 level **correlation is significant at the .01 level

To explore possible relations between Time 2 and English narrative skills, a Spearman correlation was performed (see Table 5.7). Results showed that there is no correlation between Time 2 Turkish vocabulary skills and English narrative skills. However significant correlations were found for English noun comprehension skills and TNW, NDW, TNM and C Unit were also correlated. There were also correlations between English verb comprehension and TNW, NDW, TNM and macro-structural aspects of story.

Table 5.8. Correlations (Spearman's rho) of cross-language and within language at time 1

		Turkish				English			
		1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
Turkish	1. Verb Comprehension	-							
	2. Noun Comprehension	.84**	-						
	3. Verb Production	.78**	.69**	-					
	4. Noun Production	.76**	.73**	.88**	-				
English	5. Verb Comprehension	.05	-.04	-.14	-.18	-			
	6. Noun Comprehension	.11	.04	-.05	-.05	.68**	-		
	7. Verb Production	-.01	-.10	-.13	-.22	.58**	.72**	-	
	8. Noun Production	.06	-.04	-.08	-.12	.54**	.73**	.88**	-

*correlation is significant at the .05 level **correlation is significant at the .01 level

To establish the relationship between Turkish and English vocabulary skills, and cross-language relations, the bivariate correlation with Spearman's rank-order correlation coefficient was calculated for Time 1 (see Table 5.8). The resulting correlation matrix is shown in Table 5.8. While cross-language associations were not correlated, there is a strong correlation within languages. Children who had higher scores in one category in Turkish tended to have higher scores in others in Turkish. Similarly, children who had higher scores in one skill in English tended to have a high score in others in English.

Table 5.9. Correlations (Spearman's rho) of cross-language and within language at time 2

		Turkish				English			
		1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
Turkish	1. Verb Comprehension	-							
	2. Noun Comprehension	.79**	-						
	3. Verb Production	.79**	.81**	-					
	4. Noun Production	.83**	.79**	.92**	-				
English	5. Verb Comprehension	-.27	-.41**	-.38*	-.35*	-			
	6. Noun Comprehension	.00	-.14	-.05	-.06	.77**	-		
	7. Verb Production	-.06	-.34*	-.18	-.16	.61**	.56**	-	
	8. Noun Production	-.11	-.19	-.07	-.08	.64**	.65**	.69**	-

*correlation is significant at the .05 level **correlation is significant at the .01 level

The correlations were run between Turkish and English vocabulary tasks for Time 2 to outline cross-language and within language relations. Table 5.9 shows the correlation matrix for vocabulary skills at Time 2. While there was a positive strong correlation within-languages, some negative cross-language associations were identified. Children who had higher verb comprehension scores in English tended to have lower production of nouns and verbs, and noun comprehension in Turkish. Likewise, children who achieved higher scores in verb production in English tended to have low scores in noun comprehension in Turkish.

5.4.4. Regression Analysis

A number of simple regressions were carried out to investigate if age significantly predicted bilingual children's comprehension and production of verb and noun scores and narrative storytelling scores (productivity, sentence structure and macro-structural aspects of story) in both Turkish and English. The analyses were done by dividing the two groups (attendee and non-attendee children). That is, it was aimed to unveil how much of the children's vocabulary scores and story-telling performance can be explained by children's age. Due to the sample size when divided into two groups (i.e., attendee and non-attendee) the power of the regression was limited.

Table 5.10. Comprehension and production of verb and noun, and story-telling skills in Turkish

Predictors	B		Coefficients std. error		β		t		p	
	Attendee	Non- attendee	Attendee	Non- attendee	Attendee	Non- attendee	Attendee	Non- attendee	Attendee	Non- attendee
Verb comprehension	-.16	.11	.11	.06	-.32	.37	-1.37	1.77	.19	.92
Noun comprehension	-.23	.07	.12	.05	-.41	.30	-1.87	1.38	.08	.18
Verb production	-.28	.10	.14	.07	-.43	.28	-1.98	1.29	.06	.21
Noun production	-.19	.11	.14	.09	-.31	.26	-1.35	1.22	.19	.24
Productivity	-2.77	5.30	1.27	1.65	-.50	.71	-2.16	3.22	.04	.01
Sentence organisation	-.79	.72	.40	.43	-.45	.46	-1.97	1.66	.07	.13
Macro-structural aspects of story	-.01	.01	.01	.01	-.43	.57	-1.83	2.19	.09	.05

The result of linear regression analysis for narrative productivity in Turkish shows that there is a significant effect of age (attendee: $\beta = -.50$, $t(16) = -2.16$, $p = .04$; non-attendee: $\beta = .71$, $t(11) = 3.22$, $p = .01$). However, children's age did not affect children's verb comprehension scores in Turkish (attendee: $\beta = -.32$, $t(18) = -1.37$, $p = .19$; non-attendee: $\beta = .37$, $t(21) = 1.77$, $p = .09$); and did not affect noun comprehension scores in Turkish (attendee: $\beta = -.41$, $t(18) = -1.87$, $p = .08$; non-attendee: $\beta = .30$, $t(21) = 1.38$, $p = .18$). Moreover, children age did not predict value of children verb comprehension scores in Turkish (attendee: $\beta = -.43$, $t(18) = -.43$, $p = .06$; non-attendee $\beta = .28$, $t(21) = 1.29$, $p = .21$); and did not affect children's noun production scores in Turkish (attendee: $\beta = -.31$, $t(18) = -1.35$, $p = .19$; non-attendee: $\beta = .26$, $t(21) = 1.22$, $p = .24$). Likewise, age did not significantly predict value of children's narrative story-telling sentence structure in Turkish (attendee: $\beta = -.45$, $t(16) = -1.97$, $p = .07$; non-attendee: $\beta = .46$, $t(11) = 1.66$, $p = .13$); and for macro-structural aspects of story in Turkish shows that there is no significantly influence of age (attendee: $\beta = -.43$, $t(16) = -1.83$, $p = .09$; non-attendee: $\beta = .57$, $t(11) = 2.19$, $p = .05$).

Table 5.11. Comprehension and production of verb and noun, and story-telling skills in English

Predictors	B		Coefficients std. error		β		t		p	
	Attendee	Non- attendee	Attendee	Non- attendee	Attendee	Non- attendee	Attendee	Non- attendee	Attendee	Non- attendee
Verb comprehension	.19	.20	.05	.06	.67	.59	3.69	3.24	.00	.00
Noun comprehension	.11	.13	.03	.06	.61	.46	3.21	2.32	.01	.03
Verb production	.28	.13	.11	.06	.53	.42	2.61	2.06	.02	.05
Noun production	.20	.12	.12	.07	.37	.37	1.66	1.80	.12	.09
Productivity	3.39	6.26	1.87	2.42	.54	.57	1.92	2.58	.09	.02
Sentence organisation	-.17	1.29	.62	.64	-.09	.47	-.27	2.01	.79	.07
Macro-structural aspects of story	-.01	.02	.01	.01	-.26	.43	-.82	1.79	.43	.10

The analysis shows that age significantly predicted value of children's verb comprehension scores in English (attendee: $\beta = .67$, $t(18) = 3.69$, $p = .00$; non-attendee: $\beta = .20$, $t(21) = 3.24$, $p = .00$); and has a significant prediction on children noun comprehension scores in English (attendee: $\beta = .61$, $t(18) = 3.21$, $p = .01$; non-attendee: $\beta = .46$, $t(21) = 2.32$, $p = .03$). Moreover, age significantly predicted value of children who attend Turkish supplementary school in verb production scores in English ($\beta = .53$, $t(18) = 2.61$, $p = .02$; and on narrative productivity in English of children who do not attend supplementary school ($\beta = .57$, $t(15) = 2.58$, $p = .02$).

However, age does not affect non-attendee children's verb production in English ($\beta = .42$, $t(21) = 2.06$, $p = .05$); children noun production scores in English (attendee: $\beta = .37$, $t(18) = 1.66$, $p = .12$; non-attendee: $\beta = .37$, $t(21) = 1.80$, $p = .09$); and on attendee children's narrative productivity in English ($\beta = .04$, $t(10) = .11$, $p = .91$). Likewise, age does not affect on children's narrative sentence structure scores in English (attendee: $\beta = -.09$, $t(10) = -.27$, $p = .79$; non-attendee: $\beta = .47$, $t(15) = 2.01$, $p = .07$); and for macro-structural aspects of story in English show that there is no significant influence of age (attendee: $\beta = -.26$, $t(10) = -.82$, $p = .43$; non-attendee: $\beta = .43$, $t(15) = 1.79$, $p = .10$).

5.5. Discussion

This chapter present the results of analyses aiming to investigate the language growth of bilingual Turkish-English children growing up in the UK, specifically in the comparison between children who attend Turkish supplementary schools to learn Turkish and children who do not. The chapter focused on the findings from the assessment of these students' production and comprehension of nouns and verbs, and narrative story-telling in both Turkish and English. Because of the general lack of research investigating the links between Turkish-English bilingual children's language growth and supplementary schools as a supportive environment for language, results of this study

could not be supported by previous studies in terms of the specific Turkish language development in the UK. However, it does contribute to the investigation of Turkish-English bilingual children's language growth and supplementary school effects.

The prior studies have noted that the importance of language input from different sources impacts children's language development (De Houwer, 2011; Otcu, 2010), therefore, it was expected that children who attend Turkish supplementary school would perform better than their peers who do not attend. In this study, what is surprising is that the attendee children significantly underperformed on the Turkish vocabulary tests in both time 1 and time 2. This result may be explained by the variety of the exposure time to the Turkish language being less than children who do not attend in the family or other environmental factors, or language exposure quality (De Houwer, 2011).

Another important finding was that the attendees performed more poorly on the measure of verb production in Turkish, while their non-attendee peers scored almost twice as high. This also accords with the previous studies, which showed that bilingual children often underscore in production tasks (Haman; Luniewska & Pomiechowska, 2015). Interestingly, the pre-test showed that the attendees had higher levels of verb production in English than non-attendees. However, at the post-test, non-attendees' verb production levels in English increased to be relatively better than attendees. A possible explanation for this result may be a lack of adequate language input (De Houwer, 2007; Hoff, 2003). For example, parental beliefs and attitudes on language teaching and learning, frequency of input and parental language choices may be related to the language growth of bilingual children (De Houwer, 2011). This will be discussed in Chapter 6 Home Literacy Environment.

Although it was not surprising to find out that the supplementary school attendees' vocabulary scores were worse than non-attendees, it cannot be generalised to include all bilinguals in the UK.

This is also due to sampling size, lack of resources and scholarship on Turkish-English bilingual children in the UK and other individual differences such as family socioeconomic status (Hoff, 2003; Rowe et al., 2012). In addition to these, family perspectives on teaching language or home literacy are also potential factors impacting language acquisition of children (De Houwer, 2007).

Upon assessing narrative skills, the literature claims that although children produced the story in different languages with similar structures, there is a difference in the specific content of the storytelling due to cultures children are exposed to or family background (Fiestas & Peña, 2004; Muñoz et al., 2003). Consistent with the literature, this research found that children who have both parents who speak Turkish performed better than children who have one non-native parent. This shows that children who attend supplementary school and who do not attend tell the story similarly in both Turkish and English. However, children had higher scores in English than in Turkish for the productivity task (TNW, NDW and TNM). The score of story grammar in Turkish of the attendee children was higher than children who do attend supplementary school. Interestingly, in English, non-attendee children performed better than attendee children. This result was consistent with that of Fiestas & Peña (2004), who showed that bilingual children in English and Spanish told the story equally well in both languages.

Bilingual children's language performance shows the differences in whether narrative skills in one language are related to vocabulary skills within or across language/s. There is a rapidly growing literature on the comparison of bilingual vocabulary skills and narrative skills in different languages, however, the literature on the comparison of environmental language input is still limited for Turkish-English bilingual children's language growth. Simon-Cerejido and Gutiérrez-Clellen (2009) found that there were strong relations between productivity (TNW, NDW and TNM) and sentence organisation (C unit and % C Unit) by analysing narrative story grammar skills of preschool and school-aged Latino children in English, Spanish or both. However, they did not find

an association across the languages (Simon-Cereijido & Gutiérrez-Clellen, 2009). In the current study, a strong relationship was found within languages in all story grammar skills, however, there was no association across languages in sentence organisation (C unit and % of C unit). Unsurprisingly, the score of Turkish vocabulary skills in bilingual children was correlated with Turkish narrative skills. That is, if a child had a high score on the vocabulary test, the child also performed better in Turkish narrative story-telling. Nevertheless, there was no relation between languages. On the other hand, the productivity skills (TNW, NDW and TNM) of storytelling in English was only associated with comprehension of verbs and nouns, and the knowledge of noun comprehension in English was also related to the C unit. For instance, children who scored higher in comprehension of verbs and nouns told the story by using more and different words. Moreover, children who had a high score in noun comprehension showed more complex sentence structure. There was no association cross-linguistically in vocabulary skills at Time 1, but children who showed better performance at Time 2 in English verb comprehension tended to score lower in Turkish in noun production, verb production and noun comprehension. Over six months, between time 1 and time 2, there was an association within languages. For example, if a child scored highly in Turkish vocabulary at time 1, s/he also scored highly in Turkish vocabulary at time 2, and vice versa. However, there was no relation across languages at time 1, while the cross-linguistic association was found in the comprehension of verbs and nouns at time 2.

5.6. Conclusion

The present study looked at the role of Turkish supplementary schools in Turkish-English bilingual children's bilingual language growth. To conclude, the results show that the vocabulary skills of bilingual children in Turkish and English improved over six months but unexpectedly, children who did not attend Turkish supplementary school had better skills in vocabulary than children who attended. On the other hand, in the narrative tasks, both groups of children performed similarly.

Based on the previous literature, bilingual children who attend a supplementary school would be expected to outperform their non-attendee peers in language growth over six months (De Houwer, 2011; Muñoz et al., 2003; Simon-Cerejido & Gutiérrez-Clellen, 2009). The absence of this result may be due to other external language input, such as perspectives of families on language teaching or home literacy (De Houwer, 2007, 2011; Hoff, 2003; Rowe et al., 2012). To develop a fuller picture of bilingual Turkish-English children's language growth, the upcoming chapter focussed on the family perspectives on language learning and teaching.

Chapter 6 Analysis of the Bilingual Children's Home Literacy Environment

6.1. Introduction

Passing a minority language to children is a challenge for immigrant families (Willard et al., 2015). Family characteristics and the home literacy environment play a vital role in maintaining and improving a child's language growth in a multilinguistic environment. Parental language perspectives and language practice have an impact on a child's language knowledge (Schwartz, 2008) and the amount of home language input also has an effect on a child's vocabulary development (Mattheoudakis, Agathopoulou, Chatzidaki & Maligkoudi, 2016). In accordance with the findings presented in Chapter 5, bilingual children's language growth is impacted not only by supplementary school attendees' status but also by the family's perspective on child language learning (Mattheoudakis et al., 2016). According to Willard et al. (2015), vocabulary learning can be shaped by parents by setting a rich home literacy environment. These include learning activities, storybook reading, watching cartoons and language preferences (what language they choose to use at home). However, results from some studies do not support the relationship between vocabulary development and language exposure (Mattheoudakis et al., 2016).

Therefore, the present chapter aims to investigate the relationships between the three components of the home literacy environment, which are referred to as multilingual family characteristics; language input and preference, parents' perspective, and children's language skills growth. Schwartz (2008) stated that these general features affect heritage language development among bilingual children who are born and grow up in a country where the majority language is different from the home language. The frequency of exposure/input of a language shows a positive correlation with vocabulary variance of children (Bohnacker, Lindgren, Oztekin, 2016). Moreover, parents' educational background also has an impact on bilingual children's vocabulary development (see e.g., Leseman, 2000, for Dutch vocabulary skills in Turkish-Dutch bilingual

children). According to Schwartz (2008), the family language perspective also affects a child's language growth although parents' actual practice has more impact. For example, Schwartz's (2008) longitudinal study with 70 bilingual Russian-Hebrew speaking children showed that teaching children to read in L1, and parents' language choice to speak with the children helped L1 maintenance. Parents who mostly read and speak in L1 have a positive effect on their children's knowledge of their home language. In the current study, family characteristics refer to the group (preference of sending the child to supplementary school), family nationality, educational background of parents, number of children, frequency of speaking Turkish at home, language preference with spouse and child, childbirth order, child L1, and proficiency of speaking Turkish and English. Under the umbrella of child language input and preferences, frequency of watching TV, reading books, writing, listening to songs, speaking in Turkish per day, child language preferences with father, mother, siblings and friends were investigated. Parents' perceptions of child language skills were considered by investigating how much value parents put on the importance of maintaining Turkish, encouraging the child to speak Turkish and the child's language proficiency in Turkish and English.

6.2. Study Aims and Research Questions for This Chapter

The present chapter introduces the data collected to investigate the bilingual home literacy environment of Turkish-English children who do and do not attend a supplementary school in England. In particular, the chapter presents parental perspectives on bilingual language learning. In terms of the aim of the study, this chapter addresses the following research question:

Research Question 3. Do parental perspectives affect the child's bilingual language learning?

- a. What are the family characteristics of attendees and non-attendee children?

- b. What are those children's language input and practices within their home settings in Turkish and English?
- c. What is the relationship between bilingual children's performance in language skills and their home literacy environment?

6.3. Method

6.3.1. Participants

The participants were 39 parents (30 mothers and nine fathers) of the bilingual children who took part in this study. Each parent was recruited directly through the personal network of the researcher, Turkish communities, advertisements on social media (Facebook, Twitter etc.) and Turkish supplementary schools in order to reach as many parents as possible who are raising bilingual children. The parents were selected with the criterion being that they had to be a caregiver of the participating children. Seventeen parents (10 mothers) had bilingual children who attended a supplementary school, and 22 parents (20 mothers) did not send their children to supplementary school. 26 of the parents (eight attendees and 18 non-attendees) stated that both parents were native Turkish, and 13 parents (nine attendees and four non-attendees) have a bilingual home in which one of the parents was a native Turkish speaker. Two of the parents (5.1%) were born in England and 33.3% of them had been living in England for more than 10 years. The majority of the population had been living in the country for eight to ten years. 10.3% of the parents were not born in either Turkey or England (Bulgaria, France, Poland and Russia). The most frequent reason for moving to England was for work (35.1%) followed by studies and marriage with the same percentage (21.6%).

6.3.2. Instruments

Cross-linguistic tasks (Ewa; Haman et al., 2017) were used to test 41 bilingual children's (19 attendees and 22 non-attendees to Turkish supplementary school) production and comprehension vocabulary growth in Turkish and English (see Chapter 5). The Frog story (Mayer, 1969b) was used to investigate the same 41 bilingual children's narrative storytelling knowledge in Turkish and English (see Chapter 5). Background information was collected from parents using a bilingual language background environment questionnaire (BLBEQ). See Chapter 3 Methodology for the data collection tools adopted in this study. The BLBEQ consists of three main sections and contains 38 questions about the family's demographic details, the child's language input and practice and parents' perception of the child's language. Each section has a mixture of closed, multiple-choice, open-ended and Likert scale questions.

6.3.3. Procedure

The BLBEQ data was collected using an online questionnaire system (Qualtrics). The online questionnaire was sent to all parents of bilingual children who took part in the study by email. The participants filled in the questionnaire either in Turkish or in English. This was done while the researcher was working with the child except for a few occasions when parents filled out the questionnaire at another time. Out of the 41 parents, 39 questionnaires were completed. The questionnaire data was transferred to the SPSS 26 analysis package through Qualtrics and anonymised. In order to ascertain whether the themes measure what they are intended to measure (internal consistency), the Cronbach's alpha test was applied to measure the reliability of the 38-item BLBEQ in the SPSS 26. The result of the reliability was acceptable as $\alpha = .99$ for his study.

6.4. Results

This section presents the findings from the BLBEQ and examines the relationship between the questionnaire and the child's language skills results. Firstly, a descriptive analysis was run for the questionnaire and then a series of Spearman's correlation was conducted between the questionnaire and the mean of the child's language skills results.

6.4.1. Descriptive Analysis

6.4.1.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

This section presents the results of the descriptive data analysis, showing the relevant demographic characteristics of the participants. The first aim of this section is to give a description of the parents in this study while the second is to compare all responses using frequency and percentage analysis in terms of three main characteristics: demographics of the family, child language input and practice, and parent's perspective on child language. The frequencies and percentages of the variables in question are displayed in tables or figures.

The results of this questionnaire indicated that 78% of parents had been living in England for more than eight years; 39.7% moved to England for work purposes and 19.5% came to the UK by marriage. 26.8% of parents had their own business and 36.6% were housewives. The remaining parents are students/researchers (12.2%) or doing other jobs (e.g., cleaner, seller and waitress) (19.5%). Parents were asked whether they were both Turkish or not. More than half of the parents (63.4%) had a Turkish partner, 24.4% of the families had a Turkish father and non-Turkish mother, and only 12.2% of the families had a Turkish mother and a non-Turkish father. Figure 6.1 demonstrates children who have both parents from Turkey and who have one Turkish parent.

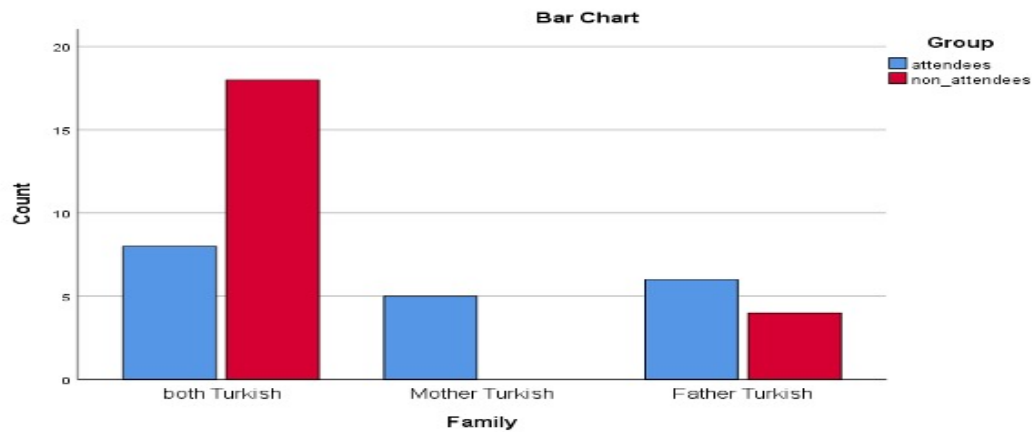


Figure 6.1. Family nationality by group (attendee vs non-attendee)

Parents' levels of academic qualification are shown in Table 6.1. Almost one quarter (23%) held a postgraduate degree (master's or doctorate) while the largest group (25.6%) was made up of high school degree holders. A few had some college education (10.3%) or two-year degree (10.3%) and some of the parents (15.4%) hold a bachelor's degree. In addition, almost half of the parents (10 attendees and seven non-attendees) have had their education in England and a smaller number were educated in Turkey (five attendees and 15 non-attendees).

Table 6.1. Academic qualification of parents

	Variable	Frequency	%
Academic qualifications	Less than high school	6	15.4
	High school	10	25.6
	Some college	4	10.3
	2-year degree	4	10.3
	4-year degree	6	15.4
	Master's degree	7	17.9
	Doctorate	2	5.1
	Total	39	100

It can be seen from Table 6.2 that the participants of the study were mainly mothers of the students, less than half of the parents (38.5%) were housewives and the second-largest population (28.2%) were business owners (restaurants, takeaway shops or IT). Only 12.8% were students or researchers.

Table 6.2. Occupation of the parents

Variable		Frequency	%
Occupation	Housewife	15	38.5
	Student/Researcher	5	12.8
	Business owner	11	28.2
	Others	8	20.2
Total		39	100

Participants were asked how many children they have and where the participating child fitted in terms of birth order. Almost half of the participants have two children (46.2%) and 33.3% of the parents had more than two children. Only 20.5% of the parents have only one child who took part in the study. Figure 6.2 shows the birth order of the child who takes part in the study. Most of the non-attendee children are the firstborn and the attendee children are mostly second-born children.

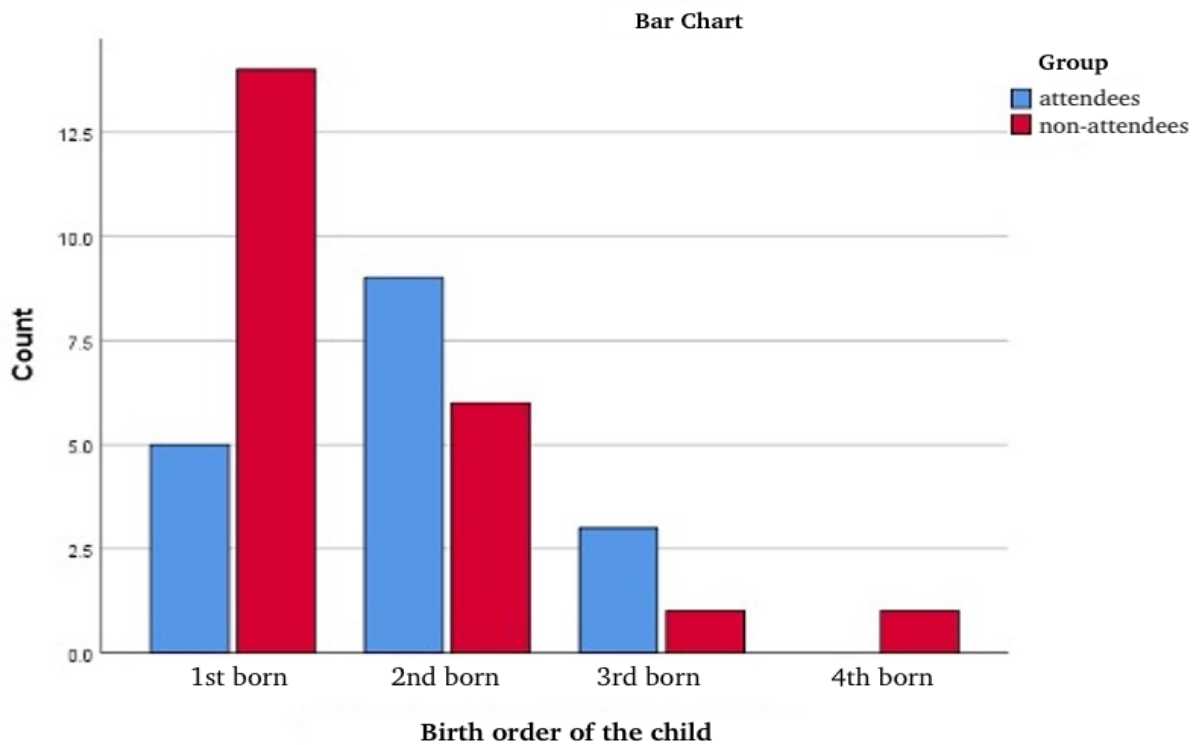


Figure 6.2. Number of children and birth order by group (attendee vs non-attendee)

6.4.1.2. Language Preference and Input

The parents were asked to evaluate their proficiency in Turkish and English. More than three-quarters of parents (84.6%) stated that their first language is Turkish while only 5.1% of the parents stated English as their first language and 10.3% have any other language as their first language. While 87.2% of the parents stated that they are native or native-like in Turkish, 5.1% stated that they cannot speak Turkish as their L1 is English or any other language. On the other hand, 33.3% of the parents suggested they speak English as native or native-like whereas 7.7% of the parents cannot speak English at all because their L1 is Turkish. Figure 6.3 and Figure 6.4 show parents' proficiency in speaking Turkish and English. Both parents who send or do not send their child to the supplementary school stated that their Turkish proficiency is native or extremely well. However, the proficiency of English of the parents who do not send their child to supplementary school is very well or moderately well.

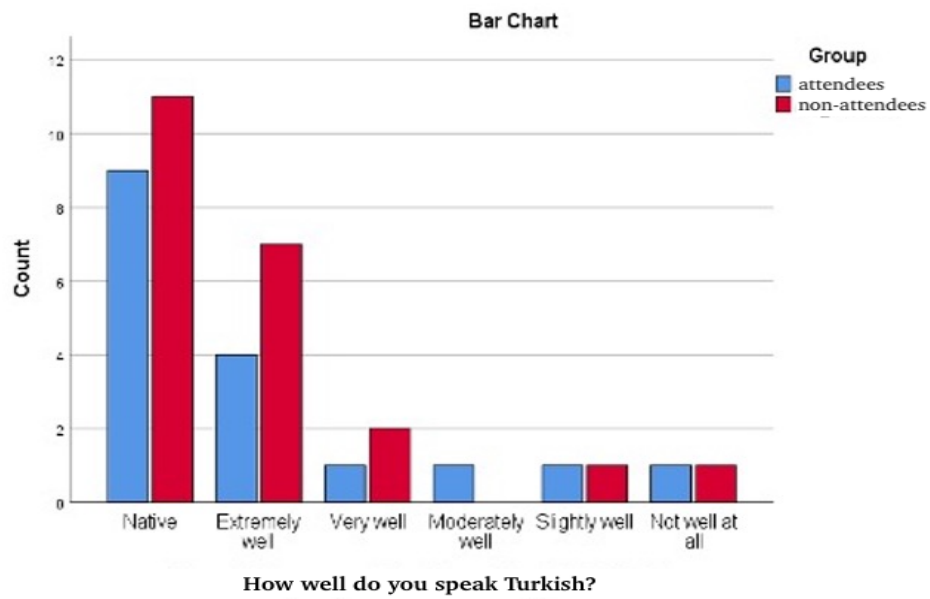


Figure 6.3. Proficiency of speaking Turkish of parents by group (attendee vs non-attendee)

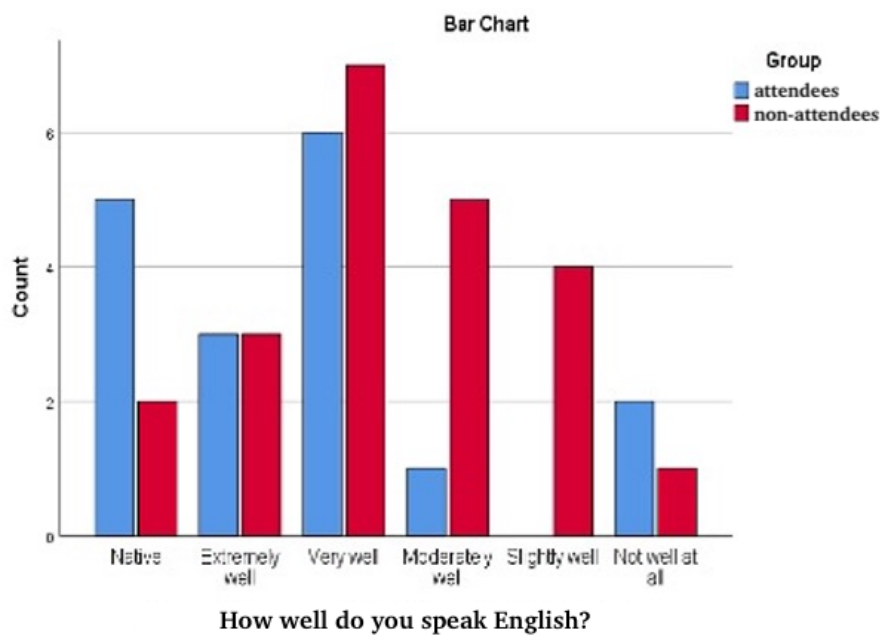


Figure 6.4. Proficiency of speaking English of parents by group (attendee vs non-attendee)

Parents were asked to indicate how often they speak Turkish and the language they speak with their spouse and child (Table 6.3). Almost three-quarter of the participants (75.4%) stated that they only

or most of the time speak Turkish at home with their child and about one-quarter sometimes speak Turkish with the child. However, more than half of the respondents (66.7%) prefer to speak only Turkish with their spouse and only 10.3% speak both languages but mostly Turkish while only 12.8% speak only English. On the other hand, almost half of the parents (46.7%) prefer to speak only Turkish with their children and 28.7% speak both languages but mostly Turkish. Moreover, 18.4% speak both Turkish and English but mostly English. Only 3.1% speak only English and 3.1% speak another language with their child.

Table 6.3. Frequency of speaking Turkish

	Spouse		Child	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Only Turkish	26	66.7	18	46.7
Both Turkish and English, but mostly Turkish	4	10.3	11	28.7
Both Turkish and English, but mostly English	4	10.3	7	18.4
Only English	5	12.8	1	3.1
Other	0	0	1	3.1
Total	39	100.0	39	100.00

Figure 6.5 and Figure 6.6 show the language preferences speak with spouse and child by group (attendee and non-attendee). Non-attendee children's parents are keen to speak only Turkish with their spouses, however, parents of attendee children prefer to speak both languages but mostly

English with their child.

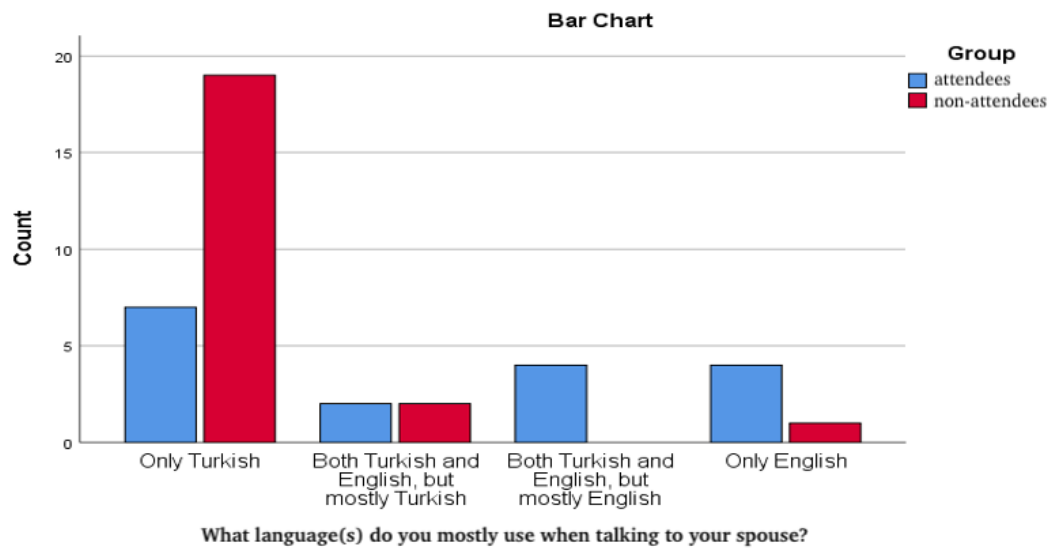


Figure 6.5. Language preferences to speak with spouse by group (attendee vs non-attendee)

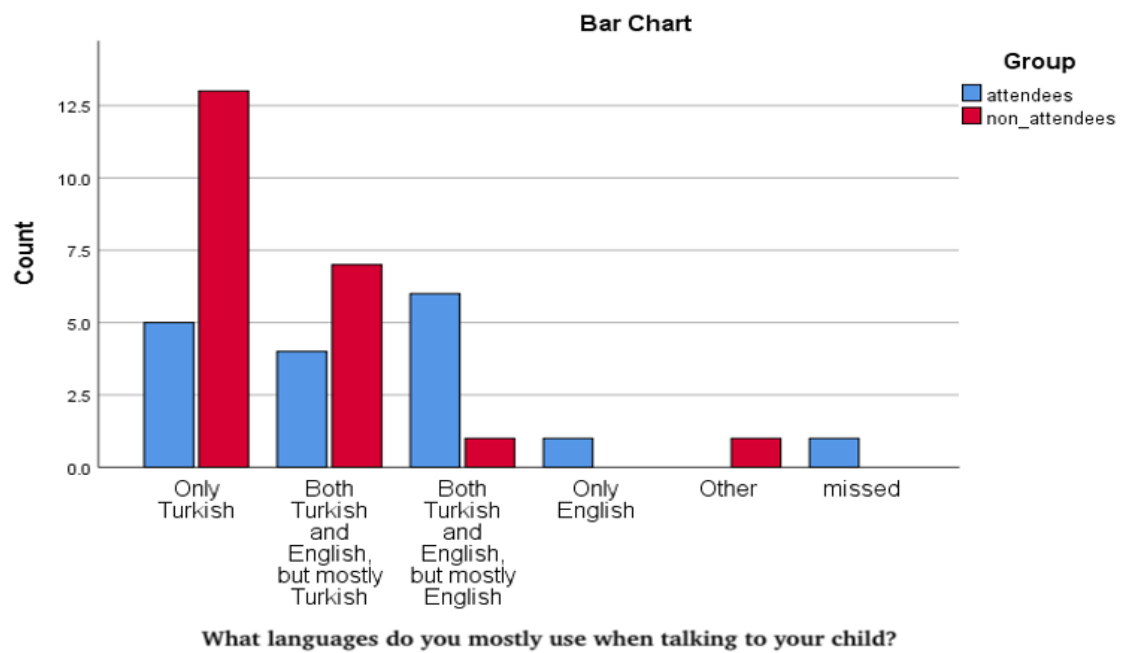


Figure 6.6. Language preferences to speak with child by group (attendee vs non-attendee)

Parents of 29 (74.4%) children stated that their child's first language is Turkish, nine (23.1%) stated it is English and only one (2.6%) stated that the child's first language is both Turkish and English.

Table 6.4 presents the data concerning the child's language practices and input. Only 10.2% of children listen to the radio for more than one hour in Turkish whereas 89.8% of children never listen or listen for less than one hour. More than half of the children (64.1%) watch Turkish television for less than one hour per day and 7.7% never watch Turkish television. However, 28.2% of children were found to watch more than one hour of Turkish television per day. Most of the children (61.5%) read a book in Turkish for less than one hour and 25.6% of children do not read at all. Only 7.7% reads for one hour and 5.1% reads a book for more than five hours in Turkish. Almost all of the children (92.3%) do not write in Turkish while only 7.7% of children write Turkish for more than one hour per day. More than half of the children (53.8%) listen to Turkish songs for less than one hour a day while the rest of them (45.2%) listen to Turkish songs for one or more than one hour per day. 41% of the children watch animation or cartoons in Turkish for less than one hour a day while 59% of the children watch one or more than one hour. More than half (53.8%) of children speak Turkish for five or more hours a day, and 10.3% speak Turkish between two and five hours, while 35.9% speak Turkish for one or less than one hour.

Table 6.4. Child language input and practice

<i>n</i> = 39	Listen to radio	Watching TV	Reading a book	Writing	Listening song	Watching animation	Speaking
	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>n</i> (%)
Less than 1 hour	17 (43.6%)	25 (64.1%)	24 (61.5%)	36 (92.3%)	21 (53.8%)	16 (41%)	9 (23.1%)
1 hour	2 (5.1%)	11 (28.2%)	3 (7.7%)	1 (2.6%)	16 (41%)	16 (41%)	5 (12.8%)
1 to 5 hours	0(0%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	2 (5.1%)	1 (2.6%)	6 (15.4)	4 (10.3%)
More than 5 hours	2 (5.1%)	0 (0%)	2 (5.1%)	0(0%)	1 (2.6%)	1 (2.6%)	21 (53.8%)
Never	18 (46.2%)	3 (7.7%)	10 (25.6%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	0(0%)

The Table 6.5 shows that children preferred to use mainly Turkish for communication with their mother (38.5%) and father (33.3%) and only 10.3% used English with their mother and 12.8% with their father. At the same time, a strong tendency was found to permit the use of Turkish and English without preference with the mother (17.9%) and with the father (20.5%). Most of the children (26.6%) prefer to speak only English with their siblings and 17.9% communicate without language preferences. More than a quarter of children had no preferences for communication with their friends (30.8%) but 23.1% preferred to speak only English.

Table 6.5. Language preferences with mother, father, siblings and friends

	Mother	Father	Siblings	Friends
	(n = 39)	(n = 39)	(n = 39)	(n = 39)
Only Turkish	38.5% (15)	33.3% (13)	15.4% (6)	10.3% (4)
Both Turkish and English but mostly Turkish	23.1% (9)	25.6% (10)	17.9% (7)	17.9% (7)
Both Turkish and English but mostly English	7.7% (3)	5.1% (2)	7.7% (3)	7.7% (3)
Both Turkish and English without preferences	17.9% (7)	20.5% (8)	17.9% (7)	30.8% (12)
Only English	10.3% (4)	12.8% (5)	26.6% (10)	23.1% (9)
None	2.6% (1)	2.6% (1)	15.4% (6)	10.3% (4)

6.4.1.3. Parents' Perception of Their Child's Language

Parents were also asked to indicate the importance of maintaining Turkish as their child's heritage language. In general, parents believe that maintaining their child's Turkish is important. Most of the parents (79.5%) believe that maintaining the child's Turkish is extremely important and 15.4% stated it is very important although 5.1% of the parents think that it is moderately important. However, parents who send their child to a Turkish supplementary school believe it is more important than parents not sending their child (Figure 6.7). Parents were also asked to indicate how they would feel if the child did not speak Turkish. Most of the parents (71.8%) stated that if their child did not speak or understand Turkish, they would regret it while 12.6% would not regret this.

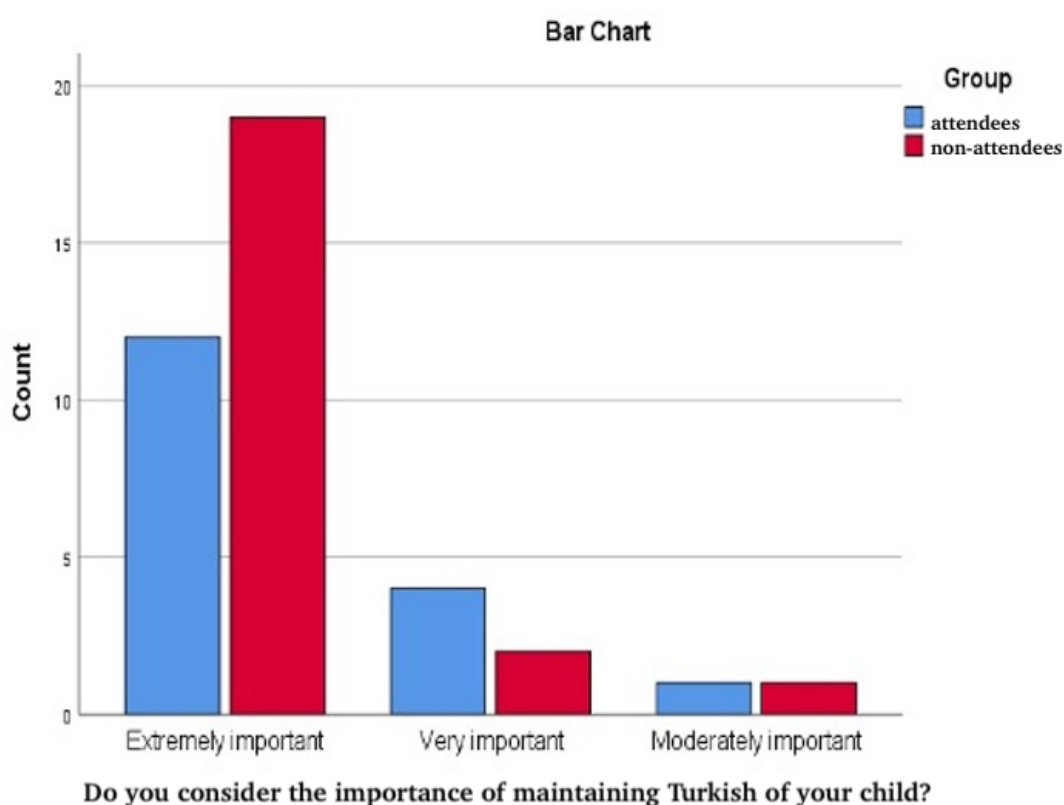


Figure 6.7. Importance of maintaining Turkish

Parents who reported that it was important to maintain Turkish were asked to indicate how often they encouraged their child to speak and write in Turkish. Most of the parents encouraged their child to speak Turkish always or most of the time (89.8%) while some of them sometimes encouraged their child to speak Turkish (10.2%). Moreover, more than half of the parents sometimes encouraged their child to read and write in Turkish (61.6%) and 23.1% of the parents always or most of the time encouraged their child, while 15.4% never encouraged their child to read or write in Turkish. In addition, parents were also asked how often they corrected their child while speaking Turkish. Whereas 40% of the parents always or most of the time were keen to correct their child's Turkish while speaking, almost half of them (46.1%) sometimes corrected and 12.9% reported that never correct their child while speaking. Figure 6.8 and Figure 6.9 show how often parents encouraged their children to speak and write in Turkish per day.

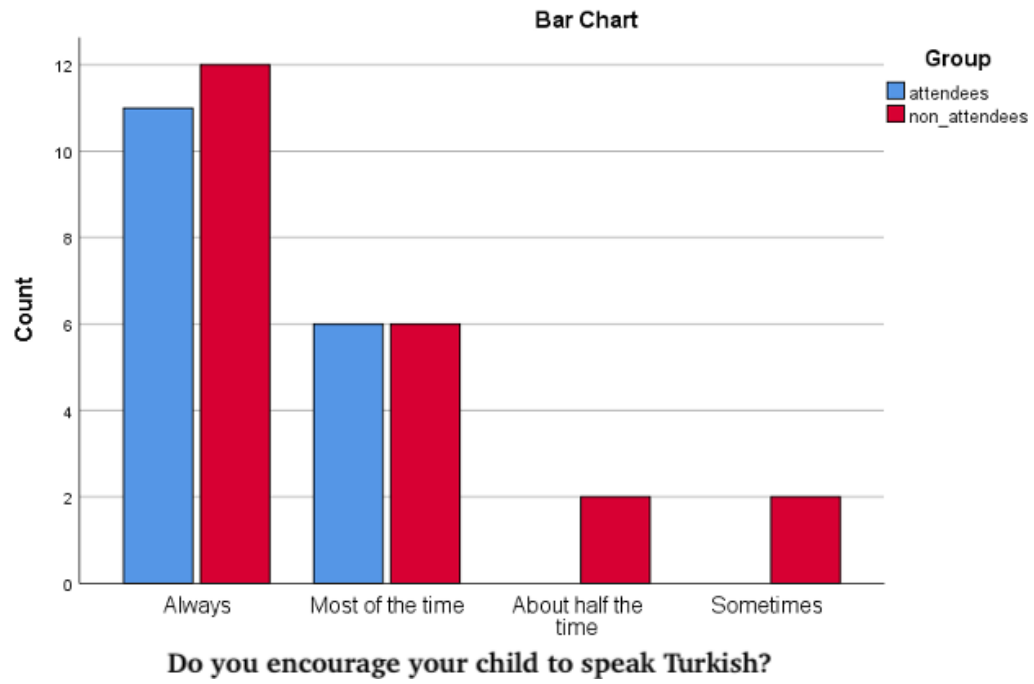


Figure 6.8. Encourage to speak in Turkish by group (attendee vs non-attendee)

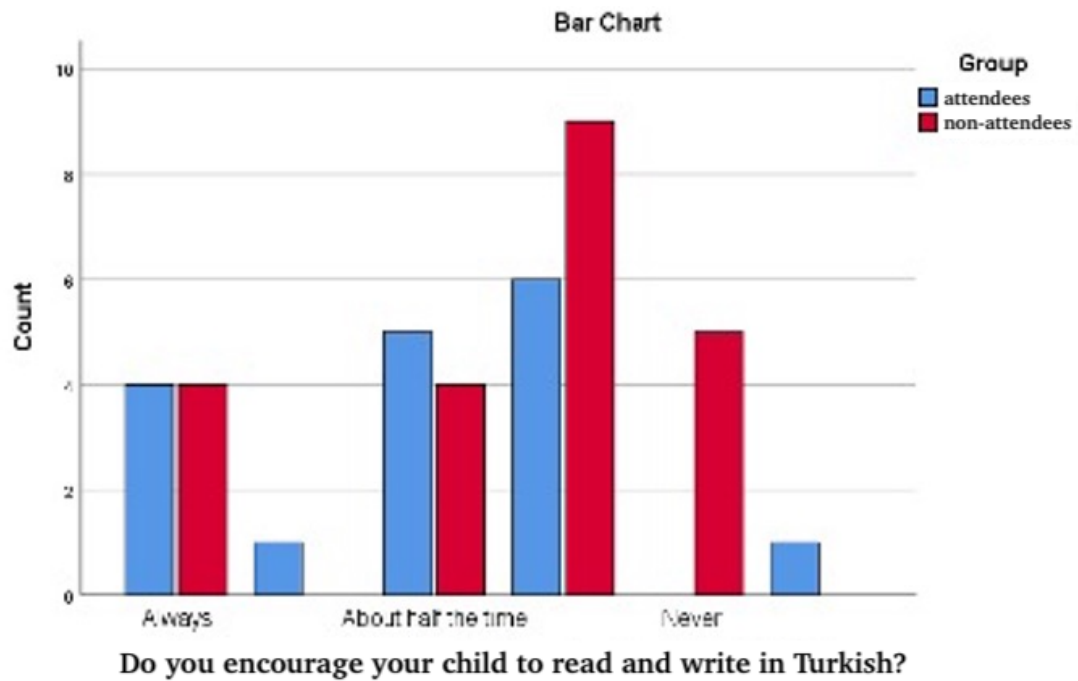


Figure 6.9. Encourage to write in Turkish by group (attendee vs non-attendee)

In terms of parents' perception of their child's Turkish language proficiency, 56.4% believed that their child was extremely proficient or very proficient, while 25.6% of the parents thought their child had moderately/slightly well Turkish proficiency. Only 17.9% of the parents felt that their child's Turkish was not proficient at all. Figure 6.10 shows children's Turkish proficiency from the parental perspective. Parents of the non-attende children stated that their children's Turkish language proficiency is very well, while attendee children's parents perceived that their children's Turkish proficiency is slightly well or not well at all.

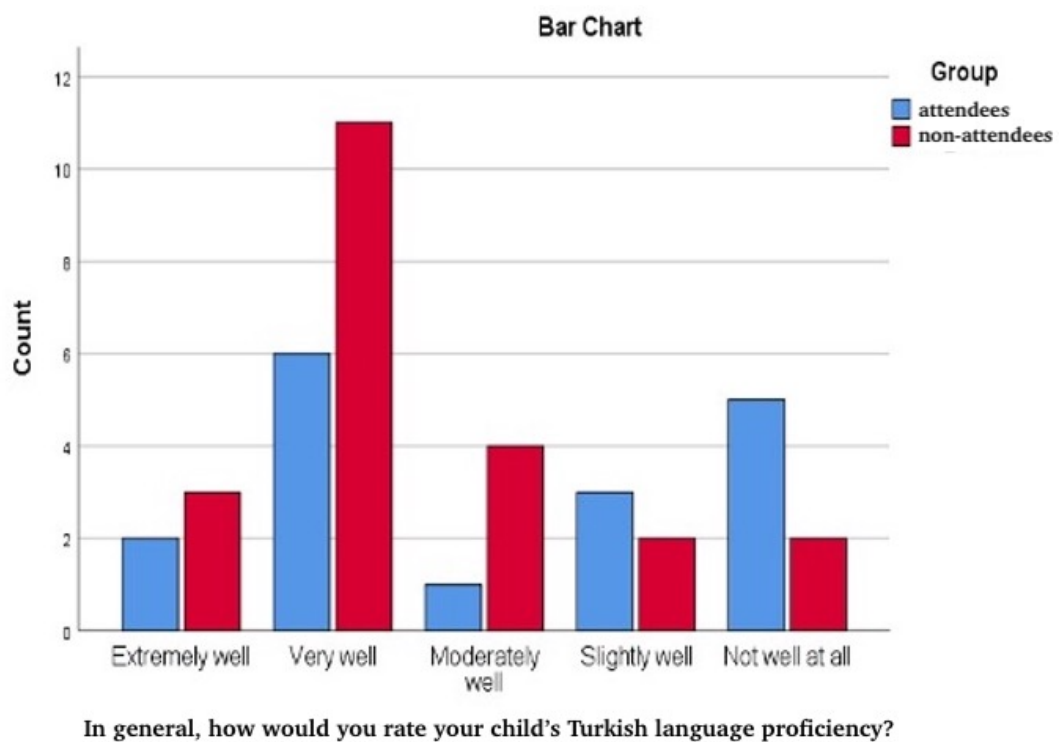


Figure 6.10. Child Language Proficiency by group (attendee vs non-attendee)

Only seven parents ($n = 19$) who sent their child to supplementary school reported that their child spoke Turkish extremely or very well and 12 of the attendees do not speak Turkish. Moreover, out of 19 parents of attendee children, 10 parents reported that their children understand Turkish extremely or very well whereas others (10.9%) understood slightly or did not understand at all.

6.4.2. The Relationship Between Home Literacy Environment and Child Language Skills

To address the third research question, a series of Spearman's rank-order correlation between child home literacy environment and the scores of children's production and comprehension of verb and noun (CLT), and narrative storytelling (Frog story) language skills in Turkish and English were examined (see Table 6.6, Table 6.7 and Table 6.8). Preliminary analyses showed that the data were not normally distributed and there were some outliers, however, the result of the analysis did not change with or without outliers.

Table 6.6. Correlation between demographic data and language skills

	Comprehension in English	Production in English	Comprehension in Turkish	Production in Turkish	Macro- structural aspects in Turkish	Productivity in Turkish	Sentence organisation in Turkish	Macro- structural aspects in English	Productivity in English	Sentence organisation in English
Group	-.15	-.05	.46**	.55**	.07	.26	.49**	-.04	-.14	.12
Family	.39*	.39*	-.47**	-.56**	-.69**	-.65**	-.78**	-.18	.07	-.11
Education	.12	.10	.08	.00	-.24	-.30	-.36	.05	.22	.14
Number of children	.02	.05	-.46**	-.39*	-.02	-.15	-.24	.21	-.02	.13
Frequency of speaking Turkish	.26	.47**	-.38*	-.41*	-.68**	-.51**	-.50**	.38	.21	.22
Language preference with spouse	.27	.28	-.61**	-.60**	-.63**	-.72**	-.65**	-.16	.10	-.13
Language preference with child	.17	.29	-.49**	-.50**	-.47*	-.50**	-.60**	.11	.05	.13
Birth order of the child	-.04	-.09	-.44**	-.47**	.02	-.06	-.27	.11	-.01	.00
child's L1	.14	.15	-.47**	-.44**	-.33	-.49*	-.39*	-.13	.14	-.15
Proficiency of speaking Turkish	-.02	-.02	-.26	-.15	.16	.28	.01	.03	-.07	-.05
Proficiency of speaking English	-.17	-.20	.33*	.27	.45*	.52**	.36	.09	.04	.01

*correlation is significant at the .05 level **correlation is significant at the .01 level

Table 6.6 shows that there was a negative correlation between family nationality and sending their child to supplementary school, which was statistically significant ($r_s(41) = -.353^*$, $p = .02$). Families where Turkish is not a mutual language at home (mother or father is not Turkish) are more likely to send their children to supplementary school. There was also a statistically strong negative correlation between family nationality and a child's language skills in Turkish. Children who have Turkish parents (both are Turkish), tend to have higher scores for Turkish language skills, however, it was expected that children who come from bilingual homes to perform better in English comprehension and production skills. There was no correlation between parents' level of education and a child's language skills in both languages. There was a strong negative correlation between the number of children and comprehension and production skills in Turkish whereas the number of children was not correlated with other language skills. Where parents have more children, their children performed better in Turkish vocabulary than parents who have a smaller number of children. There was a strong negative correlation between parents' frequency of speaking Turkish and Turkish language skills. There was also a statistically positive correlation between parents' frequency of speaking Turkish and English production skills. In addition, a strongly negative correlation was found between parents' language preference with their spouse and their child and Turkish language skills. If the parents spoke more Turkish at home, the child performed better in Turkish language skills. Moreover, children with parents who prefer to speak Turkish with their spouse and the child showed higher scores in language skills in Turkish. There was also a strong negative correlation between childbirth order and Turkish vocabulary skills while there was no correlation found between childbirth order and English language skills. That is, if a child is first born, s/he shows better Turkish production and comprehension skills. Children whose parents reported their child's L1 is Turkish performed better in Turkish production and comprehension skills and also had a high score in Turkish productivity and sentence organisation. There was no

statistically significant correlation found between parents' proficiency in speaking Turkish and child language skills.

Table 6.7. Correlation between child language input and language skills

	Comprehe nsion in English	Production in English	Comprehe nsion in Turkish	Production in Turkish	Macro- structural aspects in Turkish	Productivit y in Turkish	Sentence organisatio n in Turkish	macro- structural aspects in English	Productivit y in English	Sentence organisatio n in English
Frequency of watching TV	-.08	-.13	.09	.05	.45*	.30	.24	-.13	-.29	-.16
Frequency of reading book	.16	.09	-.31	.34*	.05	-.03	-.04	.17	.17	.19
Frequency of writing Turkish	.12	.07	-.05	-.01	.15	.03	.06	.06	.07	.17
Frequency of listening Turkish songs	-.36*	-.40*	-.00	-.10	-.07	-.01	-.06	-.45*	-.66**	-.49**
Frequency of speaking Turkish	-.20	-.23	.63**	.63**	.68**	.79**	.60**	-.06	.32	.17
Child Language preference with mother	.19	.23	-.46**	-.49**	-.47*	-.64**	-.59**	.23	-.07	.04
Child Language preference with father	.27	.18	-.38*	-.51**	-.34	-.59**	-.48*	.29	.09	.10
Child Language preference with siblings	.17	-.01	-.21	-.41**	-.37	-.27	-.40*	-.17	-.09	-.28
Child Language preference with friends	-.02	-.13	-.38*	-.38*	-.17	-.32	-.39*	-.11	-.23	-.24

*correlation is significant at the .05 level **correlation is significant at the .01 level

To explore the possible relationship between child language input and practice and language skills, a series of correlations was performed (see Table 6.7). There was a strong positive correlation between the frequency of watching TV in Turkish per day and macro-structural aspects of story's scores in Turkish, which was statistically significant while there was no significant correlation with other language skills. Interestingly, children who watched TV in English performed better in Turkish macro-structural aspects of story. There was a statistically strong positive correlation between the frequency of reading books in Turkish and the production of vocabulary in Turkish. There was no statistically significant correlation between a child's frequency of writing in Turkish and any of the language skills in both languages. There was a strong negative correlation between the frequency of listening to Turkish songs and English language skills. Children who listened to more English songs underperformed in Turkish language skills. A statistically strong positive correlation was found between the frequency of speaking Turkish and Turkish language skills. Children who speak Turkish more frequently performed better in all Turkish language skills. The correlations between child language preferences with mother and father and Turkish language skills were statistically strongly negative. If children preferred to talk with their mother or father in Turkish, they tended to perform higher in Turkish language skills. However, language preferences with siblings were strongly negatively correlated with Turkish production skills and negatively correlated with Turkish sentence organisation. In addition, there was a statistically significant negative correlation between child language preferences with friends and comprehension and production in Turkish and Turkish sentence organisation. The correlation means that if children prefer to talk with their siblings and friends in Turkish, their performance of Turkish vocabulary and sentence organisation skills is higher in Turkish, too.

Table 6.8. Correlation between parents' perception of child language skills and language skills

	Comprehension in English	Production in English	Comprehensi on in Turkish	Productio n in Turkish	Macro- structural aspects in Turkish	Productivi ty in Turkish	Sentence organisati on in Turkish	Macro- structural aspects in English	Productivi ty in English	Sentence organisati on in English
Importance of maintaining Turkish	-.02	.13	-.38*	-.35*	-.17	-.25	-.17	.26	-.21	-.05
Encourage to speaking Turkish	.29	.33*	-.18	-.18	-.51**	-.46*	-.40*	.32	-.06	.21
Child language proficiency	.21	.14	-.59**	-.61**	-.36	-.42*	-.38	.19	.01	.16
Proficiency of understanding Turkish	-.12	.03	.20	.23	-.40*	-.23	.07	.03	-.13	.16
Proficiency of speaking Turkish	-.07	.06	.23	.30	-.29	-.11	.24	.07	-.06	.24

*correlation is significant at the .05 level **correlation is significant at the .01 level

To establish the relationship between parents' perception of child language and child language skills, a series of correlations was carried out (see Table 6.8). The resulting correlation matrix is shown in table 6.8. There was a statistically strongly negative correlation between how much parents value learning Turkish and Turkish production and comprehension skills. For parents who found it important to maintain Turkish, their child tended to have a higher score in Turkish vocabulary skills. There was also a strong negative correlation between how often parents encouraged their children to speak Turkish and children's narrative skills while there was a strong positive correlation between encouragement to speak Turkish and vocabulary production in English. Children who were encouraged to speak Turkish performed better in narrative skills in Turkish. Moreover, there was also a strong negative correlation between child language proficiency and Turkish language skills, except for Turkish sentence organisation. If the parents believed that the child's Turkish language proficiency was high, the child's score was higher than others in Turkish language skills. There was a strong negative correlation between children's proficiency in understanding Turkish and Turkish story element skills. However, there was no statistically significant correlation found between children's proficiency in understanding Turkish and any of the language skills in both languages.

6.5. Discussion

This chapter investigated parental perspectives on the children's bilingual language learning. It was aimed at identifying bilingual home literacy environments and language use, and their relation with child language growth. As discussed in Chapter 6, children's language development does not only associate with school attendees but family language input and practice also influence it (De Houwer, 2011). The chapter was focused on bilingual family characteristics, language input and practice, and how it has an impact on children's language skills growth. It was predicted that families who have Turkish as their home language would prefer to send their child to supplementary school and children who have more exposure to language would perform

better than children who lack language input. Additionally, the percentage of exposure to Turkish at home was examined and correlation analyses explored whether the frequency of exposure to Turkish influenced language growth among bilingual children.

Overall, the results revealed that families who did not have Turkish as their home language preferred their children to attend Turkish supplementary schools. Correlation analyses revealed that family language input at home had a strongly positive relation regardless of attending supplementary school. The analyses also showed that children who have both parents from Turkey outperformed the children who have only one Turkish parent in Turkish language skills. Furthermore, of the English language measures, there was no significant difference between groups regarding the family. A possible explanation for this might be that English is the majority language in the community and children's exposure English in their daily lives and mainstream schooling.

Previous research has found that there is an association between parents' education and the home literacy environment (Jäkel, Schölmerich, Kassis & Leyendecker, 2011), however, no significant correlation between parents' education and children's language skills were found in this study. This was surprising and contradictory to previous research. For instance, another study with German-Turkish bilingual children also found that more-educated parents support their children by providing a richer language literacy environment (Willard et al., 2015).

Due to the difference found in language scores, they were controlled for the childbirth order. When the vocabulary scores were examined by birth order, it was found that the oldest children had higher scores in Turkish vocabulary and fewer scores in English vocabulary. However, it is the other way around for narrative language skills; later-borns performed better in English. Previous research has found that older children appear to have an advantage in minority home language vocabulary growth whereas young children have an advantage in production and

narrative skills (Hoff, 2006). Hoff also stated that this difference is related to a child's language experiences. Children who were first born outperform in vocabulary but later-borns tend to be more advanced in conversational skills.

The current chapter resonated with many others (e.g. Bohnacker et al., 2016; Willard et al., 2015) in finding that parents' language preference with their spouse and child is an important factor for Turkish vocabulary development. The more Turkish parents used when communicating with their child, the larger their child's Turkish vocabulary tends to become. However, these results vary based on the language use of either the mother or father (Willard et al., 2015). In line with this chapter's findings, it can be discussed that the language preferences between mother and child positively impact a child's vocabulary whereas a father's language preferences were found to have a significant opposite effect. This relationship may partly be explained by the amount of time children spend with their parents, as children usually spend their time with their mother rather than their father (Hoff, 2006). Other research has also found that in children who have one native Spanish-speaking and one native English-speaking parent, English is their home common language and those children are predicted to use more English and underperform in Spanish vocabulary (Hoff et al., 2014).

Concerning language exposure, many studies have found that a child's language growth is greatly influenced by language input/exposure (e.g. Bohnacker et al., 2016; De Houwer, 2011; Schwartz, 2008). In the present study, children significantly outperformed in Turkish between groups when their parents spoke only/most of the time Turkish to each other or their child. Previous research further supports the suggestion that children who receive a rich home literacy environment (reading books, writing etc.) in a language are more likely to have high language scores in that language (Willard et al., 2015).

Finally, with regard to parents' perception of child language skills, although parents thought that maintaining Turkish is important, their children underperformed in Turkish language skills. This could be because of parents' language input, practice and preference while talking with their child (De Houwer, 2007, 2011). That is, parents prefer to speak the majority language at home rather than the minority (heritage/target language) with their child. Alternatively, it could be due to the language input quality, (i.e. using dialect, switching language) (Willard et al., 2015). It is difficult to explain this result, but it might be related to children's knowledge of the target language, as children might not differentiate whether the word is switched in the target language or not. Additionally, it is argued that even though parents think that maintaining Turkish is important, children are not frequently encouraged to speak Turkish. Therefore, there are concerns over parental language beliefs and attitudes (De Houwer, 2011). While parents have positive beliefs about teaching Turkish to their children, their language input and practice were not consistent with their perception of child language growth.

6.6. Conclusion

The key purpose of this chapter was to analyse parents' perspectives on their Turkish-English bilingual children's language learning. To conclude, the findings showed that both groups of bilingual children's language skills were affected by parental language beliefs, practice and inputs. Interestingly, it was expected that children who have both Turkish-spoken parents would have taken Turkish supplementary school, however, parents who have a foreign spouse showed a higher tendency to send their children to supplementary school.

Despite the shortcomings, the present findings contribute to language growth of the Turkish-English bilingual children who grow up in England. While children who attend Turkish supplementary school underperformed their peers who do not, it can be related to parental language practice and input (De Houwer, 2011; Hoff et al., 2014; Mattheoudakis et al., 2016).

Although this chapter did not empirically analyse the family language use, practice and input, the findings suggest that parental language beliefs, practice and input have an important role in bilingual children's language learning and growth.

Chapter 7 Discussion and Conclusion

7.1. Introduction

This research project aimed to examine the role different variables (supplementary attendance status, age, SES, family language strategies) play in the heritage language growth of 4-8-year-old bilingual Turkish-English children in the UK by comparing attendee and non-attendee children at Turkish supplementary schools. Employing a cross-sectional design, several research questions were addressed. The first aim of the research was to understand the characteristics of Turkish supplementary schools and the teachers' demographics by focusing on the teaching environment, teaching techniques and teachers' perceptions of teaching and learning Turkish as a heritage language by bilingual children. Secondly, it was aimed to have a comparison between the performance of children who attend a supplementary school in both Turkish and English in with their typically developing, non-attendee peers in the areas of production of verb and noun, comprehension of verb and noun, narrative production, and quality skills over six months. Finally, relationships between these languages and language tasks were investigated to establish whether the vocabulary and narrative productivity skills in this group of children attending the supplementary schools would differ from the outcomes for these language skills for the non-attendee population within and across the languages. I also wanted to find out whether there would be any effect of parental perspectives on the language growth of both bilingual groups such as family characteristics (e.g., education, occupation, being native/non-native etc.), and language input and practice at home. This chapter will draw together the key findings from Chapters 4, 5 and 6 of the thesis and will discuss these in relation to the previous studies in the literature as well as consider theoretical and educational implications.

7.2. Summary of Key Findings

7.2.1. Turkish Supplementary School Practice and Input on Bilingual Children

The first phase of data collection was designed as a background study to investigate the Turkish supplementary school's system, teaching environment, teachers' techniques and perceptions of Turkish language learning and teaching. It was expected that all the teachers working in Turkish supplementary schools hold the same degree of teaching qualification. However, there was no standard in the teachers' qualifications because there is no degree programme in the profession of teaching Turkish as a children's heritage language to bilingual children who grow up in a majority language country that is different from one's heritage language. One unanticipated finding was that most of the teachers who teach Turkish in supplementary schools do not hold qualifications in teaching Turkish but some of them have teaching qualifications in different fields. This result may be explained by the fact that there is no established specific bachelor's programme to teach Turkish as a heritage language by the Ministry of National Education in Turkey (MoNE, 2019) although MoNE establishes a special teaching qualification to teach Turkish as a foreign language abroad. In line with Mete's (2012) study with teachers who teach Turkish as an L2, those teachers hold different teaching qualifications in undergraduate or postgraduate degrees (e.g., preschool teacher, religious teacher, kindergarten teacher, etc.), however, some had language teaching qualification in different languages, such as English, Turkish, German and Arabic. The only common feature of the teachers is that Turkish is their first language, and they speak and understand Turkish. A note of caution is due here since speaking, having knowledge of the language and being a citizen are different from having the required skills and abilities to be able to teach the language.

Although teachers' teaching experience, teaching qualifications and age were varied, contrary to expectations, this study did not find a significant difference between those variables and teachers'

teaching environment and teaching techniques. This result is in line with those of Mete and Gürsoy (2013) who also found that there was no relationship between language teaching and learning techniques and perceptions, and teachers' qualification and experience. This was rather surprising as it would be expected, for example, teachers with a degree in language teaching to be keen to use more specific language teaching techniques or have different perspectives and pedagogical applications inside the class.

The teachers in the current study apply different techniques to teach Turkish to bilingual students at the supplementary schools, and how effective these are to be depends on the student's interest, motivation, and proficiency. This result corroborates the findings of a great deal of previous work in language teaching and learner motivation of the target language. For instance, Mete and Gürsoy (2013) stated that teaching techniques and strategies should focus on learning the target language to language learners. Another important finding in the current study is that teachers adopt Turkish as the primary medium of instruction while teaching in a classroom, however, the students mainly answer in English. This finding is similar to that of other studies where students tend to use English whereas teachers give instructions in the target language (Creese et al., 2007; Martin et al., 2004; Martin et al., 2006). As noted in the literature review, this is not surprising since English the first language of most of the students who took part in this study. However, in the present study, some teachers reported that they prefer to translate a word from one language to another as their teaching technique or ask the students in one language and want them to translate it into another language. Martin et al. (2006) described this practice as 'bilingual label quests' in supplementary classrooms. Regarding the data from questionnaires and interviews, students are not pushed to use the target language. This finding, while preliminary, suggests that teachers should be taught to use technology and create different materials to teach the language to draw the students' attention. However, adapting teaching materials, curriculum and activities are one of the challenges for the teachers due to the age and language knowledge of the bilingual

children. In line with Mete and Gürsoy (2013)'s study, it is also difficult to find appropriate materials for language learners according to learners' readiness and level of proficiency as most of the materials have been designed for native students who learn a second language in their home country rather than heritage language learners who speak Turkish as a minority language. It may also explain the findings of children's language skills data. Although the language skills of children had improved in Turkish during their attendance at the supplementary school, there was not a significant difference from t1 to t2. It can be said that teaching materials might affect their learning as the materials are not appropriate for their level of language knowledge.

Prior studies have noted the importance of family interaction for language learning (Creese et al., 2007; Mete, 2012; Otcu, 2010). Language learning mostly depends on exposure to the target language (De Houwer, 2011; Schwartz, 2008). Another result of this study shows that teachers suggested that the students should do language practice at home and in daily life. This also accords with earlier observations, which showed that language learners should practice and be supported outside of the school to improve their language (Mete & Gürsoy, 2013). These results confirm the association between language practice and children's language performance. The present study showed that children who are exposed more to the target language at home and in other linguistic environments performed higher in Turkish.

When it comes to the importance of teaching a language, teachers believe that learning a language involves not only speaking or understanding that language but also learning the culture, therefore, teachers who teach Turkish as a heritage language abroad should have a rich cultural knowledge of the heritage language (Mete & Gürsoy, 2013).

To summarise, the cross-sectional analysis showed that both groups of children's lexical knowledge had significantly improved from t1 to t2. Unexpectedly, despite the observed gains, children who attended Turkish supplementary school lag behind their non-attendee peers in

Turkish language knowledge, but attendance status did not make a difference in English language knowledge. This result was explained by data from the family bilingual background environment questionnaire which showed that children who did not attend the supplementary school, were exposed to and practised Turkish at home more than their attendee peers. The importance of children's linguistic environment on language acquisition is also supported by the previous literature (e.g., De Houwer, 2007, 2011; Hoff, 2003, 2006; Schwartz, 2008, 2010). The data was gathered to explain Turkish supplementary schools' role in bilingual children's language growth and showed that teachers' teaching environment, technique and perceptions were not significant for children's language acquisition, but general language environment and language practice is important to bilingual children's language growth.

7.2.2. Lexical and Narrative Knowledge of Bilingual Children

The second study was designed to investigate the role the variables (SS attendance status, age, SES, family language strategies) play on language growth in the Turkish and English of Turkish-English bilingual children who attend the supplementary schools in comparison to children who do not attend.

As demonstrated in the cross-sectional data which was gathered two times, attendee children had weaker vocabulary knowledge on the Turkish tasks when compared to non-attendee children although it was expected that attendee children would achieve higher scores than non-attendee. This is consistent with previous studies and is a well-documented finding in bilingual language development research (e.g. De Houwer, 2007, 2011; Haman, Luniewska & Pomiechowska, 2015; Hoff et al., 2014; Leseman, 2000; Schwartz, 2008; Willard et al., 2015). A possible explanation for this result may be language practice and input at home. If the children practice the language at home and parents provide a rich environment and use more target language, children acquire more vocabulary. Additionally, on the English task, attendee children do not differ from their

non-attendee peers. However, much less research has considered heritage language knowledge beyond single word production and comprehension within the bilingual children who attend and who do not attend Turkish supplementary schools in the UK.

A number of tasks tapping vocabulary depth were therefore administered which included a task of noun comprehension and production, verb comprehension and production tasks in both Turkish and English. Largely, the results indicated that children who attend the supplementary school had weaker knowledge of vocabulary skills in Turkish than children who do not attend. It is surprising but there is no related literature on the comparison of supplementary school attendee and non-attendee children's acquisition of bilingual vocabulary size, however, it can be explained by the home language literacy environment. For example, if the child practices and uses Turkish at home and the parents speak Turkish and provide a linguistically rich environment (e.g., reading books, watching TV or listening to music/radio etc. in Turkish), the child scores higher. Because of the richness of home linguistic environment, family may not prefer to send their children to the supplementary school.

Firstly, when comprehension tasks were compared in Turkish, the children who attend the supplementary school scored lower than children who do not attend verb comprehension at time 1 and time 2. In terms of noun comprehension in Turkish, the attendee children achieved higher scores than the non-attendees at time 1 and time 2. However, during the six months, both groups of children's verb and noun comprehension levels increased. As for verb and noun comprehension levels in English, there was no significant difference between the groups. However, both groups of children's comprehension levels in English improved between time 1 and time 2. Language input and exposure are important for the acquisition of the language, during the study, the children were exposed to and practised English in daily life and they attended their mainstream schools (Hoff, 2006). It gave the advantage to improve their vocabulary size of English.

With regard to production performance in Turkish, the children who attend supplementary school underperformed in verb production while their non-attendee peers scored more highly. Additionally, English production skills were found to be challenging for all children, although the raw scores indicated that the non-attendee children performed less well than the attendees. However, both groups of children achieved higher scores at time 2 than at time 1. Children's vocabulary knowledge improved during the six months. The lower level of production knowledge of the non-attendee children is in line with Haman, Luniewska, and Pomiechowska's (2015) study that examined the productive use of verbs and nouns. In line with Haman et al.'s (2017) study, it was predicted that children perform better in comprehension than production skills in each of their languages. It is somewhat surprising that the attendee children performed better in verb production skills in English than the non-attendees at time 1, however, the non-attendee children's verb production scores increased to be slightly higher than those of the attendees. This result may be explained by the language input and practice at home, parental beliefs and attitudes on language teaching and learning (De Houwer, 2011; Schwartz, 2008), and family socioeconomic status (Hoff, 2003; Rowe et al., 2012). In this study, most of the children who attend a Turkish supplementary school, have one native-speaking parent in Turkish and their communication language at home is English as the majority language. Because of this, it can be predicted that they practice more English at home. Language production requires good long-term memory and lexical access (Ewa; Haman et al., 2017) which needs practice and exposure. Because they have one native Turkish-speaking parent, attendee children practice and are exposed to more English than Turkish at home, and it has an impact on their vocabulary size. In addition, it can be seen that after the post-test, children maintain and improve to their vocabulary size.

As for narrative storytelling performance, although the initial suggestion was that the children who attend a supplementary school would perform better than non-attendee peers, a few studies

have found superior bilingual performance on narrative tasks (Muñoz et al., 2003). However, no differences were found in performance comparable to the findings of Fiestas and Peña (2004). As suggested by Fiestas and Peña (2004) and Muñoz et al. (2003), the cause of this similar narrative production may relate to the cultures or family background the children are exposed to (De Houwer, 2007, 2011; Hoff, 2006; Hoff et al., 2014). For example, Latino culture may differ from American culture, so it may influence the kind of stories children learn to tell (Fiestas & Peña, 2004). In this study, some of the children had different cultures and backgrounds although one of their parents was Turkish. They grew up in a different culture not only from the majority culture but also from that of their other parent who is not from Turkey.

The disadvantage in Turkish narrative storytelling for the attendee children may be explained by the family language practices and input at home in Turkish (De Houwer, 2007, 2011; Hoff, 2003, 2006; Schwartz, 2008) as compared to English. Because of the children's language practices and exposure at home and daily, they tend to be exposed to more English as the parents stated that they thought maintaining Turkish is important, but children are keen to speak English and their language choice is English to communicate with them. In line with this, as for the productivity task (total number of words and the total number of different words) in storytelling, children performed better in English than in Turkish. However, the non-attendee children scored more highly than the attendee children on the story grammar both in Turkish and English. These results reflect those of Fiestas and Peña (2004) who also found that narrative storytelling of bilingual children in English and Spanish showed equal complexity in both languages in the wordless picture book task.

As a post-hoc comparison for the current study, the monolingual Turkish Frog Story data, taken from the Talkbank (CHILDES system) transcriptions of the Aksu-Koc and the Aarssen and Bos Frog story data from Turkish 5-year-olds (n=7), 6-year-olds (n=6) and 7-year-old (n=3) monolingual children were investigated (see Appendix 9). When the productivity elements

(TNW, NDW and TNM) of these monolingual children were counted by age, it is shown that older children perform better than younger children. Older children produced more words and morphemes overall. A spearman's correlation was run to determine the relationship between monolingual children's age and productivity scores. There was a strong positive correlation between productivity elements themselves but there was no correlation between age and productivity elements. A number of linear regressions were carried out to investigate if age significantly predicted monolingual children's narrative productivity. The result of linear regression analysis for narrative productivity shows that there was a significant effect of age. This shows that Turkish monolingual children perform higher than the bilingual children in all productivity levels (TNW, NDW, TNM), however, as children get older their morpheme scores increase in both groups (see Appendix 9).

Since the present study collected data in both languages spoken by the Turkish-English bilingual children, it was investigated by correlation to see whether the relationship between language tasks (vocabulary and narrative) could be described within languages (e.g., whether Turkish vocabulary score is related to Turkish narrative storytelling skills) or not; and across language/s (e.g., whether there is a relationship between Turkish vocabulary scores and English vocabulary scores). Which aspects of the child's one language or one task could predict their performance on another language or task was examined.

Kambanaros, Grohmann, Theodorou and Michaelides (2014) studied 11 children with typical language development (TLD) and 10 children diagnosed with specific language impairment (SLI), in order to investigate whether single-word productive vocabulary knowledge has an effect on narrative abilities in children with TDL and with SLI. It showed that there was no significant relation between storytelling measures and the productive vocabulary size for children with TSL and SLI. In this study, analyses of within construct relationships showed a significant positive correlation in all story grammar skills within languages, however, there was no association across

languages (number of C units and percentage of grammatically accepted C units). When vocabulary scores and narrative skills were examined within languages, vocabulary skills in Turkish significantly predicted Turkish narrative skills, as well as English vocabulary scores, and these were significantly correlated with English narrative skills.

Nevertheless, there was no relation across languages. On the other hand, analyses in English showed a significant positive correlation between narrative productivity skills (TNW and NDW) and verb and noun comprehension scores. Children with larger comprehension of verbs and nouns size performed also higher scores in narrative productivity skills. Furthermore, another significant positive relationship was found between the comprehension of the nouns in English and the total number of C Units. This means that if children scored higher in comprehension of the noun in English, they also overperformed the total number of C Units. This is in line with the findings of Marchman et al. (2004), where Spanish-English bilingual children living in the U.S. showed a significant positive correlation between vocabulary size and grammatical complexity within languages but there was no cross-linguistic relationship found. Similar results are reported by Simon-Cereijido & Gutiérrez-Clellen (2009). These findings may vary depending on the amount and quality of the exposure and input to the two languages. According to De Houwer (2007) and Hoff (2003), language practice and input have an important role in language acquisition. For example, some children have both native Turkish-speaking parents, which allows them to do more practice in Turkish and they overperform their peers who have one native Turkish-speaking parent.

Importantly, there was no relation found between at time 1 and at time 2 in vocabulary skills across languages. However, there was a significant association within languages. A child who performed higher in Turkish/English vocabulary skills at time 1, also scored high at time 2, and vice versa.

7.2.3. Family Language Practice, Use and Input in Bilingual Children's Language Growth

Finally, after comparing children who attend and do not attend Turkish supplementary schools on their Turkish and English language growth, I set out to investigate the relationships between parental language perspectives (family characteristics, language input and practice within home settings and home literacy environment) and the children's bilingual language learning. I wanted to examine which aspects of the home language literacy environment could predict the child's performance on language growth both in Turkish and English. For instance, if children practice and are exposed to more target language, they perform better; and if children prefer to speak, but not read or write in the target language, they have a high score in speaking skills. Additionally, their birth order, family settings (two native speaking parents or one native speaking parent etc.) have an effect on children's language growth (Hoff, 2006). We expected that families who prefer to send their child to a Turkish supplementary school would have Turkish as their home language. Additionally, it was predicted that children who have more exposure to either language would perform more highly in that particular language than children who lack language input (De Houwer, 2007, 2011; Hoff, 2006; Schwartz, 2008), on the basis of Hoff et al. (2012, p.14)'s statement that "...language development is a function of the relative amount of exposure.". However, family might be satisfied to their children's Turkish language ability and does not prefer to send them Supplementary school. It could explain why children do not attend supplementary school performed higher than children who do attend.

In line with De Houwer (2007)'s study, home language maintenance is not affected by family socioeconomic status (SES), but parental language exposure is. Minority language maintenance was the highest when parents spoke the minority language at home. However, although there is ample evidence that the minority language input at home has an effect on child language use, it does not necessarily show that children's active spoken language would be a minority language

(De Houwer, 2007). Although Jäkel et al. (2011) stated that there is a relationship between parents' educational background and language practice at home, no significant correlation was found between parents' level of education and children's language scores in this study. Nevertheless, a study of German-Turkish bilingual language development shows more highly-educated parents are keen to do more practice and support their children by providing a rich language environment (Willard et al., 2015).

When it comes to the effects of children's birth order on language performance, the oldest children performed better than younger children in the vocabulary task in Turkish, however, they had lower scores in English than younger children. Additionally, later-borns performed more highly in narrative language skills in English than their older siblings. In line with Hoff (2006)'s study to explore the influences of children's birth order on language development, although older children have an advantage in home language vocabulary growth, later-born children have an advantage in production and narrative skills in the majority language because of childhood experiences of one language. Schwartz (2008) also studied 70 Russian-Hebrew-speaking children to investigate the relationship between parental language practice and every day use and the children's size of home language vocabulary. She stated that older siblings in the family have an effect on the children's language preference of Hebrew rather than Russian as a home language in Israel. It seems like there is 'in between-sibling interaction' (Schwartz, 2008, p. 409). The present study also suggested that older siblings tend to be exposed to Turkish (heritage language) more than younger siblings in the case of having both native Turkish-speaking parents. However, younger siblings have the advantage of practising English with their older siblings, therefore, they scored higher in English after doing more practice.

With regard to parents' language preferences when interacting with their spouse and child at home, practising a language at home was found to be an important predictor to learn, speak and use the language. The more Turkish is preferred by parents when talking with their child and

spouse, the greater the child's performance in Turkish vocabulary tends to be. Nevertheless, these findings in this current study may vary based on which parent (mother or father) speaks the heritage language (Willard et al., 2015). It has been pointed out that children in bilingual families (mother speaks one language, father speaks another) tend to speak the mother's language rather than the father's, however, De Houwer (2007)'s study shows that there was no evidence of such a gender difference. This study confirms that if the mother is a native Turkish speaker, the child performed more highly than children who have a non-native Turkish-speaking mother. Furthermore, children whose both parents are native Turkish speakers scored better than children who have only one Turkish speaking parent. It is because the language a mother uses is predicted to be a common language at home (Hoff et al., 2014). The mothers usually spend time with the children at home and they communicate and practice their language preferences with the children.

Although research has found that the age of language exposure plays a role in children's vocabulary development, the amount of language exposure and amount of practice also plays a key role (Mattheoudakis et al., 2016). However, even if bilingual children have the same amount of exposure to both languages at home, they are likely to be exposed to more input in the majority language out of the home setting. This therefore is likely to affect children's practice of the home and the majority language in daily life. Although children learn words from the input according to Hoff et al. (2012), effect of the input are not the same for vocabulary and grammatical development. They also stated that the effects on vocabulary development appeared to be bigger than the effects of grammatical development. When attendee and non-attendee children were compared, the attendee children in the current study underperformed their non-attendee peers in Turkish when Turkish is the only or mostly spoken language at home. These findings are supported by Schwartz (2008)'s study which found that children who are exposed to Russian at home regularly by their parents, performed high on the vocabulary measures in Russian.

The last notable finding of the parental data concerns the identification of the parents' perceptions of their child's language skills in Turkish. Despite the parents' belief that maintaining Turkish is important for both language skills and cultural transmission, children who attend supplementary school scored lower in Turkish language skills than those who do not attend. A possible explanation for this is parents' language input, practice and preference while communicating with their children (De Houwer, 2007, 2011; Hoff et al., 2012; Schwartz, 2008). For example, although parents perceived that maintaining Turkish is important, parents who take their child to supplementary school, do less practice, and use Turkish less frequently. However, children who hear and speak Turkish at home, tend to perform higher in Turkish language tasks. Another possible explanation for this is language input quality, such as switching languages and using dialects (Willard et al., 2015). Even though parents supposed they wanted their children to learn Turkish, some of them find it easy to speak English with them. The present study also showed that children who are exposed mostly to English and sometimes Turkish by their parents scored lower in Turkish language skills. However, Schwartz (2008) reported that parental language perspectives did not contribute to children's Russian (L1) vocabulary whereas children's attitude toward heritage language learning did. She explained that children's reports can be unstable and changeable over time. Despite this, family language practice and perspectives are important, but the most important thing is how the children respond to their parents. Children who have a positive attitude toward learning Russian scored more highly on Russian vocabulary tasks and practice in daily life (Schwartz, 2008). In this study, even if the parents think that maintaining Turkish is important for children who grow up in a different country, they may not necessarily encourage and support their children to speak Turkish. This inconsistency may be due to parental beliefs and attitudes (De Houwer, 2011). Although parents in the current study believe that teaching and maintaining Turkish is important, their language practice and use were not found to be consistent with this perception. This finding shows that parents wanted their children to attend Turkish supplementary schools to teach and maintain their children's Turkish, but they did not

practice at home. This result supported findings of children's language skills data as to why children who attend Turkish supplementary school underperformed in Turkish than children who do not attend. The language practice and use in children's linguistic environment partly determine to what extent children would acquire the languages.

7.3. Strengths and Limitations

The major strength of this project, firstly, is the examination of bilingual children's Turkish and English language skills. Most research studies, particularly those focusing on the UK context, tend to investigate the English performance of bilingual children and most of the research on Turkish bilingualism has been associated with the European languages (e.g., German, Dutch and Swedish etc.) in Europe (Bohnacker et al., 2016; De Houwer, 2007, 2011; Lytra & Jørgensen, 2008; Mieszkowska et al., 2017; Vanbuel et al., 2018) because Turkish is typologically different from Indo-European languages and English (Çavuşoğlu, 2014).

Secondly, this study allowed for the cross-sectional comparative investigation of children's language growth. There have been few studies researching the language growth of Turkish bilingual children in the UK cross-sectionally, specifically through the use of both experimental tasks and qualitative investigations of family linguistic background and practices. Therefore, the findings presented within this thesis contribute to this gap in the literature. Furthermore, the study employed triangulation of data, allowing for the use of a number of language measures, family background and teaching environment questionnaires and interviews. This has not been considered or examined extensively in Turkish-English bilingual research, namely tasks assessing aspects of vocabulary knowledge, narrative skills, and language input environments. More specifically, the present study is novel in that it focuses on comprehension and production of the verb and noun tasks in both language, narrative storytelling, and language practice at home and Turkish supplementary schools. The inclusion of children attendance to Turkish

supplementary schools as a variable was particularly useful for observing how the supplementary schools might impact a child's language growth. The overall results show how children who do not attend a supplementary school differ from the attendee in their language development depending on other language input and practices, such as family literacy environment background at home. The research, therefore, has added to the growing body of Turkish-English bilingual language development in the UK.

Including the family language background questionnaire in this research was also important for a number of reasons. To begin with, it allowed for an investigation of the possible language input relationships in the children's language abilities. This is an area of research that may inform the qualitative aspects of language acquisition of strategies for narrowing the gap in terms of to what extent family language practice and input at home and supplementary school input affect the children's vocabulary knowledge and narrative skills. Finally, to investigate the relationship between children's language knowledge and linguistic environment, I was able to explore the Turkish supplementary school characteristics and teachers' teaching techniques for bilingual children.

Much research has shown the effect of the home language environment on language skills and children's linguistic development (De Houwer, 2011; Hoff, 2006). The information on the home language environment was collected to find out how home language use might influence the children's language outcomes. The findings of the present study also supported the previous studies as children who expose to and practice the language more at home, performed higher in language skills.

There are of course a number of limitations in the current study, even though valid and reliable research procedures were used to gather data from a large sample for comparison. Firstly, while the size of the main sample was large enough for the analyses that were employed when divided

into two groups, the size of each group was relatively small, and this limits the generalisability of the results. There were also some issues with the recruitment of the participants. Because a large sample of 5-7-year-olds Turkish-English bilingual children who were born or grew up in the UK was needed with at least the last four years of experience in English, and extended age range of the children to 4-8-year-old was needed.

The children who took part in this research tended to differ with regards to the age of arrival in England, with some born in the UK, as well as the number of years in the English education system or Turkish education system in Turkey or the extent of exposure to both Turkish and English. This variability is often the case in the bilingual population, nevertheless, these factors likely affected some of the findings. Whereas an assessment of the children's abilities was undertaken, their performance was also affected by exposure to both languages as well as the home language environment. This effect of exposure on language ability has been examined in earlier studies. For instance, Haman et al. (2017) and Hoff (2006) stated that home language exposure is a significant factor in language production and Haman et al. (2017) also reported that language exposure may have a negative influence on second language exposure in the first language production of grammatical structure, such as that children may be keen to use first language's grammatical structure rules in the second language (e.g., whereas Turkish sentence structure is Subject + Object + Verb, in English Subject + Verb + Object). Moreover, the frequency of language exposure in either language has the potential to affect the vocabulary growth of children through the context of learning one language at home and another at school (Hoff et al., 2014). For example, if the children are exposed to Turkish more frequently, they tend to perform better in Turkish.

As for the methodological issues, although both groups of children were assessed twice in vocabulary tasks in Turkish and English, they were only assessed once in each language in the narrative storytelling task once at time 1 in one language and second at time 2 the other language

because children have a good memory to remember the same story to tell in Turkish and English in the same day, and the time and the parents' availability were limited to gather data at four different times. Moreover, there is an absence of counterbalancing in narrative data because some children did not have knowledge to tell the story in Turkish or English.

It is important to highlight the group differences found between children who attend Turkish supplementary schools and those who do not represent within the groups.

7.4. Contribution to the Knowledge

The current study makes a significant contribution to the previously existing body of knowledge regarding language growth in Turkish-English bilingual children in England. While it has built on the reports in the literature of previous studies on bilingual children's language knowledge such as lexical vocabulary, narrative ability and language environment factors in the children's language development, this study distinguishes itself from earlier studies by its focus on combining those factors for a comparison between the children who attend Turkish supplementary school and who do not.

Most studies so far on language development among bilingual children have been conducted in European countries, such as Turkish-German (e.g., Bohnacker et al., 2016; Willard et al., 2015), Dutch (e.g., Bosman & Janssen, 2017; Leseman, 2000), Swedish (e.g., Bohnacker et al., 2016); and English-Spanish (e.g., Fiestas & Peña, 2004; Hoff et al., 2014; Muñoz et al., 2003), English-Polish (e.g., Haman et al., 2017; Marecka et al., 2015), while very few studies were conducted in other contexts (e.g., Schwartz, 2008; Song et al., 2015) and in England (e.g., Babayiğit & Stainthorp, 2007, 2010). None of the studies in the United Kingdom have combined children's language growth, family language practice, use and input and supplementary school attendee status, and link these to practices in the schools. Thus, by providing evidence of a strong relationship between children's language growth and language input, the present study makes an

original contribution to the body of knowledge in language development, as well as filling the gap in the literature regarding both Turkish-English language development in children who grow up in England.

A few studies have addressed the issues of bilingual language development and family factors, such as family's language background, language practice and use at home and in daily life. Those who have done so (e.g., Hoff et al., 2014; Schwartz, 2008) have investigated either comprehension and production of nouns or verbs, not both together. Again, this present study is original because it has tackled both lexical knowledge using tests in different modalities (CLT; Haman et al., 2017; and narrative story; Mayer, 1969; BLBEQ). There have been also few studies on supplementary schools' effectiveness on language learning (e.g., Çavuşoğlu, 2014; Creese et al., 2007; Lytra, 2012; Reed et al., 2017; Wei, 2014). For example, Çavuşoğlu (2014) reported that children attend supplementary school, learn Turkish to take GCSE or A-level and they highly achieve the language score. However, according to Chinen & Tucker, (2005) children self-assessed their Japanese proficiency in January 2003 and July 2003, there were no significant differences during the six months. In this study, it was expected that children who attend a Turkish supplementary school perform better than children who do not attend in Turkish, however, unexpectedly, attendee children's language score was lower than that of their non-attendee peers.

Therefore, the present study is valuable in bridging a gap in knowledge, being the first study combining language growth in Turkish-English bilingual children, their family language linguistic environment and supplementary school among the children who grow up in England. In addition, this study linked the children's language skills findings to language home practices and school practices. Previous studies have also used either qualitative research methods (e.g., Szczepek Reed et al., 2020) or quantitative research methods (e.g., Haman et al., 2017; Hoff et al., 2014), while few have adopted both (e.g., Chinen & Tucker, 2005; Angela Creese et al.,

2006). Thus, this study makes an original contribution to the body of knowledge by using mixed methods (triangulation), as well as by being the first study investigating the language growth in Turkish-English bilingual children in terms of family language linguistic environment, SES, age, and supplementary school attendee status in England to do so and linking to school practices.

7.5. Implications of Key Findings

The present study offers a unique snapshot of the progress of language growth in bilingual children made by the families and Turkish supplementary schools in England. The findings have great potential to inform a broad range of implications and recommendations for educational practice, teachers, schools, and families, who could influence the improvement of bilingual children's language exposure and further research.

7.5.1. Implications for Practice

Several educational practice and policy applications are arising from the findings in this study. Firstly, these findings add to a growing area of research on the lexical performance and outcomes of the children learning Turkish as their heritage language and Turkish supplementary schools in England. In terms of practical implications, the findings show that the children who attend Turkish supplementary school underperform in vocabulary and narrative storytelling skills in Turkish. Although their skills improve over six months, this group of children must continue to be supported in their language growth. Particularly, the social interaction of children is a crucial factor in children's language growth (De Houwer, 2011; Mieszkowska et al., 2017). Children's language development should be supported in daily life by speaking and practising the target language. Parents who send their children to supplementary schools should follow up on their learning activities at home and get involved in the schools' activities (Çavuşoğlu, 2014). Studies such as Willard et al. (2015) have stated that there is a positive impact of language exposure in schools and family language linguistic environment on both vocabulary knowledge and the

narrative ability of bilingual children in Germany. Children should be provided with a rich language environment which is not only rich in quantity but also the quality of input. They should be given as many opportunities as possible to speak with different people, read books, play games, and watch TV/films/documentaries in the target language (Montrul et al., 2019). Based on the findings of the present study and those of previous studies, the linguistic ability of bilingual children should not be examined in isolation in the future, but clear links with language input/home practices need to be considered.

However, given that the attendee group consisted of children various levels of language abilities, teachers and educational professionals should be cautious about classifying children based solely on their bilingual status (their level of proficiency in Turkish at the beginning of the supplementary school). That is, not all children who attend Turkish supplementary school have language skills at the same level in either language or not all children who do not attend perform better. This leads to the implication for the current Turkish supplementary school running policy in the UK. As discussed in section 2.2. Supplementary/heritage schools, the Turkish supplementary schools are run by cooperation between the Ministry of National Education in Turkey and the Education consultancy in London. Researchers have identified that in order for language growth to take place, not only the school input but the family home linguistic environment is also important to improve the language (Hoff et al., 2014; Willard et al., 2015). Furthermore, Schwartz's (2008) report also shows proficiency in Russian as the best predictor of parental language practice, use and input. This indicates that a rich language environment at home contributes to a child's language skills. The schools should encourage the family to get involved in practices at home by repeating the schools' practices. In light of previous studies (e.g., De Houwer, 2011; Hoff, 2003; Hoff et al., 2014; Kramsch, 2017; Schwartz, 2008) taken together with the research evidence from this study, children who have a range of language inputs such as supplementary schools and their families perform better in language growth.

7.5.2. Implications for Schools

Although schools may blame the policymakers (the Ministry of National Education in Turkey or Education consultancy in London), it is the schools themselves that could take more initiative towards implementing the supplementary schools' mission. Their first step should therefore be to classify children's language levels to set the learning groups. Because of home language input, use and practice, children have different levels of proficiency in both languages. Some schools in the current study did not assess the children's language proficiency before the classification of the children for the classroom settings and although the teachers were aware of the differences between the children to some extent, they were not able to group the children according to their level of proficiency. As a result, the differences in language growth of some children were unnoticed and their need for improvement was not met.

7.5.3. Implications for Teachers

Teachers who are not language teachers would also benefit from training in teaching language skills and if they do not have communication skills in English, they should be able to provide language lessons by adapting their methods and trying to respond to the individual needs of children who do not know any Turkish. This is necessary because some children are from families who only speak English at home, even though one of the parents is Turkish. This could also include training on living abroad and teaching cultural differences, as well as ways of educational differences between the countries (Minty et al., 2008). All these approaches could prove useful for teachers struggling to cope with teaching language abroad.

7.5.4. Implications for the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) in Turkey

The MoNE in Turkey does not offer any educational or training programmes for teachers, but it organises seminars on issues related to language teaching abroad. The present research findings

have given rise to several key recommendations that can inform education policy in Turkey. These findings suggest that appropriate guidelines for identifying bilingual children who grow up in a country where Turkish is a minority language, and the provision of suitable teaching programmes could include the following key aspects.

The Ministry of Education could provide a curriculum that is appropriate for bilingual children who grow up in a country where the majority language is different from Turkish and appropriate for the children's age. At the same time, it should allow for flexibility in teaching practices according to the particular needs of specific groups of children. Another suggestion is to supply appropriate materials to all the supplementary schools. There could be a regulatory board to create a curriculum and another professional board to develop the materials, who could be experienced teachers.

7.5.5. Recommendations for Further Research

Owing to the constraints on the recruitment of the participants, this study was conducted in just a few supplementary schools in England. In order to gain more insight into the language growth of bilingual children in England, it is recommended that this study is replicated throughout the country and with other bilingual groups, in order to give a more detailed picture of the nature of language learning in this context. Moreover, a larger sample would allow for control of knowledge at the beginning of the study, so that all children are of a similar level which can enable language growth to be better examined. Additionally, following up on some of these children at later ages would allow us to investigate whether they show the predicted narrowing in the gap of their performance as compared to native speakers of English and whether they keep improving their ability of Turkish. Then, the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and narrative storytelling could be re-tested by using a story that includes the words in the vocabulary test to find out whether these children use the vocabularies while telling the story or whether this

relationship transfers to a stronger connection between vocabulary knowledge and narrative storytelling ability.

A large-scale longitudinal study could be conducted to investigate the teaching environment and techniques of teachers working at supplementary schools. For instance, some children who have Turkish as a minority language might speak another minority language or dialect. The present study investigated the cross-language relationship in one language pair, however, an interesting extension would be to compare the cross-language transfer in narrative storytelling.

Under the lights of the findings of this study, replication would be beneficial as would a series of studies of a similar nature, considering personal contact with the study population as a means of a generalisation of the result and with other languages/cultural groups. Finally, in any further studies, another way of collecting home language environment data should be considered to obtain richer information about the languages the children are exposed to in their home environment including the amount of both languages, quality, and sources of input. This type of data would particularly be related to explaining lexical language outcomes and should be collected from each child. Lastly, home recording or observation should be considered in addition to the parental questionnaire.

7.6. Final Conclusion

This project has contributed to the existing body of literature on the language growth of Turkish-English bilingual children in the UK. This study was unique in comparison to many previous investigations in the UK as it assessed the ability of bilingual children to learn Turkish in both their languages providing a fuller picture of their language growth in 4-8-year-old. In addition to contributing to the scholarly understanding of the capabilities of language growth in bilingual children, this study also shows to what extent the family language literacy environment, language input and exposure impact language growth, and informs families with regards to what they

should pay particular attention to in the practice and instruction of children learning Turkish (e.g., time of a reading story, watching TV etc.), as well as inform the practitioners with regard to what they focus on in the supplementary schools (e.g. plan a lesson, cooperation with family etc.). The research showed that the 4-8-year-old children who grow up in the UK and learn Turkish as their heritage language through the family environment, as well as in Turkish supplementary schools, have a lower level of vocabulary and narrative storytelling knowledge in Turkish in comparison to children who do not attend a Turkish supplementary school. Despite attendee children demonstrating a high level of lexical language improvement over time in Turkish, this was not enough to eradicate the language group differences. Importantly, children who attend and who do not attend Turkish supplementary school were both represented across the distribution of language abilities in English, albeit with more non-attendee children than attendee children as higher performance. This may mean that the language outcomes are not a clear case of ‘more Turkish input in the supplementary school is better language skills in Turkish’. It can be said that the most important aspect of these schools is to transmit cultural knowledge and maintenance of cultural identity. In addition, the findings from cross-language comparisons reinforce the idea that children’s family language environment may have an important effect on their performance in their language growth and subsequently that these skills also need to be nurtured and improved through the family language practice, use and input. Nonetheless, it is hoped that the results of this research, notwithstanding its limitations, present practical and theoretical contributions to our knowledge of bilingual language development in heritage contexts.

Appendices

Appendix 1 Parental, School and teacher Consent Forms and Information sheets

Consent form parents of children



Information Page

Dear Parent/Carer,

Ayşe Ciftci is currently carrying out a research project on schools that teach Turkish in the UK. I seek to understand how bilingual Turkish-English pre-school children develop their heritage language. I am writing to ask for your consent to allow your child(ren) to take part in the project.

This study is important because the findings of the project can assist parents, teachers and schools to better support Turkish heritage language development in the UK. Additionally, it will contribute to current literature on Turkish-English bilingual heritage language development because there is a gap of studies looking at Turkish heritage language development of pre-school children and the role supplementary play in that development.

What would this mean for my child and my family?

Once you have agreed to be a part of my project, I will come to collect data and if you wish you can ask any questions you may have concerning the project. I will then commence with the data collection, which includes:

For your child:

1. Two activities that your child(ren) will do in Turkish and English. These are words and picture activities and wordless picture story. These will take place 2 times over the data collection period at beginning and end of the term times (September or October and April or May).

For your family:

2. A questionnaire that you or your partner will fill out, these will be questions about your family's demographic, the language you speak and the activities you do together.

These are the 2 stages of data collection, at the end of the project you will all get to see the outcome of the study.

Anonymity

The data that you and your child(ren) provide (e.g., audio or video recordings / questionnaires) will be stored by code number. Any information that identifies your child(ren) will be stored separately from the data.

Storing and using your data

Data will be stored in secure filing cabinets and on a password protected computer. The data will be kept for 4 years in its an unidentifiable format after which time it will be destroyed. The data may be used for future analysis and shared for research or training purposes, but child(ren) will never be identified. If you do not want you and your child's data to be included in any information shared as a result of this research, please do not sign this consent form.

You are free to withdraw you or your child from the study at any time during data collection and up to 1 month after the data collection. If you decide to withdraw, please email me (ayse.ciftci@york.ac.uk) within the first month of the data collection.

Information about confidentiality

The data that I collect (audio or video recordings / questionnaires) may be used in *anonymous* format in different ways. Please indicate on the consent form attached with a ☒ if you are happy for this anonymised data to be used in the ways listed.

Please note: If I gather information that raises concerns about you or your child safety or the safety of others, or about other concerns as perceived by the researcher, I may pass on this information to another person.

If you have any questions about the project/study that you would like to ask before giving consent or after the data collection, please feel free to contact Ayse Ciftci by email ayse.ciftci@york.ac.uk or the Chair of Ethics Committee via email educationresearch-administrator@york.ac.uk.

If you are happy for you and your child(ren) to participate, please complete the form attached and send it to Ayse Ciftci via the above email address.

Please keep this information sheet for your own records.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information.

Yours sincerely,

Ayse Ciftci

PhD Student

Department of Education

University of York

Consent Form

Please initial each box if you are happy to take part in this research.

I confirm that I have read and understood the information given to me about the above named research project and I understand that this will involve me taking part as described above.

☐

I understand that the purpose of the research is to investigate how bilingual Turkish-English pre-school children develop their heritage language.

☐

I understand that data will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet or on a password protected computer and only Ayse Ciftci will have access to any identifiable data. I understand that my child's identity will be protected by use of a code/pseudonym.

☐

I understand that mine and my child's data and my data will not be identifiable and the data may be used

☐

in publications that are mainly read by university academics

☐

in presentations that are mainly read by university academics

☐

in publications that are mainly read by the public [or other relevant group]

☐

in presentations that are mainly read by the public [or other relevant group]

☐

freely available online

☐

I understand that data will be kept for 4 years after which it will be destroyed.

☐

I understand that data could be used for future analysis or other purposes.

☐

I understand that I can withdraw my data or my child's data at any point during data collection and up to 1 month after the data collection by emailing the researcher.

☐

I understand that I will be given the opportunity to comment on a written record of my interview responses.

Name (parent/career): _____ Signature: _____

Name of child and the date of birth: _____

Date: _____

Email or phone number: _____

I understand that by signing the above I have given permission for my child(ren) and my family to take part in this study and that I have explained to them what the project is about.

☐

Consent form for headteacher of the school

Department of Education

University of York

Heslington, York

North Yorkshire

YO10 5DD

Dear principal,



My name is Ayse Ciftci and I intend to carry out a research project on schools that teach Turkish in the UK. I seek to understand how bilingual Turkish-English pre-school children develop their Turkish heritage language. I am very happy to speak more about this and answer any questions you or your committee, governing body, or sponsors may have with regards to this project.

This study is important because the findings of the project can assist parents, teachers and schools to better support Turkish heritage language development in the UK. Additionally, it will contribute to current literature on Turkish-English bilingual heritage language development because there is a gap of studies looking at Turkish heritage language development of pre-school children and the role supplementary play in that development.

What would this mean for your school?

Once you have agreed to be a part of my project, I will come to visit the school on an agreed date and commence with the data collection. On this occasion I intend to collect data during the school term in that one day in each month we agree on and this will include:

1. Two activities that your child(ren) will do in Turkish and English. These are words and picture activities and wordless picture story. These will take place 2 times over the data collection period at beginning and end of the term times (September or October and April or May).
2. An individual interview with teachers about the child's language using and their teaching approach.

These are the 2 stages of data collection, at the end of the project you will all get to see the outcome of the study. I can of course alter any of the above to suit you and your school. I will never disrupt the running of your school or ask you to do anything that would impede the learning of the students. I will be around to collect data and understand how teaching takes place in the classroom. It is not judge or test for the teachers, it is just for getting idea about teaching style and how children respond to teacher and learning. I will never record outside the classrooms or people who have not given consent. I am happy to work with you in order to reach agreements that will suit you and help me answer our research questions.

Anonymity

The data that your teachers and students provide (e.g audio recordings to interviews and child's language activities) will be stored by code number. Any information that identifies your teachers and students will be stored separately from the data.

Storing and using your data

Data will be stored in secure filing cabinets and on a password protected computer. The data will be kept for 4 years in anonymity format after which time it will be destroyed. The data may be used for future analysis and shared for research or training purposes, but you will not be identified individually.

If you do not want any of your school (e.g., audio recordings to interviews and child's language activities) data to be included in any information shared as a result of this research, please do not sign this consent form. And if you do not want the data collected from your school to be used, please also do not sign this consent form.

Information about confidentiality

The data that I collect from your school (e.g., audio recordings to interviews and child's language activities) may be used in *anonymous* format in different ways. Please indicate on the consent form attached with a ☒ if you are happy for this anonymised data to be used in the ways listed.

Please note: If I gather information that raises concerns about your school's safety or the safety of others, I may pass on this information to another person.

Please also note that I will be offering each of your teachers and parents separate consent forms. I aim to ensure that everyone taking part in this study is fully aware of all the details what it means for them if they decide to take part.

I hope that you and your school will agree to take part, if you have any questions about the project/study that you would like to ask before giving consent or after the data collection, please feel free to contact Ayse Ciftci by email ayse.ciftci@york.ac.uk or the Chair of Ethics Committee via email education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk

If you are happy for you and your school to participate, please complete the form attached and send it to Ayse Ciftci via the above email address.

Please keep this information sheet for your own records.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information.

Yours sincerely,

Ayse Ciftci

Ph.D. Student

Department of Education

University of York

Consent Form

Please initial each box if you are happy to take part in this research.

I confirm that I have read and understood the information given to me about the above named research project and I understand that this will involve my school (pupils and one teacher for one class) taking part as described above.

☐

I confirm that I have read and understood the information given to me about the research project and I understand that this will involve my school taking part in the project.

☐

I understand that the purpose of the research is to understand how bilingual Turkish-English pre-school children develop their heritage language (schools that teach Turkish on the weekend).

☐

I understand that data from my school will not be identifiable and the data may be used

☐

in publications that are mainly read by university academics

☐

in presentations that are mainly read by university academics

☐

in publications that are mainly read by the public [or other relevant group]

☐

in presentations that are mainly read by the public [or other relevant group]

☐

freely available online

☐

I understand that data will be kept for 4 years after which it will be destroyed.

☐

I understand that data could be used for future analysis or other purposes.

☐

Name (principal): _____ Signature: _____

Name of the school: _____ Date: _____

Consent form for teachers



Information Page

Dear Madam/Sir,

Ayşe Ciftçi is currently carrying out a research project on schools that teach Turkish Language and Turkish Culture in the UK. I seek to understand how bilingual Turkish-English pre-school children develop their heritage language. I am writing to ask for your consent to take part in the project.

This study is important because the findings of the project can assist parents, teachers and schools to better support Turkish heritage language development in the UK. Additionally, it will contribute to current literature on Turkish-English bilingual heritage language development because there is a gap of studies looking at Turkish heritage language development of pre-school children and the role supplementary play in that development.

What would this mean for me?

Once you give me a consent I will commence with the data collection, which includes:

1. A questionnaire with you to understand how Turkish is taught in the school.

These are the 1 stage of data collection, at the end of the project you will all get to see the outcome of the study.

Anonymity

The data that you provide (e.g., online questionnaire) will be stored by code number. Any information that identifies you will be stored separately from the data.

Storing and using your data

Data will be stored in secure filing cabinets and on a password protected computer. The data will be kept for 4 years in unidentifiable format after which time it will be destroyed. The data may be used for future analysis and shared for research or training purposes, but you will not be

identified individually. If you do not want your data to be included in any information shared as a result of this research, please do not sign this consent form.

You are free to withdraw from the study at any time during data collection and up to 1 month after the data collection. You can withdraw from the study by emailing me (ayse.ciftci@york.ac.uk) by the end of the first observation.

Information about confidentiality

The data that I collect (e.g., online questionnaire) may be used in *anonymous* format in different ways. Please indicate on the consent form attached with a ☒ if you are happy for this anonymised data to be used in the ways listed.

Please note: If I gather information that raises concerns about you safety or the safety of others, or about other concerns as perceived by the researcher, the researcher may pass on this information to another person.

I hope that you will agree for you to also take part. If you have any questions about the project/study that you would like to ask before giving consent or after the data collection, please feel free to contact Ayse Ciftci by email ayse.ciftci@york.ac.uk or the Chair of Ethics Committee via email educationresearch-administrator@york.ac.uk

If you are happy for you to participate, please complete the form attached and send it to Ayse Ciftci via the above email address.

Please keep this information sheet for your own records.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information.

Yours sincerely,

Ayse Ciftci

PhD Student

Department of Education

University of York

Consent Form

Please initial each box if you are happy to take part in this research.

I confirm that I have read and understood the information given to me about the above named research project and I understand that this will involve me taking part as described above.

☐

I understand that the purpose of the research is to investigate how bilingual Turkish-English pre-school children develop their heritage language.

☐

I understand that data will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet or on a password protected computer and only Ayse Ciftci will have access to any identifiable data. I understand that my identity will be protected by use of a code/pseudonym.

☐

I understand that my data will not be identifiable and the data may be used

☐

in publications that are mainly read by university academics

☐

in presentations that are mainly read by university academics

☐

in publications that are mainly read by the public [or other relevant group]

☐

in presentations that are mainly read by the public [or other relevant group]

☐

freely available online

☐

I understand that data will be kept for 4 years after which it will be destroyed.

☐

I understand that data could be used for future analysis or other purposes.

☐

I understand that I can withdraw my data at any point during data collection and up to 1 month after the data collection by emailing the researcher.

☐

I understand that I will be given the opportunity to comment on a written record of my interview responses.

☐

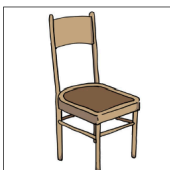
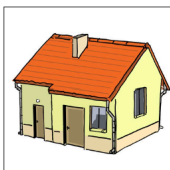
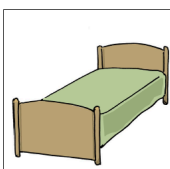
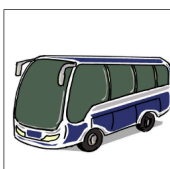
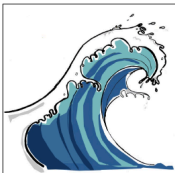
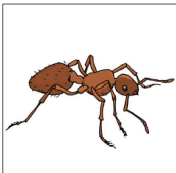
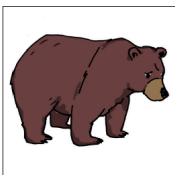
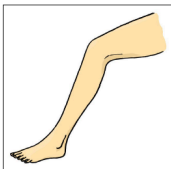
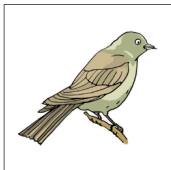
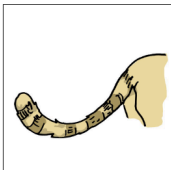
Name (teacher): _____ Signature: _____

E-posta: _____ Name of the school: _____ Date: _____

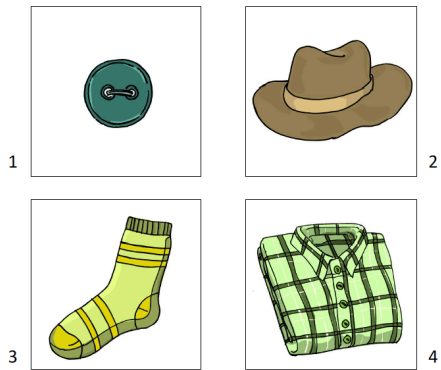
Appendix 2 English and Turkish version of CLT and its score sheet

British English Version

Word comprehension: NOUNS

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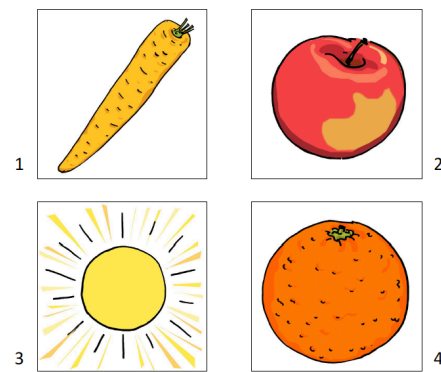
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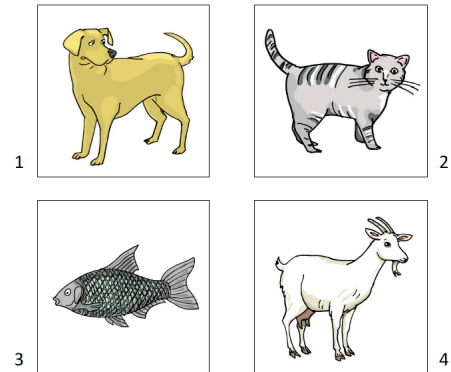
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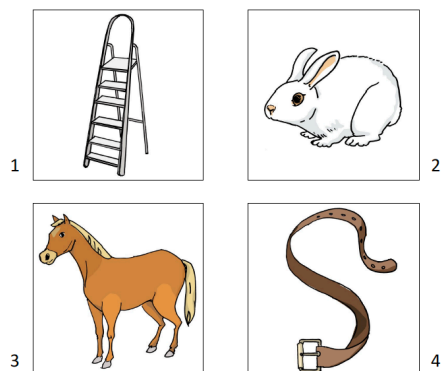
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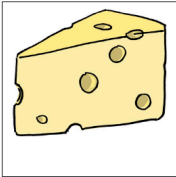
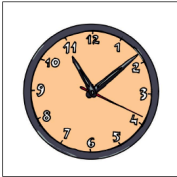
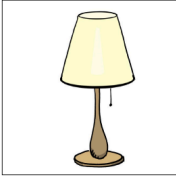
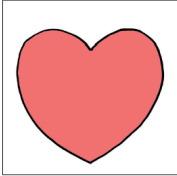
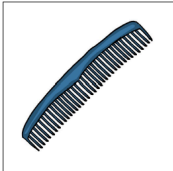
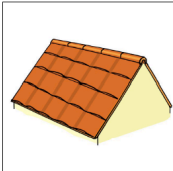
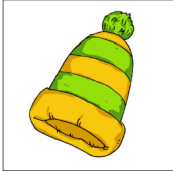
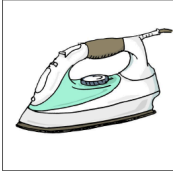
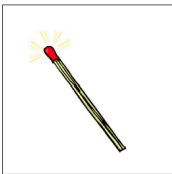
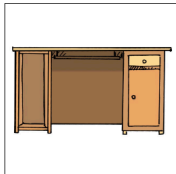
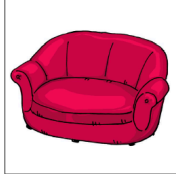
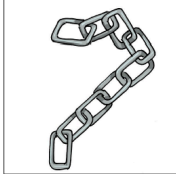
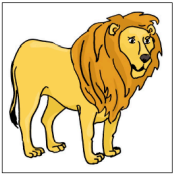
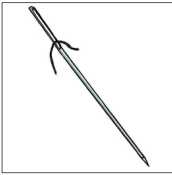
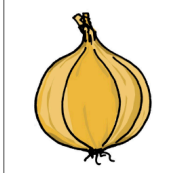
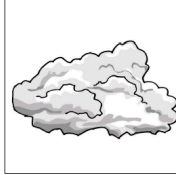


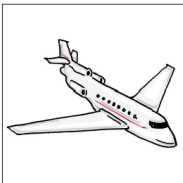
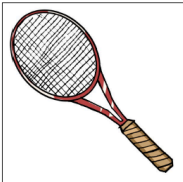
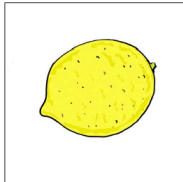
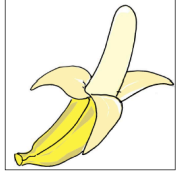
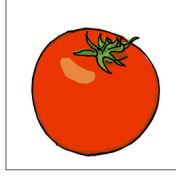
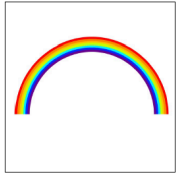
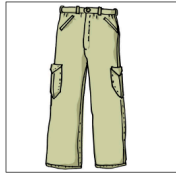
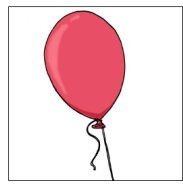
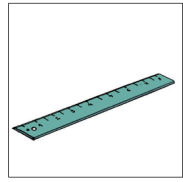
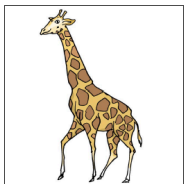
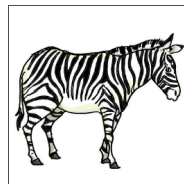
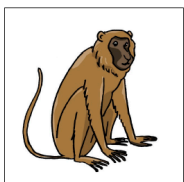
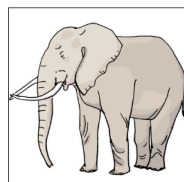
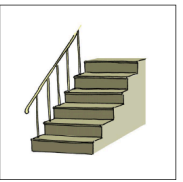
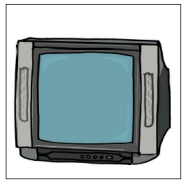
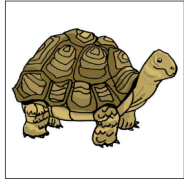
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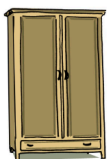


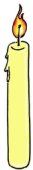
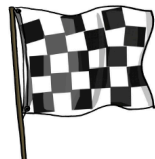
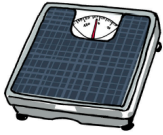
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Slide 17	Slide 18

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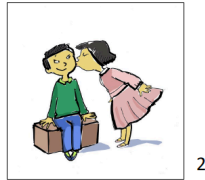
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Answer sheet for Nouns Comprehension

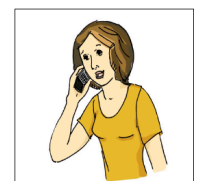
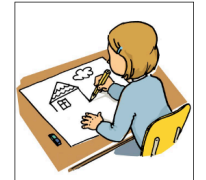
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DATE OF BIRTH				DATE OF TESTING			
STARTING TIME:				END TIME:			
				TASK DURATION:			
No	Target word	question	Correct answer	CHILD'S answer (no of picture)	remarks		
01	gate	Where is a gate?	3				
02	house	Where is a house?	2				
03	ant	Where is an ant?	2				
04	tail	Where is a tail?	4				
05	shirt	Where is a shirt?	4				
06	pen	Where is a pen?	4				
07	apple	Where is an apple?	2				
08	cat	Where is a cat?	2				
09	ladder	Where is a ladder?	1				
10	drum	Where is a drum?	1				
11	lamp	Where is a lamp?	3				
12	cap	Where is a cap?	3				
13	match	Where is a match?	2				
14	desk	Where is a desk?	1				
15	broom	Where is a broom?	1				
16	onion	Where is an onion?	2				
17	airplane	Where is an airplane?	1				
18	banana	Where is a banana?	1				
19	balloon	Where is a balloon?	1				
20	monkey	Where is a monkey?	3				
21	television	Where is a television?	3				
22	snake	Where is a snake?	3				
23	sandwich	Where is a sandwich?	2				
24	vest	Where is a vest?	4				
25	kangaroo	Where is a kangaroo?	3				
26	computer	Where is a computer?	2				
27	sweater	Where is a sweater?	4				
28	umbrella	Where is an umbrella?	4				
29	lipstick	Where is a lipstick?	1				
30	strawberry	Where is a strawberry?	3				
31	lighter	Where is a lighter?	4				
32	scale	Where is a scale?	4				

Word comprehension: VERBS

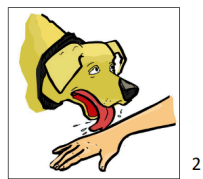
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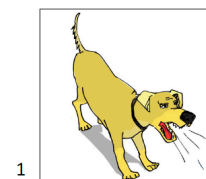
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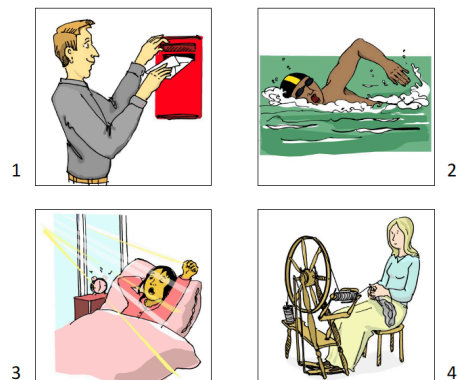
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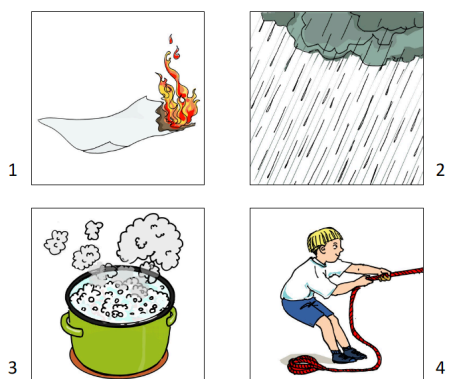
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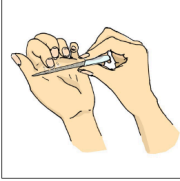
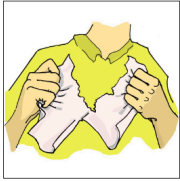
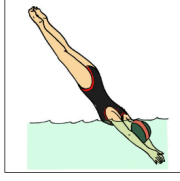
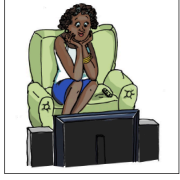
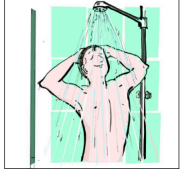


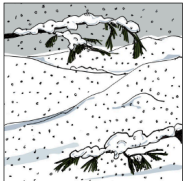
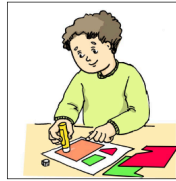
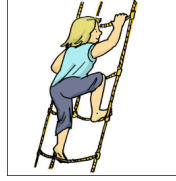
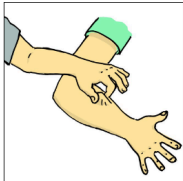
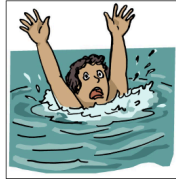
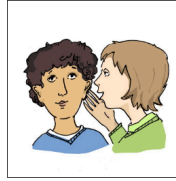
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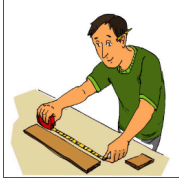
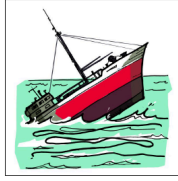
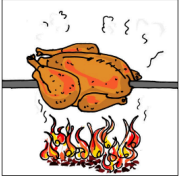
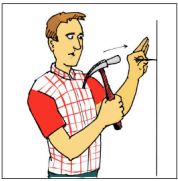
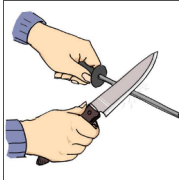
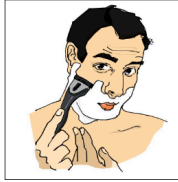


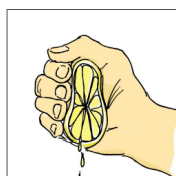
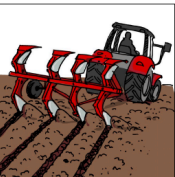
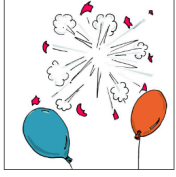
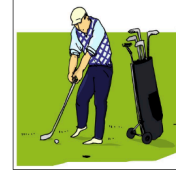
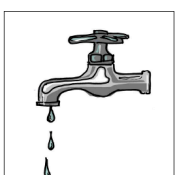
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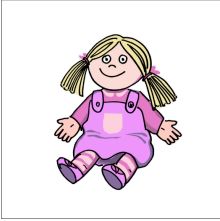
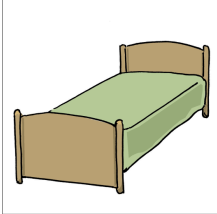
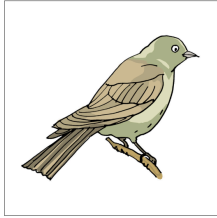
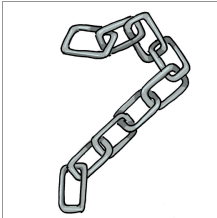
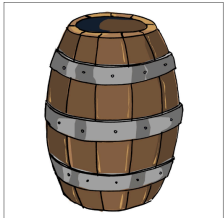
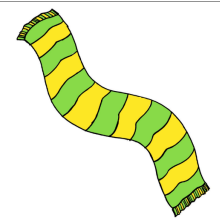
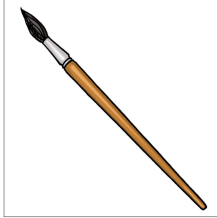
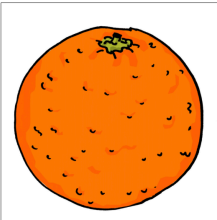
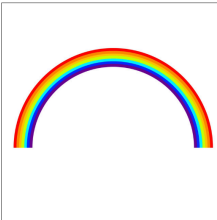
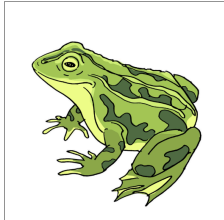
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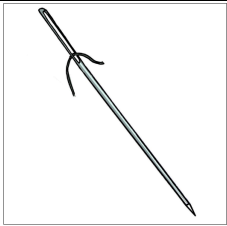
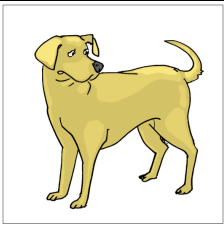
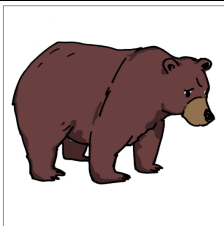
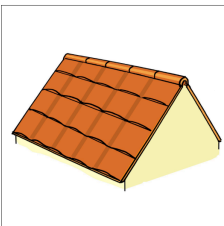
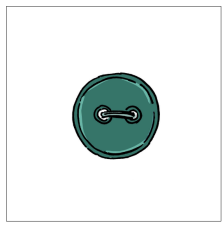
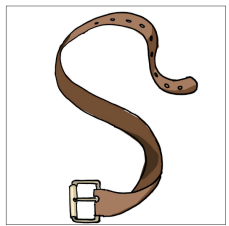
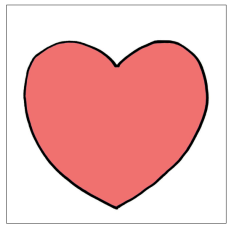
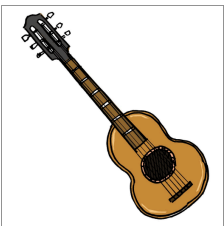
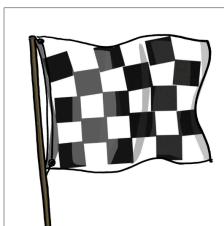
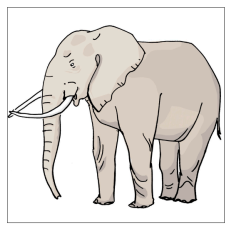
Answer sheet for Verbs Comprehension

CLT British English: Answer Sheet for VERBS COMPREHENSION

ORDER OF TESTING THIS TASK GOES AS:		1	2	3	4	CHILD CODE	
DATE OF BIRTH				DATE OF TESTING			
STARTING TIME:				END TIME:			
				TASK DURATION:			
No	Target word	question	Correct answer	CHILD'S answer (no of picture)	remarks		
01	kiss	Who is kissing?	2				
02	talk [on the phone]	Who is talking?	4				
03	bath	Who is bathing?	4				
04	push	Who is pushing?	3				
05	hitchhike	Who is hitchhiking?	3				
06	spin	Who is spinning?	4				
07	kick	Who is kicking?	1				
08	run	Who is running?	1				
09	burn	Where is something burning?	1				
10	knit	Who is knitting?	3				
11	mop	Who is mopping?	3				
12	shear	Who is shearing?	1				
13	tear	Who is tearing?	1				
14	beg	Who is begging?	2				
15	dive	Who is diving?	3				
16	watch [TV]	Who is watching?	2				
17	dance	Who is dancing?	3				
18	sleep	Who is sleeping?	1				
19	clean	Who is cleaning?	2				
20	climb	Who is climbing?	3				
21	stroke	Who is stroking?	2				
22	drown	Who is drowning?	1				
23	listen	Who is listening?	4				
24	crawl	Who is crawling?	2				
25	melt	Where is something melting?	4				
26	drag	Who is dragging?	3				
27	sharpen	Who is sharpening?	2				
28	stir	Who is stirring?	2				
29	sting	What is stinging?	4				
30	squeeze	Who is squeezing?	4				
31	whistle	Who is whistling?	4				
32	burst	Where is something bursting?	1				

Word production: NOUNS

Slide 1 	Slide 2 	Slide 3 	Slide 4 
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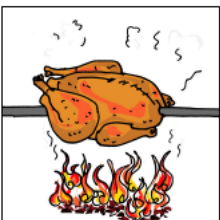
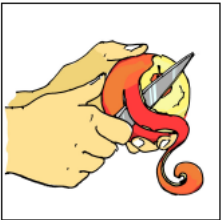
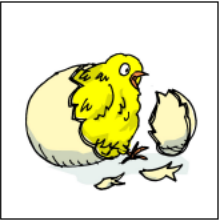
			
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Slide 25	Slide 26	Slide 27	Slide 28
			
Slide 29	Slide 30	Slide 31	Slide 32
			

Answer sheet for production nouns

CLT British English: Answer Sheet for NAMING NOUNS

ORDER OF TESTING THIS TASK GOES AS:		1	2	3	4	CHILD CODE	
DATE OF BIRTH				DATE OF TESTING			
STARTING TIME:				END TIME:			
				TASK DURATION:			
No	Target word	question	answer			remarks	
01	doll	What is this?					
02	bed	What is this?					
03	bird	What is this?					
04	snowman	What is this?					
05	pencil	What is this?					
06	chain	What is this?					
07	watermelon	What is this?					
08	barrel	What is this?					
09	scarf	What is this?					
10	feather	What is this?					
11	paintbrush	What is this?					
12	helicopter	What is this?					
13	penguin	What is this?					
14	orange	What is this?					
15	rainbow	What is this?					
16	frog	What is this?					
17	needle	What is this?					
18	dog	What is this?					
19	bear	What is this?					
20	swing	What is this?					
21	basket	What is this?					
22	roof	What is this?					
23	button	What is this?					
24	belt	What is this?					
25	boot	What is this?					
26	toothbrush	What is this?					
27	tie	What is this?					
28	heart	What is this?					
29	telephone	What is this?					
30	guitar	What is this?					
31	flag	What is this?					
32	elephant	What is this?					

Word production: VERBS

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

Slide 17	Slide 18	Slide 19	Slide 20
			
Slide 21	Slide 22	Slide 23	Slide 24
			
Slide 25	Slide 26	Slide 27	Slide 28
			
Slide 29	Slide 30	Slide 31	Slide 32
			

Answer sheet for production verbs

CLT British English: Answer Sheet for NAMING VERBS

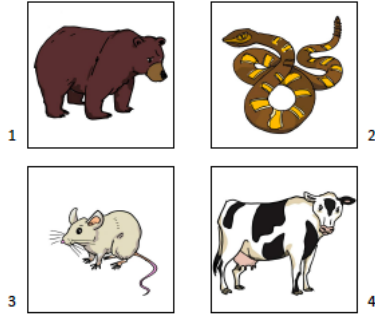
ORDER OF TESTING THIS TASK GOES AS:	1	2	3	4	CHILD CODE	
DATE OF BIRTH			DATE OF TESTING			
STARTING TIME:			END TIME:			
		TASK DURATION:				

No	Target word	question	answer	remarks
01	laugh	What is she doing?		
02	read	What is she doing?		
03	plant	What is he doing?		
04	fight	What are they doing?		
05	drip	What is happening here?		
06	hammer	What is he doing?		
07	ski	What is he doing?		
08	roast	What is happening here?		
09	throw	What is she doing?		
10	sweat	What is happening with him?		
11	water	What is she doing?		
12	brush [teeth]	What is he doing?		
13	peel	What is he doing?		
14	hatch	What is happening here?		
15	massage	What is she doing?		
16	conduct	What is he doing?		
17	swim	What is he doing?		
18	build	What is he doing?		
19	marry	What is happening here?		
20	row	What is he doing?		
21	cook	What is she doing?		
22	mix	What is she doing?		
23	boil	What is happening here?		
24	hug	What are they doing?		
25	sit	What is he doing?		
26	light	What is he doing?		
27	shave	What is he doing?		
28	drink	What is she doing?		
29	clap	What is he doing?		
30	sail	What is he doing?		
31	paint	What is he doing?		
32	iron	What is she doing?		

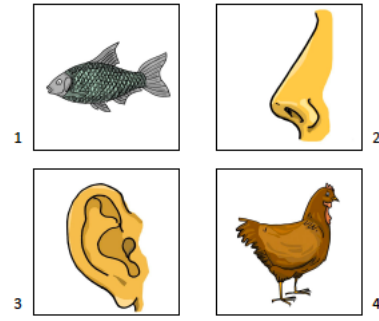
Turkish Version of CLTs

Word comprehension: NOUNS (Sözcük Anlama: İSİMLER)

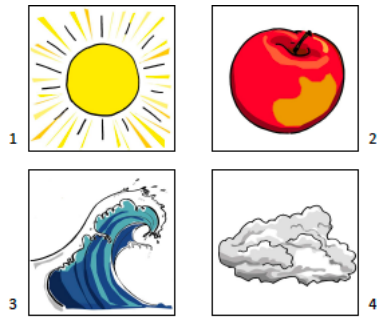
Slide 1



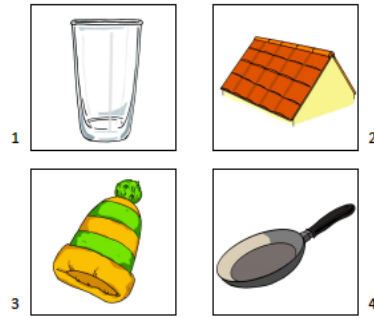
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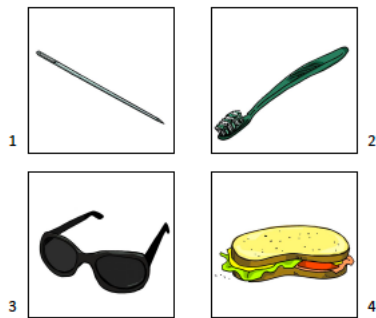
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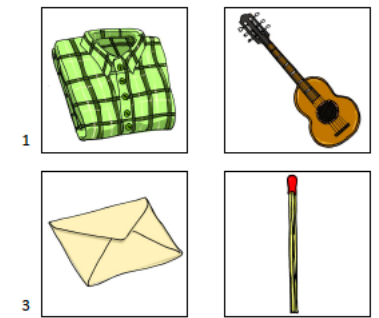
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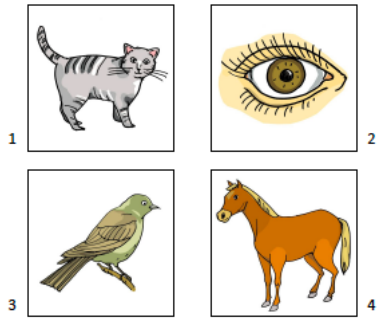
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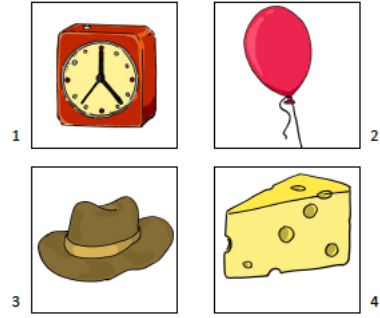
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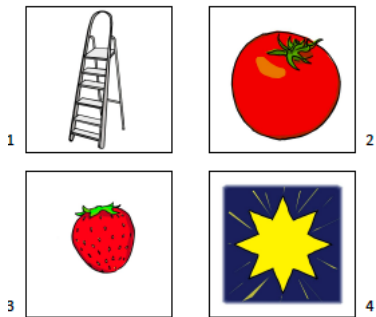
Slide 7



Slide 8



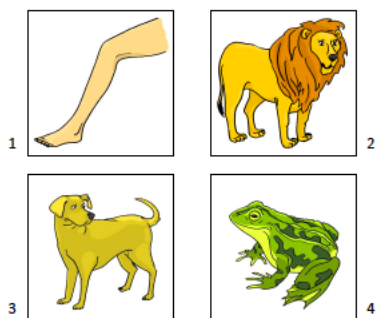
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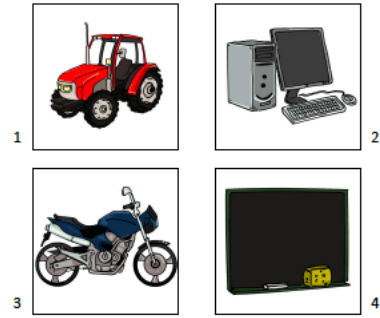
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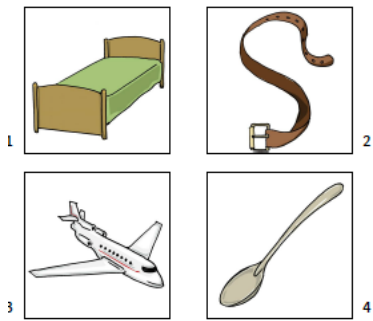
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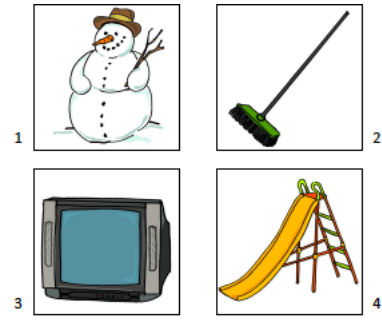
Slide 12



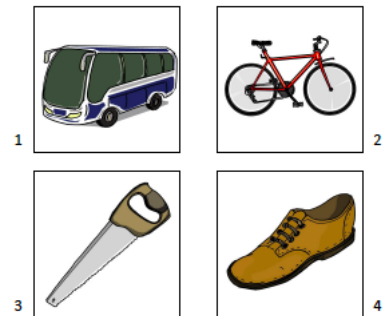
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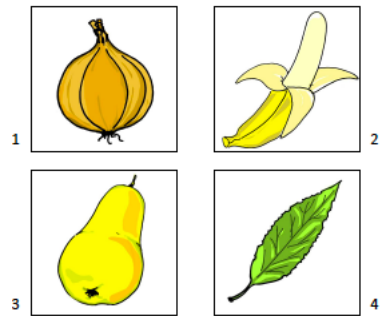
Slide 14



Slide 15



Slide 16



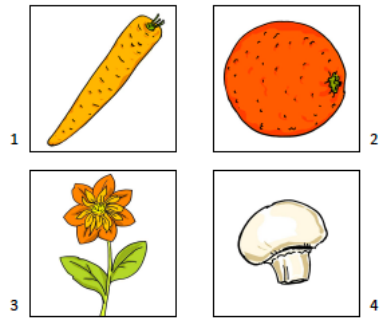
Slide 17



Slide 18



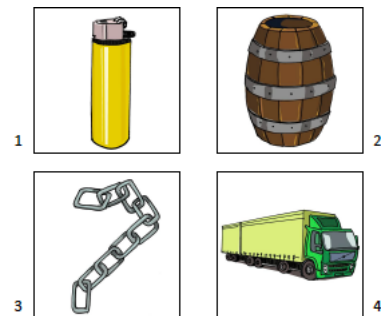
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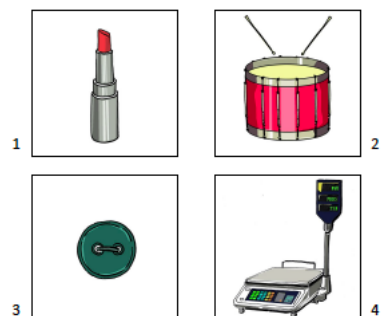
Slide 20



Slide 21



Slide 22



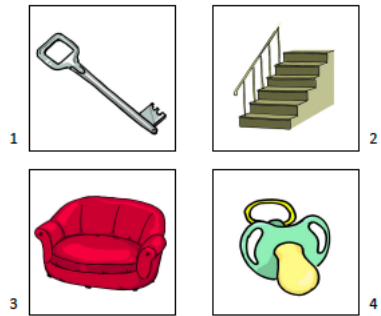
Slide 23



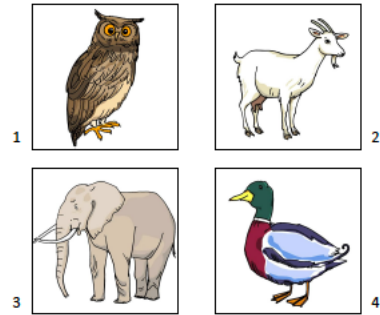
Slide 24



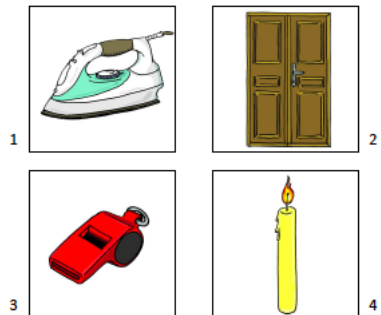
Slide 25



Slide 26



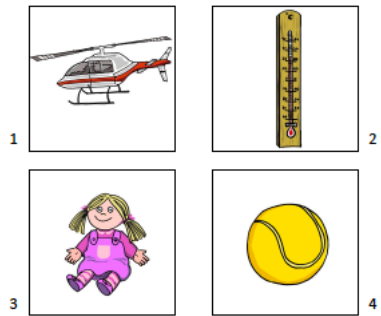
Slide 27



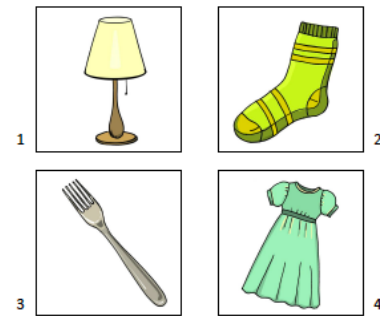
Slide 28



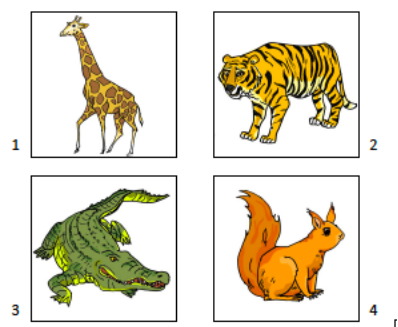
Slide 29



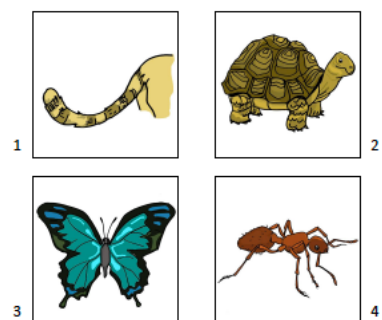
Slide 30



Slide 31



Slide 32



Answer sheet for NOUNS COMPREHENSION

COST IS0804 WG3 Sözcük Anlamlandırma Taskı: ISIMLER için Yanıt Kağıdı

Ncomp

TEST SIRASI
BU ALT TEST ŞU SIRA İLE
UYGULANIR:

DOĞUM TARİHİ:

BAŞLAMA ZAMANI:

1	2	3	4	ÇOCUĞUN KODU:	
		TEST TARİHİ:			
		BİTİŞ ZAMANI:			
		TASK SÜRESİ:			

No	Hedef sözcük	Soru	Doğru yanıt	Çocuğun yanıtı (resim no)	Açıklamalar
01	Yılan	Yılan nerede?	2		
02	Burun	Burun nerede?	2		
03	Dalga	Dalga nerede?	3		
04	Çatı	Çatı nerede?	2		
05	Sandviç	Sandviç nerede?	4		
06	Gömlek	Gömlek nerede?	1		
07	Kuş	Kuş nerede?	3		
08	Peynir	Peynir nerede?	4		
09	Çilek	Çilek nerede?	3		
10	Kazak	Kazak nerede?	1		
11	Bacak	Bacak nerede?	1		
12	Motosiklet	Motosiklet nerede?	3		
13	Kaşık	Kaşık nerede?	4		
14	Kardan adam	Kardan adam nerede?	1		
15	Ayakkabı	Ayakkabı nerede?	4		
16	Muz	Muz nerede?	2		
17	Pil	Pil nerede?	3		
18	Cetvel	Cetvel nerede?	1		
19	Havuç	Havuç nerede?	1		
20	Tarak	Tarak nerede?	2		
21	Zincir	Zincir nerede?	3		
22	Tartı	Tartı nerede?	4		
23	Sepet	Sepet nerede?	2		
24	Penguen	Penguen nerede?	4		
25	Kanepe	Kanepe nerede?	3		
26	Ördek	Ördek nerede?	4		
27	Ütü	Ütü nerede?	1		
28	Şemsiye	Şemsiye nerede?	1		
29	Termometre	Termometre nerede?	2		
30	Çatal	Çatal nerede?	3		
31	Kaplan	Kaplan nerede?	2		
32	Karınca	Karınca nerede?	4		

Word comprehension: VERBS (Sözcük Anlama: EYLEMLER)

Slide 1



Slide 2



Slide 3



Slide 4



Slide 5



Slide 6



Slide 7



Slide 8



Slide 9



Slide 10



Slide 11



Slide 12



Slide 13



Slide 14



Slide 15



Slide 16



Slide 17



Slide 18



Slide 19



Slide 20



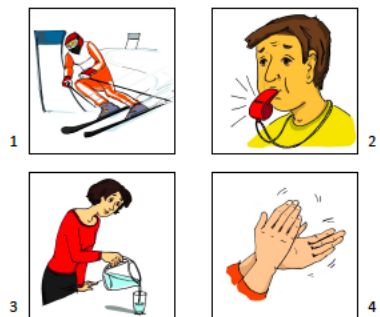
Slide 21



Slide 22



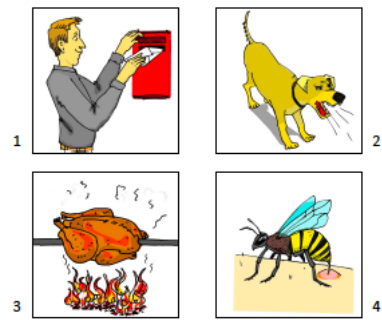
Slide 23



Slide 24



Slide 25



Slide 26



Slide 27



Slide 28



Slide 29



Slide 30



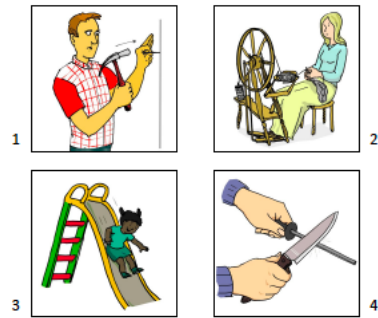
V_30

Slide 31



V_31

Slide 32



V_32

Answer sheet for VERBS COMPREHENSION

COST IS0804 WG3 Sözcük Anlamlandırma Taskı: EYLEMLER için Yanıt Kağıdı

Vcomp

TEST SIRASI
BU ALT TEST ŞU SIRA İLE
UYGULANIR:

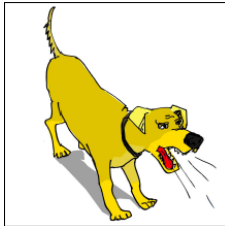
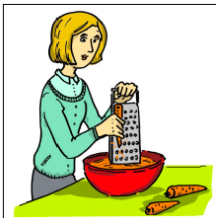
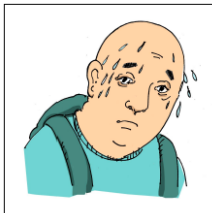
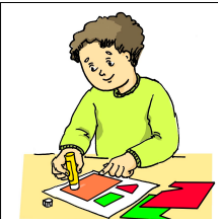
DOĞUM TARİHİ

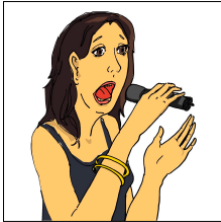
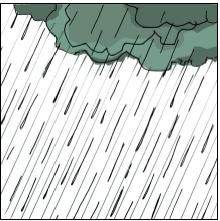
BAŞLAMA ZAMANI:

1	2	3	4	ÇOCUĞUN KODU:	
		TEST TARİHİ			
		BİTİŞ ZAMANI:			
				TASK SÜRESİ:	

No	Hedef sözcük	Soru	Doğru yanıt	Çocuğun yanıtı (resim no)	Açıklamalar
01	Uyuyor	Kim uyuyor?	4		
02	Okuyor	Kim okuyor?	4		
03	Zıplıyor	Kim zıplıyor?	4		
04	Çekiyor	Kim çekmek?	2		
05	Piyano çalıyor	Kim piyano çalıyor?	3		
06	Tıraş oluyor	Kim tıraş oluyor?	1		
07	Kesiyor	Kim kesiyor?	1		
08	Sürüklüyor	Kim sürüklüyor?	2		
09	Sarıyor	Kim sarılıyor?	2		
10	Kar yağıyor	Nerede kar yağıyor?	3		
11	Kapı çalıyor	Kim kapıyı çalıyor?	4		
12	Kazıyor	Kim kazıyor?	1		
13	Dövdüşüyor	Kim dövüşüyor?	4		
14	Avlanıyor	Kim avlanıyor?	3		
15	Ölçüyor	Kim ölçüyor?	3		
16	Kızartıyor	Kim kızartıyor?	2		
17	Tartıyor	Kim tartıyor?	3		
18	Yakıyor	Kim yakıyor?	1		
19	İnşaat yapıyor	Kim inşaat yapıyor?	3		
20	Boyuyor	Kim boyuyor?	2		
21	İtiyor	Kim itiyor?	4		
22	Deliyor	Kim deliyor?	1		
23	Düdük çalıyor	Kim düdük çalıyor?	2		
24	Tırmanıyor	Kim tırmanıyor?	3		
25	Postalıyor	Kim postalıyor?	1		
26	Ata biniyor	Kim ata biniyor?	2		
27	Ameliyat ediyor	Kim ameliyat ediyor?	4		
28	Yırtıyor	Kim yırtıyor?	1		
29	Süt sağıyor	Kim süt sağıyor?	2		
30	Dans ediyor	Kim dans ediyor?	1		
31	İçiyor	Kim içiyor?	4		
32	Kayıyor	Kim kayıyor?	3		

Word production: VERBS (Sozcuk Anlamlandırma: EYLEMLER)

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

Slide 17	Slide 18	Slide 19	Slide 20
			
Slide 21	Slide 22	Slide 23	Slide 24
			
Slide 25	Slide 26	Slide 27	Slide 28
			
Slide 29	Slide 30	Slide 31	Slide 32
			

Answer sheet for production verbs

COST IS0804 WG3 Kelime Üretim Taskı: EYLEMLER için Yanıt Kağıdı

Vprod

TEST SİRASI
BU ALT TEST ŞU SIRA İLE
UYGULANIR:

DOĞUM TARİHİ

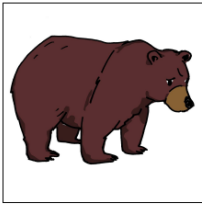
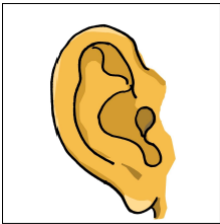
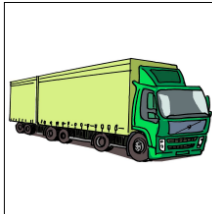
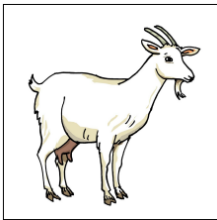
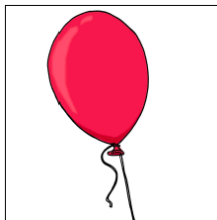
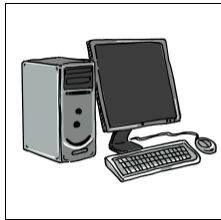
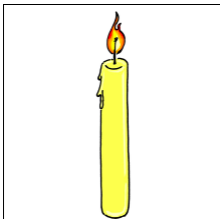
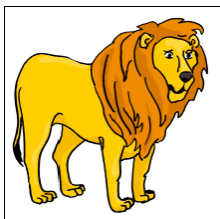
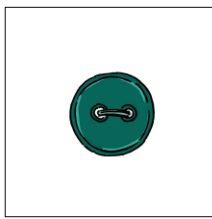
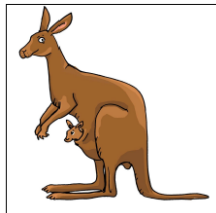
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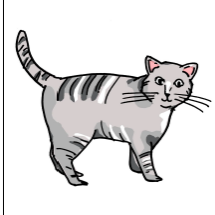
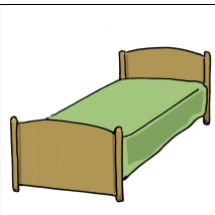
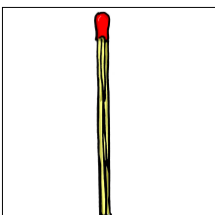
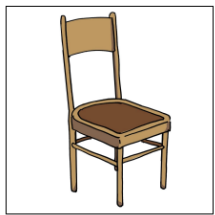
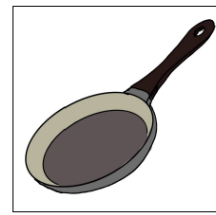
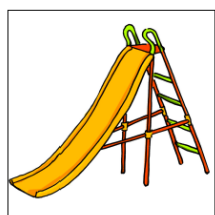
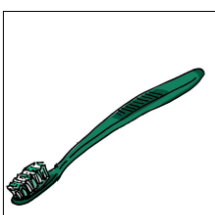
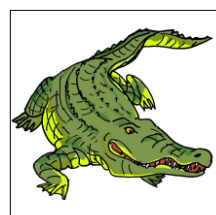
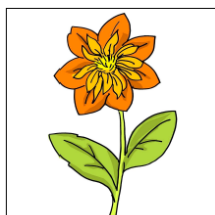
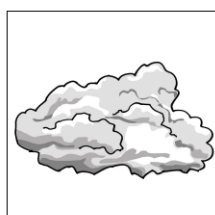
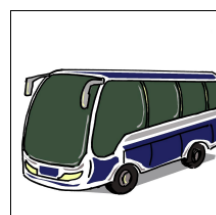
1	2	3	4
		TEST TARİHİ	
		BİTİŞ ZAMANI:	
		TASK SÜRESİ:	

ÇOCUĞUN
KODU:

No	Hedef sözcük	Soru	Doğru yanıt	Açıklamalar
01	Ağlıyor	Ne yapıyor?		
02	Öpüyor	Kız ne yapıyor?		
03	Havlıyor	Ne yapıyor?		
04	Karıştırıyor	Ne yapıyor?		
05	Rendeliyor	Ne yapıyor?		
06	Emekliyor	Ne yapıyor?		
07	Terliyor	Ne olmuş?		
08	Yıkamıyor	Ne yapıyor?		
09	Yiyor	Ne yapıyor?		
10	Telefonla konuşuyor	Ne yapıyor?		
11	Tarıyor	Ne yapıyor?		
12	Kokluyor	Ne yapıyor?		
13	Yapıştırıyor	Ne yapıyor?		
14	Alkışlıyor	Ne yapıyor?		
15	Çakıyor	Ne yapıyor?		
16	Sallamıyor	Ne yapıyor?		
17	Kesiyor	Ne yapıyor?		
18	Yemek yapıyor	Ne yapıyor?		
19	Topluyor	Ne yapıyor?		
20	Şarkı söylüyor	Ne yapıyor?		
21	Dinliyor	Ne yapıyor?		
22	Oturuyor	Ne yapıyor?		
23	Patlıyor	Ne oluyor/oldu?		
24	Ütülüyor	Ne yapıyor?		
25	Örgü örüyor	Ne yapıyor?		
26	Yağmur yağıyor	Ne oluyor?		
27	Yazıyor	Ne yapıyor?		
28	Döküyor	Ne yapıyor?		
29	Seyrediyor	Ne yapıyor?		
30	Söndürüyor	Ne yapıyor?		
31	Atıyor	Ne yapıyor?		
32	Paten kayıyor	Ne yapıyor?		

Word production: NOUNS (Sözcük Anlamlandırma: ISIMLER)

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

Slide 17	Slide 18	Slide 19	Slide 20
			
Slide 21	Slide 22	Slide 23	Slide 24
			
Slide 25	Slide 26	Slide 27	Slide 28
			
Slide 29	Slide 30	Slide 31	Slide 32
			

Answer sheet for production NOUNS

COST IS0804 WG3 Kelime Uretim Taskı: ISIMLER için Yanıt Kağıdı

Nprod

TEST SIRASI
BU ALT TEST ŞU SIRA İLE
UYGULANIR

DOĞUM TARİHİ

BAŞLAMA ZAMANI:

1	2	3	4
		TEST TARİHİ	
		BİTİŞ ZAMANI:	
		TASK SÜRESİ:	

ÇOCUĞUN
KODU:

No	Hedef kelime	Soru	Doğru yanıt	Açıklamalar
01	Ayı	Bu nedir?		
02	Kulak	Bu nedir?		
03	Kamyon	Bu nedir?		
04	Yıldız	Bu nedir?		
05	Keçi	Bu nedir?		
06	Anahtar	Bu nedir?		
07	Balon	Bu nedir?		
08	Bilgisayar	Bu nedir?		
09	Mum	Bu nedir?		
10	Aslan	Bu nedir?		
11	Çizme	Bu nedir?		
12	Bıçak	Bu nedir?		
13	Gözlük	Bu nedir?		
14	Helikopter	Bu nedir?		
15	Düğme	Bu nedir?		
16	Kanguru	Bu nedir?		
17	Kelebek	Bu nedir?		
18	Dolap	Bu nedir?		
19	Kedi	Bu nedir?		
20	Gazete	Bu nedir?		
21	Yatak	Bu nedir?		
22	Kibrit	Bu nedir?		
23	Sandalye	Bu nedir?		
24	Tava	Bu nedir?		
25	Kaydırak	Bu nedir?		
26	Diş Fırçası	Bu nedir?		
27	Çorap	Bu nedir?		
28	Timsah	Bu nedir?		
29	Yaprak	Bu nedir?		
30	Çiçek	Bu nedir?		
31	Bulut	Bu nedir?		
32	Otobüs	Bu nedir?		

Appendix 3 Full script of Frog Story

English version of Frog Where Are You?

Page 1: A boy and his dog are in the boy's bedroom admiring a smiling frog in a glass jar. The moon can be seen through an open window. The boy is in his pajamas, his boots are at the foot of the bed and his clothes are on the floor.

Page 2: The boy and the dog are asleep in the boy's bed. The frog is climbing out of the jar.

Page 3: It is now morning. The boy and the dog are awake and have observed that the frog is missing.

Page 4: The boy is looking in one of his boots for the frog while the dog has stuck his head in the frog's jar.

Page 5: The boy and the dog are looking out the window (the reader sees the building exterior). The boy looks like he is calling out something (i.e., both hands are by his mouth, which is open). The glass jar is stuck on the dog's head.

Page 6: The dog is falling out the window and the boy looks puzzled.

Page 7: The boy has come outside and is holding the dog. The jar has broken and pieces are lying on the ground. The boy has a scowl on his face and the dog is licking the boy's cheek.

Pages 8 & 9 (one picture): The boy is calling (i.e., both hands are by his mouth, which is open) and the dog is sniffing with his nose in the air. In the distance is a forest. A beehive is hanging in a tree by the edge of the forest and bees can be seen flying from it.

Page 10: The boy is calling (i.e., one hand is by his mouth, which is open) down a hole in the ground while the dog is jumping up toward the beehive.

Page 11: A small ground rodent, such as a ground squirrel or gopher, has popped out of the hole. The boy is holding his nose and looking unhappy. The dog is still jumping up toward the beehive.

Page 12 & 13 (one picture): The beehive has fallen out of the tree and angry bees are swarming. The boy is sitting on a branch of a large tree exploring a hole in the tree.

Page 14 & 15 (one picture): An owl, with open wings, has come out of the hole and the boy has fallen on the ground. The bees are chasing the dog.

Page 16: The boy is running away from the owl. In the background is a large boulder. Branches of trees can be seen behind it.

Page 17: The boy has climbed to the top of the boulder and is calling (i.e., one hand is by his mouth, which is open). He is holding a branch of a tree. The dog can be seen slinking toward the boulder. His tail is between his legs.

Page 18: What appeared to be branches are, in fact, the antlers of a deer. The boy can be seen draped over the deer's head.

Page 19: The deer is walking, with the boy on his head, toward a cliff. The dog is chasing the deer.

Page 20: The deer has tipped the boy over the edge of the cliff and the dog has apparently fallen off the cliff. Both the boy and the dog are in the midst of falling into a marshy pond.

Page 21: The boy and the dog have fallen head first into the water with a splash. Only their legs are visible.

Page 22: The boy is sitting in the water and the dog is sitting on the boy's shoulder looking over his head. The boy is holding his hand to his ear and smiling, as if he has heard something.

Page 23: The boy is kneeling beside a large log. The dog is swimming toward him. The boy is holding one finger to his mouth (i.e., gesture indicating a need for silence).

Page 24: The boy and the dog are looking over the log. The reader observes them from the back and does not know what they are seeing.

Page 25: The boy and the dog are sitting on the log and are looking at a mother and father frog – one or the other may be the frog that escaped. The frogs are snuggled together and smiling

Page 26: The frogs' children emerge from tall grasses on the right. The adult frogs have proud smiles on their faces as they look at their children. The boy and the dog are sitting on the log. The boy is smiling.

Page 27s & 28: The boy and the dog are leaving. The boy has a small frog in his hand and is waving at the frog family, which is sitting on the big log.

Turkish version of Kurbağa Neredesin?

Sayfa 1: Bir oğlan ve köpeği çocuğun odasında cam kavanozdaki gülümseyen bir kurbağayı hayranlıkla izliyorlardı. Ay açık bir pencereden görünüyordu. Çocuk pijamasını giymiş, botları yatağın dibinde, elbiseleri yerde.

Sayfa 2: Oğlan ve köpek oğlanın yatağında uyuyorlardı. Kurbağa kavanozdan çıkıyor.

Sayfa 3: Artık sabah oldu. Çocuk ve köpek uyandı ve kurbağanın yerinde olmadığını gördüler.

Sayfa 4: Çocuk kurbağayı aramak için botunun içinde bakıyor, köpek ise başını kurbağanın kavanozuna soktu.

Sayfa 5: Çocuk ve köpek pencereden dışarı bakıyor (okuyucu bina dışını görüyor). Çocuk, bir şey çağırıyor gibi görünüyor (diğer bir deyişle, her iki el de açık ağzına ait). Cam kavanoz köpek kafasında takılı kaldı.

Sayfa 6: Köpek pencereden düşüyor ve çocuk şaşkın görünüyor.

Sayfa 7: Çocuk dışarı çıkıp köpeği tutuyor. Kavanoz kırıldı ve parçalar yere yatıyor. Çocuk kızın görünüyor ve köpek oğlanın yanağını yalıyor.

Sayfa 8 & 9: Oğlan kurbağayı çağırıyor (diğer bir deyişle, her iki el de açık ağzından geliyor) ve köpek havayı burnuyla kokluyor. Biraz uzakta bir orman var. Bir arı kovanı ormanın kenarında bir ağacın içinde asılı duruyor ve uçan arılar görülebiliyor.

Sayfa 10: Çocuk, yerdeki açık delikte kurbağayı arıyor (yani bir el açıkken ağzından geliyor). Köpek arı kovanına doğru zıplıyor.

Sayfa 11: Yerdeki delikten sincap ya da fareye benzeyen küçük bir yere kemirgen çıktı. Çocuk burnunu tutuyor ve mutsuz görünüyor. Köpek hâlâ arı kovanına doğru atlıyor.

Sayfa 12 & 13: Arı kovanı ağaçtan düştü ve öfkeli arılar toplanıyor. Çocuk, ağacın üzerinde bir delik keşfediyor ve ağacın bir kolunda oturuyor.

Sayfa 14 & 15: Kanatlarını açmış bir baykuş delikten çıktı ve oğlan yere düştü. Arılar köpeği kovalıyor.

Sayfa 16: Oğlan baykuştan kaçıyor. Arkada büyük bir kaya var. Arkasında ağaç dalları görülebilir.

Sayfa 17: Çocuk kayanın tepesine tırmandı ve kurbağayı çağırıyor (diğer bir deyişle bir el açıktı ağzından geliyor). O bir ağaç dalını elinde tutuyor. Köpek kayaya doğru yürüyor. Kuyruğu bacaklarının arasında. Baykuş yukarıdan onları izliyor.

Sayfa 18: Dal gibi görülen, aslında bir geyiğin boynuzlarıdır. Geyik kalkınca oğlan geyik başının üstünde kalıyor.

Sayfa 19: Geyik yürüyor, oğlan başında, uçurumda doğru. Köpek geyiği kovalıyor.

Sayfa 20: Geyik uçurumun kenarından çocuğu attı ve köpek uçurumdan düşmüş gibi görünüyor. Hem oğlan hem de köpek bataklık havuzuna düşüyorlar.

Sayfa 21: Oğlan ve köpek suyun içine düştü. Sadece bacakları görünür durumda.

Sayfa 22: Oğlan suda oturuyor ve köpek oğlanın başının üstünde durarak omzunda oturuyor. Oğlan elini kulağına tutuyor ve sanki bir şeyler duymuş gibi gülümsüyordu.

Sayfa 23: Çocuk büyük bir kütüğün yanında diz çökmüştür. Köpek ona doğru yüzüyor. Çocuğun ağzına bir parmak tutuyor (diğer bir deyişle sessizlik ihtiyacını işaret ediyor).

Sayfa 24: Oğlan ve köpek kütüğün üzerine bakıyor. Okuyucu sırtından onları gözlemler ve ne gördüğünü bilmiyor.

Sayfa 25: Oğlan ve köpek kütükte oturuyor ve bir anne ve baba kurbağaya bakıyorlar; biri kaçan kurbağa olabilir. Kurbağalar birlikte gülümseyerek sokulmuş.

Sayfa 26: Kurbağaların çocukları sağdaki uzun çimlerden çıkıyor. Yetişkin kurbağaları, çocuklarına bakarken yüzlerinde gururla gülümsüyor. Oğlan ve köpek kütükte oturuyorlar. Çocuk gülüyor.

Sayfa 27&28: Oğlan ve köpek ayrılıyorlar. Oğlanın elinde küçük bir kurbağa var ve büyük kütüğe oturan kurbağa ailesine el sallıyor.

Appendix 4 Parental Questionnaire (BLBEQ) in English and Turkish version

English version - BLBEQ

Start of Block: Bilingual Language Background Questionnaire

This questionnaire consists of five sections background and language use of the family and their bilingual children in England. Please, could you answer all questions fully, thank you.

- ☐ Your name _____
- ☐ Your relationship to the child _____
- ☐ The child's name _____
- ☐ Date of birth of the child _____
- ☐ Birthplace of the child _____
- ☐ Date of the day _____

Q1 Gender of the child

- ☐ Girl (1)
- ☐ Boy (2)

Q2 Birth order of the child

- ☐ 1st born (1)
- ☐ 2nd born (2)
- ☐ 3rd born (3)
- ☐ 4th born (4)
- ☐ Other (5) _____

End of Block: Bilingual Language Background Questionnaire

Start of Block: Section 1: Home environment background information

Q3 How long do you live in England?

- ☐ 1 year (1)
- ☐ 2 years (2)
- ☐ 3 years (3)
- ☐ 4 years (4)
- ☐ 5-7 years (5)
- ☐ 8-10 years (6)
- ☐ Other (7) _____

Q4 In which country were you born?

- ☐ England (1)
- ☐ Turkey (2)
- ☐ Other (3) _____

Skip To: Q6 If In which country where you born? = England

Q5 Why did you move to England?Studies (1)

- ☐ Work (2)
- ☐ Settled in the UK (3)
- ☐ Other (4) _____

Q6 What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- ☐ Less than high school (1)
- ☐ High school graduate (2)
- ☐ Some college (3)
- ☐ 2-year degree (4)
- ☐ 4-year degree (5)

☐ Professional degree (6)

☐ Doctorate (7)

Q7 Where did you have your latest education?

☐ Turkey (1)

☐ England (2)

☐ Other (3) _____

Q8 What is your occupation?

Q9 How well do you speak Turkish and English?

	Native (1)	Extremely well (2)	Very well (3)	Moderately well (4)	Slightly well (5)	Not well at all (6)
Turkish (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
English (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q10 Do you speak any other language(s) apart from English and Turkish? And please chose how well you speak that language.

	Native (1)	Extremely well (2)	Very well (3)	Moderately well (4)	Slightly well (5)	Not well at all (6)
Language 1 (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Language 2 (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Language 3 (3)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Language 4 (4)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Language 5 (5)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Language 6 (6)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q11 How often do you visit Turkey?

- ☐ Never (1)
- ☐ Seldom (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Once a year (4)
- ☐ Other (5) _____

Q12 Where do your parents live?

- ☐ Turkey (1)
- ☐ England (2)
- ☐ Other (3) _____

Skip To: End of Block If Where do your parents live? = England

Q13 If outside the UK, do they visit you in England?

- ☐ Never (1)
- ☐ Seldom (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)

- ☐ Once a year (4)
- ☐ Other (5) _____

End of Block: Section 1: Home environment background information

Start of Block: Section 2: Language Background

Q14 When have you and your child been to Turkey for the last time?

	Less than 6 months ago (3)	Less than 1 year ago (4)	1 year ago (5)	2 years ago (6)	More than 2 years ago (7)
You (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The Child (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q15 What is your first language?

- ☐ Turkish (1)
- ☐ English (2)
- ☐ Other (3) _____

End of Block: Section 2: Language Background

Start of Block: Section 3: Family Language Use

Q16 How many children do you have?

- ☐ 1 (1)
- ☐ 2 (2)

- ☐ 3 (3)
- ☐ 4 (4)
- ☐ 5 (5)
- ☐ other (6) _____

Q17 Could you please answer following questions?

	How old are they? (1)	Where was she/he born? (2)
Child 1 (1)		
Child 2 (2)		
Child 3 (3)		
Child 4 (4)		
Child 5 (5)		
Others (6)		

Q18 How often do you speak Turkish?

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Most of the time (2)
- ☐ About half the time (3)
- ☐ Sometimes (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

Q19 How often do you do activities in Turkish with your child/children in a day?

	Less than 1 hour (1)	1 hour (2)	2 hours (3)	3 hours (4)	4 hours (5)	5 hours (6)	More than 5 hours (7)	Never (8)
Listen to radio etc. (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Watching TV (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐



Q20 What language(s) do you mostly use when talking to your spouse?

- ☐ Only Turkish (1)
- ☐ Both Turkish and English, but mostly Turkish (2)
- ☐ Both Turkish and English, but mostly English (3)
- ☐ Only English (4)
- ☐ Other (5) _____

Q21 What language(s) do you mostly use when talking to your child(ren)?

- ☐ Only Turkish (1)
- ☐ Both Turkish and English, but mostly Turkish (2)
- ☐ Both Turkish and English, but mostly English (3)
- ☐ Only English (4)
- ☐ Other (5) _____

Q22 In general, do you have more Turkish –or English- speaking friends in England?

- ☐ Only Turkish-speaking friends (1)
- ☐ Both, but more Turkish speaking friends (2)
- ☐ As many Turkish- as English-speaking friends (3)
- ☐ Both, but more English-speaking friends (4)
- ☐ Only English-speaking friends (5)

Q23 How do you (and your child) meet most of these people?

	You (1)	The child (2)
At home (1)	☐	☐
Through a Turkish community or organisation (2)	☐	☐
Through mutual friends (3)	☐	☐
Through work or the child's school (4)	☐	☐
Other (5)	☐	☐

Q24 Are you in frequent contact with relatives and friends in Turkey?

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Most of the time (2)
- ☐ About half the time (3)
- ☐ Sometimes (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

Q25 What language(s) do you mostly use to keep in touch with relatives and friends in Turkey?

- ☐ Only Turkish (1)
- ☐ Both Turkish and English, but mostly Turkish (2)
- ☐ Both Turkish and English, without preference (3)
- ☐ Both Turkish and English, but mostly English (4)

☐ Only English (5)

☐ Other (6) _____

Q26 Which language(s) do you feel more comfortable speaking in?

	At home (1)	At work (2)	In general (3)
Turkish (1)	☐	☐	☐
English (2)	☐	☐	☐
Other (3)	☐	☐	☐

End of Block: Section 3: Family Language Use

Start of Block: Section 4: Child's language use and language choice (your child who takes the sc

Q27 What is your child's first language?

☐ Turkish (1)

☐ English (2)

☐ Other (3) _____

Q28 Is your child learning any other languages at present?

☐ Yes (which?) (1) _____

☐ No (2)

Q29 Please give the age (years and months) when your child began to do the following in each of the languages you previously listed:

	Turkish (1)	English (2)	Other 1 (3)	Other 2 (4)	Other 3 (5)
Started hearing the language on a regular basis from family members and/or other caregivers (1)					
Began producing single words (2)					
Began producing: 2-word phrases (3)					
Began producing complete sentences (4+ words) (4)					

Q30 Could you please choose your answer? You may simply tick the box.

	Less than 1 hour (1)	1 hour (2)	2 hours (3)	3 hours (4)	4 hours (5)	5 hours (6)	More than 5 hours (7)
How often does your child speak Turkish? (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
How often does your child read books in	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Turkish? (2) How often does your child write anything in Turkish? (3) Does your child listen to Turkish songs? (4) Does your child watch Turkish animations or films? (5)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q31 What language(s) does your child mostly use when talking to others?

	Mother (1)	Father (2)	Siblings (3)	Turkish (4)	Friends
Only Turkish (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Both Turkish and English, but mostly Turkish (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Both Turkish and English, without preference (3)	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Both Turkish and English, but mostly English (4)	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Only English (5)	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Other (6)	☐	☐	☐	☐	

Q32 Which language does your child feel more comfortable speaking in?

	At home (1)	At school (2)	In general (3)
Turkish (8)	☐	☐	☐
English (9)	☐	☐	☐
Other (10)	☐	☐	☐

End of Block: Section 4: Child's language use and language choice (your child who takes the sc

Start of Block: Section 5: Parents' preferences

Q33, do you consider it important maintain your child's Turkish?

- ☐ Extremely important (1)
- ☐ Very important (2)
- ☐ Moderately important (3)
- ☐ Slightly important (4)
- ☐ Not at all important (5)

Q34 Could you please choose your answer? You may simply tick the box.

	Always (1)	Most of the time (2)	About half the time (3)	Sometimes (4)	Never (5)
Do you encourage your child to	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Speak Turkish?

(1)

Do you

encourage

your child to

read and write

in Turkish? (2)

Did/do you

ever correct

your child's

speaking in

Turkish? (3)

If your child

does not speak

or understand

Turkish, do

you regret

that? (4)

☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐

Q35 Does your child attend supplementary Turkish courses/classes/schools?

☐ Yes (42)

☐ No (43)

Skip To: Q37 If Does your child attend supplementary Turkish courses/classes/schools? = No

Q36 Do you think your child's Turkish language proficiency has been changing since she/he takes Turkish classes? Explain your answer, please in one sentence.

☐ Yes (1) _____

☐ Maybe (2) _____

☐ No (4) _____

Q37 Could you please choose your answer? You may simply tick the box.

	Extremely well (1)	Very well (2)	Moderately well (3)	Slightly (4)	well	Not well at all (5)
--	-----------------------	---------------	------------------------	-----------------	------	------------------------

In general, how
would you rate
your child's
Turkish
language
proficiency?

(1)

Did your child
understand

Turkish before
going to

Turkish
classes? (2)

Did your child
speak Turkish

before going to
Turkish

classes? (3)

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q38 Is there anything you would like to add? This can be anything from language-related comments to remarks about the questionnaire or research itself.

Turkish version – BLBEQ

BLBEQ

Start of Block: Bilingual Language Background Questionnaire

Bu anket, ailenin ve İngiltere'deki iki dilli çocuklarının dil kullanımını içeren beş bölümden oluşmaktadır. Lütfen, tüm soruları cevaplayabilir misiniz, teşekkür ederim.

- ☐ Adınız (7) _____
- ☐ Çocukla akrabalığınız (16) _____
- ☐ Çocuğun adı (18) _____
- ☐ Çocuğun doğum tarihi (17) _____
- ☐ Çocuğun doğum yeri (19) _____
- ☐ Tarih (20) _____

Q1 Çocuğun cinsiyeti

- ☐ Kız (1)
- ☐ Erkek (2)

Q2 Çocuğun doğum sırası

- ☐ 1. çocuk (1)
- ☐ 2. çocuk (2)
- ☐ 3. çocuk (3)
- ☐ 4. çocuk (4)
- ☐ Diğer (5) _____

End of Block: Bilingual Language Background Questionnaire

Start of Block: Section 1: Home environment background information

Q3 İngiltere’de ne kadar süredir yaşıyorsunuz?

- ☐ 1 yıl (1)
- ☐ 2 yıl (2)
- ☐ 3 yıl (3)
- ☐ 4 yıl (4)
- ☐ 5-7 yıl (5)
- ☐ 8-10 yıl (6)
- ☐ Diğer (7) _____

Q4 Hangi ülkede doğdunuz?

- ☐ İngiltere (1)
- ☐ Türkiye (2)
- ☐ Diğer (3) _____

Skip To: Q6 If In which country were you born? = England

Q5 İngiltere’ye neden taşındınız?

- ☐ Eğitim (1)
- ☐ Çalışma (2)
- ☐ Yerleşme (3)
- ☐ Diğer (4) _____

Q6 Tamamladığınız en son eğitim seviyesi nedir?

- ☐ İlköğretim (1)
- ☐ Lise (2)
- ☐ Meslek okulu (3)
- ☐ Önlisans (4)
- ☐ Lisans (5)
- ☐ Yüksek Lisans (6)
- ☐ Doktora (7)

Q7 Eğitiminizi nerede aldınız?

- ☐ Türkiye (1)
- ☐ İngiltere (2)
- ☐ Diğer (3) _____

Q8 İşiniz nedir?

Q9 Türkçe ve İngilizce konuşma seviyenizi seçiniz.

	Profesyonel (1)	Muhteşem (2)	Çok iyi (3)	İyi (4)	İdare eder (5)	İyi değil (6)
Türkçe (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
İngilizce (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q10 Türkçe ve İngilizce dışında başka dil konuşabiliyorsanız, hangi dilleri ne seviyede konuşuyorsunuz?

	Profesyonel (1)	Muhteşem (2)	Çok iyi (3)	İyi (4)	İdare eder (5)	İyi değil (6)
--	--------------------	-----------------	-------------	---------	-------------------	---------------

Dil 1 (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dil 2 (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dil 3 (3)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dil 4 (4)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dil 5 (5)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dil 6 (6)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q11 Ne sıklıkla Türkiye'ye gidiyorsunuz?

- ☐ Hiç (1)
- ☐ Nadiren (2)
- ☐ Bazen (3)
- ☐ Senede 1 defa (4)
- ☐ Diğer (5) _____

Q12 Anne-babanız nerede yaşıyor?

- ☐ Türkiye (1)
- ☐ İngiltere (2)
- ☐ Diğer (3) _____

Skip To: End of Block If Where do your parents live? = England

Q13 İngiltere dışındaysalar, ne sıklıkla sizi ziyarete İngiltere'ye geliyorlar?

- ☐ Hiç (1)
- ☐ Nadiren (2)
- ☐ Bazen (3)
- ☐ Senede 1 defa (4)
- ☐ Diğer (5) _____

End of Block: Section 1: Home environment background information

Start of Block: Section 2: Language Background

Q14 En son ne zaman Türkiye'ye gittiniz?

	6 aydan kısa süre önce (3)	1 yıldan kısa süre önce (4)	1 yıl önce (5)	2 yıl önce (6)	2 yıldan daha fazla (7)
Siz (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Çocuğunuz (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q15 Konuştuğunuz ilk dil nedir?

- ☐ Türkçe (1)
- ☐ İngilizce (2)
- ☐ Diğer (3) _____

End of Block: Section 2: Language Background

Start of Block: Section 3: Family Language Use

Q16 Kaç çocuğunuz var?

- ☐ 1 (1)
- ☐ 2 (2)
- ☐ 3 (3)
- ☐ 4 (4)
- ☐ 5 (5)
- ☐ Diğer (6) _____

Q17 Aşağıdaki soruları cevaplayınız.

	Çocuklarınız kaç yaşındalar? (1)	Çocuklarınız nerede doğdu? (2)
Çocuk 1 (1)		
Çocuk 2 (2)		
Çocuk 3 (3)		
Çocuk 4 (4)		
Çocuk 5 (5)		
Diğerleri (6)		

Q18 Ne sıklıkla Türkçe konuşuyorsunuz?

- ☐ Her zaman (1)
- ☐ Sıklıkla (2)
- ☐ Ara sıra (3)
- ☐ Bazen (4)
- ☐ Hiç (5)

Q19 Çocuğunuzla gün içinde ne sıklıkla Türkçe aktiviteler yapıyorsunuz?

	1 saatten az (1)	1 saat (2)	2 saat (3)	3 saat (4)	4 saat (5)	5 saat (6)	5 saatten fazla (7)	Never (8)
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Radyo dinleme (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
TV izleme (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Kitap okuma (6)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q20 Eşinizle konuşurken çoğunlukla hangi dili kullanıyorsunuz?

- ☐ Sadece Türkçe (1)
- ☐ Hem Türkçe hem İngilizce, çoklukla Türkçe (2)
- ☐ Hem Türkçe hem İngilizce, çoklukla İngilizce (3)
- ☐ Sadece İngilizce (4)
- ☐ Diğer (5) _____

Q21 Çocuğunuzla konuşurken çoğunlukla hangi dili kullanıyorsunuz?

- ☐ Sadece Türkçe (1)
- ☐ Hem Türkçe hem İngilizce, çoklukla Türkçe (2)
- ☐ Hem Türkçe hem İngilizce, çoklukla İngilizce (3)
- ☐ Sadece İngilizce (4)
- ☐ Diğer (5) _____

Q22 Genel olarak, İngiltere’de Türkçe mi İngilizce mi konuşan arkadaşlarınız var?

- ☐ Sadece Türkçe konuşan (1)
- ☐ İkisi de, fakat çoğunlukla Türkçe (2)
- ☐ Türkçe konuşan kadar İngilizce (3)
- ☐ İkisi de, fakat çoğunlukla İngilizce (4)

☐ Sadece Türkçe konuşan (5)

Q23 Bu arkadaşlarınızla siz ve çocuğunuz nerede görüşüyorsunuz?

	Siz (1)	Çocuğunuz (2)
Evde (1)	☐	☐
Türk topluluğu ya da organizasyonlarda (2)	☐	☐
Ortak arkadaşlar yoluyla (3)	☐	☐
İşte ya da çocuğun okulunda (4)	☐	☐
Diğer (5)	☐	☐

Q24 Türkiye'deki akraba ve arkadaşlarınızla sık iletişim kuruyor musunuz?

- ☐ Her zaman (1)
- ☐ Çoğunlukla (2)
- ☐ Sık sık (3)
- ☐ Ara sıra (4)
- ☐ Hiç (5)

Q25 Türkiye'deki akraba ve arkadaşlarınızla konuşurken hangi dili kullanıyorsunuz?

- ☐ Sadece Türkçe (1)
- ☐ Hem Türkçe hem İngilizce, çoklukla Türkçe (2)

- ☐ İkisini de aynı seviyede (3)
- ☐ Hem Türkçe hem İngilizce, çoklukla İngilizce (4)
- ☐ Sadece İngilizce (5)
- ☐ Diğer (6) _____

Q26 Hangi dilde konuşurken daha rahat hissediyorsunuz?

	Evde (1)	İşte (2)	Genel olarak (3)
Türkçe (1)	☐	☐	☐
İngilizce (2)	☐	☐	☐
Diğer (3)	☐	☐	☐

End of Block: Section 3: Family Language Use

Start of Block: Section 4: Child's language use and language choice (your child who takes the school)

Q27 Çocuğunuzun ana dili nedir?

- ☐ Türkçe (1)
- ☐ İngilizce (2)
- ☐ Diğer (3) _____

Q28 Şuanda çocuğunuzun öğrendiği başka bir dil var mı?

- ☐ Evet (Hangileri?) (1) _____

☐ Hayır (2)

Q29 Lütfen çocuğunuzun bildiği dillerde, aşağıdakileri kaç yaşında(yıl-ay) yapmaya başladığını belirtiniz.

	Türkçe (1)	İngilizce (2)	Diğer 1 (3)	Diğer 2 (4)	Diğer 3 (5)
Dili aile üyeleri ve / veya diğer bakıcılardan düzenli olarak duymaya başladı (1)					
Tek sözcük kullanımına başladı (2)					
İki kelimelik cümleler kullanmaya başladı (3)					
4 ve fazlası kelimelerle cümle kurmaya başladı (4)					

Q30 Cevabınızı seçer misiniz? Kutuyu işaretlemeniz yeterlidir.

	1 saatten az (1)	1 saat (2)	2 saat (3)	3 saat (4)	4 saat (5)	5 saat (6)	5 saatten fazla (7)
Ne sıklıkla çocuğunuz Türkçe konuşuyor? (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ne sıklıkla çocuğunuz Türkçe kitap okuyor? (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ne sıklıkla çocuğunuz Türkçe herhangi bir şey	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

yazıyor?

(3)

Türkçe

şarkı

dinliyor

mu? (4)

Çocuğunuz

Türkçe

çizgi film

ya da film

izliyor mu?

(5)

☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐

Q31 Çocuğunuz çoğunlukla başkalarıyla konuşurken hangi dil (ler)i kullanır?

	Anne (1)	Baba (2)	Kardeşler (3)	Türk arkadaşlar (4)
Sadece Türkçe (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐
İkisini de, çoğunlukla Türkçe (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐
İkisini de, seçim yapmadan (3)	☐	☐	☐	☐
İkisini de, çoğunlukla İngilizce (4)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sadece İngilizce (5)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Diğer (6)	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q32 Çocuğunuz hangi dilde daha rahat konuşabildiğini düşünüyor?

	Evde (1)	Okulda (2)	Genelde (3)
Türkçe (8)	☐	☐	☐
İngilizce (9)	☐	☐	☐
Diğer (10)	☐	☐	☐

End of Block: Section 4: Child's language use and language choice (your child who takes the sc

Start of Block: Section 5: Parents' preferences

Q33 Çocuğunuzun Türkçe'sini korumanın önemli olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?

- ☐ Çok önemli (1)
- ☐ Önemli (2)
- ☐ Çok önemli değil (3)
- ☐ Kısmen önemli (4)
- ☐ Önemsiz (5)

Q34 Cevabınızı seçer misiniz? Kutuyu işaretlemeniz yeterlidir.

	Her zaman (1)	Çoğunlukla (2)	Sık sık (3)	Bazen (4)	Hiç (5)
Çocuğunuzun Türkçe konuşmaya	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

teşvik ediyor
musunuz? (1)
Çocuğunuzu
Türkçe okuma
ve yazmaya
teşvik ediyor
musunuz? (2)
Çocuğunuzun
Türkçe
konuşmasını
düzeltiyor
musunuz? (3)
Çocuğunuz
Türkçe
konuşmazsa,
pişman olur
musunuz? (4)

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q35 Çocuğunuz Türkçe dersine/kursuna ya da destek Türkçe okullarına katılıyor mu?

- ☐ Evet (42)
- ☐ Hayır (43)

Skip To: Q37 If Does your child attend supplementary Turkish courses/classes/schools? = No

Q36 Çocuğunuzun Türkçe derslerini aldığı günden beri Türkçe yeterliliği değişiyor mu?
Cevabınızı bir cümleyle açıklayın.

- ☐ Evet (1) _____
- ☐ Emin değilim (2) _____
- ☐ Hayır (4) _____

Q37 Cevabınızı seçer misiniz? Kutuyu işaretlemeniz yeterlidir.

Profesyonel (1)	Çok iyi (2)	İyi (3)	İdare eder (4)	İyi değil (5)
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Genel olarak,
çocuğunuzun
Türkçe dil
yeterliliğine nasıl
derecelendirirsiniz?

(1)

Çocuğunuz
Türkçe'yi Türk
okuluna
başlamadan önce
anlıyor muydu? (2)

Çocuğunuz Türk
okuluna
başlamadan önce
Türkçe
konuşabiliyor
muydu? (3)

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q38 Ekleme istediğiniz herhangi bir şey var mı? Bu dil ile ilgili yorumlardan anket veya araştırmanın kendisiyle ilgili açıklamalara kadar herhangi bir şey olabilir.

End of Block: Section 5: Parents' preferences

Appendix 5 Teacher Questionnaire in English and Turkish version

English version - Teaching language Questionnaire

Start of Block: Teacher Language Questionnaire

Q1 This questionnaire consists of two sections the classroom environment and teaching methods and techniques of the teacher and their bilingual student in England. Please, could you answer all questions fully, thank you.

- ☐ Name (1) _____
- ☐ Date (2) _____
- ☐ School name and city (3) _____

End of Block: Teacher Language Questionnaire

Start of Block: Section 1: Personal information

Q2 What is your gender?

- ☐ Male (1)
- ☐ Female (2)

Q3 How old are you?

- ☐ Under 25 (1)
- ☐ 25-29 (2)
- ☐ 30-39 (3)
- ☐ 40-49 (4)
- ☐ over 50 (5)

Q4 Where were you born?

- ☐ Turkey (1)
- ☐ England (2)
- ☐ Other (3) _____

Q5 Where did you have your latest education?

- ☐ Turkey (1)
- ☐ England (2)
- ☐ Other (3) _____

Q6 What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- ☐ Less than high school (1)
- ☐ High school graduate (2)
- ☐ Some college (3)
- ☐ 2-year degree (4)
- ☐ 4-year degree (5)
- ☐ Professional degree (6)
- ☐ Doctorate (7)

Q7 What subject do you teach in general? So, what is your bachelor's degree?

- ☐ Pre-school teacher (1)
- ☐ Primary school teacher (2)
- ☐ Turkish Language and literature teacher (7)

- ☐ English language teacher (3)
- ☐ Religious education teacher (4)
- ☐ Other language teacher (5) _____
- ☐ Other (6) _____

Q8 How many years have you been teaching altogether?

- ☐ Less than 1 year (1)
- ☐ 1-3 years (2)
- ☐ 3-5 years (3)
- ☐ 5-7 years (4)
- ☐ 7-9 years (5)
- ☐ 10-15 years (6)
- ☐ More than 15 years (7)

Q9 By the end of this school year, how many years in total will you have been teaching Turkish in England?

- ☐ This is my first year (1)
- ☐ 1 (2)
- ☐ 2 (3)
- ☐ 3 (4)
- ☐ 4 (5)
- ☐ 5 (6)
- ☐ More than 5 years (7)

Q10 How well do you know Turkish and English?

	Native (1)	Extremely well (2)	Very well (3)	Moderately well (4)	Slightly well (5)	Not well at all (6)
Turkish (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
English (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q11 Do you speak any other language(s) apart from English and Turkish?

- ☐ Yes (Which?) (1) _____
- ☐ No (2)

End of Block: Section 1: Personal information

Start of Block: Students in the school

Q12 How many students are in this school?

Q13 According to your experience, how would you describe the Turkish vocabulary level of the students in this class?

- ☐ Excellent (19)
- ☐ Good (20)
- ☐ Average (21)
- ☐ Poor (22)
- ☐ Terrible (23)

Q14 How many students experience difficulties understanding spoken Turkish?

Q15 Which of this best describes how you use language instructional materials for students at different vocabulary knowledge?

- ☐ I use the same materials with all students because all students are at the same level (1)
- ☐ I use the same materials with students at different levels, but have the students work at different speeds (5)
- ☐ I use the same materials with all students regardless of level and have students work at the same speed (4)
- ☐ I use different materials with students at different levels (3)

End of Block: Students in the school

Start of Block: Section 2: Instruction

Q16 Please respond to the following items by putting the appropriate number for your opinion about each statement in the appropriate boxes.

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
All in all, I am satisfied with my job. (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel that I am making a significant educational difference in the lives of my students. (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I usually know how to get through to students. (3)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is better when the teacher – not	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

the student – decides what activities are to be done. (4)

I always use Turkish in the class. (5)

I always prepare the teaching material before arriving in the school. (6)

Most teachers in this school are interested in what students have to say. (7)

If a student from this school needs extra assistance, I can provide it. (8)

I present new topics to the class (lecture-style presentation). (9)

I review with the students the homework they have prepared. (10)

I ask my students to suggest or to help plan classroom

☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐

activities or
topics. (11)

I work with
individual
students. (12)

I track of the
study process.
(13)

I take care to
create a
pleasant
learning
atmosphere.
(14)

I lose quite a
lot of time
because of
students
interrupting the
lesson. (15)

I use pictures
and objects for
my students to
make
connections
between words
and the
associated
objects. (17)

I speak target
language and I
ask question
and give
instruction in
Turkish. (18)

I assign
activities that
require group.
(20)

I use Turkish
texts which
accommodate

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

real life
language use.
(21)

I use video and
audio material
in Turkish.
(22)

I correct the
students in
sensible. (23)

I give
commands
through one
word along
with gestures
such as
pointing which
provides
opportunities
for initiating
the interaction
within
students. (24)

Do you think is
it important to
teach Turkish
to young
children in the
UK? (25)

Do you think
Turkish will
benefit the
students in the
future? (26)

Do you think
there are any
certain ideas
that can only be
communicate
in Turkish not
very well in
English? (27)

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

End of Block: Section 2: Instruction

Turkish version - Teaching language Questionnaire

Teaching language Questionnaire

Start of Block: Teacher Language Questionnaire

Q1 Bu anket, sınıf ortamında öğretmenlerin ve İngiltere'deki iki dilli öğrencilerinin öğretim yöntem ve tekniklerini içeren iki bölümden oluşmaktadır. Lütfen, tüm soruları cevaplayabilir misiniz, teşekkür ederim.

- ☐ İsim (1) _____
- ☐ Tarih (2) _____
- ☐ Okul ismi ve şehir (3) _____

End of Block: Teacher Language Questionnaire

Start of Block: Section 1: Personal information

Q2 Cinsiyetiniz nedir?

- ☐ Erkek (1)
- ☐ Kadın (2)

Q3 Kaç yaşındasınız?

- ☐ 25'ten küçük (1)
- ☐ 25-29 (2)
- ☐ 30-39 (3)
- ☐ 40-49 (4)
- ☐ 50'den büyük (5)

Q4 Nerede doğdunuz?

- ☐ Türkiye (1)
- ☐ İngiltere (2)
- ☐ Diğer (3) _____

Q5 Eğitiminizi nerede tamamladınız?

- ☐ Türkiye (1)
- ☐ İngiltere (2)
- ☐ Diğer (3) _____

Q6 Tamamladığınız eğitim seviyesi nedir?

- ☐ İlköğretim (1)
- ☐ Lise (2)
- ☐ Meslek lisesi (3)
- ☐ Ön lisans (4)
- ☐ Lisans (5)
- ☐ Yüksek lisans (6)
- ☐ Doktora (7)

Q7 Hangi alanda öğretmensiniz? Lisans mezuniyetiniz nedir?

- ☐ Okul öncesi öğretmeni (1)
- ☐ İlkokul Öğretmeni (2)
- ☐ Türk dil ve edebiyatı öğretmeni/Türkçe öğretmeni (7)
- ☐ İngilizce öğretmeni (3)
- ☐ Din eğitimi öğretmeni (4)

☐ Yabancı dil öğretmeni (İngilizce dışında) (5)

☐ Diğer (6) _____

Q8 Kaç yıldır öğretmenlik yapıyorsunuz?

☐ 1 yıldan az (1)

☐ 1-3 yıl (2)

☐ 3-5 yıl (3)

☐ 5-7 yıl (4)

☐ 7-9 yıl (5)

☐ 10-15 yıl (6)

☐ 15 yıldan fazla (7)

Q9 Bu eğitim yılı sonunda, kaç yıldır İngiltere'de Türkçe eğitimi vermiş olacaksınız?

☐ İlk yılım (1)

☐ 1 (2)

☐ 2 (3)

☐ 3 (4)

☐ 4 (5)

☐ 5 (6)

☐ 5 yıldan fazla (7)

Q10 Türkçe ve İngilizce seviyeniz nedir?

	Profesyonel (1)	Muhteşem (2)	Çok iyi (3)	İyi (4)	İdare eder (5)	İyi değil (6)
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Türkçe (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
İngilizce (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q11 Türkçe ve İngilizce dışında başka bir dil biliyor musunuz?

- ☐ Evet (Hangileri?) (1) _____
- ☐ Hayır (2)

End of Block: Section 1: Personal information

Start of Block: Students in the school

Q12 Bu okulda kaç öğrenci var?

Q13 Deneyimlerinize göre, bu okuldaki öğrencilerin Türkçe bilgilerini nasıl tanımlarsınız?

- ☐ Mukemmel (19)
- ☐ İyi (20)
- ☐ Orta (21)
- ☐ İyi değil (22)
- ☐ Zayıf (23)

Q14 Kaç öğrenci Türkçe konuşulurken anlamakta zorluk yaşıyor?

Q15 Farklı kelime bilgisine sahip öğrencilere dille ilgili yönerge verirken aşağıdakilerden hangisini kullanıyorsunuz?

- ☐ Tüm öğrenciler için aynı materyali kullanıyorum çünkü tüm öğrencilerin dille ilgili bilgisi aynı (1)
- ☐ Farklı seviyelerdeki öğrenciler için aynı materyal kullanıyorum, bu tamamlama hızını etkiliyor (5)
- ☐ Tüm öğrencilere aynı materyalleri uyguluyorum, dille ilgili bilgileri farketmeksizin aynı zamanda tamamlıyorlar (4)
- ☐ Farklı materyalleri farklı seviyedeki öğrenciler için kullanıyorum. (3)

End of Block: Students in the school

Start of Block: Section 2: Intruction

Q16 Lütfen her kutucuğa ilişkin düşüncelerinize uygun kutuyu işaretleyerek aşağıdaki maddelere cevap verin.

	Kesinlikle katılıyorum (1)	Katılıyorum (2)	Emin değilim (3)	Katılmıyorum (4)	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum (5)
İşimden tamamen memnunum. (1)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Öğrencilerin hayatlarında önemli bir eğitim farkı yarattığımı hissediyorum. (2)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Genellikle öğrencilere nasıl iletişim kuracağımı bilirim. (3)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Öğrenci değil, öğretmen hangi faaliyetlerin yapılması gerektiğine karar	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

verirse daha iyi olur. (4)

Sınıfta daima Türkçe kullanıyorum. (5)

Okula gelmeden önce hep öğretim materyali hazırlarım. (6)

Bu okuldaki öğretmenlerin çoğu, öğrencilerin söylemleriyle ilgilenir. (7)

Bu okuldan bir öğrencinin ekstra yardıma ihtiyacı varsa, ben sağlayabilirim. (8)

Sınıfta yeni konular sunuyorum (ders tarzı sunum). (9)

Hazırladıkları ödevleri öğrencilerle birlikte inceliyorum. (10)

Öğrencilerimden sınıfın etkinliklerini veya konularını önermelerini veya planlamasına yardımcı

☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐

olmalarını
isterim. (11)

Öğrencilerle
birebir çalışırım.
(12)

Çalışma sürecini
takip ederim.
(13)

Rahat bir
öğrenme ortamı
yaratmaya özen
gösteriyorum.
(14)

Dersi bölen
öğrencilerin
yüzünden epey
zaman
kaybediyorum.
(15)

Öğrencilerin
kelimeler ve
ilişkili nesneler
arasında bağlantı
kurmaları için
resim ve
nesneler
kullanıyorum.
(17)

Hedef dili
konuşup, soru
soruyorum ve
Türkçe
talimatlar
veriyorum. (18)

Grupla
yapılması
gerektilen
etkinlikler
belirlerim. (20)

Gerçek hayatta
kullanılan dil
kullanımına

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

uygun Türk
metinleri
kullanıyorum.
(21)

Türkçe video ve
ses materyalleri
kullanıyorum.
(22)

Öğrencilerin
Türkçesini
mantıklı bir
şekilde
düzeltiyorum.
(23)

Öğrenciler
arasında
etkileşimi
başlatmak için
fırsatlar
sağlayan işaret
gibi hareketlerle
birlikte bir
sözcük
aracılığıyla
komutlar
veriyorum. (24)

İngiltere’de
yaşayan
çocuklara
Türkçe
öğretmek önemli
mi? (25)

Gelecekte
Türkçenin
öğrencilere
fayda
sağlayacağını
düşünüyor
musunuz? (26)

Sizce sadece
Türkçe iletişim
kurabilen belirli
fikirlerin

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

İngilizce'den
daha etkili
olduğunu
düşünüyor
musunuz? (27)

End of Block: Section 2: Intruction

Appendix 6 Teacher Interview questions in English and Turkish version

English - Interview Questions for Teachers

1. Can you talk about your educational and professional background?
2. Why do you think teaching Turkish to bilingual children is important?
3. What methodologies and instructional strategies do you use in the class?
4. What materials do you use for instruction, such as books etc.?
5. What are the best methods and activities to teach Turkish?
6. What kind of activities does student enjoy most in the classroom and why?
7. How does student response to you and the learning?
8. What do you think that children would achieve in language at the end of the term?
9. How do you develop home-school connections or promote parent involvement?
10. How learning Turkish language will benefit the student in the future?
11. What is your experience of teaching at the supplementary school?

Turkish - Öğretmenler için mülakat soruları

1. Eğitim ve mesleki geçmişinizden bahseder misiniz?
2. Peki, iki dilli çocuklara Türkçe öğretme amacınız nedir?
3. Sınıfta Türkçe öğretirken hangi yöntemleri ve stratejileri kullanıyorsunuz?
4. Kullandığınız bir ders kitabı var mı?
5. Kullanmıyor olsanız da Türkçeyi öğretmek için en iyi yöntem nedir?
6. Bu sınıf için çocuklar en çok hangi tür aktivitelerden hoşlanıyor.
7. Çocuklar size ve öğrendiklerine karşı nasıl tepki veriyorlar? Yani verdiğiniz şeyi alabiliyor musunuz?
8. Öğrencilerin bu yılı tamamladıklarında hangi yetkinlik ve beceri seviyesine ulaşabileceklerini düşünüyorsunuz?
9. Aile katılımını nasıl teşvik ediyorsunuz? Aile katılıyor mu ders öğretimine?
10. Çocukların Türkçe öğrenmesinin gelecekte onlara nasıl bir faydası olacağını düşünüyorsunuz?
11. Bu okulda öğretmenlik yaparken yaşadığınız olumlu ve olumsuz deneyimleriniz nelerdir?

Appendix 7 An example of thematic analysis of Interview transcription

Çocuklar öğrendiklerini nasıl gösteriyorlar, bunu fark edebiliyor musunuz çocuklarda? Çok kısa vadede bunu bazen alamıyoruz. Çünkü bazı gruplarımızda çocuklar sadece sınıfta öğrendiklerini kullanıyorlar, evde Türkçe konuşulmadığı için, ya da Türkçeyle ilgili bir yaşantı olmadığı için film izleme anlamında olsun televizyon anlamında olsun, arkadaş grubu olarak da genellikle Manchester bölgesinde aileler dağınık yaşadığı için çocukların Türkçe konuşabilecek akran grupları da yok. Genellikle çocukların öğrendikleri sınıf ortamında kalıyor biliyorsunuz okullar da çocukların ödevleri olduğu için çok fazla biz ev çalışması da vermiyoruz. Verdiğimiz zamanda zaten çok fazla dönüt geri alamıyoruz. O noktada sınıfta öğrenilen ne kadar ilgi çekiciye sınıfta kalıyor. Bir şekilde biz bu sınıftaki öğrenmeyi, sınıftaki süreyi verimli kullanmaya çalışıyoruz. Ama zaman geçtikçe çocukların tepkilerinden kurdukları cümlelerden kullandıkları kelimelerden epeyce yol katettiğimizi görüyoruz. Özellikle şarkılar söylendiği zaman, aileler söylüyorlar, evlerde de çocuklar şarkıları kullanıyorlar. Genellikle velilerden daha çok geri bildirim alıyorum. Yani ben çocukların evlerde ne yaptığı Türkçeyle olan iletişimi konusunda bizim diğer sıkıntımız da ebeveynlerin bir tanesinin genellikle yabancı olması bu nedenle Türkçe konuşulmaması ama süreç ilerledikçe çocuklardan olumlu gelişmeleri görebiliyoruz, sezebiliyoruz.	Teachers' teaching perceptions Teachers' teaching technique Teacher's teaching environment and Teaching perception
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Appendix 8 Teacher Interview transcriptions in Turkish

Teacher 1 (T1)

Buyurun hocam, başlıyorum.

1.Eğitim ve mesleki geçmişinizden bahseder misiniz?

Erzurum Atatürk üniversitesinde lisans eğitimimi aldım, İngilizce öğretmenliği bölümünde. İşte 2003 yılında mezun oldum, mezun olduktan hemen sonra Kayseri'ye, Kayseri Yahyalı ilçesine bir liseye İngilizce öğretmeni olarak atandım. 2003 yılından itibaren bilfiil olarak İngilizce öğretmenliği yapmaktayım. İşte genelde lise seviyesinde öğrencilerle çalıştım. Yani kadrom hep lise seviyesindeydi daha çok, 1. yılımın akabinde öğretmen lisesine atandım. 2014 yılında yurtdışı görevine görevlendirildim, bu göreve gelene kadar hep öğretmen lisesinde çalıştım.

2.Peki, iki dilli çocuklara Türkçe öğretme amacınız nedir?

Bu görevle birlikte başladı aslında yani 2014 yılında bu göreve başladım. Bu görevinde gereği itibari ile yurtdışındaki Türk vatandaşlarına Türkçe ve Türk kültürü eğitimi öğretmek açısından bu görevde bulundum. Temelde temel amacımız kendi kültürlerini yaşamaları, unutmamaları, yaşatmaları, kendi dillerini unutmamaları. Çünkü başka bir ülke kültürü ve dili çatısı altında yaşadığınız zaman haliyle yoğunluğu itibari ile o ülkenin dilini kullanmak zorunda kalıyor. Okul dili neyse çocuğun sokaktaki dili de, çok sık kullandığı dili de o oluyor. Ama bizler istiyoruz ki, temelde devlet politikası olarak bu böyle çocuklarımız kendi benliklerini kaybetmesinler. Çünkü dil ve kültür birbirinden ayrılmayan iki unsur dolayısıyla ne kadar fazla kültürün içinde kalırsan dili de o kadar fazla yaşama şansın var. Bundan uzaklaşmasınlar, olabildiğince kendi kültürlerimizden örnekler sunalım onlara, o toplulukların içerisinde olsunlar. Tamam, var oldukları, yaşadıkları memleketlerin dillerini alsınlar, çok iyi seviyede kullansınlar, eğitimleri için bu çok önemli ama kendi ana vatanlarında yaşayan insanlarla da ortak paydada buluşabilmek için bir şekilde kendi dillerini unutmamaları gerekiyor. Kendi geçmişlerine sahip çıkabilmek için kendi dillerini ve kültürlerini unutmamaları gerekiyor. Burada bunu sağlamaya çalışıyoruz.

3.Sınıfta Türkçe öğretirken hangi yöntemleri ve stratejileri kullanıyorsunuz?

Değişiyor aslında. Tamamen sınıfın içerisinde bulunduğu ortama göre değişiyor.

-Bu sınıf için?

Bu sınıf için kullanırsak, şu anda bu sınıfta teknolojiden biraz uzağız. Maalesef kullanabileceğimiz bir bilgisayar, kullanabileceğimiz bir projeksiyon aleti yok, bulunmamakta. Dolayısıyla çocuklara görsellik bağlamında çok fazla şey sunamıyoruz. Daha çok işte öğretmen merkezli anlatım üzerinden, olabildiğince işte renkli görsellerle oluşturabileceği fotokopi kağıtları üzerinden ilerlemeye çalışıyoruz.

4.Kullandığınız bir ders kitabı var mı?

Kullandığım ders kitabı, salt bir ders kitabı yok. Sadece sene başında belirlemiş olduğumuz bir yıllık program var, plan var. Bu plana uygun olabilecek herhangi bir ders kitabı, herhangi bir internet ortamındaki kaynaktan faydalaniyorum. İşte ders öncesi hazırlıkta elimde var olan kitaplar. İşte yabancılara Türkçe öğretimi üzerine hazırlanmış olan kitaplar var. Bu kitaplardan tarıyorum. Bunlardan bulamazsam, internet üzerinden var olan online kaynakları değerlendirmeye çalışıyorum.

5.Kullanmıyor olsanız da Türkçeyi öğretmek için en iyi yöntem nedir?

Türkçeyi öğretmek için en iyi yöntem.

6.Kullanılabilecek en iyi yöntem?

Ya herhalde sadece Türkçe üzerinden değil ama belki orijinim İngilizce öğretmenliği olduğu için dil öğretimi üzerinden yola çıkabiliriz. Ya çocukların her şeyden önce hedef dile maruz kalabileceği bir ortam olması lazım. Çok fazla görmeli, çok fazla duymalı. Yani öyle bir ortam oluşturulabilmeli ki yani olabildiğince çocuklar her anında öğretilen dil ne ise işte bugün Türkçe. Türkçeyi, işte Türkçe panoları görmeli Türkçe işte sürekli duymalı. Olabildiğince fazla onu pratik edebileceğini ortamlar içerisinde bulunmalı. Ve ne kadar fazla bu hedef dile maruz kalırsa zaten çocuğun o kadar yaşatabileceği bir dil haline geliyor.

7.Bu sınıf için çocuklar en çok hangi tür aktivitelerden hoşlanıyor.

Çocuklar, bilhassa yaş grubu seviyesi üzerinden konuşursak tabii ki daha basit, oyun temelli, kendi yaşına uygun işte boyamalarla yapabileceği etkinliklerden çok daha fazla hoşlanıyorlar.

Henüz hem Türkçe hem de İngilizce seviyeleri çok iyi olmadığı için çok fazla kelime hazneleri de geniş olmadığı için şu anda tamamen sesler üzerinden onlarla çalışmalar yapıyorum ve seslerin öğretimi üzerinden boyamayla karışık materyaller sunuyorum onlara.

8.Çocuklar size ve öğrendiklerine karşı nasıl tepki veriyorlar? Yani verdiğiniz şeyi alabiliyor musunuz?

Yani şu an ki sınıf ortamında birden farklı seviyede öğrenciler olduğu için zamanımın hepsini sadece bu öğrencilere ayıramıyorum maalesef. Bu onlar için çok önemli ve benim için çok önemli bir dezavantaj. Ancak çocuklarla birebir ilgilendiğin zaman sana karşı olumlu dönütler verebildiğini görebiliyorsun. Çocuklara ne kadar fazla yükleme yapılırsa o kadarını alabiliyorlar. O noktada tamamen açıklar bu bizim için sevindirici bir durum. Ama dediğim gibi biraz önce bahsettiğim dezavantaj bizim elimizi kolumuzu bağlayan bir durum neredeyse bir 45 dakikalık bir dersin ancak yarısını 20 dakikasını onlarla geçirme fırsatım oluyor. Ancak bu yaş grubunda çocuklara tamamen direktifleri verip kendi başınıza yapın demek kolay bir şey değil çünkü çok fazla dikkatleri dağılabiliyor ve sürekli başında bulunmak isteyebiliyor, yönlendirmek isteyebiliyor. İşte bu sarf ettiğimiz 20 dakikalık süreç içerisinde genelde çalışmalarını olumlu buluyorum. Öğretmene karşı da yeterince pozitifler.

9.Öğrencilerin bu yılı tamamladıklarında hangi yetkinlik ve beceri seviyesine ulaşabileceklerini düşünüyorsunuz?

Temelde bu yaş grubu için bu senenin sonuna kadar bütün Türkçe alfabesinde bulunan sesleri tanımalarını, yazabilmelerini. Henüz kelime grubundan ziyade tamamen iki heceli belki üçüncü heceye gelebilecek kelimeleri çok rahat okuyup, yazma belki olamayabilir ama en azından okuyabilme durumuna getirmeyi amaçlıyorum.

10.Aile katılımını nasıl teşvik ediyorsunuz? Aile katılıyor mu ders öğretimine?

Aile çok fazla dersin içerisinde sınıfın içerisinde bulunmuyor. Ama çocukların ders içerisinde yaptığı etkinlikleri muhakkak dersin sonunda ailesine söylüyorum. Çocuklarımızla işte bugün bu etkinliği yaptık, bunları vermeye çalıştım. Evde sizde bunun üzerinden pratik yapar mısınız, yapsanız iyi olur gibi telkinlerde bulunuyoruz. Çocuklara da yaptığımız çalışmaları muhakkak çantalarında beraberinde götürmelerini ve ailelerinin görmelerini sağlıyorum. Umarım onlarda evde yapıyorlardır.

11.Çocukların Türkçe öğrenmesinin gelecekte onlara nasıl bir faydası olacağını düşünüyorsunuz?

Her şeyden önce ailesiyle çok daha iyi anlayacak, ailesini çok daha iyi anlayacak bireyler olacaklardır. Bir tık ötesine gidersek, daha büyük ebeveynlerini, dedelerini anneannelerini babaannelerini ya da Türkiye'deki akrabalarını anlayabilecek onlarla paylaşabilecek, paylaşacak bir konuma gelecekler. Bu şu açıdan önemli çocuklarımız genelde küçük yaşlarda Türkiye'yle olan ilişkilerini sıcak tutuyorlar ama yaş ilerlediği zaman Türkiye'ye karşı birazcık soğuk davranmaya başlıyorlar. Çünkü orada çok fazla paylaşımda bulunduğu kişiler bulunmamakta ya da kendilerini o rahatlıkta hissetmemekteler. Ya bu dilden dolayı ya oradaki yaşıntının kültürün başka olmasından dolayı şu anda içinde bulunduğu kültürün içerisinde kalmayı tercih ediyorlar. Dili ne kadar çok bilersen kültürünü de kadar çok bilirsin. Dolayısıyla ne kadar Türkçeleri iyi olursa ve gittikleri zaman oradaki paylaşımlarında kullanacakları dil Türkçe olacağı için kendilerini çok daha rahat hissedecekler ve bu ayaklarının birinin sürekli Türkiye'de kalmalarını ve memleketlerine, kendi topraklarına ve benliklerine bağlı kalmalarını sağlayacaktır.

12.Bu okulda öğretmenlik yaparken yaşadığınız olumlu ve olumsuz deneyimleriniz nelerdir?

Okul dediğimiz yer fiziksel şartlarından bahsetmiyoruz sanırım. Tabi bizim burada okul dediğimiz şey zorunlu bir eğitimden bahsetmiyoruz, tamamen yapmaya çalıştığımız gönüllülük üzerine kurulmuş bir eğitim. Ne kadar çok aile öğrencisini kendi çocuğunu buraya getirmeye ikna ederse, o kadar bizim daha fazla kişiye ulaşma şansımız var. Çünkü genelde bu yaş aralığında çocuklar, bu saatlerini hafta sonlarının bu saatlerini evde kendileri işte bilgisayar başında ya da telefon başında oyunlar oynayarak geçirmeyi isterler. Birçoğu da zaten buraya gelirken temelde bu bakış açısıyla haliyle de gönülsüz geliyorlar. Ama bilinçli aileler sayesinde bir şekilde bu öğrencileri burada toplama fırsatımız var. Bu bizim için önemli bir fırsat. Okul yönetimi bu noktada yeterince hassaslar, ellerinden geldiğince hem bizlere hem ailelere yardımcı oluyorlar. Ki onların da zaten kendi çocukları var bu işin içerisinde. Bu işten para kazanan ya da bu işi kendi çıkarları için yapan insanlar değiller. Yine bir şekilde buraya gelmiş, çocukların Türkçe eğitim almasını isteyen ama nispeten daha tecrübeli daha eğitilmiş olan insanların başını çektiği bir gruptan bahsediyoruz. Gayet yaklaşımları iyi, pozitif. Buradaki öğrencilerinde bu bağlamda iyi performanslar gösterdiğini düşünüyorum. Çünkü daha sıkıntılı grupların olduğu öğrenci toplulukları içerisinde de ders vermeye çalıştım. Yani tamamen

ailenin, binanın dıřında ocukları bırakıp gittiđini, hibir řekilde ierde ne olup bittiđini bilmeden davrandıđını grdüğüm gruplar ama ok řükür burada aileler sürekli bařlarında bu da önemli bir tecrübe.

Teacher 2 (T2)

1.Eğitim geçmişiniz.

Eğitim olarak sınıf öğretmenliği, eğitim fakültesi mezunuyum. Aynı zamanda eğitim programları ve öğretim alanında yüksek lisans yaptım.

Mesleki geçmişimde çeşitli derecelerde sınıflarda ders verdim. Ayrıca çeşitli kademelerde yetişkinlere ve çeşitli yaş gruplarına daha önce yabancı ve soydaş kökenli insanlara Türkçe dersleri verdim. Yaklaşık 20 yılı aşkın bir mesleki geçmişim var

2.İki dilli çocuklara Türkçe öğretme amacınız?

-iki dilli çocuklara Türkçe öğretme amacımız biliyorsunuz onlar bir şekilde Türk kökenli ailelerden geldikleri için. Biliyorsunuz bizim derslerimiz Türkçe ve Türk kültürü dersler. Aynı zamanda Türkçenin yanında Türk kültürüne ilişkin değerleri bilgileri ve normları da Türk yaşam biçimini tarihini bunları da öğretiyoruz. Bunun yanında Türkçe eğitimini alıyorlar. Buradaki amaç aslında çocukların beklentisine ve ailelerin beklentisine yönelik bir amaç. Çeşitli gruplar var ders verdiğimiz tabii ki homojen bir grup yok, hepsinin beklentisi farklı. Özel beklentisi farklı tabii. Ortak olarak genel anlamda çocukların Türkçeyi öğrenmeleri, geliştirmeleri, ilerletmeleri, Türkiye'ye gittiğinde bu dili kullanabilmeleri, akrabalarıyla konuşurken bir şekilde kullanmaları, Türkiye'de yaşadıkları dönemde zorlanmadan bu dili kullanmaları. Bunun dışında Türkçe kitap okuyabilmeleri, iletişim kurabilmeleri, eğitimlerinde çeşitli sınavlarında bu sınavları aşmaları konusunda Türkçenin de yardımcı olacağını düşünen aileler var. Beklentilerimiz genel anlamda birbiriyle örtüştüğü için onların amaçlarıyla bizim amaçlarımız genel anlamda birbiriyle kesişiyor.

3.Türkçe öğretirken hangi yöntemleri kullanıyorsunuz.

Sınıfta Türkçe öğretirken genellikle çocuklara çeşitli buluş yoluyla öğrenme yöntemini daha çok kullanıyoruz yani onların bilgilerinden hareketle öğrendiklerinden ve hazır bulunuşluk düzeylerinden hareketle yeni öğrenme alanları oluşturup onları çocuklara öğretme. Onun dışında gösterip yaptırma, çocuklara görseller sunma, onların bu görseller aracılığıyla yeni kelimeler öğrenmesi, onların bu öğrendikleri kelimeleri kullanması bunun dışında şarkı öğretimi, film ve çeşitli kukla tarzı gösteriler, bunlar yani çeşitli materyallerle farklı öğrenme

yöntemleri kullanıyoruz. Bu daha çok öğrencilerin yaş grubuna ve öğrencilerin seviyelerine bağlı olabiliyor. Çok farklı yöntemler kullanmamız gerekebiliyor. Bunları genel olarak sayabiliriz.

4.Bunları yaparken kullandığınız bir kitap var mı?

Takip ettiğim bir kitap. Biliyorsunuz bu en önemli sorunumuz bizim. Bizim kullandığımız bir kitap yok. Kullandığımız çeşitli kitaplar var ama bizim derslerimizi takip ettiğimiz bir kitap yok. Bu hem böyle bir kitap olmadığı için yok hem de öyle bir kitap ne kadar yeterli olabilir o da çok tartışmamız gerekiyor. Çünkü yaş grupları farklı öğrenme grupları farklı, beklentiler farklı. Bu anlamda bizler, ben ve benim iletişim kurduğum bütün arkadaşlarım tüm eğitim materyallerini kendimiz hazırlıyoruz. Bir ortak havuzda bazen paylaşımlarda bulunuyoruz. Bu daha sağlıklı olabiliyor aslında. Bir kitaptan ziyade öğrencilerin seviyesine göre, yaş grubuna göre, bulunduğumuz, iletişim kurduğumuz gruba göre oluşturduğumuz materyaller daha faydalı olabiliyor. Ama çeşitli kitaplardan da faydalanabiliyoruz. Bu bir harman yapıyoruz daha doğrusu. Bunun dışında evet kendi materyalimizi kendimiz üretiyoruz.

5.Sınıfta çocuklar hangi aktivitelerden daha çok hoşlanıyor Türkçe öğrenirken?

Sınıfta çocuklar genellikle benim gözlemlediğim kadarıyla drama aktivitelerinden daha çok hoşlanıyorlar. Yani bir anlatılan bir hikâyeyi kendileri canlandırmalı ve en çok hoşlandıkları aktivite genelde bulmaca çözme, kelime yerleştirme, eşleştirme gibi yani kendilerinin çözerek bulduğu aktiviteler onların epeyce olayın içine konunun içine girmelerini sağlıyor.

6.Çocuklar öğrendiklerini nasıl gösteriyorlar, bunu fark edebiliyor musunuz çocuklarda?

Çok kısa vadede bunu bazen alamıyoruz. Çünkü bazı gruplarımızda çocuklar sadece sınıfta öğrendiklerini kullanıyorlar, evde Türkçe konuşulmadığı için, ya da Türkçeyle ilgili bir yaşantı olmadığı için film izleme anlamında olsun televizyon anlamında olsun, arkadaş grubu olarak da genellikle Manchester bölgesinde aileler dağınık yaşadığı için çocukların Türkçe konuşabilecek akran grupları da yok. Genellikle çocukların öğrendikleri sınıf ortamında kalıyor biliyorsunuz okullar da çocukların ödevleri olduğu için çok fazla biz ev çalışması da vermiyoruz. Verdiğimiz zamanda zaten çok fazla dönüt geri alamıyoruz. O noktada sınıfta öğrenilen ne kadar ilgi çekiciye sınıfta kalıyor. Bir şekilde biz bu sınıftaki öğrenmeyi, sınıftaki süreyi verimli kullanmaya çalışıyoruz. Ama zaman geçtikçe çocukların tepkilerinden

kurdukları cümlelerden kullandıkları kelimelerden epeyce yol kat ettiğimizi görüyoruz. Özellikle şarkılar söylendiği zaman, aileler söylüyorlar, evlerde de çocuklar şarkıları kullanıyorlar. Genellikle velilerden daha çok geri bildirim alıyorum. Yani ben çocukların evlerde ne yaptığı Türkçeyle olan iletişimi konusunda bizim diğer sıkıntımız da ebeveynlerin bir tanesinin genellikle yabancı olması bu nedenle Türkçe konuşulmaması ama süreç ilerledikçe çocuklardan olumlu gelişmeleri görebiliyoruz, sezebiliyoruz.

7.Çocuklar Türkçe öğrendiğinde bunun onların geleceğine ne gibi katkısı olacağını düşünüyorsunuz?

Sadece Türkçe değil herhangi bir dil öğrenmek insana bir katkı sağlar. Sonuçta bu çocuklar, Türkçe bu konuda daha özel, herhangi bir dilden öteye başka bir önemi var bu çocukların yaşantısında. Birincisi kendileri Türkiye kökenli Türk kökenli ailelerden geldikleri için bir kere Türk kültürüne ve Türkiye'deki bağlantılarına köklerine uzaklaşmıyorlar ve oradaki iletişimi, oradaki ilişkiyi devam ettiriyorlar. Ve gittiklerinde çoğu, pek çoğu Türkiye'ye gidiyor tatillerinde ya da çeşitli zamanlarda bu öğrendiklerini orada kullandıklarında gerçekten mutlu oluyorlar. Ben onların bu şeylerini de görüyorum çocuklarda bu yaklaşımlarını da görüyorum. Onun dışında bir dil öğrenmek, Türkçe öğrenmek, çocuklara hem akademik anlamda hem de yaşantı anlamında katkılarının olacağını düşünüyorum. Hayatın çeşitli alanlarında mutlaka kullanacaklardır, mutlaka kendilerine faydaları olacaktır diye düşünüyorum.

Teacher 3 (T3)

1. İki Dilli çocuklara Türkçe öğretiminde amacın nedir?

İki dilli çocukların Türkçe öğretimindeki amacım. Şimdi köken olarak bu çocuklar Türk çocuklar ve ana dillerini öğrenmesi sonuçta burada doğup büyüyorlar evet İngilizceleri anadilleri oluyor ama kökenlerini unutmaması açısından Türkçeyi öğrenmeleri gerekiyor. Bu açıdan önemli olduğunu düşünüyorum.

2. Türkçe kursunda ne tür dersler veriyorsunuz?

Okulumuzda evet Türkçe ve din kültürü dersi var ama ben Türkçe dersine giriyorum. Genel itibari ile 3 seviye sınıfımız var. En küçük seviyede, Anaokulu seviyesindeki çocuklar, onun bir üst grubu 9-11 yaş grubu, en büyük sınıfta da Türkçesi en iyi olan çocuklar var. Sınıflara ayırırken Türkçe seviyelerinden ziyade yaş gruplarına göre ayırdık ki hiç bilmeyen, sonuçta hiç Türkçe bilmeyenlerde var. İşte peer education, akran eğitimi ile onlar da bir şeyler kapabilsin maksadıyla, o şekilde sınıflara ayırdık. Seviyelerine göre eğitim veriyoruz

3. Haftada ne kadar süre ile eğitim veriyorsunuz?

Her bir çocuk haftada 2 saat Türkçe dersi alıyor. 1 saatte din kültürü dersleri var.

4. Türkçe öğretirken nasıl bir yol izliyorsunuz?

Okulumuzda bir tane Türkçe öğretmenimiz var, onun önderliğinde ondan yardım alarak, bende bir şeyler ekliyorum. Eklediğim şeyler neler onu söyleyeyim, geçen sene yabancı bir dil olarak bende İngilizceyi öğrendim. Dil kursunda hatırladığım, aklıma gelen nitelikte ne bileyim işte böyle eğlenceye daha yönelik, o tarz şeyler yapmaya çalışıyorum ama temelinde Türkçe öğretmenin verdiği şeyler oluyor.

5. Çocuklar Türkçeyi günlük yaşamlarında nerede ve nasıl kullanıyorlar?

Şimdi aile profillerine baktığımız zaman bazı çocukların ya annesi ya da babası Türk oluyor ya da ikisi birden Türk olan çocuklarda işimiz çok daha kolay. Çünkü evde genel itibari ile Türkçe konuşuluyor. Ama Anne ya da babanın İngiliz olduğu ya da başka milletten olduğu durumlarda zannediyorum ki genel itibari ile İngilizce konuşuyorlar. Konuşuluyorsa Türkçe o şekilde konuşuluyordur ama gördüğüm kadarıyla ders dışında teneffüslerde de çocuklar

İngilizce konuşuyor. Hani sadece Türkçesi çok çok iyi olan çocuklar Türkçe konuşuyor diye düşünüyorum. Ama onun haricinde İngilizce daha kolaylarına gittiği için genel itibari ile İngilizce konuşuyorlar.

6. Sizin kullandığınız yöntem çocukların Türkçeyi öğrenmelerinde etkili mi?

Çok spesifik bir yöntem söyleyemeyeceğim, ama sonuçta hitap ettiğiniz topluluk çocuklar sadece çocuklar değil büyüklere dahi yeni bir dil öğretirken bu şekilde olması gerektiğini düşünüyorum. Hani oyuna yönelik olmalı, oyunla bütünleştirilmeli, eğlenceli olmalı bu tarz bir yöntem evet etkili olduğunu düşünüyorum.

7. Türkçe öğretirken ne tür sorunlarla karşılaşıyorsunuz?

Şimdi çocukların, sonuçta bu destekleme maksatlı ekstra verilen bir aktivite hafta içi normal dersleri var hafta sonu buraya geliyorlar. İşte yeri geliyor bazen evet derslerimiz sıkıcı da olabiliyor. Bu tarz bir problem olabilir. Sıkılmalarını anlayabiliyorum çünkü çocuklar.

-Sıkılmalarının nedenleri neler?

Sonuçta sınıfta her seviye Türkçesi olan çocuklar var. E hepsine hitap edebilecek nitelikte bir şeyi tutturmak zor olabiliyor bazen. O açıdan, işte tamam genel itibari ile Türkçe konuşuyorum derste ama mesela hiç Türkçe bilmeyen çocukta var sınıfta e bu uyumu yakalayabilmek biraz sıkıntı olabiliyor.

8. Sorunların çözümüne yönelik ne tür önerileriniz var?

Neler olabilir. Şimdi aslında bu bir sorun olarak gözüküyor ama akran eğitiminin gerçekten çok çok önemli olduğunu düşünen biri olarak ilerleyen dönemde çok faydalı olacağını düşünüyorum. Evet başlangıçta çok zorlanıyor, belki hiçbir şey anlamıyor ama o ilerleyen dönemde illaki daha fazla gelişim, çünkü tam öğrenme çağındalar bu çocuklar yaş itibari ile daha kolay bir şekilde ilerleme göstereceklerini düşünüyorum. Onun haricinde.

Daha profesyonel eğiticimler olabilir. Teknolojiyi daha etkin bir şekilde kullanmamız gerekiyor. Şu aşamada eski sistem yapıyoruz ama evet daha teknoloji odaklı şeyler kullanmamız lazım. Evet tabi dersi işlerken daha eğlenceli hala getirmek önemli daha önce de söylediğim gibi.

Teacher 4 (T4)

1 İki dilli çocuklara Türkçe öğretiminde amacın nedir?

İki dil konuşan çocuklar, gurbette yani farklı bir ülkede kendi kültürlerini kendi dillerini unutmaması için kendi özünü unutmaması için bu dili öğrenmesini amaçlıyoruz. Türk kültürünü ve Türkçeyi öğrenmesi kendileri içinde ayrı bir artı oluyor hayatlarında. Aynı zamanda kendi içinde Türkiye'ye gittiklerinde akrabalarıyla bir araya geldikleri zaman bu dili kullanabildiğini diğer akrabalarına arkadaşlarına gösterebiliyor bu şekilde.

2. Türkçe kursunda ne tür dersler veriyorsunuz?

Türkçe kursunda öncelikle amacımız Türkçe okuma ve yazmasını öğrenmesi ve Türk kültürüyle ilgili çalışmalar yapıyoruz. Ama Türkçe dersinin arasında zaman zaman matematikle ilgili çalışmalar da yapıyoruz. Çünkü sayıların Türkçesini ya da ritmik saymayı Türkçe olarak yapabilmeyi öğrenmeleri onlar için iyi oluyor. Çünkü zaman zaman bazı öğrenciler Türkiye'ye dönüş yapmak zorunda kalıyor oradaki okullara alışabilmesi için farklı konuları da veriyoruz ama genel olarak Türkçe okuma yazma ve Türkçe Türk kültürüyle ilgili etkinlikler. Mesela örnek verecek olursak Türkiye'deki düğünler gibi, Türkiye'deki yemekler gibi bölgesel olarak ülkemizin ünlü olan yerleri, ünlü olan ürünleri bu derslerde anlatılıyor.

3. Haftada ne kadar süre ile eğitim veriyorsunuz?

Ortalama olarak her Türk okulunda haftada 1 kez derse giriyoruz ancak bazı okullarda 2 defada girdiğimiz oluyor. Haftada 1 veya 2 diyebiliriz.

4. Türkçe öğretirken nasıl bir yol izliyorsunuz?

Türkçe öğretirken tabii ki burada yurtdışında yaşayan çocuklarımızın durumunu bilmemiz gerekiyor. Türkiye'deki okula giden çocuklar gibi değil buradaki çocuklar, daha çok İngilizce ile iç içe oldukları için biraz daha İngilizceden faydalanmamız gerekiyor yer yer. Farklı kelimelerin İngilizce karşılığını öğretmek onların Türkçe öğrenmelerini sağlayabiliyoruz. Bunun dışında şarkılar, şiirler Türkçe öğretmek için bizim için çok önemli bir yol oluyor. Çocuklar hem eğlenerek öğrenmiş oluyorlar hem de şarkıların ve şiirlerin kısa olması onların akılda kalmasını sağlıyor. O kelimeler daha iyi akılda kalıyor. Tekrar ettikçe müzik eşliğinde olunca o konuları daha iyi öğrenebiliyor çocuklar. Bunun dışında yaptığımız bulmaca

etkinlikleri, soru cevap etkinlikleri, resim ve altında o resmin altında ne ile ilgili olduğunu yazdırmak çocukların yazma ve okuma becerilerini daha da geliştiriyor.

5. Çocuklar Türkçeyi günlük yaşamlarında nerede ve nasıl kullanıyorlar?

Bunu şu şekilde gruplandırabiliriz. Eğer çocuğun ailesi anne ve baba ikisi de Türk ise gününün büyük bir bölümünde Türkçe kullanabiliyor. Sadece okulda İngilizce kullanıyor ama eve geldiğinde annesiyle babasıyla konuşurken Türkçe konuşabiliyor. Yeri geldiğinde Türk televizyonları izleyebiliyor ve anlayabiliyor. Ama anne ya da babasından biri İngilizse, yabancı uyrukluysa o zaman iş biraz değişiyor. Burada annenin veya babanın İngiliz olması durumu fark ettiriyor. Mesela anne İngiliz olunca iş biraz daha sıkıntı oluyor. Çünkü çocuk evde hep anneye muhatap baba çalıştığı için annesiyle de İngilizce konuşmaya devam ediyor. Evde İngiliz televizyonu izliyor. Evde internete giriyor İngilizce oyunlar farklı etkinlikler İngilizce olarak bunları öğrendiği zaman devamlı İngilizcenin içinde ve bunlarda biraz daha zorlanıyoruz biz. Ama baba İngilizse bu kadar zorlanmıyoruz çünkü baba zaten çoğu zaman işte oluyor ve evde anne Türk. Ve Türk olduğu zaman biraz daha Türkçeyle içli dışlı oluyor. Tabii ki anne babanın Türk olduğu gibi de bir şey olmuyor, çok daha iyi bir de Türkçe seviyesi olmuyor ama diğerine göre bir nebze daha iyi oluyor. Ama çocuklar bu hayatlarında evde konuşarak, kitap okuyarak Türkiye'deki akrabalarıyla Türkçe konuşarak bu Türkçeyi kullanabiliyorlar.

6. Sizin kullandığınız yöntem çocukların Türkçeyi öğrenmelerinde etkili mi?

Tabii ki etkili. Zaten bunlarda belli bir süre içerisinde tecrübe edilerek ortaya çıkıyor. Yani bize gönderilen Türkiye'den gelen kitaplar yer yer işimize yaramıyor. Çünkü onlar buradaki öğrencilerin durumuna göre hazırlanmadığını düşünüyorum. Onun için biz bazı okullara giderek tecrübe sonucunda böyle bir sistem ortaya çıkarıyoruz. Yani her ülkedeki çocukların yetişme şekli çok farklı, onun için ona uygun olarak biz farklı okullarda farklı sistemleri uyguluyoruz. Bazılarında olumlu sonuç aldıklarımızı bir araya getirerek böyle bir sistem ortaya çıkardığımız zaman hem çocuklar öğrenirken mutlu olmuş oluyorlar, bir şeyler öğrendiklerini fark etmiş oluyorlar bu bizim için daha iyi oluyor.

7. Türkçe öğretirken ne tür sorunlarla karşılaşıyorsunuz?

Şimdi özellikle buradaki Türkçe kurslarındaki Türk okullarındaki en büyük sorunumuz bunların okul gibi değil de sadece öğrencilerin inisiyatifine bağlı olarak yapılan kurslar olması. Yani çocuklar buraya geldiği zaman nasıl birisi futbol kursuna gidip futbol öğreniyorsa, müzik kursuna gidip, piyano kursuna gidip piyano çalmayı öğrenip zevkli bir etkinlik bir hobi gibi değerlendiriyorsa Türkçe dersini de onun gibi değerlendiriyor. Bu şekilde olunca biz çocukları çok sıkmamamız gerekiyor. Çünkü sıkıldığınız zaman ben gitmek istemiyorum, ben bir daha gelmeyeceğim gibi yaklaşımlar oluyor. E tabi bu da herhangi bir yaptırım gücümüzün olmamasından da kaynaklanıyor. Tabii ki çocuğa bir not verme gibi veya herhangi bir şekilde değerlendirme sürecimiz çok fazla bu şekilde kâğıt üzerinde olmuyor. Onun için biz çocukları derse ısındırmada sıkıntı çekiyoruz başlarda ama çocuklar bunun zevkli bir şey olduğunu ben bunu öğrendiğim zaman başka yerlerde de kullanabiliyorum diye aklının bir kenarında olduğu zaman ondan zevk almaya başlıyor. Yani çocuk evde gidip annesine biz bugün işte şunu öğrendik, bak bu da varmış, şöyle bir şarkı varmış sana okuyayım mı dediği zaman o işten zevk almaya başlıyor. Yani Türkçeyi zevkli hala getirmek bizim amacımız bu oluyor genelde.

8. Sorunların çözümüne yönelik ne tür önerileriniz var?

Bu sorunların çözümü için birebir velilerle diyalog halinde olmamız gerektiğini düşünüyorum. Yani arada bir mutlaka velinin çocuğumun durumu nasıl deyip bizle istibat halinde olması en önemli faktör oluyor bu konularda. İkincisi de çocukların bu seviyelerine uygun yani buna yönelik ders kitaplarının hazırlanması çok faydalı olacaktır. Yani biz yeri geldiğinde hep fotokopilerden faydalaniyoruz farklı yerlerden. Çocuk okuduğu zaman çok ağır parçaların, Türkçe parçaların olması onu sıkıyor. Daha çok böyle yurtdışında Türkçeyi öğrenebilecek çocuklar için eğlenceli bir halde Türkçeyi öğretmek en büyük avantajımız olacak. Bunun dışında bazı yerlerde çocuklar camiiler gidiyor. Camilere gitmesi de artı bir faktör oluyor. Çünkü camide öğrendiği konular onun Türkçe olarak okumasını biraz daha geliştiriyor. Biz cami okullarında da derse girdiğimiz için şöyle bir karşılaştırma yapabiliyoruz cami okullarına giden çocuklar Türkçe okuması daha iyi. Yani bunu söyleyebiliriz. Çünkü orada devamlı Türkiye’den gelen kişiler eğitim veriyor. Ve devamlı Türkçe konuşuluyor. Ve aynı zamanda bazı dualar olsun işte onların verdikleri bilgileri Türkçe olarak yazıldığı için hep Türkçeyle daha çok içli dışlı oluyor bunu da ayrı bir faktör olarak söyleyebiliriz.

Teacher 5 (T5)

1 İki dilli çocuklara Türkçe öğretiminde amacın nedir?

Bu çocuklar İngiltere’de yaşadığı için zaten buranın dilini çok kolay öğrenebiliyorlar. Fakat neticede anne ve babaları Türk, Türkçeyi de bilmeleri gerekiyor. Şahsen ben anadilin kaybolmaması ve korunması gerektiğine inananlardanım. Dolayısıyla onların kendi dillerini öğrenmesi için burada bir Türkçe eğitiminin yapılmasının gerekliliğini düşünüyorum. O yüzden derslerimde Türkçeyi kullanmaya gayret ediyorum.

2. Türkçe kursunda ne tür dersler veriyorsunuz?

Burada genelde iki tür ders veriliyor. Birincisi Türkçe ve kültür, kültürün anlatıldığı ders. Sadece Türkçe öğretilmiyor aynı zamanda Türk kültürü de öğretilmeye çalışılıyor. Milli bayramlar kutlanmaya çalışılıyor. Hatırlatılmaya çalışılıyor. Ayrıyeten işte büyük bir kısmı Müslüman olan Türkiye’nin kendi buradaki Türklerin kendi çocuklarına kendi dini inançlarını öğretmeye çalışmasından kaynaklanan sebeplerden dolayı aynı zamanda bir din eğitimi de verilmeye çalışılıyor. Bu da Türkçe olarak yapılıyor ki yine o Türkçe konuşmaları sağlansın. Türkçe öğrenmeleri ve hem dini bilgilerini hem de Türkçelerini geliştirmelerine yardımcı olma amacıyla bu yolu izliyoruz.

3. Haftada ne kadar süre ile eğitim veriyorsunuz?

Ben sadece 1 saatlik derse katılıyorum ama çocuklar benden önce gelip birkaç saat fazla derse katılıyorlar.

4. Türkçe öğretirken nasıl bir yol izliyorsunuz?

Daha çok görsel. Ben bilgisayarımı getiriyorum her hafta PowerPoint slaytlar kullanarak anlatmaya çalışıyorum. Çünkü görsellik kattığımızda onların anlamasını kolaylaştırıyor. Aynı zamanda işte konuşulurken daha açık seçik anlaşılır bir şekilde. Çünkü bazen özellikle deyimleri anlamakta zorlanıyorlar. Duymadıkları konularda yeni terimlerde anlamakta zorlanıyorlar. Değişik şekillerde ifade ederek anlatmaya çalışıyorum. Bazen oyunlar oynuyoruz. Grup çalışması yapabiliyoruz. Ders sonunda eğer vakit kalırsa bir 10 dakika oyuna competitiona ayırıyoruz. Orada bir yarışma oluyor. Bu şekilde işlemeye çalışıyorum genelde.

6.Çocuklara Türkçe öğretiminde sizin yaklaşımınızın pozitif etkisi olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz ya da pozitif etkisi olması için nasıl yaklaşıyorsunuz çocuklara?

Ya ben etkili olduğumu düşünüyorum en azından şöyle derste yani şöyle neticede ben master yapıyorum ve söylediğim şeyin İngilizcesini de biliyorum. Bunun İngilizcesini söylemek yerine ısrarla Türkçesini söylemeyi tercih ediyorum. Onların anlamasını ve öğrenmesini destek olmaya çalışıyorum. Türkçe konuşmam ve Türkçe olarak anlatmamın onların Türkçeyi öğrenmelerinde faydalı olduğunu düşünüyorum.

5. Çocuklar Türkçeyi günlük yaşamlarında nerede ve nasıl kullanıyorlar?

Ben şunu fark ettim çocuklar yaşı büyük olanların Türkçeyi tercih ettiklerini gördüm. 12-13se eğer Türkçeyi tercih ediyorlar. Ama yaşları daha küçükse derste belki Türkçe konuşmaya zorluyorlar kendilerini ama teneffüse çıktıklarında veya bir problem Türkçe olarak ifade edemediğinde hemen kolayına geliyor İngilizce ve onunla ifade edebildiklerini fark ettim. Özellikle teneffüslerde İngilizceyi tercih ettiklerini gördüm yani belki biz derste ısrarla Türkçe öğrenmeleri için gayret ediyoruz onlarda bu gayretimize karşılık veriyorlar, gayret gösteriyorlar ama zorlandıklarında Türkçeyi anlatmakta hemen İngilizceye çevirip o şekilde devam ettiklerini gördüm.

6. Sizin kullandığınız yöntem çocukların Türkçeyi öğrenmelerinde etkili mi?

7. Türkçe öğretirken ne tür sorunlarla karşılaşıyorsunuz?

Daha önce söylediğim gibi soyu şeylerin anlatılması biraz zor. Özellikle deyimlerin anlatılması biraz zor yani. Ve bazı terimlerin ifade edilmesi anlaşılması zor. Terim zaten kendi dilinde de zordur yani birçok insan tarafından bilinmez. Biz çocuklara terim öğretmeye çalıştığımızda zorlanıyorlar haliyle yani. Detaylı bir açıklama yapmanız gerekiyor. Deyimlerin öğretilmesi zor yani onun dışında çok bir problemle karşılaşmıyorum. Zamanla zaten yaşları büyüdükçe Türkçeyi daha iyi kullandıkları gördüm bazı büyük çocuklardan.

8. Sorunların çözümüne yönelik ne tür önerileriniz var?

Deyimler günlük hayatta kullanılmazsa öğrenilmez. Bunun dışında buradaki Türkçe derslerine ve Türkçenin öğretilmesine katkı olması bakımından bakanlığın buradaki okullara. Unofficial bir okul burası. Kitap desteği olabilir, öğretmen desteği olabilir. Şu anda 30a yakın öğrenci var ve 1 tane resmi olarak gönderilen Türkçe öğretmeni var, diğerleri burada gönüllü olarak çalışıyor. Yani bundan dolayı daha birkaç, daha 2-3 tane daha resmi öğretmen sağlansa, kitap desteği sağlansa, geziler yapılsa bu communityle beraber Türkiye gezisi olabilir veya büyükelçilik olabilir, herhangi bir şekilde yani Türkçeyi konuşabilecekleri bir ortam olabilir bu şekilde desteklenebilirlerse Türkçeyi daha iyi öğrenebileceklerini düşünüyorum. Bu noktada hem bakanlığın hem buradaki insanların buraya katılması desteklemesi önemli.

Appendix 9 Analysis of Frogs Turkish transcriptions of Ayhan Aksu-Koc, and Aarssen and Bos (CHILDES – TALKBANK)

See the link: <https://childes.talkbank.org/access/Frogs/>

Data

Ages	TNW	NDW	Morphemes	productivity
4-year-old (n=6)	95.50(91.23)	47.67(41.92)	168.80(132.58)	94.61(88.96)
5-year-old (n=9)	98.00(68.24)	51.22(32.58)	168.50(94.08)	99.67(67.90)
6-year-old (n=11)	91.09(92.30)	44.18(44.63)	199.00(135.66)	93.33(94.31)
7-year-old (n=2)	84.50(119.50)	48.50(68.59)	268.00	89.00(125.87)
Total(n=28)	90.55(81.78)	45.86(39.79)	184.18(114.02)	92.05(82.44)

Monolingual children perform more highly than bilingual children in all productivity levels (TNW, NDW, TNM), however, as children get older the morpheme score increases for both groups.

Aksu-Koc and Aarssen and Bos transcriptions data

The Turkish 5-year-old (n=7), 6-year-old (n=6) and 7-year-old (n=3) monolingual children were randomly selected to investigate their Turkish narrative story telling productivity (total number of words, number of different words and total number of morphemes) on the Talkbank (CHILDES system).

Means

Ages	TNW	NDW	Morphemes	productivity
4-year-old (n=5)	123.60(40.46)	60.20(13.81)	190.40(70.56)	124.73(41.40)
5-year-old (n=7)	203.00(114.31)	99.57(37.57)	330.71(170.61)	211.10(106.78)
6-year-old (n=6)	204.67(194.09)	103.83(75.05)	360.17(325.10)	222.89(197.85)
7-year-old (n=3)	346.00(141.27)	145.33(51.87)	529.67(196.92)	340.33(129.92)
Total(n=16)	205.00(142.48)	97.95(53.32)	334.14(226.13)	212.37(140.17)

When the productivity elements (TNW, NDW and TNM) of monolingual children were counted by age, it is shown that older children perform better than younger children. They produced more words and morphemes.

Correlations

		1	2	3	4	5
1	Age	-				
2	TR_TNW	.34	-			
3	TR_NDW	.41	.96**	-		
4	TR_morpheme	.38	.98**	.97**	-	
5	TR_productivity	.39	.99**	.97**	.99**	-

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

A spearman's correlation was run to determine the relationship between monolingual children's age and their productivity scores. There was a strong positive correlation between productivity elements itself but there is no correlation between age and productivity elements.

Regression Analysis

	B	Coefficients std. error	Beta	t	p
TNW	60.53	29.00	.43	2.09	.05
NDW	24.60	10.63	.47	2.32	.03
TNM	99.10	45.69	.45	2.17	.04
Productivity	61.41	28.32	.45	2.17	.04

A number of linear regressions were carried out to investigate if age significantly predicted monolingual children's narrative productivity. The results of the linear regression analysis for narrative productivity shows that there is a significant effect of age.

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