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**English in the Expanding Circle:  
Elements for a comparative study of the sociolinguistic  
profile of English in Turkey and Portugal**

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To Majed AlkHateeb, who always made me believe in myself.

Thank you for always being there for me.

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## ABSTRACT

This dissertation discusses the sociolinguistic profile of English in two Expanding Circle countries, Turkey and Portugal. The use of English in functional domains typically affected by English in such speech communities is assessed through the observation of its use in the media, the tourism sector and shop naming. The dissertation then examines the circumstances in which English is taught and learned in the subject countries, considering in particular the history and current status of English language teaching in each of them, the attitudes, especially of learners, towards the English language, and the levels of proficiency in English in both speech communities.

Results from the investigation reveal that English is less present in Turkey than in Portugal within the domains of media and tourism, though its relevance in shop naming practices is similar in both countries. The teaching/learning circumstances of English are found to be quite different in the two speech communities, with the maintenance, in Turkey, of more traditional methodologies and less successful results, as proficiency indexes remain lower in Turkey than in Portugal. Attitudes to English prove to be favourable in Portugal and mixed in Turkey.

The sociolinguistic profile of English and Turkey proves therefore to be different, though both countries are growingly dependent on English and not so distant members of its Expanding Circle.

**Keywords:** Sociolinguistic profile, domains of use, English language teaching, language attitudes, proficiency

## RESUMO

A expansão da língua inglesa pelo globo resultou no crescimento exponencial do número de falantes para além das Ilhas Britânicas, podendo afirmar-se que o inglês é hoje usado em todo o mundo. Esse uso é, contudo, diferenciado, apresentando o inglês funções diferentes em diferentes contextos sociolinguísticos. É usado como língua nativa em vários territórios (ex: Reino Unido), mas em muitos outros países (exs.: Índia, Singapura, Quénia) é usado como segunda língua, entendida como código para comunicação intra-nacional através de diversos grupos linguísticos, étnicos e religiosos (Kachru, 1992b: 8-9) e por isso adotado em contextos institucionais relacionados com a administração, o direito, o ensino, entre outros. Para além disso, o inglês é hoje usado nos territórios remanescentes como língua estrangeira e de comunicação internacional, sendo a escolha mais frequente na interação com falantes nativos e sobretudo não nativos de inglês (ex.: Brasil, Rússia). Esta diversidade no uso e funções da língua inglesa foi sistematizada por Kachru (1985) através do Modelo dos Três Círculos, que distingue os círculos interno, externo e em expansão. Estes correspondem, simplificada e respetivamente, aos territórios em que o inglês é usado como língua nativa, segunda ou estrangeira.

O presente trabalho debruça-se sobre dois países que integram o círculo em expansão, a Turquia e Portugal. Apesar de partilharem o uso do inglês como língua estrangeira ou internacional, estas comunidades linguísticas apresentam níveis de expansão do inglês e proficiência na língua aparentemente diversos, merecendo por isso um estudo

comparativo que não foi até à data feito. O seu propósito principal é contribuir para a descrição do perfil sociolinguístico do inglês nestes dois países.

A noção de perfil sociolinguístico é, assim, central neste trabalho. Introduzido por Ferguson (1967), este conceito tem sido frequentemente usado na descrição do uso do inglês pelo globo e é explicado por Berns, de Bot and Hasebrink (2007: 15) como um termo que atende tanto aos usos como aos utilizadores da língua inglesa numa determinada comunidade, considerando a sua história, domínios funcionais de utilização, papel no sistema de ensino, níveis de proficiência, e atitudes de falantes e aprendentes.

Tendo este objetivo principal em mente, este estudo pretende mais precisamente (1) avaliar a extensão da presença da língua inglesa na Turquia e em Portugal em domínios funcionais em que o inglês é frequentemente usados nos países do Círculo em Expansão; (2) comparar as circunstâncias em que o ensino e a aprendizagem do inglês decorrem nos dois países, incluindo as atitudes dos alunos em relação ao idioma; e, finalmente, (3) considerar o possível impacto dos fatores mencionados acima na proficiência dos alunos nas duas comunidades.

Se bem que não tenha sido feito, até à data, qualquer estudo comparativo do perfil sociolinguístico do inglês na Turquia e em Portugal, há já vários estudos sobre o uso do inglês em cada um destes dois países, que têm, portanto, informação de grande relevo para este tópico. Assim sendo, o propósito deste trabalho é prioritariamente sistematizar e comparar a informação disponível sobre o tópico em estudo, sendo esta completada com o levantamento de novos dados apenas quando necessário.

A dissertação é composta por uma Introdução, em que se explica os objetivos e motivações do estudo. A esta segue-se o segundo capítulo, no qual se apresenta o enquadramento teórico da investigação. Começa por resumir-se as motivações e resultados da expansão do inglês pelo globo, fazendo-se particular referência ao surgimento e recente reconhecimento dos “World Englishes”, aos principais modelos de sistematização destas variedades - em particular ao Modelo dos Três Círculos de Braj Kachru (1985) e respectivo significado – e à relevância do uso do inglês como língua franca. Concentrando-se em seguida no círculo em expansão das variedades da língua inglesa, este capítulo identifica os contextos funcionais em que o inglês é tipicamente usado em tais comunidades linguísticas (investigação científica, ensino superior, publicidade, negócios, cultura popular, *média*, turismo); introduz as principais questões que enquadram o ensino/aprendizagem da língua inglesa dois países, com particular referência à importância da aprendizagem do inglês por via informal no mundo contemporâneo; apresenta o conceito de atitude em contexto sociolinguístico e a sua relevância para a aprendizagem de uma nova língua e proficiência na mesma; e, finalmente, identifica as principais publicações sobre o uso do inglês na Turquia e em Portugal, sumariando as mais relevantes.

O terceiro capítulo centra-se no uso da língua inglesa em três domínios funcionais na Turquia e Portugal, nomeadamente nos *media*, turismo e nomes de lojas. Esta escolha resulta do facto de estes serem dos contextos de uso de inglês mais frequentes no círculo em expansão. Na sequência de uma descrição autónoma dos dois países, comprova-se que em Portugal o uso de inglês é mais comum do que na Turquia no contexto dos *media* e do turismo, com óbvias consequências em termos de exposição à língua na vida quotidiana.

Uma das maiores diferenças reside no facto de em Portugal não haver dobragem de filmes e de programas televisão estrangeiros, o que resulta numa exposição contínua ao inglês através da televisão e do cinema; já na Turquia todos os filmes e programas são dobrados, sendo consequentemente a exposição informal ao inglês necessariamente mais baixa. No que ao turismo diz respeito, verificou-se que falantes de inglês visitam mais Portugal do que a Turquia, pelo que nesta última o turismo é fonte menos relevante de exposição ao inglês e estímulo menos ativo para aprendizagem da língua; esta conclusão foi ainda confirmada pela observação do uso ativo do inglês junto de uma amostra de recepcionistas de hotéis em ambos os países. Na área da designação de lojas e marcas, as diferenças entre a Turquia e Portugal são ténues, verificando-se em ambos os países uma presença muito significativa da língua inglesa, que chega a ultrapassar a nativa.

O quarto capítulo considera os contextos históricos e atuais do ensino / aprendizagem de inglês na Turquia e em Portugal, as atitudes dos alunos em relação à língua em ambos os países e o grau de proficiência em inglês dos seus habitantes. A investigação feita revelou que o inglês começou a ser ensinado um pouco mais cedo em Portugal do que na Turquia, mas que atualmente a carga horária no ensino obrigatório é semelhante nos dois países e o número de anos em que faz parte do plano de estudos é igualmente idêntico. As diferenças identificadas relacionam-se com as metodologias de ensino e avaliação, assentes na gramática na Turquia e na comunicação em Portugal. Para além disso, os portugueses, parecem ter uma motivação integrativa para aprender inglês, enquanto os turcos têm apenas uma motivação instrumental para essa tarefa. Em relação às atitudes face ao inglês, os portugueses mostram fortes atitudes positivas, estando cientes

dos benefícios do multilinguismo. Quanto aos turcos, eles também mantêm atitudes positivas em relação ao inglês e à sua aprendizagem, reconhecendo o seu valor instrumental, mas muitos consideram o inglês uma ameaça à sua língua e cultura. No que diz respeito à proficiência em inglês, as disparidades entre os dois países foram confirmadas, com vantagem para Portugal, sugerindo-se a ligação deste facto à menor exposição à língua entre os Turcos, o conservadorismo dos métodos de ensino da língua e as atitudes ambivalente em relação ao inglês que se encontram entre os mesmos.

A dissertação termina com uma conclusão, em que se resumem as principais diferenças no perfil sociolinguístico do inglês na Turquia e em Portugal, se sublinha a heterogeneidade dos territórios do círculo em expansão da língua inglesa e se destaca a confirmação da presença crescente do inglês no globo.

**Palavras-chave:** Perfil sociolinguístico, domínios de uso, ensino de inglês, atitudes linguísticas, proficiência

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

**APCT** *Associação Portuguesa para o Controlo de Tiragem e Circulação* (Portuguese Association for Circulation Control)

**EF** Education First

**EFL** English as a Foreign Language

**ELF** English as a Lingua Franca

**ELT** English Language Teaching

**ENL** English as a Native Language

**EPI** English Proficiency Index

**ESL** English as a Second Language

**ETS** Educational Testing Service

**EU** European Union

**FL** Foreign Language

**FLUL** *Faculdade de Letras da Universidade de Lisboa* (School of Arts and Humanities of the University of Lisbon)

**INE** *Instituto Nacional de Estatística* (National Statistics Institute)

**L2** Second Language

**L3** Second Foreign Language

**MEB** *Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı* (Ministry of National Education)

**PORDATA** *Base de Dados Portugal Contemporâneo* (Database of Statistics on Portugal)

**RTP** *Rádio e Televisão de Portugal* (Radio and Television of Portugal)

**RTUK** *Radyo ve Televizyon Üst Kurulu* (Radio and Television Supreme Council)

**TEPAV** Türkiye Ekonomi Politikaları Araştırma Vakfı (Economic Policy Research

Foundation of Turkey)

**TOBB** *Türkiye Odalar ve Borsalar Birliği* (The Union of Chambers and Commodity

Exchanges of Turkey)

**TOEFL** Test of English as a Foreign Language

**TUROFED** *Türkiye Oteliçiler Federasyonu* (Turkish Hoteliers Federation)

**UK** The United Kingdom

**UNWTO** United Nations World Tourism Organisation

**USA** The United States of America

**WEF** World Economic Forum

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The spread of the English language through the globe has resulted in an exponential growth in the numbers of its speakers beyond the shores of where it originated. English is now spoken around the world in almost all countries. Consequently, its non-native speakers outnumber its native speakers (Crystal, 2003: 5). Although the estimates are subject to change, nearly two million people are believed to have some ability in English, with varying levels of competence, and English is the most studied foreign language in the world (Crystal, 2003: 5). Kachru was an early voice pointing out the “unique international position of English (...) certainly unparalleled in the history of the world” and noting that “for the first time a natural language has attained the status of an international (universal) language, essentially for cross-cultural communication” (1992a: 67). Unlike other world languages, English has become the lingua franca in which most international transactions are conducted (see e.g. Crystal, 2003: 29–71; Dornyei *et al.*, 2006: 6–9; Kirkpatrick, 2007: 1–3; Mesthrie and Bhatt, 2008: 1–3; Sharifan, 2009: 1-5). Given its current status, it seems the English language has been and will continue to be the common medium of international communication in many aspects of our lives such as business, education, media, advertisement, science, internet, sports, etc..

As a result of its spread around the world, English has developed diverse roles and functions in varying sociolinguistic situations. For example, while functioning as a second language - i.e. as an institutionalised language for intra-national communication across diverse linguistic, ethnic, and religious groups in some countries (e.g. India, Singapore, Kenya) (see Kachru, 1992b: 7-9) , in some others it is used as an international language for

communication with speakers of other languages from other countries (e.g. mainland Europe). As a result of this recent complexity, various researchers have presented models integrating and classifying the new varieties of English with their different functions and patterns of use. In 1985 Kachru conceived the most influential one. He defined three circles meant to group territories according to the type of spread and the functions of the English language they witness; these circles are the “Inner Circle”, which corresponds to the “traditional and linguistic bases of English”, such as the United Kingdom (UK), the United States of America (USA) and Canada; the “Outer Circle”, which embodies the former colonies such as Kenya and Nigeria, where non-native varieties of English have emerged and in which English plays a special role (e.g. in education, government, law, etc.); and finally the “Expanding Circle”, which includes the countries where English is taught as a foreign language and has no administrative status (e.g. mainland Europe, China, Japan, etc.) (Kachru, 1992a: 356).

Despite this very useful classification, every individual territory uses English in a particular way, so that a multiplicity of “sociolinguistic profiles” of English have emerged even within the same circle. The concept of sociolinguistic profile was suggested by Ferguson as early as 1967 and it has proved useful in characterizing the social and linguistic contexts of English use around the world. Typically, the profile includes the status, roles and functions of English in a particular society (Berns, 1990, 2005; Mollin, 2006; Hilgendorf, 2007). In a sociolinguistic study of four European countries, Berns, De Bot and Hasebrink describe this notion in the following terms:

this framework takes into account both the users and the uses of the language and brings together its historical context, domains of use, role in the educational system, influence on the media, levels of proficiency, and attitudes toward it among learners and users. In the broadest sense, a profile documents the presence of the language and the breadth and depth of its presence. (2007: 15)

The concept of sociolinguistic profile is central within this dissertation: it is devoted to the discussion and comparison of the sociolinguistic profile of English in Turkey and Portugal, two European countries in the Expanding Circle.<sup>1</sup>

The interest for this topic results from my personal experience: as a Turkish teacher of English living for over two years in Portugal, I can attest that these countries, in which English is no doubt a foreign language, present quite different situations as far as its use is concerned. Most Portuguese have good proficiency in English and can communicate confidently in this language, so that most foreigners visiting Portugal who lack Portuguese language skills experience no problems in communicating with the locals in English. On the contrary, however, it is not uncommon to read or to hear in the news about the poor proficiency in English of the Turkish, and research has shown that Turkey constantly ranks very low on several criteria of English language use (see British Council & TEPAV, 2013: 15 and Education First, 2018: 7).<sup>2</sup> For example, the 2018 English Proficiency Index (EPI) conducted by Education First (EF) put Turkey 73rd out of 88 countries (EF, 2018: 22); and the average score in the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) of both native

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<sup>1</sup> In this study Turkey will be considered a European country, despite the well-known discussion on whether it belongs in the Middle East or Europe.

<sup>2</sup> TEPAV- Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey

Turkish speakers and residents of Turkey was 78 out of 120 (Educational Testing Service, 2018: 15). So the sociolinguistic profiles of English in Turkey and Portugal must be rather different and, given the fact that the two countries share their status as Expanding Circle countries, those profiles are certainly worth comparing.

With this general purpose in mind, this study will pursue the following specific research aims: (1) describe and assess the presence of English - in Turkey and Portugal - within functional domains that are very often taken by English in Expanding Circle countries; (2) compare the circumstances in which the teaching and learning of English occurs in the two countries, including learners' attitudes towards the language; and, finally, (3) explore the possible impacts of the above-mentioned factors upon the proficiency of learners in the two speech communities. Since various but disparate studies on the use of English in both Turkey and Portugal have already been published, my purpose is to systematise the information available in those studies and to complete it with new data when necessary.

The following chapter provides the theoretical backdrop for this dissertation, introducing the field of World Englishes and the concepts of international English and English as a Lingua Franca. The third chapter focuses on the use of English in three functional domains in Turkey and Portugal, namely media, tourism and shop naming. This choice results from the fact that these are the most common domains of use of English in the Expanding circle. The fourth chapter considers the historical and current context of English teaching / learning in Turkey and Portugal, the attitudes of the learners towards learning English in both countries, and their proficiency levels in English. The dissertation

ends with a conclusion summarizing the main differences in the sociolinguistic profile of English in Turkey and Portugal. It underlines the heterogeneity of sociolinguistic profiles of English in Expanding Circle countries and highlights the growing presence of English in the world.



## 2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

### 2.1. The spread of English

Prior to Kachru's seminal conceptualisation of the spread of English by means of the Three Circles model (1985), there have been attempts to classify English varieties around the world.

An important precedent was presented by Quirk *et al.* (1972). In this work, the authors distinguish three main functional uses of English, namely "English as a native language" (ENL), "English as a second language" (ESL) and "English as a foreign language" (EFL) (1972: 3-4). These labels are still common, especially within English Language Teaching (ELT) research and materials.

This distinction between ENL, ESL and EFL certainly inspired Kachru's model of the three concentric circles, namely the Inner, Outer and Expanding Circle, respectively. However, there is a major difference between the two approaches under analysis. Quirk *et al.* believed in the existence of one form of legitimate English, though used in different settings and with different functions. This was made very clear in a 1990 article, in which Quirk explicitly argued that a single standard variety of English should be promoted also for the non-native speakers of English. To him, speakers should not be encouraged to use the variety they hear in their speech communities, because "it is neither liberal nor liberating to permit learners to settle for lower standards than the best, and it is a travesty of liberalism to tolerate low standards which will lock the least fortunate into the least

rewarding careers" (Quirk, 1990: 22-3). Kachru, on the contrary advocated what is now known as the "World Englishes" perspective, which presents a major difference to the former. It is explained by Kachru in the following terms:

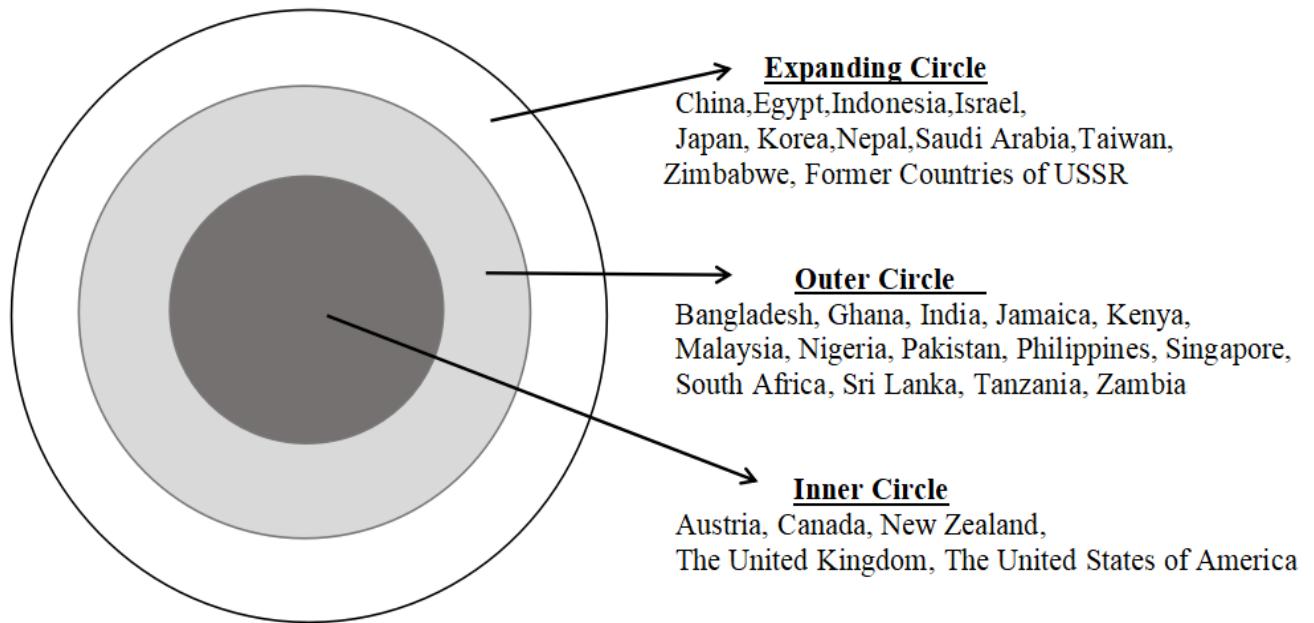
[World Englishes] symbolizes the functional and formal variations, divergent sociolinguistic contexts, ranges and varieties of English in creativity, and various types of acculturation in parts of the Western and non-Western world. This concept emphasizes We-ness and not the dichotomy between us and them (the native and non-native users). (1992a: 2)

So, Kachru emphasised the pluricentricity of the English language and the legitimacy of "its cross-cultural re-incarnations" (Kachru *et al.*, 2006: 447). This new and groundbreaking approach brought the acknowledgement of linguistic pluralism to the academic community and resulted in the emergence of World Englishes as a new sociolinguistic discipline and "revolutionary" paradigm (Proshina, 2014: 1). The ownership of the English language was no longer a right of the native speakers; attention was gathered on highlighting the values of the other varieties instead. Saraceni points this out:

In strong opposition of conservative and purist positions, the decentralizing agenda of [World Englishes] posits that the ownership of the language is not (at all) the prerogative of the native speakers and that non-native forms of English are as valid as the varieties found in the birthplace of the language. (2010: 5)

As indicated, Kachru defined three circles (1985: 12) of English, the Inner, the Outer and the Expanding Circles (See Figure 1). Each of these three circles is defined

according to the differences in the use of English, the range of its functions, and the form it is acquired by most speakers. The Inner Circle, at the centre, includes the territories where English is acquired and used as a mother tongue by most of its inhabitants: they are the UK, the USA, Canada, New Zealand, and Australia. At this stage, the Englishes of the Inner Circle were described as “norm providing”, because they defined the norms to be taught in language education in other countries (Kachru, 1992a: 5). The Outer Circle includes the territories where English is institutionalised as a second language and is commonly used for administrative and educational purposes and intra-national communication; that is the case of many Asian and African countries, typically former British colonies, as for instance India, Singapore, Kenya or Nigeria. These countries were presented by Kachru as “norm developing”, as the local varieties that result from the nativisation of English through cultural and linguistic processes were and are still emerging as standards (Kachru, 1992a: 5). The term nativisation, in this context, refers to the changes that English is subject to as a consequence of its contact with other languages in a different sociocultural and geographical setting (Kachru, 1981: 19). Finally, the Expanding Circle is composed of the countries in which English is taught as a foreign language (EFL), such as Germany, Brazil, Japan, etc. (Kachru, 1992a: 5). In this circle, English functions as a medium of communication for international relations, business, tourism, etc. and was considered “norm-dependent”, because till quite recently English teaching invariably took the varieties of the Inner Circle countries as a model, in particular the British or American standard varieties.



**Figure 1:** The three circles of World Englishes<sup>3</sup>

Bearing in mind the number of countries included in the Outer and Inner Circles and those which remain out of them, it can be said that the most overwhelming spread of English in the late 20<sup>th</sup> and early 21<sup>st</sup> centuries corresponds to the increase in the number of territories integrating the Expanding Circle.

Although Kachru's conceptualisation is still essential to understand the historical spread of English and its present domains of use around the globe, it is no longer a valid description of all speech communities. For instance, after analysing the complex linguistic situation of the European Union (EU) countries, some researchers (e.g. Berns 1995, Jenkins *et al.* 2001 and Mollin 2006) found that a new model was necessary to describe regional groupings, such as Europe, rather than individual countries. The English language has a

<sup>3</sup> Adapted from Kachru, 1985.

special role in the EU because it is used as the language for supranational communication in a context in which multilingualism is consciously promoted. The EU has in fact consciously promoted the teaching of English, aiming to generate citizens, especially young ones, with a good proficiency in that foreign language so they can travel and communicate within Europe and across the world.

This more recent function of English, i.e. its use as the language to communicate among non-native speakers of different first languages, gave rise to the concept of *English as a Lingua Franca* (ELF), introduced by Jenkins (2000). It was developed by this author and Seidlhofer (2001), as it proved useful to reflect on the pervasive uses of English in foreign contexts. Advocates of ELF agree that English is no longer the property of its native speakers and hence linguistic authority should not be asserted by them (Jenkins, 2000; Seidlhofer, 2001; Mauranen, 2006). The main argument of ELF defenders is that “native-speakerism” - that is, the association of English with inner-circle users - has become a problem in the new circumstances, and inner circle users “should adapt to the lingua-franca situation rather than expect other participants to adapt to them” (Melchers & Shaw, 2011: 215).

The spread of English through the globe and the recognition of the new pluricentricity of the language have also required a reconsideration of the teaching of English to non-native speakers. Kirkpatrick summarises this issue, presenting and discussing the three ELT models now possible in the Outer and Expanding Circle countries (2007). These models include an “Exonormative Native English Model”, i.e. “English spoken by the settlers who arrived in a particular country” that is also referred to as

“transported variety” and “imported variety” in the Expanding circle countries, and which is possible also in the Outer Circle countries; an “Endonormative Nativised Model”, i.e. “a locally grown variety” of English which is also referred to as “nativized”, “indiginised” or “acculturated” variety, which has become socially acceptable and an option in some Outer Circle countries; and finally a “Lingua Franca Approach” (Kirkpatrick, 2007: 27-37), based on the concept of ELF, which has as its main goal the successful cross-cultural communication for the speakers of the Expanding Circle.

The growth of English use in lingua-franca situations led us to an assumption that English is on the way of becoming a presupposed skill among educated people. In Europe, English increasingly functions in academic, business and other everyday interactions among non-native speakers of English. Consequently, the aims of teaching English have changed; “Teaching objectives in Europe should focus on English as a language for supranational communication (Breidbach 2003), with stress on intelligibility and communicative competences (Berns 2006 and House 2002), along with the teaching of national and regional languages” (Cavalheiro, 2008: 59-60).

Within this context, it is clear that advocates of World Englishes, though more interested in Outer Circle speech communities, share interests with those who focus on ELF. Pakir (2009: 228) lists four goals that World Englishes and ELF scholars have in common: “emphasizing the pluricentricity of English, seeking variety recognition, accepting that language changes and adapts itself to new environments, and highlighting the discourse strategies of English-knowing bilinguals”. Given these new circumstances,

the teaching standards of English in the Expanding Circle might change and there are indeed signs that this is already happening (see e.g. Cavalheiro, 2015).

## **2.2. Domains of use**

Besides functioning as a native language in the Inner Circle, in the Outer and the Expanding Circles English may be used in some fields along with the local language(s). For instance, in the Expanding Circle the use of English is possible in research, education (especially at university-level), advertising, business, popular culture and the mass media, while it will not be used as a medium of instruction in primary education, in religion, in the courts and the law, within national politics and national administration, at home, or in literature (though there are signs of change in this last context) (Melchers & Shaw, 2011: 189).

The situations that demand English can be understood as “market forces” which induce the spread of a dominant language (Melchers & Shaw, 2011: 189-190). Considering the various uses of the English language in the Expanding Circle, Melchers and Shaw (2011) list several reasons for its spread. Some motivations of English use in the Expanding Circle are *functional* and can be traced in international diplomacy and organisations, research publication, business negotiations and conversations with foreigners. In some other cases, English comes to be used for its *fashion* value, such as in song lyrics, advertisements, posters, trademarks, shop names, magazine headings, etc. (Melchers & Shaw, 2011: 189-196) - song lyrics can be written in English merely to sound better;

commercial companies may use English names to be considered more prestigious. Nowadays, even local shops in small cities with few chances of visits by foreigners may be given English names.

Use of English can also be detected in the tourism sector, in which both travellers and speakers of local languages make use of English to interact with foreigners. Nowadays, English is considered the default language to communicate with the tourists around the world. It is expected from foreigners that they know English - “Tourists who speak Asian languages assume that everyone in Europe knows English and Europeans assume that people of Asian appearance will understand English if they do not appear to understand the local language” (Melchers & Shaw, 2011: 196).

Another context affected by market forces is the education system. English does not function as the medium of education throughout primary, secondary and, as a norm, tertiary education in the Expanding Circle countries (Melchers & Shaw, 2011). Rather than that, schools usually adopt English as a main course subject since it is useful for youngsters to know English. And this contributes as well to further spread the language, as clearly explained by Melchers and Shaw:

Once a language becomes widely known, schools tend to make its dominance self-perpetuating. If it is observed that English is a useful language on the world stage, then schools start to teach it. Once more people in more countries have learnt it at school, it becomes more useful, because there are more foreigners with whom it can

be used. So, following the wishes of parents and pupils, schools teach the language even more, even more people learn it and it becomes even more useful (2011: 190).

At university level the situation is not too different. Due to increasing international mobility of both students and teachers, the universities are faced with the fact that offering English-instructed courses will allow them to attract more international students. Consequently, the number of universities offering English-medium courses has been increasing all over the world.

Media is also highly affected by the growing spread of English. Television and cinema are domains of increasing use of the language in the Expanding Circle. Alongside globalisation and technology, television makes English easily accessible at every home, especially because American enterprises based in Hollywood dominate the film making industry. English media products inevitably have a great influence on the learners of this language, especially in those countries in which foreign media products are subtitled, such as Portugal, the Netherlands or Denmark. In relation to print media, although it is still the rule to produce local newspapers and magazines in the local language, English is sometimes used, as happens with Thailand's *Bangkok Post* and Saudi Arabia's *Saudi Express* (Melchers & Shaw, 2011: 196). Broadly known publications in English such as *Time* and *Newsweek* magazines are widely consumed around the world as well (Melchers & Shaw, 2011: 196).

Business discourse is one of the other domains in which the ubiquitous spread of English is extensively felt across the Expanding Circle countries. Adopting English or

Englishized names in business-naming practices is a widely known manifestation of the English language. Due to the market value and international position of English, business owners tend to deem this language suitable for their business places in many countries across the world, also because of the influence of the media. According to Selvi:

[media] created a massive exposure to badly translated American TV shows and movies, presenting the ‘modern’ American lifestyle as a target of sophistication for which to aim. Consequently, such events contributed to a flooding trend of adopting English-names for any kind of businesses from TV stations to small-scale stores.  
(2011: 191)

The functional domains discussed above are often dominated by English in Expanding Circle countries and have thus been selected for the consideration of the particular cases of Turkey and Portugal. They will be dealt with in chapter 3.

The following section introduces the discussion on English language teaching / learning in the two countries.

### **2.3. English language teaching / learning**

The implications of the spread of English to the models and goals of ELT have been considered in section 2.1. This section is devoted to English language teaching / learning processes.

In many Expanding Circle countries, English language learning is no longer based exclusively on language instruction at schools, but rather a result of daily life practices of the contemporary youth, increasingly driven by the media, the Internet and technology. In a study of the Danish population, Preisler considers this question and identifies two types of English contact experienced by Europeans, which he describes as “English from below” and “English from above” (1999: 241). Cavalheiro refers to these types as “bottom-up” and “top-down” learning processes, respectively (2008: 59).

“English from below” refers to individual and informal learning by way of popular subcultures such as rock’n roll, death metal or hip-hop music, films, television programmes, which over time “constitute formal subdomains of language use in which the use of English has become conventionalized” (Preisler, 1999: 242). This passive but also partly active contact with English then becomes an intranational communication tool between the youth to express subcultural identities.

“English from above”, on the other hand, constitutes the “promotion of English by the hegemonic culture for purposes of ‘international communication’” (Preisler, 1999: 259). English from above, which is therefore the planned form of learning a language, takes place through formal education, usually supported by the government. In this function, it is important to distinguish the levels of learners according to their age, proficiency and possible specialised interests, so curriculum plans are prepared by the teachers who are specialists in their field (1999: 259). Preisler identifies these three characteristics of “English from above” (1999: 264):

1. It constitutes a formal element of education by way of preparing people for the international aspects of their professional lives.
2. It provides a foundation of the individual's formal acquisition of 'English from below' in any of its particular manifestations, including the ability to participate in activities representing subcultural interests and self-expression.
3. It ensures that nobody leaves schools without a minimum of reading and listening skills in English and a realisation of the importance of maintaining such skills.

Preisler's (1999) distinction of English "from above" and "from below" has some correspondence with Dogancay-Aktuna's (1998) notion of "planned and unplanned spread" of English. This is also useful to describe the teaching/learning of English in some Expanding Circle contexts, as e.g. in Turkey. Dogancay-Aktuna defines "planned spread" as a spread of the foreign language due to educational institutes in the form of a compulsory subject or medium of education motivated by the privileges that it brings, such as better education and career opportunities in the society (1998: 29). On the other hand, the "unplanned spread" consists in an influence of the foreign on the local language through the extensive use of the former (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998: 29). By contrast with the planned spread, the unplanned spread cannot be controlled and may be perceived in some speech communities as having an undesirable effect on the purity of the national language. That is the case of Turkey. So, despite learning English as a compulsory school subject for many hours at schools, outside the classroom students are expected to ensure that their native language is preserved. This sort of contradiction can naturally affect a student's learning process in a negative way and prevent him/her from being a successful learner. This seems

to happen in Turkey. In Portugal, however, Cavalheiro (2008) observes that, contrary to the old way of learning the language in the classroom and then applying it in real life, now learners bring their informal contact with English into the classroom while developing their language skills.

#### **2.4. Attitudes towards the language**

The omnipresence of English in the world has given rise to different attitudes towards it among non-native-speakers of the language. This issue has been considered in many sociolinguistic studies, such as Berns (1990), Starks & Paltridge (1996), Friedrich (2000), Berns, De Bot, & Hasebrink (2007), just to name a few.

To gain insight into the concept of attitudes toward other languages, it is necessary to understand the term itself. Zimbardo *et al.* define attitude as a positive or negative evaluation of people, objects, situations, events, or ideas (1977). The *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* defines language attitudes as follows:

The attitude which speakers of different languages or language varieties have towards each others' languages or to their own language. Expressions of positive or negative feelings towards a language may reflect impressions of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, ease or difficulty of learning, degree of importance, elegance, social status, etc.. Attitudes towards a language may also show what people feel about the speakers of that language. (1999: 199, as cited in Karahan, 2007: 75)

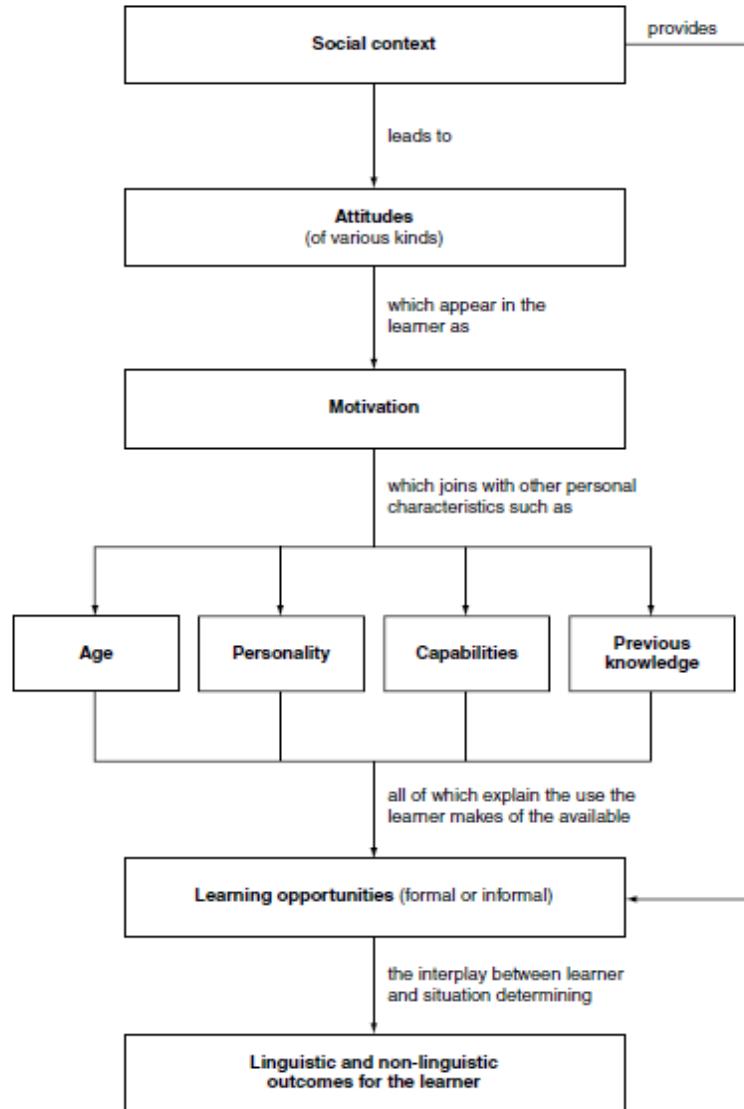
Attitudes are also very important within the process of learning another language. In his research on second language (L2) learning in Canada, Gardner highlights the impact of positive attitudes upon the process and considers attitudes as a component of motivation: “Motivation (...) refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes towards learning the language” (1985: 10). Two very frequently highlighted aspects of L2 learning motivation are “integrativeness” and “instrumentality” (see Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985; Csizer & Dornyei, 2005; Dornyei, 2014).

Instrumental motivation is identified with perceived pragmatic benefits of L2 proficiency, such as getting a job, studying in higher education, travelling, making foreign friends, understanding music or movies in English (Csizér & Dornyei, 2005: 21). Integrative motivation, on the other hand, refers to “a positive outlook on L2 and its culture, to the extent that learners scoring high on this factor may want to integrate themselves into L2 culture to become similar to the L2 speakers” (Csizér & Dornyei, 2005: 20). It allows the learner to recognise himself as part of the L2 community, emotionally and psychologically (Dornyei & Csizér, 2002). The function of integrativeness in language learning is described by Gardner as follows:

Integrativeness reflects a genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer to the other language community. At one level, this implies an openness to, and respect for other cultural groups and ways of life. In the extreme, this might involve complete identification with the community (and possibly even

withdrawal from one's original group), but more commonly it might well involve integration within both communities. (2001: 5)

It is thus widely acknowledged that the language learning process is shaped to a great extent by the attitude and the motivation of the learner. In an attempt to explore this relationship, Spolsky proposes a model called "General Model of Second Language Learning", described in Figure 2 (1989: 28). According to this model, attitudes of various kinds and motivation derive from the social context which directly affects the learning opportunities of the individual. Spolsky emphasises that there are unique conditions that will change from person to person and which shape the motivation of the learner – that is the case of his/her age, personality, capabilities and previous knowledge (1989: 27- 8).



**Figure 2:** Spolsky's model of second language learning (1989)

In other words, attitudes towards the language will be adopted upon the individual interactions with it and they can determine whether the language skill will be acquired successfully or not. This relation is highlighted by William and Burden: “(...) learners bring many individual characteristics to the learning process which will affect both the way in which they learn and outcomes of that process” (1997: 120). Likewise, Chambers states:

“Pupils do not come to the foreign language classroom as *tabulae rasae*. They bring with them some attitudes born of conversations shared with family, friends, the media and personal experience of the target language community” (1999: 25). Negative attitudes towards the target language deriving from those previous experiences may demotivate students and jeopardise the language learning process, while positive attitudes towards the language and its culture will no doubt nourish the language learning process and play a key role in it. That is why investigating the typical attitudes towards English in both Turkey and Portugal may help us understand the different degrees of proficiency in English that are apparent in both countries.

Finally, it should be stressed that in the particular case of English, attitudes are in part shaped by today’s easy informal contact with the language – as through movies, music lyrics, games and television programmes. On a study about the status of English in Portugal, Leslie highlights this fact: “Contact with media products in English appears to be important in the spread of the language, not only because of increased learning opportunities but because such contact could result in positive attitudes towards cultural values, thus promoting integrativeness” (2011: 12). Self-confidence, which is also a crucial factor in raising motivation to learn a language, will also increase with positive experiences learners are exposed to (Leslie, 2011: 12).

## 2.5. Previous studies on English in Turkey and Portugal

The increasing presence of the English language in many countries has resulted in an upsurge of studies attempting to identify the roles of the language and attitudes towards it in multiple speech communities. As hinted at before, Turkey and Portugal are no exception in this regard.

As far as studies on the use of English in the Turkish speech community are concerned, the following should be mentioned: Dogancay-Aktuna (1998), Dogancay-Aktuna & Kiziltepe (2005), Selvi (2007, 2011) and British Council & TEPAV (2013) regarding the domains of use of English and English language teaching and learning; and Kiziltepe (2000), Konig, G. (2006), Karahan (2007), Uzum (2007), Gomleksiz (2010), Goktepe (2014), British Council & TEPAV (2013, 2015) and Genc & Aydin (2017) as far as attitudes towards the language are concerned. Although each of these studies was a useful source of information, some proved to be the most relevant and are therefore subject to a short review below:

- Selvi (2011) considers the impact of English in the Turkish context and the multifactorial nature of the sociolinguistic setting by focusing on its historical background and current domains, especially on business discourse(s). English is concluded to be the most prevalent language in window displays and business names of stores across the country, in signs on the window or door of commercial entities, in exterior signs for public entities, such as billboards, and in advertising posters. The role of English in national education, professional life and media is discussed and the

borrowing of English words into Turkish closely observed as well. The results also reveal that EFL in Turkey is different from that in many other Expanding Circle countries, since it demonstrates some features of former colonies of English-speaking countries, such as “state-supported education policies supporting education at the expense of the native language in a top-down manner” and “acknowledging *de facto* English nomenclatures such as hybrid and Englishized Turkish business names” (Selvi, 2011: 197). Finally, the author discusses an anti-English movement in various domains of Turkey (e.g. the educational, business, sociocultural and political contexts). The study reveals that the State implements language policies to promote the spread of English across the country although an anti-English movement is still ubiquitous in Turkey.

- Kiziltepe (2000) examines the attitudes to English and motivation to learn the language of 308 male and female Turkish high school students in four different types of schools. As a result, the author identifies a list of factors determining the language learning processes of the Turkish students, namely (1) attitudes towards Britons and Americans, (2) motivational intensity, (3) interest in foreign languages in general, (4) attitudes towards learning English, (5) instrumental and integrative orientation, (6) English class anxiety, (7) family encouragement, and (8) feelings towards the English teacher and the English course. The results of the study showed that Turkish students in the sample display positive attitudes towards British and American people and high motivation towards learning English and foreign languages in general. Students’ reasons for learning English as a foreign language are to become a well-educated person and find a job with good conditions in the future.

● Dogancay-Aktuna and Kiziltepe (2005) focus on the functional range and status of English in Turkey by investigating three items in depth: the role of English in different levels of national education and in Turkish academia; attitudes towards the presence of English on a societal and individual level; and the use of English in the workplace. Finally, English borrowings into the local language are illustrated with examples taken from the Turkish mass media. The authors discuss how English has become the language to separate the wealthier, educated urban people from other socioeconomic and geographic groups and conclude that English is not likely to spread vertically across the Turkish society due to the absence of economic support and qualified teachers, although the government has had policies to support English language learning across the country. According to the study, attitudes held towards English among the urban Turks are mostly positive. The study also reveals that besides its benefits in academic advancement, English seems to be a requirement for well-paid jobs in Turkey. Another conclusion that can be drawn from the study is that given the expansion of borrowed words, it is observed that many Turks are not much concerned about using borrowed words from English in their daily lives in Turkey.

● Finally, Karahan (2007) examines the relationship between language attitudes towards English and its use among 190 8<sup>th</sup> grade school students in a private school in Adana, Turkey, in which English is taught intensively. The study is the first one examining Turkish primary school students' attitudes towards English and its use in Turkey. Despite the author's expectation of strongly positive attitudes, students sampled showed mildly positive attitudes towards English and unfavourable attitudes towards

Turkish speaking English to another Turkish. According to this investigation, the students sampled recognise the importance of the English language as a foreign language within the Turkish society, but, surprisingly, this recognition seems not to lead them to take active steps in their language learning process.

As for the studies conducted on the domains of English and on the language teaching and learning circumstances in Portugal, the following studies were identified; Stewart & Fawcett (2004), Cavalheiro (2008), Barros (2009), Leslie (2011, 2012), Mackenzie (2012) regarding the domains of English and attitudes towards the language; Carvalho (2001), Guerra (2005, 2013), Veiga *et al.* (2006), Kerklaan *et al.* (2008), Santos (2018) as far as English language teaching and learning circumstances are concerned. A brief review of the studies that proved most relevant for my own research is presented below.

- Guerra (2005) focuses on the theory and practice of ELT in Portugal through qualitative and quantitative research approaches. To that purpose, Guerra uses a questionnaire, interviews and document analysis, which aim at identifying (i) the Portuguese national policies for basic and secondary education and the way these policies are reflected on ELT materials, and (ii) the perspective of teachers and students towards the central aspects of English as an international language. The study contributes to the debate on the role of English in the 21<sup>st</sup> century in the Expanding Circle countries and ELT field by considering the role and image of English as an international language in Portugal. The study reveals that there is a strong dominance of the British variety of English and British culture in most of the language teaching

materials, although the American variety of English and its culture frequently take place in materials as well. According to the study, teachers and students sampled hold favourable attitudes towards learning about native varieties and international features of English, which would help its speakers have a perspective of learning and teaching English as an international language. In this study, students participated claimed that they like the English accent best and they would like to have it. Another finding of the study is that subjects who said consistency in one variety is necessary state British variety is the “correct” variety of English and it should be the requisite norm.

- Cavalheiro (2008) considers the expansion of English at a global level and the recent issues of English use in Europe, specifically in Portugal (2008). Bearing in mind the particular role of English as the lingua franca of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the author identifies the needs of the current time in order to suggest improvements to ELT policies. The study involves a questionnaire given to the students and teachers of English at the *Faculdade de Letras da Universidade de Lisboa* - School of Arts and Humanities of the University of Lisbon, (FLUL) - put forth with the aim of assessing (i) the uses of, attitudes to, and opinions of teachers and students on English and ELT, and (ii) the emergence of a European variety of English. A comparison of the results with those obtained in previous case studies reveals that English proficiency level in Portugal is lower in comparison with other EU countries, as e.g. Germany, while the contact with English in daily life is relatively high for the Portuguese. It was also observed that the teachers sampled show a conservative language pedagogy on the correct Standard English usage.

● Barros (2009) is one of the studies undertaken in Portugal on attitudes towards different varieties of English. Students and teachers of English at FLUL are sampled in order to identify the perception of standard British and American English in Portugal. The study confirms that British English has been the variety traditionally taught in schools of Portugal, but also that the American variety is the one Portuguese have been more exposed to through cinema, television programmes and other media products. The informants sampled were able to distinguish standard British and American accents, however, they were less able to identify lexical, grammatical and spelling peculiarities of these varieties. Despite the fact that the American variety is perceived as “more frequent, more clear, more straightforward and more useful”, it is considered “less correct, less beautiful and less suitable to emulate” (Barros, 2009: 38-9). The author empirically proved that pedagogical practices keep a significant role in determining the learners' attitudes on the prestigious variety of the language.

● Leslie (2011) examines some aspects of the spread of English in Portugal. In order to do so, two methods are applied. In the first place, the author compares the frequency of English loanwords in two newspapers published with a ten-year interval, namely in 1989 and 2009, so as to point out the growing use of English in Portugal. Then, a questionnaire was carried out among 200 undergraduate students to find out their contact with and attitudes towards English in order to evaluate how English may spread in the future. The results show that the use of loanwords in the newspapers increased twofold in the last two decades. All students sampled get in contact with

English through media, while personal contact with English is relatively infrequent. The attitudes of sampled students towards English and its speakers are positive.

Given the availability of previous references only in part reviewed in this section, my purpose in this dissertation is primarily to systematise the information available on both countries in order to produce a comparison between them. Further data will be collected only when necessary.



### **3. DOMAINS OF ENGLISH**

This section focuses on the use of English within three functional domains in Turkey and Portugal, namely those of media, tourism and shop naming. This choice results from the fact that they have been shown to be contexts providing exposure to English to some extent in these speech communities, as discussed above. Sections 3.1 and 3.2 consider each country separately, while 3.3 systematises the similarities and differences between them.

#### **3.1. Turkey**

Turkey is a monolingual country, and Turkish, a member of the Turkic language family, is the sole national and official language spoken by all Turks and most members of the minority groups as the Jews, Kurds (the largest minority group), Armenians, Greeks, Azeris and Zazas, to name a few (Dogancay-Aktuna & Kiziltepe, 2005: 254). Turkey belongs to the Expanding Circle since in this country English does not have an official status and is not used in any administrative contexts; it is taught in schools as a foreign language. However, it is the most favoured and most commonly spoken and taught foreign language, so that it is the third language for the ethnic minorities who speak Turkish as a lingua franca (Dogancay-Aktuna & Kiziltepe, 2005: 253).

Dogancay-Aktuna identifies two stages in the spread of English in Turkey. The “first phase” started in the 1950s due to the increase in American economic and military power (1998: 27). It involved a planned spread of the language through language policies in education with the purpose of facilitating international communication and of putting Turkey a par with the Western world (1998: 29). Starting after the mid-1980s, the “second phase” was regarded as the unplanned phase, which also involved an influence upon Turkish by means of new words and new concepts (1998: 29). Starting from the 1950s, English gradually replaced French as a “language of international diplomacy to become the lingua franca for trade, banking, tourism, popular media, science, and technology”, in Turkey and in the Middle East, the Far East and many European nations (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998: 25).

This gradual spread of English in Turkey has resulted in its use in several domains, especially the media, tourism, and shop naming, as shown below. The following sections systematise information compiled and discussed in previous research and complete it with newly compiled data.

### **3.1.1. Media**

As happens in other countries of the Expanding Circle, the media in Turkey appear to be under the influence of English to some extent.

As for the print media, there are some newspapers published in English both online or in print: that is the case of *Hurriyet Daily News* (printed daily), *Daily Sabah* (printed

daily), *Turkiye Newspaper* (online),<sup>4</sup> *Good Morning Turkey* (online).<sup>5</sup> However, from my personal experience, while learning English as a foreign language, nearly seven years ago, there was an outright scarcity of English newspapers everywhere in Istanbul, the major metropolitan city in Turkey. To verify this impression and determine the availability of newspapers written in English these days, four central newsagents in Ankara, the capital of Turkey, and four central newsagents in Istanbul were visited randomly (on the 20th of April, 2019) and no English printed newspapers were found. Maybe English-language newspapers are addressed to the foreigners living in Turkey and not to local people; but, whichever the case, the printing of newspapers in English in Turkey does not seem to enhance exposure to the language in Turkey and both national and foreign English-language print newspapers are unavailable to the man in the street.

A similar methodology was used to ascertain the availability of English magazines in Turkey. One of the most popular and easily accessed bookstores, D&R, was visited on another randomly chosen day (on the 9th of April, 2019). It was found that the number of magazines in English was 27 out of 227, which accounts for 12% of all. This indicates that by contrast with newspapers in English, magazines in English are available in the market for the Turks who want to read in English and for the foreigners visiting or living in Turkey, and it may provide exposure to the English language to some extent.

The same process was unfeasible as far as English books are concerned. So an online investigation of the top 50 bestsellers in Turkey was pursued (on the 16th of April,

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<sup>4</sup> <http://www.turkiyenewspaper.com/>

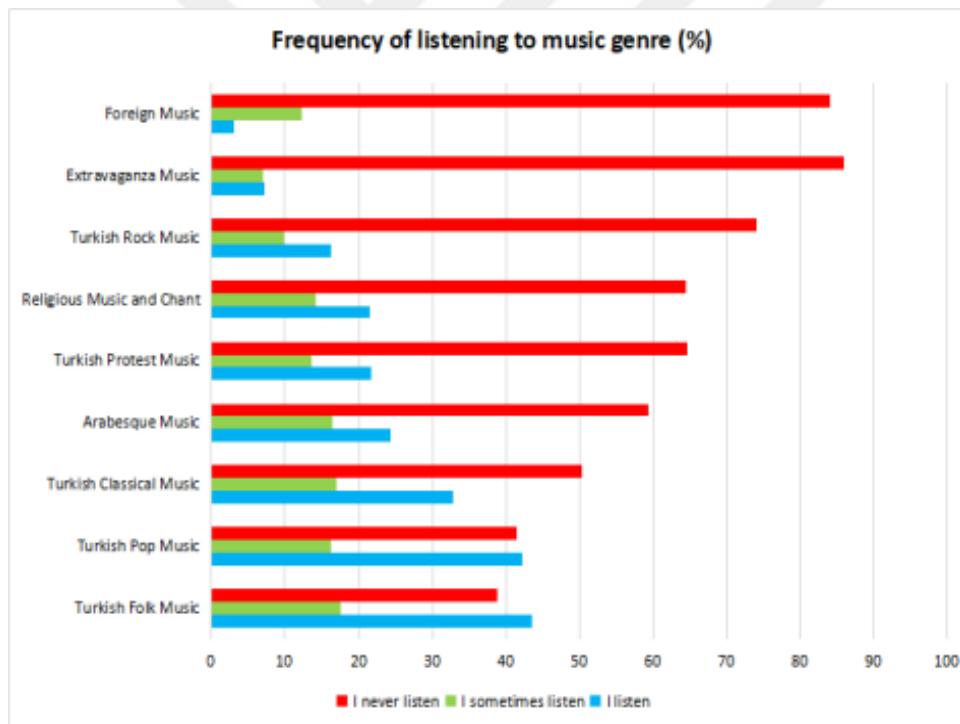
<sup>5</sup> <https://goodmorningturkey.com/>

2019), and it showed that none of them was in English. This indicates that Turkish readers avoid reading in English. A study conducted by Erdogan and Yurdabakan on the effect of extensive reading on students' reading strategies led to a similar conclusion, showing that Turkish students preferred reading in Turkish than in English (2019: 113). According to the study, the main reasons for Turkish students' disinterest in reading English books are primarily lack of vocabulary (62.5%), deficiencies in primary education (8.3%) and low reading comprehension (4.2%) (Erdogan & Yurdabakan, 2019: 113).

As far as popular music is concerned, a substantial proportion heard on the radio, television or online music platforms, such as *Spotify*, is in Turkish. It was observed (on 9th April 2019) that 86% of the songs played in the top 50 list on *Spotify* are in Turkish. Furthermore, according to *Radyo Eğilimleri Arastirmasi* (Radio Listening Tendencies), a study conducted by *Radyo ve Televizyon Üst Kurulu* (RTUK - Radio and Television Supreme Council) with 2510 respondents, the most listened radio channels in Turkey are *TRT* (32%) and *Kral FM* (28.6%), which broadcast only in Turkish (RTUK, 2014: 14). *Metro FM*, the most popular radio channel broadcasting only in English though with Turkish speaking radio presenters, is the main channel for people who prefer listening to foreign music, mainly English songs and is preferred by 26.8% of the respondents (RTUK, 2014: 136). The figures reveal that almost two thirds of Turkish people sampled prefer listening to Turkish music on the radio, while only *circa* one third of them listen to the radio channels broadcasting in English.

According to the same study, the most favoured music types among Turkish people are *Türk Halk Müziği* (Turkish Folk Music - 43,5%), *Türk Pop Müziği* (Turkish Pop Music

- 42,2%), *Türk Sanat Müziği* (Turkish Classical Music - 32,7%), *Arabesk Müzik* (Arabesque Music - 24,3%), *Özgün Müzik* (Turkish Protest Music - 21,7%), *Dini Müzik ve İlahi* (Religious Music and Chant - 21,4%), *Türkçe Rock Müzik* (Turkish Rock Music - 16,2%) (See Figure 3) (RTUK, 2014: 15). The chart below, displaying listening frequency to different music genres, summarises this information and reveals that foreign music corresponds to no more than 3% and is the least important of nine different music genres. In fact, 84.7% of the respondents to this study stated that they never listen to foreign music, while 12.3% do it but only sometimes (RTUK, 2014: 15).



**Figure 3:** Frequency of music listening according to genre<sup>6</sup>

<sup>6</sup> Adapted from RTUK, 2014: 134.

Despite the comparatively very low interest in foreign music just described, if these data on 2014 are compared with previous studies reporting on 2007 and 2009, we can conclude that the frequency of listening to English rock, pop, and foreign music is increasing, while arabesque, extravagance,<sup>7</sup> and protest music' rates have been decreasing (RTUK, 2014: 135). So, and according to the statistics just presented, most of the Turks who participated in the study prefer to listen to Turkish music, but there has been a slight increase in listening to English music in recent years.

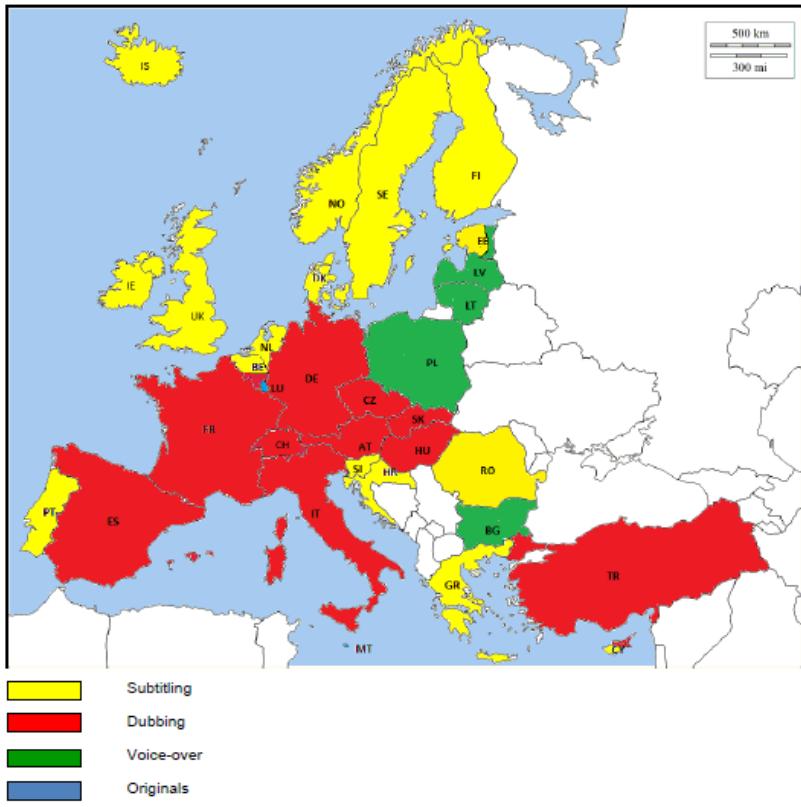
As far as television is concerned, a recent and large-scale research, entitled *Televizyon Izleme Eğilimleri Arastirmasi* (Watching Television Tendencies) and carried out by *Radyo ve Televizyon Ust Kurulu* (RTUK - Radio and Television Supreme Council) in 2018, identified the most watched channels and programmes in Turkey among 2163 respondents. According to the findings of this study, the most favoured three Turkish channels are ATV (19.7%), TRT channels (17.5%) and Fox TV (14.3%), respectively (RTUK, 2018: 52). Concerning the types of television programmes, the results show that news broadcasts are the most watched in Turkey, with 24.2 days per month (RTUK, 2018: 55). The local television series and sports programmes follow with 15.6 and 13.5 days per month, respectively. Foreign movies and series are less watched, only 8.6 days per month approximately (RTUK, 2018: 53). It is important to point out, however, that foreign movies are dubbed in Turkey; so even people watching foreign movies are not exposed to English. Streaming is still very limited in Turkey and there are no studies about its public so far.

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<sup>7</sup> A musical work noted for its freedom of expression in style and structure, also a type of stage entertainment with music (Retrieved from <https://musicterms.artopium.com/>)

The weekly broadcast of ATV, the most favoured nationwide Turkish television channel, was also examined for one week (15th-21th of April, 2019). It was observed that all programmes were in Turkish (there was only one foreign movie and this was dubbed). A similar verification was done for two of TRT channels, an abbreviation for *Turkish Radio and Television Corporation*, which are the national public broadcasting channels in Turkey. TRT 1 and TRT 2 were closely observed for the days of 9<sup>th</sup>-11<sup>th</sup> April 2019 and the same phenomenon was verified: no English programmes were broadcast in the national channels.

As for language transference practices, also important to assess the level of exposure to English within the media, significant data can be found in the *Study on the Use of Subtitling* (Safar *et al.*, 2011). It considers the use of subtitling and dubbing in a total of 33 countries - the 27 member states of the EU, the three countries of the European Economic Area (Iceland, Norway, and Liechtenstein), as well as Switzerland, Croatia and Turkey - by means of a sample of 6000 people. Language transference practices involve translating foreign audiovisual works into national languages and three main types exist in Europe: subtitling, dubbing and voice-over (Almeida & Costa, 2014). In Turkey, the favourite process used to translate foreign audiovisual works into the national language in television programmes is concluded to be dubbing (See Figure 4) (Safar *et al.*, 2011). The same happens in 10 other countries: Austria, Belgium (French-speaking), Czech Republic, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Slovakia, Spain, Switzerland. In these countries, exposure to spoken English through the media is therefore limited. These results are summed up in Figure 4:



**Figure 4:** Language transference practices in 33 European countries<sup>8</sup>

The same study revealed that in the countries where dubbing and voice over are the dominant practices, 63% of the respondents surveyed (over age 25) had skills in a foreign language (FL) and 22% in a second foreign language (L3). For the 18-25 age group, FL and L3 knowledge was 78.7% and 46%, respectively, and for the 12-18 age group, it was 77.6% for FL and 17% for L3 (Safar *et al.*, 2011: 10). The study also investigated the self-evaluation of respondents on their language skills in the same countries and found that the majority of respondents rated their foreign language proficiency (especially in English) 3, on a scale of 5, which is lower than that of subtitling countries (Safar *et al.*, 2011: 26).

<sup>8</sup> Taken from Safar *et al.*, 2011: 9.

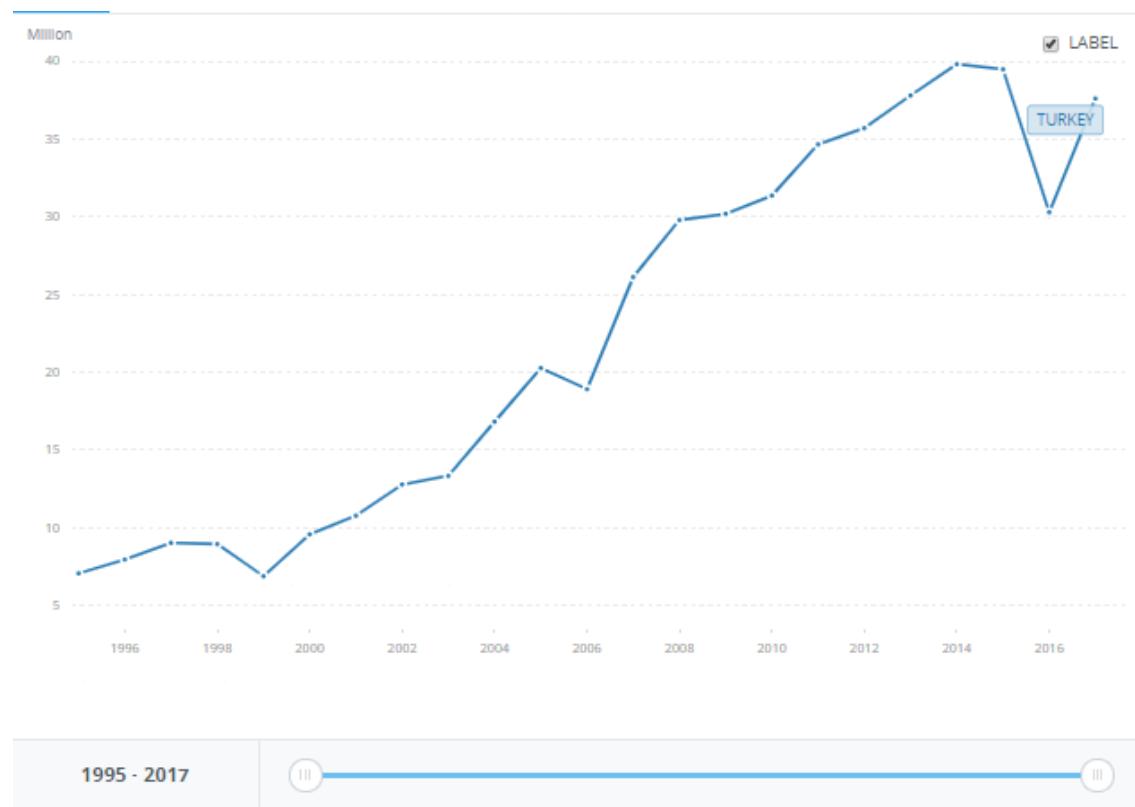
The study also compared the language transference preferences of students at both language faculties and non-language faculties. 65% of 1515 students in language faculties from dubbing countries stated that they preferred the subtitles, even though the tradition of language transference in their country is dubbing (Safar *et al.*, 2011: 20). However, the data showed significantly different results for the 880 students attending non-language faculties, of which almost half prefer dubbing (51%) to subtitling (49%) (Safar *et al.*, 2011: 20).

The results of the various studies mentioned and my personal investigation have thus indicated that Turks do not consume many products of print media in English and usually are not exposed to English on the most widespread radio, music and television channels. The following section will take the tourism sector into consideration, in order to investigate whether the Turkish are often exposed to English via the tourists visiting Turkey.

### **3.1.2. Tourism**

The status of international tourism in Turkey is discussed in this section because it can be an increasingly important source of exposure to and use of the English language among the Turks. As many people with different native languages arrive daily in Turkey, English has become an essential skill in the tourism sector's competitive market, which is extremely important since tourism is one of the key sources of employment and income in Turkey.

Turkey was considered the 6th most attractive tourist destination in 2015 given the high number of international arrivals over 36 million of foreign tourists and this number grew until 2014 (TOBB & TUROFED, 2016: 18).<sup>9</sup> However, as a result of recent political events, the number of international tourist arrivals declined to a considerable extent after 2014. This information can be retrieved from Figure 5 (source: TOBB & TUROFED, 2016).

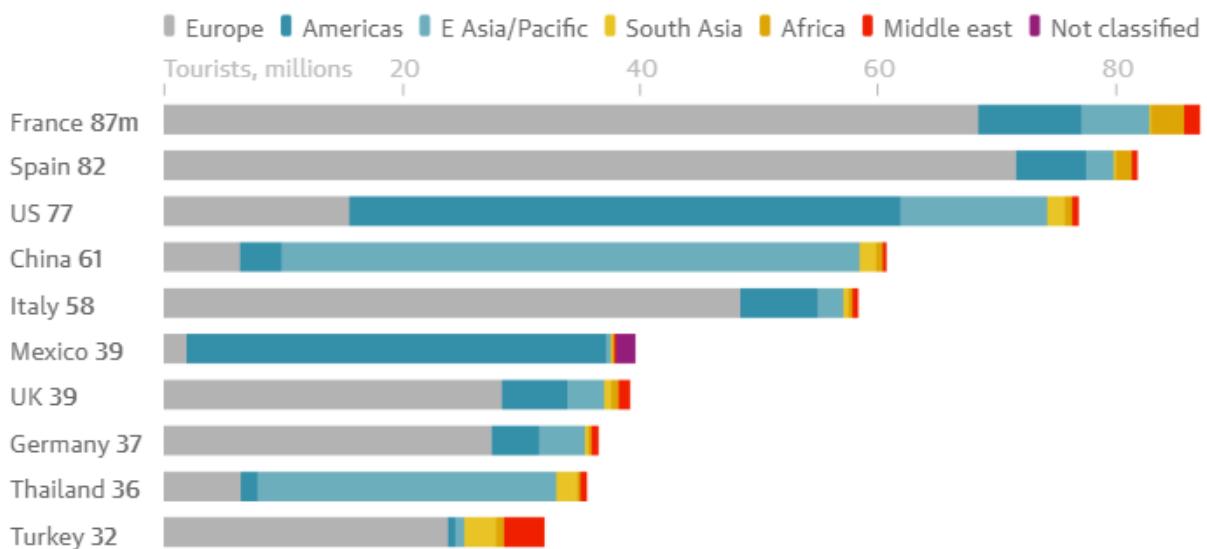


**Figure 5:** Number of international arrivals in Turkey<sup>10</sup>

<sup>9</sup> The Union of Chambers and Commodity Exchanges of Turkey (TOBB) and Turkish Hoteliers Federation (TUROFED)

<sup>10</sup> Source: World Bank, retrieved from <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/ST.INT.ARVL?locations=TR>

Despite this fact, and according to the 2017 tourism reports released by TUROFED, the percentage of foreign tourists visiting Turkey in 2017 equalled 40% of the local population (2017: 23); and, according to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), Turkey was the tenth most visited country in the world, with nearly 32 million tourists in 2017. This information is shown in Figure 6 below, in which data on Turkey is shown in the last bar:



**Figure 6:** The ten most visited countries in the world in 2017 according to UNWTO <sup>11</sup>

When the precise nationality of the foreign visitors to Turkey between 2015 and 2017 was examined, it was observed that Russia, Germany, Georgia, Iran, and Bulgaria composed the majority of tourists visiting Turkey (TUROFED, 2017: 23). So, the number of native English-speaking tourists visiting Turkey is relatively low and non-native English

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<sup>11</sup> Retrieved from Guardian, <https://www.theguardian.com/news/2019/jul/01/global-tourism-hits-record-highs-but-who-goes-where-on-holiday>

tourists may or may not communicate in English with the Turkish people. The exposure of the Turkish to native or non-native varieties of English through tourism may therefore be scarce.

In order to assess the alleged lack of proficiency in English within this sector, a short inquiry was conducted in order to assess whether successful communication would be possible in English between hotel receptionists and foreign tourists. To that purpose, a total of 36 hotels located in three different cities of Turkey - Istanbul (west), Ankara (center) and Antalya (south) - were called. Four different categories of hotels were chosen in each city to be called: 5-, 4-, 3-star hotels and youth hostels; 3 different hotels were called in each category. The aim was to ask some questions to book a room such as the following: *Do you speak English?, I was wondering if you have rooms available for two people this weekend? Can you tell me about the amenities in the room?, Is breakfast included?, May I learn the check-in hours?*

The results of this observation are summed up in Table 1 below:

	Failed Communication			Successful Communication		
	Istanbul	Ankara	Antalya	Istanbul	Ankara	Antalya
<b>5-Star Hotel</b>	0%	33%	67%	100%	67%	33%
<b>4-Star Hotel</b>	0%	33%	33%	100%	67%	67%
<b>3-Star Hotel</b>	67%	33%	33%	33%	67%	67%
<b>Youth Hostel</b>	33%	0%	67%	67%	100%	33%
<b>TOTAL</b>	25%	24.75%	50%	75%	75.25%	50%

**Table 1:** Frequency of failed and successful communication in English in 3 cities of Turkey (2019)

The findings were surprising, since receptionists are usually expected to have speaking skills in several languages: communication failed in several cases (33.35%) while in some other cases, the answers sought were provided clearly in English by the receptionist (66.75%).

One fourth of conversations conducted in Istanbul (25%) and Ankara (24.75%) failed - the caller could not book a room - due to receptionists' lack of English language skills; booking was successfully made in the remaining cases in both cities - Istanbul (75%) and Ankara (75.25%). In half of the cases in Antalya, the receptionist could not provide the answers sought, which was the most unexpected result as Antalya is one of the most popular resort cities in Turkey.

With the exception of one 4-star hotel, in all the other places the phone was answered in Turkish. Throughout this inquiry, it was observed that more than half of the utterances of the receptionists (55.5%) were conducted in an informal way. More formal answers were frequently received from 4- (44.4%) and 5-star (44.4%) hotels: considering the high quality offered in 4- and 5-star hotels, this finding was lower than what was expected. Most of the informal (77.7%) answers were received from the 3-star hotels, while the most polite and formal answers (66.6%) were surprisingly provided from the youth hostels that offer low budget stays for young travellers.

Out of 36 places called, 28% of them could not communicate with the caller in English at all and ended the phone conversation. A small percentage (8%) hung up the phone after saying “one minute” or “hotel is full” - hotel indeed was not full but the receptionist could not communicate with the caller and preferred to say the hotel was full to end the conversation.<sup>12</sup> The other answers received in failed communication were as follows: “I don’t speak English, bye”, “No English, Turkce Turkce [Turkish]”, “Madam, not English”, “Wait five minutes” (and the receptionist hung up the phone after saying that).

However, in several cases (8.3%), the receptionists tried to offer some solutions to help the caller with booking although they were not able to speak English. The receptionist in one of the 3-star hotels in Antalya said in Turkish that he could not speak English and it

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<sup>12</sup> The information derived is due to the fact that the caller was a Turkish speaker and she heard the conversation between the receptionist and his friend saying that he does not speak English and he would tell the caller that the hotel was full because he could not communicate with her.

was better to call in the morning because there would be someone speaking English. One of the receptionists in the 4-star hotels in Istanbul failed in English communication and asked the caller in Arabic whether she spoke Arabic (not surprising, considering the high interest in Turkey from the Middle East countries). One of the youth hostels receptionists in Antalya could not communicate in English and asked the caller to send a text message so he could translate and help her.

In 14% of the contacts, the person who answered the phone could not speak English and transferred the call to someone else. In half of these cases (7%), the new person who answered the phone was able to help the caller with booking questions. In 3% of the cases, the call was transferred to the third person who successfully provided seeking answers.

To sum up the information presented above, it can be said that Turkey has been an important tourism destination in the last decade, despite a decline in the number of international tourists in recent years. Concerning the nationality of the tourists visiting Turkey, it was observed that the majority of tourists come from Europe and the Middle East but not from countries from the Inner Circle of English. The hotel receptionists seem not to be fully prepared to meet the foreigners' needs with booking in English. It can therefore be concluded that so far the tourism sector has not resulted in a significant exposure of Turks to English and has not prevented the lack of proficiency in English among the professionals working in the sector in Turkey.

### 3.1.3. Shop naming

Shop naming is another functional domain of English use in Turkey. It has become common to see the names of companies, shops and their slogans in English worldwide as a result of the spread of the English language and globalisation. The diffusion of this tendency in Turkey has already been considered by Selvi (2007).

In this study, the author describes three main categories of shop naming practices in this regard: “foreign signs”, “hybrid signs” and “‘Englishized’ Turkish signs” (2007: 113-5). These categories are explained and exemplified in Table 2 below:

<b>1. Foreign signs</b>	<b>A. Non-English Signs:</b> <i>Cafe des Cafe</i> (cafe), <i>Pittoresque</i> (jewelry), <i>Ares</i> (hairdresser), and <i>Monami</i> (tailor).
	<b>B. English Signs:</b> <i>One Way Car Wash</i> (car cleaning), <i>Datasoft</i> (information technologies), <i>Blue Way</i> (shoe store), and <i>Free Style</i> (clothing store)
<b>2. Hybrid Signs</b>	<i>Happy Hamile</i> (literally meaning ‘Happy Pregnant’, a clothing store for expectant mothers), <i>Ankara Home Center</i> (a department store), <i>Cep Land</i> (literally meaning ‘Pocket Land’, a store selling mobile phones)
<b>3. ‘Englishized’ Turkish signs</b>	<i>Chilek</i> (representation of Turkish ‘ç’ by English orthographic convention ‘ch’; ‘çilek’ meaning strawberry), <i>Dishy</i> (representation of Turkish ‘s,’ by English orthographic convention of ‘sh’, and of Turkish ‘i’ by ‘y’)

**Table 2:** Linguistic classification of shop names in Turkey<sup>13</sup>

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<sup>13</sup> Source: Selvi, 2007.

Despite such diversity, and according to Selvi's findings, Englishization in shop naming is so prevalent in Turkey that almost every one out of two foreign signs is in English (2007: 115).

This information was confirmed in an experiment conducted for this dissertation in a shopping center in Istanbul, *Istinye Park*, on the 7th of April in 2019. To that purpose the 280 shop signs in the mall were registered and analysed. This analysis revealed the presence of four categories of shop names according to the origin of the lexical items composing them: (1) signs entirely in English (i.e. *Bath & Body Works*, *Far East*, *Fun Time*, *Foot Locker*, *COS-Collection Of Style*, etc.); (2) signs composed of Turkish and English words (i.e. *Deri Show* [Leather Show], *Jolly Tur* [Jolly Tour], *Miss Manav* [Miss Greengrocer], etc.); (3) signs entirely in Turkish (i.e. *Pasabahce*, *Saf Kuru Temizleme*, *Istinye Terzi*, *Ipekyol*, etc.); and (4) other signs, which include the brands that originate from non-English sources (i.e. *Adidas*, *Gucci*, *Haagen Dazs*, *Pierre Cardin*, *La Petite Maison*, etc.). The frequency of these four categories is presented in Table 3:

<b>ISTINYE PARK SHOPPING CENTER</b>	<b>Number of Shops</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Total Number of Shops</b>	280	100%
<b>Entirely in English</b>	105	37.5%
<b>Mix of Turkish and English</b>	8	3%
<b>Entirely in Turkish</b>	74	26.5%
<b>Others</b>	93	33%

**Table 3:** Linguistic analysis of shop names in *Istinye Park* Shopping Center (2019)

The results show that a high percentage (41% - 37.5% only in English and 3% a mix of Turkish and English) of 280 shop signs display words, phrases or proper names (i.e. *Fred Perry, Calvin Klein, etc.*) in English. Of the 113 shop signs with English words, it was observed that the most frequently used words were as follows: *kids, jeans, home, and shop*. Only *circa* one fourth - 26.5% - are exclusively composed of Turkish words and phrases. Therefore, it can be said that English seems to be an important domain of use in shop naming in Turkey.

The following section will consider the use of English in Portugal, following the same order applied in this section, namely media, tourism and shop naming.

### **3.2. Portugal**

Portugal is a monolingual country with a population of 10.300.3 million people ("PORDATA - Base de Dados de Portugal", 2019). Portuguese is the default language of instruction. However, due to regular contacts with other European countries - such as Spain, France, the UK - and with former colonies in Asia, Africa and South America, Portuguese have always acknowledged the benefits of multilingualism throughout history and the government has always encouraged multilingualism amongst its citizens (Mackenzie, 2012: 180).

It is perhaps important to mention that the country joined the EU in 1986. This had a major effect on the economy and repercussions on the sociolinguistic profile of English in Portugal. In 1999, Portugal enrolled to the Bologna Process, which brought English to a

more significant position in higher education due to the fact that universities in Portugal, similar to other European universities, intend to attract more international students (Leslie, 2011: vi). In addition to its ongoing status in education, English has been used in many aspects of daily lives of the Portuguese such as television, print media, music, tourism and product/place advertising, to name a few. This spread of English in Portugal unsurprisingly has had an impact on the Portuguese people. Research carried out in Portugal with regard to foreign languages, especially English, confirmed that Portuguese people are aware of multilingualism and the place of English in the globalised world (Cavalheiro, 2008; Leslie, 2011; Mackenzie, 2012).

The following section, therefore, intends to investigate several uses of English in Portugal, especially media, tourism, and shop naming. Similar to Turkey, the sections below systematise information compiled and discussed in previous research and complete it with new data.

### **3.2.1. Media**

Media is an important source of exposure to and use of English in Portugal as will be discussed in this section.

As for the print media in Portugal, there is a national weekly newspaper published in English entitled *The Portugal News* (Wheeler & Opello, 2010: 189). Established in 1977, this newspaper is the longest published newspaper in English in the country and it allows its readers an online portal as well (<https://www.theportugalnews.com/>). *Algarve Resident*,

established in 1989, is another weekly published newspaper in English in Portugal and it also provides its readers an online portal to follow Portuguese news and lifestyle called *Portugal Resident* (<https://www.portugalresident.com/>). Details on circulation could only be obtained for *The Portuguese News*: according to *Associação Portuguesa para o Controlo de Tiragem e Circulação* (APCT, Portuguese Association for Circulation Control), in June 2019 *The Portuguese News* had a circulation of over 17 thousand newspapers in Portugal (APCT, 2019). This is an important number since a major daily newspaper – *Público* – had 33.336.

However, the titles mentioned in the previous paragraph are aimed at English-speaking immigrants in Portugal, an observation that is confirmed by Mackenzie (2012: 184).

In addition to newspapers, a large number of magazines in English are available in common stores in Portugal. On a randomly chosen day (9th of April, 2019), one of the most popular and easily accessed book stores, FNAC, was visited in order to determine the presence of magazines in English. The number of English printed magazines found was 53 out of 241, which means 22% of the total. The fact reveals that magazines available in Portugal may provide exposure to English for the Portuguese to some extent.

An attempt was made to ascertain the availability and frequency of sales of English-language books in Portugal following a procedure similar to the one described for Turkey. The bookshop selected for that purpose was a FNAC store, once again. However, it was not possible to determine the number of books in English available there. So, the top 50

bestseller books were inspected and it was found out that there were six books in English on FNAC's top 50 bestsellers list as of 16th of April, 2019. This indicates that some Portuguese people may prefer reading in English.

As to popular music, a study conducted by Tonoian in 2014 states that there are many radio channels broadcasting in English in Portugal and listening to English music is highly popular and preferred among young Portuguese (2014: 31). This study adds that most of the 115 informants inquired knew the lyrics of English songs by heart and some of them could sing them along (Tonoian, 2014: 31). This popularity is still in place in 2019. It was observed on 9th April 2019 that 42% of the songs played in the top 50 list on *Spotify* were in English; and *Acharts*, an online portal allowing us to gather information about the top listened music in Portugal, indicated for the week 15<sup>th</sup>-21<sup>th</sup> April 2019 that 50% of them were in English.<sup>14</sup>

The same can be said about audiovisual products: in Portugal they are mostly imported from English-speaking countries. On a randomly chosen date in 2010, Leslie observed that 65% of the films shown in theatres in Lisbon were in English, whereas only 23% were in Portuguese (2012: 4). A similar observation was carried out for this dissertation, on a randomly picked date in 2019 (25<sup>th</sup> April 2019), and it revealed that only 10% of the movies were in Portuguese (two dubbed cartoon movies for children and one Portuguese film), while almost 90% of the movies were originally in English and presented with Portuguese subtitles. It is important to highlight that foreign language television

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<sup>14</sup> [https://acharts.co/portugal\\_singles\\_top\\_50#chart](https://acharts.co/portugal_singles_top_50#chart)

products are dubbed in Portuguese only when they target young children (see Safar *et al.*, 2011 and Leslie, 2011).

The daily broadcast streaming of two channels of RTP, *Rádio e Televisão de Portugal* (Radio, Television of Portugal), which is the national service broadcasting organisation of Portugal and devoted to the public service, was examined for three days to find out the languages in which the programmes were broadcasting. RTP1 and RTP2 were closely observed for the days of 9<sup>th</sup>-11<sup>th</sup> April 2019. Bearing in mind that these channels are devoted to the public service, it was not surprising to find that most of the programmes (nearly 90%) were in Portuguese. Despite this fact, however, there were programmes in RTP1 and RTP2 in English and with Portuguese subtitles (6%), which includes films, series (one for the youngsters), and documentaries (documentaries proved to be a mix of dubbing, in the narrative parts, and subtitling in other parts). It was also observed that many programmes in both channels were devoted to children (especially RTP2 during the morning and late afternoon). There was also one French documentary, once again subtitled in Portuguese.

As far as language transference practices are concerned, subtitling is the method Portugal applies for cinema and television, the exception being products destined to very young children. It is considered one of the “typical” subtitling countries (Koolstra *et al.*, 2002; Safar *et al.*, 2011; Almeida & Costa, 2014; Rupérez *et al.*, 2009; Mackenzie, 2012), together with Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Greece, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Sweden. This was indicated in Figure 4 in section [3.1.1](#).

The preference of the public for subtitling was also empirically confirmed in Leslie 2011. Her study, which covered 200 respondents, showed that the use of subtitles instead of dubbing on television and cinema is strongly favoured by the majority of the Portuguese ; only some, in the rural areas, feel less enthusiastic about it (2011: 32).

This fact may as well be part of a noticeable disparity that was observed in translation practices between larger and smaller countries (Almeida & Costa, 2014; Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999; Rupérez *et al.*, 2009). Smaller countries, as the Netherlands and Portugal, usually prefer subtitling, while dubbing is the favoured translation method in larger countries, such as France, Germany, Italy and Spain (Almeida & Costa, 2014). This difference may be due to economic differences: as Gottlieb explains, “the [dubbing] process was difficult, cumbersome, and far too expensive to be worthwhile in a small country” (1997, as quoted in Rupérez *et al.*, 2009), while subtitling was always less expensive and less time-consuming. According to the study on the translation practices in Europe quoted before (Safar *et al.*, 2011), subtitling is practised in the following 16 countries: Belgium (Flemish-speaking), Croatia, Cyprus, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Sweden, and the UK (Safar *et al.*, 2011: 8). It was observed that in the subtitling countries 74.6% of the respondents over 25 years have foreign language (FL) skills and 33% have second foreign language (L3) skills. For the 18-25 age group, FL and L3 knowledge is 80.7% and 41.2%, respectively, while the 12-18 age group states that 72.5% of them have skills in FL and 22.7% in L3 (Safar *et al.*, 2011: 11). The study also investigated the self-evaluation of respondents on their language skills in the subtitling countries and found that the larger

number of respondents of these countries evaluated their language level, especially in English, 4 or 5 on a scale of 5, which is close to mother tongue level (Safar *et al.*, 2011: 26).

As mentioned before, the study also compared the preferences of students who attend language faculties and non-language faculties as far as language transference practices are concerned. In the subtitling countries, the comparison revealed that the respondents from language faculties prefer subtitling (88%) to dubbing (12%) (Safar *et al.*, 2011: 21). The most interesting result, however, comes up from students of non-language faculty of these countries. Amongst 882 students of non-language faculties sampled, and contrary to the dubbing and voice-over countries, 84% still prefer subtitling while the preference of 16% remains dubbing (Safar *et al.*, 2011: 21). Overall, the year-long study also made it evident that subtitling improves foreign language awareness and motivation in the language learning process.

The information summed up in this section has thus demonstrated that Portuguese people consume print media in English and are daily exposed to English on radio, music channels and television. This must have an important impact on their English skills and learning process.

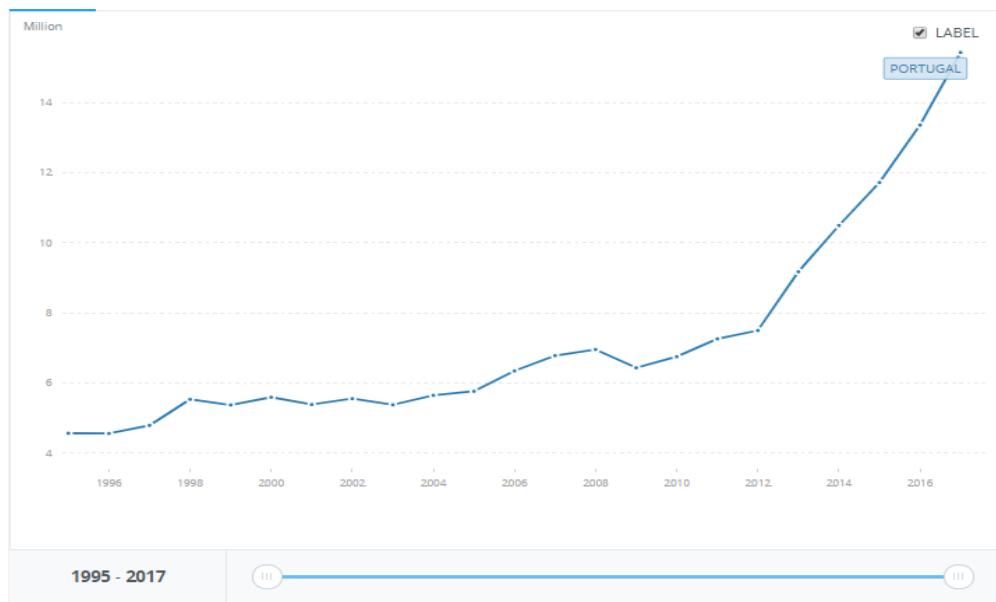
### 3.2.2. Tourism

Portugal is an important tourist destination in Europe and the world. It was nominated as the World's Leading Destination for the second time in the 25th edition of the World Travel Awards in 2018.<sup>15</sup> The capital city, Lisbon, was singled out as the World's Leading City Destination. In the same year, Madeira was deemed World's Leading Island Destination. In addition to these awards, Portugal won 13 more awards in this edition: World's Leading Adventure Tourist Attraction, World's Leading Island Destination, Europe's Leading Beach Resort, Europe's Leading Cruise Port, to name a few.

Economic indicators are in line with these awards. In 2016, the World Economic Forum (WEF) identified Portugal as the 14th most competitive tourist destination out of 136 countries (WEF, 2017). In the same year, the number of international tourist arrivals reached over 11 million (UNWTO, 2017). In 2017, the tourist population exceeded the number of residents by 50% ("Portugal | Economic Indicators, Historic Data & Forecasts", 2019). The number of foreign tourists visiting Portugal rose 15.5% to a record of 15,432,000 people in December 2017, following an increase of 14.0 % in the previous year ("Portugal | Economic Indicators, Historic Data & Forecasts", 2019). The total tourism revenue growth soared 33.4% in 2017 ("Portugal | Economic Indicators, Historic Data & Forecasts", 2019). The yearbook of tourism statistics by the World Bank expresses this growing tendency in the chart quoted below (Figure 7):

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<sup>15</sup> <https://www.worldtravelawards.com/winners/2018/europe>



**Figure 7:** Number of international arrivals in Portugal (1995-2017)<sup>16</sup>

As for the provenance of the tourists visiting Portugal, according to the Portuguese National Statistics Institute (INE, 2018), the UK leads with the largest group of visitors; Germany, Spain, France and the Netherlands are the other major groups of tourists coming from Europe; Brazilian and American tourists integrate the group of the most frequent visitors outside of Europe. This information is included in Table 4 below:

<sup>16</sup> Source: World Bank, retrieved from <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/ST.INT.ARVL?locations=PT>

Period	Portugal	United Kingdom	Germany	Spain	France	Netherlands	Brazil	USA	Total
1965-1970	52.2	10.4	5.1	3.8	5.8	1.3	1.7	9.7	90
1971-1980	55	10.5	7.6	1	3	0.5	1	4.8	83.4
1981-1990	32.4	24	8.9	2.7	3.5	3.3	0.9	3.2	78.9
1991-2000	28.7	21.2	15.5	5.9	3.2	5.4	0.8	2	82.7
2001-2010	33	19.3	10.6	7.6	3.6	4.9	1.2	1.7	81.9
2011-2016	30.8	16.1	9.5	7.7	6.4	4.8	2.8	1.9	80
1965-2016	34.3	18.5	10.7	5.7	4.1	4.2	1.4	2.6	81.5

**Table 4:** Frequency of overnight stays in Portugal by place of residence (1965-2016)<sup>17</sup>

Both the centrality of the tourism sector within the country's economy and the provenance of most tourists stimulate the exposure to and learning of English - tourism creates employment for many locals, thereby leading them to learn the common language of international communication, English.

Just like with Turkey, a questionnaire was conducted in Portugal to assess hotel receptionists' proficiency in English. A total of 36 hotels (5-, 4-, and 3-star hotels) and youth hostels (4 in each category) were called in three different cities - Lisbon (center), Oporto (north) and Faro (south) - in order to ask precisely the same questions in English.

The results of this observation are summed up in Table 5 below:

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<sup>17</sup> Source: Moreira, 2018.

	Failed Communication			Successful Communication		
	Lisbon	Oporto	Faro	Lisbon	Oporto	Faro
<b>5-Star Hotel</b>	0%	0%	0%	100%	100%	100%
<b>4-Star Hotel</b>	0%	0%	0%	100%	100%	100%
<b>3-Star Hotel</b>	0%	0%	0%	100%	100%	100%
<b>Youth Hostel</b>	0%	0%	0%	100%	100%	100%
<b>TOTAL</b>	0%	0%	0%	100%	100%	100%

**Table 5:** Frequency of failed and successful communication in English in 3 cities of Portugal (2019)

Due to previous personal experience, no communication difficulties were expected and this expectation proved right. The table is clear: all the questions about booking a room were answered by the receptionist without any failure in the communication process in English in Lisbon, Oporto and Faro.

The reactions of the informants were however diverse. In the first place, most (67%) of youth hostels receptionists answered the phone in English (without being exposed to the caller's language), while all of the hotel receptionists answered the phone in Portuguese. This can indicate that young travelers, the typical customers of hostels, favour English in international contacts. In the second place, and very curiously, the caller, a non-native speaker of Portuguese, was discouraged to speak Portuguese whenever she attempted to do it by the receptionists of three hotels (one in Lisbon and two in Faro), who directly suggested to switch into English.

Another finding was that 84% of receptionists at 5- and 4-star hotels seem to speak a more polite and more formal English than the others (i.e. *How may I help you?*; *Certainly, ma'am; have a delightful day, ma'am*; etc.). Considering the high quality offered in these hotels, this fact is probably not surprising.

Given the information presented in this section, it can be concluded that the use of English in the tourism sector in Portugal is widespread and that this has certainly contributed to an enhanced exposure of the Portuguese to English and to an also enhanced motivation to learn the language. The fluency in English of Portuguese working in the tourism sector is probably even the reason why non-native speakers of Portuguese are discouraged to practice their Portuguese in Portugal - this may be considered an extra and unnecessary effort from them.

### **3.2.3. Shop naming**

In relation to shop naming practices in Portugal, previous studies have to be reported.

One of them - Torkington, 2009 - was conducted in Almancil, a small town in the Algarve. This study considered the names of the shops in Rua de República, the centre of Almancil, and found out that English is present in almost 50% of the shop names in this area (Torkington, 2009: 142), as shown in Figure 8.

Electro Edir <b>ELECTRICAL MATERIALS &amp; APPLIANCES</b>	Papelaria Viegas <b>NEWSAGENT &amp; STATIONERY</b>	Cinema Miranda (NOW DERELICT BUILDING)	Al-Mansal Villas <b>REAL ESTATE</b>	Battering Plaice <b>'FISH &amp; CHIPS' TAKEAWAY</b>	Correios <b>POST OFFICE</b>	Café Palmeira
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### RUA DA REPÚBLICA

Photo Viegas <b>PHOTOGRAPH ERS'</b>	Crédito Agrícola <b>BANK</b>	Pastelaria Aladino	British Butcher (House)	Rumours (House)	Ristorante Grissino <b>RESTAURANT</b> (House)	O Nosso Café <b>RESTAURANT</b>	Ervanária Saúde <b>HEALTH FOOD SHOP</b>	<b>MECHANICS</b>
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**Figure 8:** Layout of the shops and businesses on Rua da República, Almancil <sup>18</sup>

Though this is an impressive proportion, it must be borne in mind that Almancil is a town in the south of Portugal where foreign people, especially native speakers of English, not only come very often but also choose to live in. So it is not surprising to find such a high frequency of shop names in English.

Another study - Stewart & Fawcett, 2004 - was conducted to investigate the frequency of languages other than Portuguese in a total of 271 shop signs of six small towns located in northwestern Portugal (Afife, Arcos de Valdevez, Caminha, Fermentelos, Ponte da Barca, Vila Praia de Âncora). The findings of this study are summarised in Table

<sup>18</sup> Source: Torkington, 2009: 130.

Town	Population	No. of signs	In English	%age
Afife	650	9	1	11%
Arcos de Valdevez	4,400	65	7	10%
Caminha	1,555	63	5	8%
Fermentelos	—	27	2	7%
Ponte da Barca	2,200	48	6	13%
Vila Praia de Âncora	2,500	59	6	10%

**Table 6:** Frequency of English shop signs in six small towns in Portugal (2004)<sup>19</sup>

This study revealed that English was the foreign language most frequently used in shop signs in the places investigated - 27 or 10% of those shop signs displayed words or phrases in English (Stewart & Fawcett, 2004: 57). The most frequently used English words were the following; *(snack) bar, fast food, fashion and style, handcraft's, and café* (Stewart & Fawcett, 2004: 57). A significant finding of the study was the absence of other languages other than Portuguese and English in the shop signs, especially because these towns are relatively close to Spain (Stewart & Fawcett, 2004: 56).

In order to dispose of more recent information about shop naming practices in Portugal and of data comparable with that collected on Turkey, an investigation was conducted in a shopping center in Lisbon - *Colombo* - on the 8th of April in 2019. A total of 343 shop signs were registered and observed. As in the case of Turkey, they could be categorised into four categories: (1) signs entirely in English (i.e. *Women's Secret, The Body Shop, Stone by Stone, Phone House*, etc.); (2) signs composed of Portuguese and English words (i.e. *Natura Selection* [Natural Selection], *A Montra VIP* [VIP Window], *Activo Bank* [Active Bank], etc.); (3) signs entirely in Portuguese (i.e. *A Loja do Gato Preto*

<sup>19</sup> Source: Stewart & Fawcett, 2004.

[The Black Cat's Shop], *Amor aos Pedaços* [Love in Pieces], *Bifanas de Vendas Novas* - *Casa Original* [Vendas Novas Steaks – The Original House], *Boutique dos Relógios* [Watch Boutique], etc.); (4) other signs, which include the brands that originate from non-English sources (i.e. *Bimba Y Lola*, *El Ganso*, *Giovanni Galli*, *Jean Louis David*, etc.). The results of this categorisation are presented in Table 7 below:

<b>COLOMBO SHOPPING MALL</b>	<b>Number of Shops</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Total Number of Shops</b>	343	100%
<b>Entirely in English</b>	160	47%
<b>Mix of Portuguese and English</b>	3	1%
<b>Entirely in Portuguese</b>	135	40%
<b>Others</b>	45	13%

**Table 7:** Linguistic classification of shop names in *Colombo* Shopping Mall (2019)

As shown, 47% of the shop signs at *Colombo* shopping centre are exclusively composed of English words or phrases (very often proper names, as *Bobbi Brown*). The most frequently used English words in the shop signs are the following: *kids*, *shop*, *jeans* and *store*. The remaining shop-signs are almost exclusively in Portuguese (40%) which means that the presence of other foreign languages is rather low (13%).

As a conclusion of the information presented above, one can claim that English vocabulary is not only present but prevalent in shop names in Portugal.

### 3.3. The two countries compared

The first goal of this study was to investigate the presence of English, in the Turkish and Portuguese speech communities, in functional domains very often conquered by the English language in the Expanding Circle territories. The domains examined were those of media, tourism and shop naming.

Shortly, they can be presented in the following terms:

COUNTRY		TURKEY	PORTUGAL
DOMAINS OF USE	MEDIA	<b>Less English</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- dubbing country</li> <li>- 14% of songs in EN on Spotify</li> <li>- 12% of available magazines in EN</li> <li>- no books in EN in top 50 books</li> </ul>	<b>More English</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- subtitling country</li> <li>- 42% of songs in EN on Spotify</li> <li>- 22% of available magazines in EN</li> <li>- 12% of books in EN in top 50 books</li> </ul>
	TOURISM	<b>Less English</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- major sources of tourists: Russia, Germany, Georgia, Iran, Bulgaria</li> <li>- 33.25 % of the communication with hotel receptionists failed</li> </ul>	<b>More English</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- major sources of tourists: UK, Germany, Spain, France, the Netherlands</li> <li>- no communication with hotel receptionists failed.</li> </ul>
	SHOP NAMING	<b>Less English</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 37.5% of shopping centre's shop names in English</li> </ul>	<b>More English</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 47% of shopping centre's shop names in English</li> </ul>

**Table 8:** A comparison of the use of English in Turkey and Portugal: media, tourism, and shop naming

As highlighted in Table 8, there are important differences as far as media and tourism are concerned.

As to media, in Portugal the presence of English is significant on cinema and private television. This is in part due to the fact that there is almost no dubbing of foreign movies or television programmes or series, which results in a continuous foreign language exposure in the country. This medium provides one of the most important sources of contact with foreign languages in Portugal. The Portuguese, therefore, start to hear English from their childhood by watching English and Portuguese programmes side by side, which facilitates a more natural acquisition process of English. The situation is quite different in Turkey. All foreign media products are dubbed into Turkish, so that it is no source of exposure to English to either adults or children in the country.

As to music, it was found that the Portuguese listen to music in English more than the Turks. Investigation of the top 50 songs listened to on Spotify revealed that in Turkey 14% of the songs were in English, while this number was 42% in Portugal.

Besides television, cinema and music, it was observed that print media may also provide exposure to English in Portugal to some extent, while this exposure is relatively less in Turkey. Investigation of magazines and books available in the market for the locals revealed that 22% of magazines and 12% of books (in the top 50 bestselling books) were in English in Portugal. However, the number was lower (12%) for magazines and books published in English in the top 50 bestsellers does not exist in Turkey. Printing of newspapers in English seems to be unavailable and not to raise exposure to the Turks in the country, while in Portugal a few newspapers printed in English are available, but seemingly they target the foreigners living in or visiting the country.

Tourism related data showed that both countries are favoured tourist destinations around the world. When the tourist population was compared to the local population, it was found that as of 2017 Portugal receives more tourists as per the population - 150% ("Portugal | Economic Indicators, Historic Data & Forecasts", 2019), compared to Turkey - 40% (TUROFED, 2017: 23). However, the provenance of the tourists visiting Turkey and Portugal were disparate. European countries, namely, the UK, Germany, Spain, France and the Netherlands, respectively, are the sources of the major groups of tourists visiting Portugal (INE, 2018), while the following countries are the major source of tourists in Turkey: Russia, Germany, Georgia, Iran, and Bulgaria (TUROFED, 2017: 23). Given the provenance of the major groups of tourists, this finding indicates that tourism stimulates exposure to and learning of English more in Portugal than in Turkey. This finding reinforces the results of the investigation conducted by calling 36 hotels in three different cities in each speech community. The use of English in the tourism sector is found to be more widespread in Portugal than in Turkey and it seemingly enhances more exposure to English and high motivation to learn the language in Portugal.

Furthermore, travelling across the world, especially within the multilingual Europe, is easier for the Portuguese. Portugal's membership to the EU provides a circulative environment for Europeans to travel. As a consequence, contact with tourists and in particular British tourists is also more evident in Portugal than in Turkey (see e.g. UNWTO, 2017 and "Portugal | Economic Indicators, Historic Data & Forecasts", 2019). It is not surprising for a Portuguese to get in contact with a foreigner and talk in English. Having a Turkish passport provides very different conditions. It can be a challenging

process for the Turks to obtain a visa for most countries, although it is easy for people from other countries to travel to Turkey. So, Turkish people seem to contact less with speakers of other languages, even though both Turkey and Portugal are favoured tourist destinations.

As to shop signs, the frequency of languages other than the local languages used in the shop signs of a shopping mall was investigated in the subject countries. Differences are less important but not negligible. The linguistic classification of shop names in the subject countries revealed that the percentage of shops named entirely in English is 47 % in Portugal and 37.5 % in Turkey, which indicates that the recognition of the English language is highly reflected in shop naming practices in both countries though more widespread in Portugal. The words *kids*, *shop*, and *jeans* were the most frequently used English words in both countries.

## **4. TEACHING / LEARNING ENGLISH**

This chapter discusses the historical and present contexts of teaching / learning English in Turkey and Portugal, the attitudes of learners towards the language in both countries and the proficiency in English in these two Expanding Circle countries.

### **4.1. Turkey**

#### **4.1.1. Historical and present context**

This section presents a brief historical review of ELT in Turkey and its current status in Turkish education, at all levels - primary, secondary and higher education.

ELT was first introduced in Turkish in the Tanzimat period, the second half of the 18th century, which marks the beginning of a westernisation movement in the education system (Kirkgoz, 2005: 160). Its spread was later accelerated with the establishment of the Turkish Republic in 1923 and the collapse of the Ottoman Empire. So, by the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, English already had supremacy over other foreign languages, especially French, though this used to be the language of diplomacy, education, and art at the time (Kirkgoz, 2007: 217-8).

In the years following 1923, marked by revolutions and the establishment of the Turkish Republic, Turkey experienced a rapid modernisation and secularisation process and this resulted in astounding changes in the national language. The Ottoman Turkish and

script, which had many Arabic and Persian words, were replaced by the Turkish language that is spoken today and by the Latin alphabet; this was introduced in 1928 by Ataturk, the founder and the first president of modern Turkey, who ruled from 1923 to 1938. According to Zok (2010: 3), this showed Turkey's willingness to integrate Europe, since by adopting the Roman alphabet the country was quitting Islamic traditions. The adoption of the Latin script assisted the spread of ELT and helped Turkish students in their effort to learn a new foreign language, since they no longer needed to acquire a new alphabet to that purpose.

The later development of close trade relations with the USA and the increasing influence of globalisation from the mid-1980s have contributed to the growing presence of English on the Turkish educational system (Kirkgoz, 2009: 670). The *Yabancı Dil Egitim ve Öğretim Kanunu* (Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act) was enacted in 1983 to establish a foreign language teaching policy in Turkey. This act states that Turkish is the language of instruction in primary, secondary and high schools in Turkey, and bestows all regulations concerning the English language curriculum and syllabi upon the Ministry of National Education (*Milli Egitim Bakanligi - MEB*) (MEB, 2019). But the place of English as a prominent tool to communicate internationally in the outer world was recognised before 1983 and the first public English-medium secondary school was founded in 1955; it was called *Anadolu* (Anatolian) high school (Kirkgoz, 2005: 160).

In Turkey there are now both state schools (general, technical, *Anadolu*) and private schools. At the secondary level, *Anadolu* high schools attract the most successful students, selected by a very competitive state exam, and offer intensive English lessons (Kirkgoz, 2005: 161). Due to their prestige, the number of *Anadolu* high schools grew so quickly that

they were 1457 by the 2000-2001 school year (Kirkgoz, 2005: 160). Before 2005, the period of education in these schools was four years and the first of them was mainly English preparation; regulation approved in 2005 suppressed this preparatory year in *Anadolu* high schools, since English preparation was introduced in the curriculum earlier (from 4<sup>th</sup> to 7<sup>th</sup> grade) and secondary education was extended to 4 years.

As for higher education, a state university - the Middle Eastern Technical University - decided to use English as the language of instruction as soon as 1956, based on an American model. But this was an exception. Later legislation, the Higher Education Act issued in 1984 by *Yuksek Ogretim Kurulu* (The Council of Higher Education), determined that the language of instruction of universities could be decided by the universities themselves. Despite this possibility, the Council recommended that Universities should teach their courses in both Turkish and English, for students to have an option. As expected (Kirkgoz, 2009: 672), the 1984 Higher Education Act opened the way for English-medium universities to spread throughout the country, so that by 2016 the number of universities providing courses in English increased to 77 - 52 state and 25 private universities. According to Kirkgoz, the purpose of English-medium education programmes is to qualify students for English publication in scientific and technological studies in their various departments (2005: 160).

Although the importance of English as an international language was acknowledged in the ELT curriculum of secondary and higher education prior to the 1990s, it was introduced in the primary education curriculum only in 1997 (Kirkgoz, 2009: 673). In 1997, the curriculum went through some major changes. The Ministry of Education

officially stated that “Turkey’s political and economic ambitions and the nation’s desire to keep up its relations with foreign countries using English, particularly with countries of the EU, are the major motivating forces underlying the decision to introduce English to young learners” (MEB, 1997b: 606, as cited in Kirkgoz 2009: 674).

Until that year, the duration of primary education was 5 years, and the secondary and high school education were 3 years each. After 1997, however, basic education was increased to 8 years, combining 5 years of primary and 3 years of secondary education together. English was introduced as a regular subject titled “Teaching English to Young Learners”, targeted to 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> grades (Kirkgoz, 2009: 674). Before 1997, students would start to learn English only in the 6<sup>th</sup> grade and were not exposed to English as much as they would be after the new curriculum reform (Kirkgoz, 2009: 674).

When the current status of English in Turkish education is considered, it appears that the government recognises the importance of learning foreign languages at a younger age. In the 2012-2013 academic year, national education underwent another major change, with a new system called *4+4+4 Egitim Sistemi* (4+4+4 Education System). The 2012 Act increased the compulsory education from 8 years to 12 years, consisting of 4 years of primary, 4 years of secondary and 4 years of high school. Before 4+4+4 Education System, the total number of English lessons in 8 years of primary and secondary education was 432, while the average number in European countries is 522 (Bayyurt, 2012: 99). With the new regulation, students start to learn English in 2<sup>nd</sup> grade, so they are exposed to 144 more hours of English.

The current hours of English lessons taught weekly in primary, secondary and high schools (2018-2019) in Turkey are displayed on Tables 9 and 10 below.<sup>20</sup> As can be seen, students first encounter with the foreign language in the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade and study English for two hours per week; and they continue their English studies until they complete their compulsory education, with a growing number of lessons per week.

EFL	Primary Education				Secondary Education			
	1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	4 <sup>th</sup>	5 <sup>th</sup>	6 <sup>th</sup>	7 <sup>th</sup>	8 <sup>th</sup>
School Grades	1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	4 <sup>th</sup>	5 <sup>th</sup>	6 <sup>th</sup>	7 <sup>th</sup>	8 <sup>th</sup>
Hours of English Lessons per week	-	2h	2h	2h	3h	3h	4h	4h

**Table 9:** Hours of English per week in primary and secondary education in Turkey (2018-2019)

As mentioned above, there are several types of high schools in Turkey; and some of them (*Anadolu* and Social Science high schools) may still offer a preparatory year with English courses. During this preparatory year, students are exposed to an important number of hours of English lessons per week; at the end of the course, they usually have an assessment exam. This information is summed up below:

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<sup>20</sup> The data was obtained from <https://www.memurlar.net/>.

<b>EFL at High Schools</b>	<b>Prep</b>	<b>9<sup>th</sup></b>	<b>10<sup>th</sup></b>	<b>11<sup>th</sup></b>	<b>12<sup>th</sup></b>
<i>Anadolu</i> High School <sup>21</sup>	20h	4h	4h	4h	4h
Social Science High School	20h	4h	4h	4h	4h
Science High School	-	4h	4h	4h	4h
<i>Anadolu Imam Hatip</i> High School <sup>22</sup>	-	5h	2h	2h	2h

**Table 10:** Hours of English per week in high schools in Turkey (2018-2019)

As can be seen in Table 10, apart from *Anadolu Imam Hatip* High School which offer five hours of English in the 9<sup>th</sup> grade and two hours in the following three years, the other types of high schools offer four hours of English classes per week.

With regard to higher education, in January 2018 the number of higher education institutions reached 206 (129 public and 77 private) with a total student population of over 7 million ("Yükseköğretim Bilgi Yönetim Sistemi" - Higher Education Information Management System, 2019). In these institutions, the language of instruction can be Turkish, English or a mix of both languages, though English-medium instruction is officially supported by the Turkish Government (Selvi, 2011: 187). However, the right medium of instruction for higher education is a matter of debate in Turkey (Kirkgoz, 2009: 81). In fact, despite (i) the English language policy supported by the State, (ii) the high number of universities offering English-medium instruction (most of the privately-owned)

<sup>21</sup> Not all *Anadolu* Schools offer preparatory year.

<sup>22</sup> These are religious vocational high schools that are widespread in Turkey.

and (iii) the consensus of Turkish scholars on the benefits of using English in academia, part of the Turkish society seems not to be aware of the important role of English in the national education system (Uzum, 2007: 40) and there are diverse opinions about the role of foreign languages in national education. On one hand, it is argued that bilingual education promotes students' cognitive skills besides their linguistic capabilities (Alptekin, 1998: 34-7); on the other hand, the use of English as a medium of instruction is seen by many as a threat to the development of the Turkish society and culture and as a violation of human rights (Demircan, 2006). As a consequence, and in contrast to earlier findings presented by Dogancay-Aktuna and Kiziltepe (2005), a report by the British Council in Turkey and TEPAV (2015) avoids indicating precise numbers of universities using particular languages as a medium of instruction - those languages may be mixed in diverse ways and the universities themselves do not describe their language policy in the publicly available materials.

Furthermore, and according to the study developed by the British Council and TEPAV just quoted, students in Turkey tend to see English as a medium of instruction as a barrier which hinders the learning of core disciplinary knowledge (2015: 56). The same report shows in addition that undergraduate students in Turkey are not required to read, write or publish research papers in English (2015: 56), especially because there are enough Turkish textbooks in many subjects that learners can use. In a bid to solve this discussion, the Council of Higher Education decided to make English language preparation classes compulsory in the universities in which English is expected to be used (Council of Higher

Education, 2016). If the university uses Turkish as the language of instruction instead, it may or may not include English language as an extra subject for the students.

The 2013 report by the British Council and TEPAV mentioned above not only considers the current state of foreign language teaching, particularly English, in the state schools in Turkey, but also aims at determining ways of improving ELT conditions. This was felt important by the Turkish government, as it would contribute to the country's ambitious goal of becoming one of the ten largest economies in the world by 2023, for which proficient knowledge in English is deemed crucial. It is stated in the report that, despite 1000 hours of English lessons, few Turkish students observed by the team were able to achieve basic communicative competence. Three issues considered in the report – teaching methodology, textbooks and classroom management - are discussed in the following paragraphs, so as to fully understand the context of ELT in Turkey.

As far as teaching methodology is concerned, it is highlighted that English lessons are grammar- and not communicative-task based (British Council & TEPAV, 2013: 53). The authors even suggest that teachers should participate in in-service training throughout their professional life in order to increase their possibility of keeping in touch with state-of-the-art teaching methodologies (British Council & TEPAV, 2013: 54). It should be noted, however, that the main reason why teachers adopt the grammar-based methodology is not discussed. It is presented in the following lines.

In Turkey, there are two crucial exams that shape students' future life; high school entrance exam (at age 15) and university entrance exam (at age 18). Both are based on

multiple-choice questions and quite challenging. Students are placed in high schools or universities according to the result of these national exams. As for the teachers, they are expected to prepare their students for these life-changing exams. As the current national testing system in Turkey is grammar-based, the teachers have to adopt this methodology. So long as the current assessment system remains, it is not feasible to expect teachers to eliminate a grammar-based approach and focus on communicative skills. Likewise, it is not feasible to expect students to worry about communicative competence, though some of them do, since they are not going to be assessed by communicative skills.

As for textbooks, it is observed in the report under analysis that textbook-centred learning is one of the reasons for Turkish students' low proficiency in English (British Council & TEPAV, 2013: 53). In Turkey, textbooks are provided by the government at no cost. Teachers' and students' opinions about these books is that they are rather uninteresting and quite challenging given students' needs and proficiency level (2013: 41-3); and though the teacher does have a chance to suggest his students to buy a more suitable book according to their needs and proficiency level, this is usually impractical due both to very strict policies led by the Ministry of Education and to parents' and/or students' disagreement with possible alternatives due to the price of another book.

As for classroom management and communication, it was found in the study mentioned that communication was largely teacher-centred in the ELT classroom, the furnishing/layout - students sit together in pairs on bench seats - of which was deemed to be one of the reasons for Turkish students' low proficiency in English (British Council & TEPAV, 2013: 53). Furthermore, it is highlighted that classes are usually large - with over

30 students each – and so not easy to control, especially when the students are not motivated, which is the case of many in Turkey. Communication activities conducted by the teacher in such classrooms can therefore become noisy and distracting for the other classes. Under these circumstances, teachers may find a pair or group seating plan ineffective and unfeasible. My personal experience of teaching in Turkey revealed that students engaged in side-talks with each other when the seated plan was in pairs and groups, but they still failed to communicate in English. As a consequence, a teacher-centred layout may still be preferred by instructors.

Taking into consideration the brief history of English language education in Turkey and its present state, it can be said that Turkish students are currently more exposed to English than they were seven years ago, even though there are still ongoing problems concerning the quality of English education, especially in the state schools. As for higher education, although some controversies still exist in regard to English-medium education's effect on national policies and quality of the education, English is used in some universities as a language of instruction, in some as a course subject and in some others it is taught for a whole preparatory year before the student starts to study her/his main subject.

#### **4.1.2. Attitudes**

This section discusses the attitudes of Turkish students towards English. There is a rich literature related to attitudes towards the English language in Turkey. Several studies show that Turkish learners have positive attitudes towards learning English, a high

instrumental motivation and acknowledge the global position of the English language (Tarhan, 2003; Konig, 2006; Seker, 2003; Uzum, 2007; Genc & Aydin 2017; Kiziltepe, 2000; Saracaloglu, 2000). Turkish learners considered in the studies referred to recognise the importance of English due to its pragmatic benefits, such as the prestige it warrants in the job market and the advancement it can bring in an academic and scientific career. Indeed, several studies show that job requirement is one of the most significant reasons for Turks to learn English (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998: 33; Kiziltepe, 2000: 154-5; Uzum, 2007: 120).

Attitude to a foreign language is very often also determined by the attitudes towards the speakers of that language (Gardner, 1985). Uzum (2007) and Goktepe (2014) revealed that Turkish students show a favourable attitude towards native speakers of English and are willing to visit English speaking countries. One of the researchers in the field found that the majority of the Turkish students surveyed (85%) would like to travel to English-speaking countries and a high proportion of them (80%) were eager to meet native English people (Goktepe, 2014: 324). The report produced by the British Council and TEPAV concludes that most - 72 % - of the students inquired believe that English language proficiency will allow them to connect with the rest of the world; 27% find that learning English is a beneficial skill because it is the most common foreign language in the world; and 27% consider learning English in order to communicate when abroad (British Council & TEPAV, 2013: 89). None of the studies considered identified negative attitudes towards English speakers on a personal level.

But the situation is more complex than stated so far. As previously explained (see section 2.4.), integrativeness deals with the desire to learn a foreign language in order to communicate with the members of the community and occasionally to become like one of them (Dornyei & Ushidoa, 2009) - and there are contradictory findings in Turkey in this regard. Goktepe, for instance, found out that 50% of her respondents wished to use English as fluently as the native speakers, while 27% of her sample did not share this opinion (2014: 323). When the same respondents were asked how much they liked the English language, it was observed that 58% responded positively but 10% negatively (Goktepe, 2014: 323). The conclusions of Uzum 2007 are also of a mixed attitude towards English; learners sampled hold less favourable opinions concerning the intercultural contacts with British and American societies and express the idea that Britain has damaged the world via colonisation, wars and political clashes, and the USA are acting in a similar way (2007: 124).

This unfavourable attitude towards the USA is probably more acute now, as the USA and Turkey have been experiencing really unfavourable relations due to political issues related to Syria, Turkey's growing friendship with Russia, etc.. Such socio-political concerns tend to negatively impact on Turks' opinion on the English language and can naturally have a negative impact on learners' attitudes towards ELT.

Loyalty to native language and culture may also affect learners' attitudes towards a foreign language learning. In Uzum's study, informants were questioned about the issue of loyalty. All respondents surveyed agreed with a statement presented to them, namely that "the Turkish language is a very beautiful language and Turkish culture could be regarded as

a superior culture to those of other countries" (2007: 114). Most of the respondents agreed with the idea that English undermines the Turkish language (90%) and culture (80%) through, for example, shop branding in English and the use of English words in daily speech (2007: 67, 115). The study also reveals that Turkish students try to maintain and preserve the local culture and language (2007: 115-6). Loyalty of the Turks to their native language, also inspired by Ataturk, stems especially from the fact that Turkey was established on linguistic and historical grounds rather than on a religious or ethnic basis; so Turkish citizens will make sure the future of Turkish language and culture is maintained (2007: 118).

The effect of nationalistic attitudes on attitudes to foreign languages is not uncommon and its relevance was highlighted by Fishman as early as 1977 in the following terms:

Puristic and ideological views towards the national languages are the primary attitudinal predictors and, as expected, these are consistently negatively related to English attitudes, across countries as well as across populations. (...) Those adults and youngsters, who acquire strong puristic and ideologically encumbered views of their respective national language, are less likely, therefore, to acquire positive attitudes towards English. (1977: 163)

Because strong loyalty to native language and culture will prevent learners from having positive attitudes towards foreign languages, in particular to English, this loyalty is

a significant issue and raises a language learning environment where students perceive English as a threat to their national values.

Turkish learners' attitudes towards English print media have also been considered in the literature. Goktepe concluded that most of her respondents (70.8%) didn't show a keen interest in English magazines, books, and newspapers (2014: 324). This could be interpreted in two ways; firstly, a disinterest in reading and, secondly, a particular disinterest in print products in English.

Furthermore, Turkish people's contact with English and with native speakers of the language is limited (due to several issues considered in the previous sections), and this circumstance contributes to learners' demotivation. The findings of the British Council & TEPAV survey discussed in this section indicate that a small proportion - 14% - of the students inquired had been abroad and that less than 4% of those who had been abroad seized the opportunity to speak in English (2013: 44). This can be due to difficulties in social interactions, but also to poor proficiency.

Besides the factors influencing learners' attitudes towards English identified in the previous paragraphs, another one comes into play, i.e. the national education system and practices. According to the British Council & TEPAV survey, students feel that their motivation would increase if they were able to study English according to their personal interests, with the support of better English books and video games, and were liberated of the repetitive curriculum imposed by the Turkish educational authorities (2013: 44). An analysis to determine students' satisfaction with their lessons at school, as well as the

reasons for their attitudes, reveals that the school types (primary, vocational high school and regular high school) also affect how much students enjoy their English classes (British Council & TEPAV, 2013: 92): primary school students tend to enjoy their English lessons more (64%), and satisfaction decreases as the student gets closer to the end of secondary education - 80% of the 5<sup>th</sup> grade students stated that they enjoy English lessons while the percentage of similar enjoyment decreased to 37% for the 12<sup>th</sup> grade students (British Council & TEPAV, 2013: 92). Pleasure derived from English classes is largely dependent on the presence or absence of class liveliness, difficulty or ease in understanding the class material and likeness for the teacher (British Council & TEPAV, 2013: 93).

As a summary of the information compiled on the attitudes towards English in Turkey, it can be stated that some Turkish hold positive attitudes towards learning English and its culture and recognise its importance in the job market; however, some see English as a threat to their native tongue and culture. Political issues do seem to affect learners' perspective in a negative way.

The following section discusses the level of English proficiency in Turkey.

#### **4.1.3. Proficiency**

According to the 2018 English Proficiency Index (EPI) of 88 countries conducted by EF, the world's largest privately held education company, Turkey ranks 73 out of 88, with a 47.17 score indicating very low proficiency (EF, 2018: 22). When the capital cities of those 88 countries were compared, it was concluded that Ankara ranks 48 out of 88

capitals, with a score of 51.73 (EF, 2018: 8). The comparison of Turkey's 2017 and 2018 EF scores shows that Turkey has experienced a slight decrease in English proficiency (-0.62) (EF, 2018: 25) and a previous report by the same company states that "Turkey's proficiency level has been drifting downward since 2012" (EF, 2015: 12), although Turkish teachers of English are well educated to teach conversational English and the population is young to catch up with any improvements.

Similar conclusions can be taken from a report on the average TOEFL scores released every year by ETS. The data, classified by geographical region and native country, indicates that the average mark obtained by Turkish test-takers is 78 out of 120 (ETS, 2018: 15), which is a result "similar to countries which do not have a Latin alphabet, such as Sudan and Ethiopia" (British Council and TEPAV, 2013: 15).

The Turkey National Need Assessment report conducted by the British Council and TEPAV mentioned above also highlights that Turkey is underperforming in ELT: "Turkey consistently ranks very low on various measures of English language speaking" (British Council and TEPAV, 2013: 24).

Another interesting source on this topic is the Eurobarometer survey *Europeans and their Languages*, published in 2006 by the European Commission. As the title indicates, it is not simply devoted to the use of English in the countries surveyed; however, it contains information that is revealing on proficiency in English, as this language is perceived by Europeans as the most useful foreign language to know and confirmed to be the most widely spoken, with this status, in Europe (European Commission, 2006: 12, 30).

Furthermore, though it is not so recent, as it reports on fieldwork conducted in 2005, this survey is very useful for a comparison of Portugal and Turkey, since Turkey was no longer included in such European studies at a later date. The findings of this survey will therefore be considered in this section.

Information on Turkey is summarised in Table 11. The downward red arrow is used to indicate that the frequency of a parameter is lower than the EU average in Turkey; the upward green arrow indicates, on the contrary, that the frequency of a parameter is higher than the EU average in Turkey.

<b>Turks...</b>	<b>Parameter</b>
33% (⬇)	can hold a conversation in a foreign language.
5% (⬇)	master two foreign languages.
67% (⬇)	are incapable of participating in a conversation in a foreign language.
11% (⬇)	are learning or improving their foreign language skills for the past two years.
24% (⬆)	plan to learn a foreign language in the upcoming year.
95% (⬆)	acknowledge the benefits of multilingualism.
54% (⬆)	believe that their countrymen have good language skills.
26% (⬇)	prefer to watch foreign films and programmes with subtitles.
48% (⬇)	agree that regional and minority languages should receive greater support.

**Table 11:** The Turks and their languages<sup>23</sup>

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<sup>23</sup> Source: European Commission, 2006.

As shown, the source under consideration revealed that only 33% of the Turks sampled are able to hold a conversation in a language other than their mother tongue and only 5% of them master two languages along with their native tongue; the European averages for these criteria are 53% and 28% respectively (2006: 9). It showed furthermore that 67% of the Turkish sample, the highest indicator amongst 29 countries covered, admitted to being incapable of participating in a conversation in a language other than the native, while the average in the EU countries surveyed is 44% for these criteria (2006: 9). When asked “how did you learn or improve your first foreign language?”, 29% of the Turkish respondents claimed that they learned their first foreign language in secondary school (2006: 23); Italy is the single country with a higher score in this parameter (2006: 23). It was also found that only 18% of the Turkish respondents had been learning or improving their foreign language skills for the past two years and 21% planned to learn a new language over the next coming year (2006: 24). The most non-active language learners were found in Greece, Portugal, and Turkey (2006: 25).<sup>24</sup> The benefits of multilingualism were acknowledged in every country surveyed, with the scores ranging from 73% in Portugal to 99% in Sweden (2006: 28); Turkey showed an extremely positive trend in this respect, with 95% of the respondents acknowledging the benefits of knowing other languages than one’s mother tongue (2006: 28).

More than half of European citizens sampled (65%) reported that language lessons at school were one of the ways they used to learn foreign languages (2006: 47). Some

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<sup>24</sup> Non-active language learner is described by the European Commission as someone who has neither learned/improved language skills over the last two years nor intends to do so over the next 12 months (European Commission, 2006: 24).

Turks in the sample (41%) indicated that they found the foreign language lessons at school useful (2006: 47); nearly half of them (54%) reported that their countrymen were good at speaking other languages, while the average of Europe is 44% (European Commission, 2006: 58).

In view of the various studies presented along this section, we can conclude that Turks performs relatively low in English language skills when compared to other European citizens, despite their willingness to improve.

## **4.2. Portugal**

### **4.2.1. Historical and current context**

This section presents a similar structure to that of the description of ELT in Turkey, so a short history of the teaching of English in Portugal will be followed by a brief description of its present status.

Only in the 19th century, upon the foundation of *Liceus* (secondary schools), did English begin to have an important role in the Portuguese educational system, due to its increasing worldwide position and to the relationship between England and Portugal and both countries' colonies (Guerra, 2005: 19). Under the title of "Modern Languages", one of the ten school subjects in these schools, English, French or German would be taught if the schools met the requirements (Fernandes, 1998, as cited in Guerra, 2005: 12). In 1936, the language system became more established and French was taught in all secondary schools

for five hours a week during the first three years; in the next two years, either German or English took its place, for three hours a week (Ockenden, 1947: 36).

In the reform of 1947, secondary education was divided into three stages called *ciclos* (cycles): together, the 1<sup>st</sup> *ciclo* (2 years) and the 2<sup>nd</sup> *ciclo* (3 years) constituted the “General Course”; the 3rd *ciclo* (2 years) was also known as the “Complementary Course” (Guerra, 2005: 12). In the 1st *ciclo* only French was taught; in the 2nd *ciclo* English and French were mandatory; in the 3rd *ciclo*, students could choose German, Latin, Greek, English or French. Despite various alternatives, the importance of English was officially recognised: “Mother-tongue of more than 200 million beings and (...) the most important of the approximately 1,500 modern languages around the world” (Decree no. 37: 112 of 1948; as cited in Guerra, 2005: 12).

As for the current Portuguese education system, compulsory education lasts 12 years starting from age 6 and finishing at 18. It is offered for free in public schools and divided into two stages: basic education (9 years starting at 6), and secondary education (3 years starting at 15) (see Table 12). Pre-school (ages 3, 4 and 5) is neither compulsory nor available in public schools.<sup>25</sup>

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<sup>25</sup> The information on the current state of Portuguese education results from the literature quoted, interviews with local teachers and the information available at Eurydice Portugal ([https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/eurydice/content/portugal\\_en](https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/eurydice/content/portugal_en)).

Education Stages		Grades	Ages
Basic Education	First <i>Ciclo</i>	1 <sup>st</sup> -2 <sup>nd</sup> -3 <sup>rd</sup> -4 <sup>th</sup>	6-10
	Second <i>Ciclo</i>	5 <sup>th</sup> and 6 <sup>th</sup>	10- 12
	Third <i>Ciclo</i>	7 <sup>th</sup> -8 <sup>th</sup> -9 <sup>th</sup>	12-15
Secondary Education		10 <sup>th</sup> -11 <sup>th</sup> -12 <sup>th</sup>	15-18

**Table 12:** Portuguese basic and secondary education (2018-2019)

The basic education comprises three consecutive *ciclos*: first (1<sup>st</sup> to 4<sup>th</sup> grades), second (5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades) and third *ciclos* (7<sup>th</sup> to 9<sup>th</sup> grades). Regarding English in the first *ciclo*, it is now mandatory as of the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade and provided as an Enriching Curricular Activity (Actividade de Enriquecimento Curricular) in the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> grades, upon the strong recommendation and funds of the Ministry of Education. At the present time, English is regularly taught starting from the 1<sup>st</sup> grade in the first *ciclo*. As to the second *ciclo* of basic education, it requires at least one foreign language and now this is English. In the third *ciclo* a second foreign language is added, usually Spanish, French or German. The hours of English taught per week may however vary according to the type of school. Table 13 summarises this information, including discrepancies existing between public and private schools:

ELT	First <i>Ciclo</i>				Second <i>Ciclo</i>		Third <i>Ciclo</i>			Secondary School		
Grade	1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	4 <sup>th</sup>	5 <sup>th</sup>	6 <sup>th</sup>	7 <sup>th</sup>	8 <sup>th</sup>	9 <sup>th</sup>	10 <sup>th</sup>	11 <sup>th</sup>	12 <sup>th</sup>
Hours (public)	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	2	2	3	4	<b>0 / 4</b>
Hours (private)	2	2	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	<b>0 / 3 / 4</b>

**Table 13:** Average hours of English per week in basic and secondary education in Portugal (2018-2019)

Table 13 also includes information on secondary school.<sup>26</sup> Secondary education (10<sup>th</sup> to 12<sup>th</sup> grades) is determined by students' personal aims and interests and offers several courses within the branches of Science-Humanities, Vocational, Specialised Artistic Courses, Education and Training Courses, Apprenticeship, etc. ("Portugal - Eurydice - European Commission", 2019). The study of one foreign language is compulsory for all courses. The government suggests English, which is almost universal, but others are possible (Spanish, German and French). The weekly hours of English lessons may vary up to four as can be seen in the table above.

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<sup>26</sup> Bold numbers indicate English as an optional subject. In Secondary school, the students can choose some of the subjects depending on the area of their studies. If they choose English, they have 3 or 4 hours per week. In private schools, it depends on the programme as there is no certain regulation.

As to the institutions of higher education, they recognise the growing effect of globalisation and thus try to prepare their students to cope with it. The wish and need of a united education system in Europe brought up the Bologna System, that would easily allow students mobility throughout the EU. Portugal was no exception and so adopted new strategies to promote internationalisation in its higher education system, namely by allocating money to train Portuguese students in an international environment and by attracting foreign students to study in its institutions under the framework of the Bologna Declaration of 1999 (Veiga *et al.*, 2006; Leslie, 2012; Coleman, 2006).

The Bologna system has had two major impacts on the countries that adopted it: “growing importance and value [were] given to mobility and internationalisation” and “the pressure on policy-makers to adopt a language policy” that would allow international students to undertake teaching programmes in English (Kerklaan *et al.*, 2008: 242). As a consequence, partially or entirely English-instructed programmes are now regularly offered, in all disciplinary areas, at all levels. However, Portugal does not have a national policy as far as the ELT curriculum in higher education is concerned, though some institutions provide English language courses.

Having discussed the status of English education at every level, I will now consider the assessment system, textbooks and classroom management in Portugal in order to be able to compare the Portuguese system with that of Turkey.

Having completed the basic education, every child needs to take an exam in Math and Portuguese. If they fail, the 9<sup>th</sup> grade will have to be repeated. At the end of this stage,

children will register to the schools according to their disciplinary and vocational choices and to their home addresses - but not according to their exam results. This placement system warrants all the students the same educational possibilities.

In order to get into a university in Portugal, two items are considered at the end of secondary education: Secondary School Grade Point Average and the grades of the final exam(s) they take at the end of Secondary School in disciplines deemed important by the universities they want to access (e.g. Mathematics for Management and Economics, Biology for Medicine). English will be assessed in this context only when it is the area students want to specialise in. So, when compared to the Turkish, Portuguese students learn English under stress-free conditions, as it will not be part of most universities' selection criteria.

Concerning the school textbooks in Portugal, it is observed that the situation is quite different in Portugal when it is compared to Turkey. All the books are published by private publishing companies and only in the last academic year has the government started to offer them for free to students in public schools. Because of the competition in the market, the textbooks are considered quite satisfactory as a norm and include communicative-based activities (i.e. speaking and real-life related activities). This tendency increased a decade ago with the recognition, by the Ministry of Education, of the importance of Cambridge exams and certificates in the job market, and the subsequent adaptation of the national ELT curriculum to those exams.<sup>27</sup> Textbooks therefore rely more and more on communicative

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<sup>27</sup> The information was obtained from an interview which was conducted in May, 2019 with a Portuguese teacher of English who, at that time, was teaching English in a private

and task-based learning methodologies. Furthermore, and unlike the Turkish, Portuguese teachers can choose the book they consider useful for their students in the classroom; this can have a great effect on the efficacy of the lessons and on students' motivation to learn English.

The same observation can be made as far as class management is concerned, in particular the seating plan. Interviews with Portuguese teachers revealed that, similar to the case in Turkey, Portuguese teachers tend to prefer a furnishing/layout of their classrooms where students sit together in pairs while they acknowledge the difficulty of managing the class during communicative activities. Large classes, up to 30 students, may exist. However, it is worth noting that the furnishing/layout does not seem to prevent Portuguese teachers from conducting communicative activities in the classroom. It indicates that, contrary to Turkey, Portuguese students may find adequate conditions to practice their English despite the traditional layout of the classroom.

#### **4.2.2. Attitudes**

This section discusses the attitudes of the Portuguese towards the English language.

Important information on the subject can be found in Cavalheiro 2008, which describes the sociolinguistic profiles of the students and teachers of English at FLUL; in

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secondary school in Lisbon, Portugal. The application of Cambridge exams in Portugal ended in 2016 for public schools and the private schools were free to negotiate with Cambridge English.

particular, she investigated the uses of, attitudes to, and opinions on the English language among those groups, as well as the emergence of an European variety of English (2008).

A first finding of this study is that English is considered a gateway to several entertaining activities, information technology, media, literature and academic texts in Portugal, which makes the author predict that the generation of students investigated will be able to cope with the requisites of the competitive market (Cavalheiro, 2008: 108). It is additionally noticed that, despite the centrality of English, other languages (French, German, Italian and Spanish) are also taught and learned at FLUL. Accordingly, and though they are found to be aware of the central role of English and multilingualism in the current global era, students do not discard their national language and its place, but rather create diverse multilingual identities (Cavalheiro, 2008: 107-8).

Cavalheiro reiterates the fact that, as in other European countries (Berns, 2006; Fenyo, 2003; Erling, 2004), English is no longer a language to communicate only with natives, but rather a tool to achieving intercultural communicative competence, and that this situation results in multiple identities - local, national, European and global. In Cavalheiro's words:

Uses of English reflect an emerging multilingualism in Europe, as Europeans are not using English instead of their national languages, but in addition to them. All European languages have their own place and each language is used at its own level. National languages have a fundamental role within national environments,

and the role of English functions more at a European and international level. (2008: 111).

The positive attitude inherent to this role of English is mentioned in other studies as well. Leslie (2011) considered a sample of 200 undergraduate informants and all of them showed strongly positive attitudes towards English (allowing for an integrative motivation to learning the language) and would like themselves and their children to learn English fluently and accurately because English is important for higher education and provides conditions to a better career life (a sign of instrumental motivation to learn the language) (2011: 32). It is also observed in this report that the sample surveyed use English when abroad and enjoy hearing and speaking English.

Interestingly, however, the participants are not of the opinion that having English language skills will give them a higher status in society and make them recognised as educated individuals (Leslie, 2011: 32). In fact, they seem to realise that a good command of English is becoming a common language skill among university students, which confirms Grin's idea of English being "on the way to becoming [an] unremarkable skill" (Grin, 1999, as quoted in Leslie, 2011: 35).

One of the most significant findings of Leslie's study for the purposes of the present one is about loyalty to the nationality and the native language (2011: 32). Responses to the following statements were requested: "When using English I do not feel Portuguese any more", "The presence of English in Portugal is a threat to the Portuguese language" and "The presence of English in Portugal is a threat to Portuguese culture". Based on the

responses given, Leslie concluded that the Portuguese do not consider the current existence of English as a threat to their Portuguese identity, culture, language and values; all respondents regarded the presence of English as a natural result of globalisation (Leslie, 2011: 32).

Cavalheiro (2008) mentions similar conclusions with regard to perceptions of the presence of English in the Portuguese society. 90% of the students surveyed in her study consider the presence of English as culturally enriching and useful, because it helps them improve their language skills (Cavalheiro, 2008: 92-3).

Countries that are smaller in size usually have more positive attitudes to English due to the “limited reach of the national language” (Truchot, 1994: 149) and this may be the case of Portugal. Whichever the source of this positive perception of English, it certainly contributes to good motivation to learning the English language.

#### **4.2.3. Proficiency**

According to the 2018 EPI mentioned in section 4.1.3., Portugal is ranked 19 out of 88 countries with the 60.02 scores of high proficiency level (EF, 2018: 22). When the capital cities of these 88 countries were compared, it was seen that Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, ranks 17 out of 59 capitals with the 61.86 scores of high proficiency (EF, 2018: 8). The comparison of the 2017 and 2018 scores shows that Portugal experienced a slight increase (+1.26) in English proficiency (EF, 2018: 25). As to the average TOEFL scores analysed by ETS, also mentioned in chapter 3.1.3, the data from 2017 shows that the

average mark of test-takers from Portugal is 94 out of 120 (ETS, 2018: 15) and the average mark of native speakers of Portuguese from Portugal is 87 (ETS, 2018: 13).

Curiously, the survey *Europeans and their Languages*, considered in a previous section, presents a description of the relation of the Portuguese with foreign languages that seems to be a bit different. Those observations are summed up in Table 14 below, in which, as mentioned above, the downward arrow is used to indicate that the score is lower than the EU average, while the upward arrow indicates that the score is higher than the EU average.

Portuguese...	Parameter
42% (⬇)	can hold a conversation in a foreign language.
23% (⬇)	master two foreign languages.
58% (⬇)	are incapable of participating in a conversation in a foreign language.
10% (⬇)	are learning or improving their foreign language skills for the past two years.
9% (⬇)	plan to learn a foreign language in the upcoming year.
73% (⬇)	acknowledge the benefits of multilingualism.
77% (⬆)	believe that their countrymen have good language skills.
70% (⬆)	prefer to watch foreign films and programmes with subtitles.
76% (⬆)	agree that regional and minority languages should receive greater support.

**Table 14:** The Portuguese and their languages <sup>28</sup>

As shown, only 42% of the Portuguese citizens surveyed are able to hold a conversation in a language other than their mother tongue and only 23% master two languages along with their native tongue, while the European averages are 53% and 28%,

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<sup>28</sup> Source: European Commission, 2006.

respectively (European Commission, 2006: 9). 58% of the Portuguese informants questioned, which is more than the European average - 44% - stated that they do not know any foreign languages (European Commission, 2006: 9). When asked "how did you learn or improve your first foreign language?", 64% of the Portuguese citizens stated that they improved their first foreign language in secondary school. Portugal is also one of the countries having the most non-active language learners - 10% -, who are defined in the study as people who have neither learned/improved language skills over the last two years nor intend to do so over the next 12 months (European Commission, 2006: 24).

Strong consensus on the benefits of multilingualism is acknowledged by every country surveyed with the scores ranging from 73% in Portugal to 99% in Sweden (European Commission, 2006: 28), which means that the score of Portugal (73%) is the lowest of all the EU countries surveyed (European Commission, 2006: 28). 65% of EU citizens reported that language lessons at school were one of the ways they used to learn foreign languages. Portugal, however, shows again the lowest proportions of all EU countries polled in this respect, with only 31% of the respondents claiming to have learned languages at school.

There are however different indications. The respondents were asked to evaluate whether their countrymen have good language skills. The results showed that Portuguese people are above the average of EU countries. 77% of Portuguese respondents reported that they were good at speaking other languages, while the EU average is 44% (European Commission, 2006: 58). This may indicate that exposure to foreign languages by means of the media is so impregnated in Portugal, that formal learning is deemed less important.

Another aim of the questionnaire was to assess the use of subtitles and dubbing in films and television programmes. Respondents from Portugal (70%) prefer to watch films and programmes in the original language with subtitles (European Commission, 2006: 58), which highlights their openness to other languages.

### **4.3. The two countries compared**

The previous sections were devoted to the consideration of ELT, attitudes to English and levels of proficiency in Turkey and in Portugal and they make a comparison of the two countries feasible at this stage.

As for the historical context of ELT in the education system, it was observed that English began to be taught as a foreign language in Portugal earlier than in Turkey. This is not surprising, because Turkey was occupied with the foundation of the country, the adoption of a new alphabet and many more radical changes in the early 20th century.

Currently, the number of hours of English lessons in compulsory education is similar in Turkey and Portugal. The number of years of compulsory English language learning at school turns out not to be a distinctive item, and so cannot be considered as a source of the different proficiency levels in the two countries either. The major differences found in the education system are the assessment system, the consequent teaching methodologies and the flexibility as far as textbook choices are concerned. The grammar-based testing system in Turkey results in the preparation of young children to a multiple choice test and, as they have no regular contact with English in their daily life and through

the media (as discussed in section 3.1), their motivation to learn English becomes only the national test. For the Portuguese, daily exposure via media and direct contact with tourists spur their use of English and work as an interactive motivation. So, it can be said that the Portuguese have an integrative motivation to learn English besides the instrumental one, while Turks have primarily an instrumental motivation to do it.

In relation to the attitudes towards English, the Portuguese show strong positive attitudes towards English and English-language cultures. They do not see English as a threat to their native tongue and culture, they are aware of the benefits of multilingualism and they use their knowledge actively (in their daily lives or when they travel). As for the Turks, they also hold positive attitudes towards learning English and recognise its benefits in the job market; however, they hardly have the chance to use their existing knowledge and they have a very different view of the implications of national loyalty to the native language and culture. Some Turks regard English as a threat to Turkish and to their culture, while a great number of Portuguese, on the contrary, see English simply as a natural result of globalisation. This is probably the outcome of different political relations with Inner-Circle countries: political issues create adverse attitudes from the Turks to the English language, a situation that is not to be found in Portugal.

As far as proficiency is concerned, it can be concluded that English proficiency is lower in Turkey than in Portugal. Data published by EF on both countries are particularly revealing, as shown in Table 15 below:

Country	EPI 2018 Scores	% Change from last year	Average TOEFL Scores
<b>Turkey</b>	73	-0,62	78
<b>Portugal</b>	19	+1.26	90.5

**Table 15:** English proficiency index of Turkey and Portugal compared

This conclusion is confirmed by the observations on Turkey and Portugal presented in the 2006 report published by the European Commission (*Europeans and their Languages*), (see Table 16) which reinforces the idea that the Portuguese are more proficient in English than the Turkish. The parameters considered are compared in Table 16, in which indications to the probability of a better proficiency in English are highlighted:

Turks	Portuguese	Parameter
33% (⬇)	42% (⬇)	can hold a conversation in a foreign language.
5% (⬇)	23% (⬇)	master two foreign languages.
67% (⬇)	58% (⬇)	are incapable of participating in a conversation in a foreign language.
11% (⬇)	10% (⬇)	are learning or improving their foreign language skills for the past two years.
24(⬆)	9% (⬇)	plan to learn a foreign language in the upcoming year.
54(⬆)	77% (⬆)	believe that their countrymen have good language skills.
26(⬇)	70% (⬆)	prefer to watch foreign films and programmes with subtitles.

**Table 16:** Turkey and Portugal and their relation with foreign languages (source: *Europeans and their Languages*, 2006)

The disparate proficiency just recalled must naturally be related with the differences identified in ELT methodology and attitudes to English among learners, discussed in this chapter; but it must be also a result of the less extended exposure to and active use of English in Turkey, which was described in chapter 3.

## 5. CONCLUSION

This dissertation aimed to describe and compare the sociolinguistic profiles of two Expanding Circle countries, Turkey and Portugal. The interest for this topic was aroused by my own personal experience: I witnessed a very different degree of use and proficiency in both countries and wanted to confirm and explore this impression.

In order to do that, the presence of English in functional domains in which it is typically used in Expanding Circle territories was investigated, namely within media, tourism and shop naming; considered were also English teaching/learning contexts in the two countries, including attitudes to and proficiency in English. Information on these topics was collected in previous studies on both Turkey and Portugal, and completed, whenever necessary, with new empirical data collected for this research.

The conclusions I was able to reach are summed up in Table 17 below:

COUNTRY		TURKEY	PORTUGAL
DOMAINS OF USE	Media	<u>Less English</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- dubbing country</li> <li>- 14% of songs in EN on Spotify</li> <li>- 12% of available magazines in EN</li> <li>- no books in EN in top 50 books</li> </ul>	<u>More English</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- subtitling country</li> <li>- 42% of songs in EN on Spotify</li> <li>- 22% of available magazines in EN</li> <li>- 12% of books in EN in top 50 books</li> </ul>
	Tourism	<u>Less English</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- major sources of tourists: Russia, Germany, Georgia, Iran, Bulgaria</li> <li>- 33.25 % of the communication with hotel receptionists failed</li> </ul>	<u>More English</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- major sources of tourists: UK, Germany, Spain, France, the Netherlands</li> <li>- no communication with hotel receptionists failed.</li> </ul>
	Shop Naming	<u>Less English</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 37.5% of shopping centre's shop names in English</li> </ul>	<u>More English</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 47% of shopping centre's shop names in English</li> </ul>
TEACHING / LEARNING ENGLISH	Methodology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- grammar-based</li> <li>- influenced by testing system</li> <li>- government-distributed textbooks</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- communication-based</li> <li>- not influenced by testing system</li> <li>- textbooks by private publishers</li> </ul>
	Attitudes	mixed (positive and negative)	positive
	Proficiency	low(er)	high(er)

**Table 17:** The sociolinguistic profile of English in Turkey and Portugal compared

Investigation in regard to domains of use showed that the Portuguese consume more English print media and listen to more songs in English than the Turkish. Moreover, in

Portugal the contents of foreign media products on television and cinema are not transferred into the Portuguese language as a rule (with the exception of children-targeted products), so the Portuguese are exposed to English to a great extent in their daily life via easily accessed television programmes. On the other hand, it was found that the majority of the Turks prefer listening to Turkish songs and reading print media in their native language. And it was observed that in Turkey almost all foreign television products are transferred into Turkish and the Turks do not have regular access to the English language.

Tourism / tourists related investigation revealed that it is more common to have exposure to English via foreign tourists, especially native English-speaking tourists, in Portugal than Turkey, even though both countries are popular tourist destinations. Calling hotels in order to assess the proficiency of the workers in the field indicated that people in the tourism sector are more proficient in English in Portugal than in Turkey.

As to the analyses of shop naming practices, they proved that the prevalence of English is widely spread in both countries. The percentage of words or phrases of the shop signs containing English language in Turkey (40,5%) and Portugal (48%) is more than that of the local language, Turkish (26,5%) and Portuguese (40%). Maybe this is due to the fact that shop names very often correspond to brand names, which, given the effects of globalisation, are very often in English (e.g. Bobbi Brown).

As far as English teaching/learning contexts is concerned, my research considered not only the historical and present status of ELT in both countries, but also learners' attitudes to English and proficiency levels. It was highlighted that English began to be

taught slightly earlier in Portugal than in Turkey. The most distinctive items concerning the current status of English education in both countries were found to be in regard to the grammar- versus communication-based learning and testing system. In Turkey, the English curriculum is highly influenced by the country-wide grammar-based testing system, conducted by the Ministry of Education, while in Portugal English is not subject to a country-wide evaluation, unless it is an area someone wants to specialise in. Therefore, English lessons are more communicative and flexible in Portugal, while in Turkey the lessons are more grammar-based and follow through a strict curriculum given by the Ministry of Education.

As for the attitudes of the learners towards learning English, highly favourable attitudes were observed in Portugal, while the Turks hold a mix of positive and negative attitudes. Negative attitudes of the Turkish may stem from loyalty to the local language and culture and some political issues.

As a result of these investigated items, three extralinguistic motivations for the important disparity in the communicative competence and proficiency levels in English in Turkey and Portugal have been identified: degree of exposure to English, teaching circumstances and attitudes to English. As mentioned before, daily exposure of the Turks to English is less than that of the Portuguese; poor teaching/learning conditions, grammar-based ELT methodology and government-distributed textbooks do not enhance English learning in Turkey; and loyalty to the Turkish language and culture gives rise to mixed attitudes to English. Though there are certainly other explanations for the disparity in the

proficiency levels referred to, the confirmation of the three just mentioned is certainly worth highlighting.

The research reported has furthermore confirmed that Expanding Circle territories can present quite different sociolinguistic profiles, which will depend upon various factors - geography, history, political relations with Inner Circle countries and, though this was not discussed in the investigation, structural characteristics of the native language. Finally this study has once again confirmed the growing presence of English in the world.

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