ResearchGate

See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/349117607

Foreign Language Teaching in Early Childhood

Chapter · October 2020

CITATIONS
0

READS
223

3 authors:



Fatma Nur Yeğenoğlu
Gazi University
1 PUBLICATION **0** CITATIONS
SEE PROFILE



Şerife Nur Varol
Gazi University
2 PUBLICATIONS **0** CITATIONS
SEE PROFILE



Hatice ŞİMŞEK Bekir
Gazi University
9 PUBLICATIONS **13** CITATIONS
SEE PROFILE

All content following this page was uploaded by Şerife Nur Varol on 12 February 2021.

The user has requested enhancement of the downloaded file.

Development and Education Std Kapak HR.pdf 1 10/6/20 23:51

Nowadays, technology affects all aspects of our lives by providing inevitable changes and developments in every field. Naturally, cooperation among scientists has increased thanks to the rapid spread of knowledge and technology. This cooperation considerably contributes to the work in many fields.

This book contains current trends in preschool education in line with the developments in the scientific world. Special thanks to the authors who contributed to this book with their research.

Editors

ISBN: 978-625-7845-80-9

hiperyayın

Sosyal medyada bizi takip edin: /hiperkitaptr /hiperkitaptr

Bu kitabı Hiperkitap dijital kütüphanesinden tam metin olarak görüntüleyebilirsiniz.

DEVELOPMENT AND EDUCATION STUDIES

Editors
Prof. Dr. Hatice BEKİR
PhD. Vedat BAYRAKTAR
Res. Asst. Şerife Nur KARAÇELİK

hiperyayın

DEVELOPMENT AND EDUCATION STUDIES

Editors
Prof. Dr. Hatice BEKİR
PhD. Vedat BAYRAKTAR
Res. Asst. Şerife Nur KARAÇELİK



hiperyayın

Development and Education Studies

EDITORS

Prof. Dr. Hatice BEKİR

PhD. Vedat BAYRAKTAR

Res. Asst. Şerife Nur KARAÇELİK

hiperyayın

Hiperyayın 709
Research- Review

Editors
Prof. Dr. Hatice BEKİR- PhD. Vedat BAYRAKTAR- Res. Asst. Şerife Nur KARAÇELİK

General Broadcast Editor
Hatice BAHTİYAR

Layout
Senem ILGIN

Cover Design
Kenan TEMİZEL

Publisher Certificate Nu: 16680

ISBN: 978-625-7845-80-9
e- ISBN: 978-625-7845-81-6

1.Printing: İstanbul, 11 Ekim 2020

Copyright© All rights reserved. The copyright of this book, according to 5846 numbered statutory provision, belong to the publisher Hiperlink Education Communication Publishing Industry and Trade Limited Company and the authors Prof. Dr. Hatice BEKİR- PhD. Vedat BAYRAKTAR- Res. Asst. Şerife Nur KARAÇELİK. This book or any portion thereof may not be reproduced or copied in any manner whatsoever, electronic, mechanic or photocopy, without the express written permission of the publisher and authors except for giving citation for the use of brief quotations.

Development and education studies / eds. Hatice Bekir, Vedat Bayraktar, Şerife Nur Karaçelik. - Istanbul: Hiperyayın, 2020.
449 p.; 21 cm. — (Hiperyayın Research-Review; 709)
Includes bibliographical references.
ISBN: 978-625-7845-80-9 (pbk)
ISBN: 978-625-7845-81-6 (ebk)
1. Theory and practice of education—Preschool education I. Title II. Series
LB1140.5.R4 .D48 2020
372—dc23

Edition-Volume: Yalın Yayıncılık **Certificate Nu:** 44154

GENERAL SALE MARKETING AND PRESS
Hiperlink Education Communication Publishing Industry and Trade Limited Company Neighbourhoof of Tozkoparan, Haldun Taner St. Alparslan Business Center No: 27 Floor: 6 Apt. No: 21 Merter- Güngören / İstanbul
Telephone: 0212 293 07 05-06 Fax: 0212 293 56 58
www.hiperlink.com.tr / info@hiperlink.com.tr

ABOUT THE EDITORS

Hatice BEKİR

Gazi University Faculty of Gazi Educaiton Ankara, Turkey
hsimsekbekir@gmail.com

Has been working at Gazi University, Gazi Faculty of Education, Department of Primary Education, Division of Preschool Education as an instructor. She has studies on Child Development and Education.

Vedat BAYRAKTAR

Gazi University Faculty of Gazi Educaiton Ankara, Turkey
vbayraktar@gazi.edu.tr

Has been working at Gazi University, Gazi Faculty of Education, Department of Primary Education, Division of Preschool Education as an instructor. He has studies on Preschool Education, Family Participation, Preparation for Reading and Writing, and Children's Literature.

Şerife Nur KARAÇELİK

Gazi University Faculty of Gazi Educaiton Ankara, Turkey
karaceliknur@gmail.com

Has been working at Gazi University, Gazi Faculty of Education, Department of Primary Education, Division of Preschool Education as a research assistant. She has studies on Sibling Relationship and Language Development.

REFEREE BOARD

Prof. Dr. Belma TUĞRUL	İstanbul Aydın University
Prof. Dr. Yıldız GÜVEN	Maltepe University
Prof. Dr. Serdal SEVEN	Fatih Sultan Mehmet Vakıf University
Prof. Dr. Arzu YÜKSELEN	İstanbul Medipol University
Prof. Dr. Bülent YILMAZ	Hacettepe University
Prof. Dr. Mustafa Hilmi BULUT	Sivas Cumhuriyet University
Prof. Dr. Hakan AKÇAY	Yıldız Teknik University
Prof. Dr. Cengiz ŞENGÜL	Akdeniz University
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yunus GÜNİNDİ	Aksaray University
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Oğuz Serdar KESİCİOĞLU	Giresun University
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ramazan SAK	Van Yüzüncü Yıl University
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Engin GÜRPINAR	İnönü University
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Halil TURGUT	Sinop University
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Özlem YURT	Trabzon University
Asst. Prof. Dr. Rahime Filiz AĞMAZ	Necmettin Erbakan University
Asst. Prof. Dr. Belgin PARLAKYILDIZ	Uluslararası Kıbrıs University
Asst. Prof. Dr. Cansu TUTKUN	Bayburt University
Asst. Prof. Dr. Rıdvan KARABULUT	Kırşehir Ahi Evran University
Asst. Prof. Dr. Tuba ÖZGÜVEN ŞEKER	Uşak University
Asst. Prof. Dr. Levent ÜNLÜ	Erzincan Binali Yıldırım University

CONTENTS

Using Storybooks to Support Young Children's Mathematics Learning at School and Home 9
Ayşegül AKINCI COŞGUN-Michele L. STITES Susan SONNENSCHEIN

Children's Libraries 27
Beyza ÖZEN DEVECİ-Neriman ARAL

Investigation of Family Climates According to Parents' Family Communication Patterns 57
Fatma TEZEL ŞAHİN-Zeynep Nur AYDIN KILIÇ-Aslı BALCI

Children with Special Needs and Family Education 75
Figen GÜRSOY-Fatih AYDOĞDU- Burçin AYSU

Mathematics Education in Early Childhood: What is early mathematics, why is it important, how is it acquired? 97
Hülya TOKUÇ-Neriman ARAL

Bibliometric Analysis of the Early Childhood Education Journal 128
Özgün UYANIK AKTULUN

Peer Relationship and Social Loneliness in Young Children..... 157
Zeliha YAZICI

Analysing the Format and Content Features of Children's Magazines.... 172
Nihan FEYMAN GÖK- Hilal KORKMAZ

Assessment of the Learning Outcomes Related to Turkish Music in the Secondary Education Music Curriculum..... 196
Murat Kamil İNANICI

Education of Love: An Overview of Children's Picture Books 217
Derya ATABEY

Reflection of Mother-Infant Interaction on the Social and Emotional Development of the Child 241
İsa KAYA

The Influence of Parental Involvement in Home-Based Science Learning Activities on Secondary School Students' Achievements and Learning Processes 261
Murat ISBARALI-Ataman KARAÇÖP- Tufan İNALTEKİN

Analyzing Parents' Opinions of 36-72 Monthly Children's Video Viewing Situations 302
Emine BOZKURT-Nafia Kübra KARAKAYA

Preschool Student Teachers' Perceptions of Global Problems: A Mixed Methods Study 322
Nur AKCANCA

Investigation of Preschool Teacher Candidates' Music Teaching Self-Efficacy Levels According to Various Variables..... 349
Onur ZAHAL-Hüseyin YILMAZ-Şerif GAYRETLİ

Emotional Availability Within the Context of Social Interaction 367
Hakan ŞAHİN-Serdal SEVEN

Foreign Language Teaching in Early Childhood..... 381
Fatma Nur YEĞENOĞLU-Şerife Nur KARAÇELİK
Hatice BEKİR

Media Literacy Levels and Emotional Intelligence of Candidate Preschool Teachers 415
Bilal MACUN-Büşra KOÇAK MACUN- İlkay ULUTAŞ

Self-Regulation Skills of Gifted Children in Preschool Period..... 438
Özlem ÇEREZCİ-H. Elif DAĞLIOĞLU

Foreign Language Teaching in Early Childhood

Fatma Nur YEĞENOĞLU[1]
Şerife Nur KARAÇELİK[2]
Hatice BEKİR[3]

Abstract

Language acquisition is generally a spontaneous process that occurs with the inputs of individuals while interacting with the people around them, without requiring any special effort, until a certain age. Language learning involves the conscious development of language rules, systems, and patterns. When one is learning a new language, learning and using knowledge is a conscious and effort required process. In recent years, foreign language teaching in early childhood has become an important topic all over the world. There are different opinions put forward in foreign language teaching. According to one view, it is argued that in foreign language teaching, individuals have a flexible brain structure during the period from birth to adolescence, and this flexibility decreases with age, so it is advantageous to start foreign language teaching at an early age. Another view is that children are programmed to learn languages and have the ability to comprehend by listening to discourses. On the other hand, a group of scientists argued that foreign language teaching at an early age would negatively affect the children's cognitive development and that language acquisition processes would slow down due to the disruption in children's mother tongue. These suggestions show that today it is not possible

1 Graduate Student, Gazi University, Department of Preschool Education, Ankara, Turkey, fyegenoglu03@gmail.com; https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0753-4190
2 Research Assistant, Gazi University, Faculty of Gazi Education, Department of Preschool Education, Ankara, Turkey, karaceliknur@gmail.com; https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7235-0582
3 Prof. Dr., Gazi University, Faculty of Gazi Education Department of Preschool Education, Ankara, Turkey, hsimsekbekir@gmail.com; https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9591-7660

to mention a single and inclusive theoretical model for foreign language teaching in early childhood and that there is not a single method that covers all learners. From past to present, every new method is generally designed to compensate for the previous one's deficiency or to close the points where it is inadequate. How to teach a foreign language, which theory will be based on and which method will be used is one of the most important questions emphasized by educators. There is no single proper method in foreign language teaching because each child has individual differences in terms of developmental characteristics, needs, motivation, and learning style; hence, many different teaching methods are synthesized and used together in foreign language teaching.

Keywords: Foreign language, foreign language teaching, early childhood, early childhood education, theories and methods

1. Introduction

Nowadays, knowing a foreign language is not a necessity but an obligation. With the globalizing world and technological development, regardless of time and place, people can interact easily and it has brought the necessity of using a common international communication language.

Foreign language acquisition and foreign language learning are basically similar concepts but sometimes confused with each other. These two concepts are distinguished by some factors such as the individual's state of consciousness, the environment in which language skills are acquired or learned, and the age of language acquisition or learning. Language acquisition occurs naturally and unconsciously; occurs spontaneously when the individual interacts normally in the second language. In other words, language acquisition is a spontaneous process that occurs with the inputs an individual gains while interacting with the people around, without requiring any special effort, until a certain age. Language learning involves the development of the rules, systems, and patterns of the language consciously. While learning a new

language gaining and using information is a conscious and demanding process (Krashen, 1982).

Second language is sometimes confused with the concept of foreign language. The second language includes broader communication languages acquired in the social environment in addition to the native language in multilingual societies, used as a means of communication after or alongside the first language, encountered in the local area or community (e.g. at work or in the media). Unlike the second language, foreign language is defined as languages that do not have local usage or speakers, are learned in class, and are not used in addition to their mother tongue for daily communication. Therefore, one of the main points that distinguish a second language from a foreign language is whether the language learned is spoken in the immediate environment, but the language that is trying to be taught in schools is a foreign language, not a second language (Mitchell, Myles & Marsden, 2019).

To support the early onset of foreign language teaching, assumptions are made that children learn a second language better than adults. One of them is Critical Period Hypothesis, where it is believed young children will be able to learn the second language effectively, since they can still use the mechanism that supports first language acquisition in their brains before puberty. The Critical Period Hypothesis argues that after adolescence, they will learn language differently and never reach the same proficiency levels, especially with their accent. While some experimental studies support the Critical Period Hypothesis, some studies suggest that there is no such definitive result for language learning. Some researchers opposed the Critical Period Hypothesis by emphasizing that children have different needs, motivations, and readiness (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle (1978) concluded that the Critical Period Hypothesis for foreign language learning is not supported according to the data they obtained in their studies. Cameron (2001) stated that when language teaching aims to achieve language proficiency in a second language, like

mother tongue, learning provides benefits at an early start, but when the goal is the ability to communicate in a foreign language, the benefits of early-onset are much less.

Long (1980) argues that there are sensitive periods in linguistics that affect top-level skills in the mother tongue or a foreign language, the ability to reach a similar competence in a foreign language as a native speaker. It suggests the notion that there is a cumulative decline in a learning capacity, not a one-time disastrous decline, and that in most individuals, contrary to what is generally advocated, it declines from the age of six, not from adolescence. White (2003) argues that in terms of morphology (morphology) and syntax (syntax) competences, the sensitive period ends before the age of fifteen. In other words, it is not just about declining language learning skills; this decrease is claimed to affect the final outcome of the language learning process.

Cameron (2001), claimed that there are many advantages to learning a foreign language at an early age. Older children progress faster initially due to their superior strategies, cognitive capacities, and strong motivation; however, younger children often outgrow them in the long run. This means that younger children have an advantage when it comes to the ultimate gain (Pinter, 2011). Marinova-Todd (2003) suggests that not age but accessibility and access to good foreign language input education are important in language learning and that this will give the best results for children of all ages.

On the other hand, in some studies, it has been concluded that learning a language at an early age is not as positive as expected. Considering the reasons for this, it was found that especially teachers did not give enough importance to plan what should be taught in the next stage, how foreign language teaching was implemented, and the coexistence of newcomers and more advanced children in mixed classes. Social, cultural, and political issues about foreign language teaching policies at an early age are complex and this affects teaching and learning at the classroom

level (Cameron, 2001).

Starting foreign language learning at an early age provides an advantage in some, if not all, children's language skills. For example, listening comprehension benefits when foreign language teaching begins at an earlier age and it states better results overall. Also, pronunciation also benefits in the long run, but this is limited to learning languages in natural contexts and does not apply to school-based learning (Harley, Howard & Hart, 1995). Young children learn the grammar structure and rules of the second language more slowly than older children, meaning that although they start language learning earlier, they progress more slowly. The acquisition of general language skills in foreign language learning is not directly related to the time spent on learning (Cameron, 2001).

For example, Haznedar (1997) studied the second language acquisition of English by a Turkish boy who was just 4 years old when he started at a nursery in an English-speaking context. Data collection began after a month in the new environment and it showed that child's utterances were influenced by transferring Turkish structures into English. Similarly, Whong-Barr and Schwartz (2002), who studied Korean and Japanese-speaking children (between the ages of 4 and 10) learning English as a second language, showed that first language transfer was an important feature of their second language interlanguage, not just at the beginning of the acquisition process but throughout the period of study, which lasted several years. Children who learn English as a foreign language transfer their mother tongue structures and grammar characteristics to the other language they learn.

There are many different opinions in the literature regarding the age at which foreign language teaching should begin, on which theoretical basis to develop a curriculum, and which method is more appropriate.

2. Theories of Foreign Language Teaching

As in first language acquisition theories, different views are put forward in foreign language teaching theories as well. Some researchers emphasize the innate capacities of children for language learning, while others emphasize the role of the environment. A group of researchers argues that the opportunity to interact with speakers who specifically adapt language and interaction patterns to meet the needs of children has a major impact on children's language learning. Another group of researchers focuses on children's interaction with the wider social context in foreign language teaching. In this context, theories of foreign language teaching will be explained.

2.1. Behaviorist Theory

Behavioral theory has a strong influence on second and foreign language teaching. From the behaviorist point of view, language learning is seen as the formation of habits like other learning fields (Watson, 1924; Thorndike, 1932; Bloomfield, 1933; Skinner 1957). This view, which is based on studies in the field of psychology, states that all kinds of behavior are based on the concepts of stimuli and response to learning. This view suggests that people are exposed to a large number of stimuli in their environment. The response they give to such stimuli will be reinforced if successful, that is if some desired outcome is obtained. Repeated reinforcement, a particular stimulus will reveal the same reaction time over and over again, and this will become a habit. Learning any skill is seen as the formation of habits, that is, the formation of stimulus-response pairs that become stronger with reinforcement. Applied to language learning, certain circumstances will call for a certain response; for example, meeting someone will call for some kind of greeting, and the response will be reinforced if the desired outcome is acquired, that is, if the greeting is understood. In the case of communication breakdown, the particular response will not be reinforced, and the

learner will leave it in favor of a response that it is hoped will be successful and therefore reinforced (Mitchell et al., 2019).

When learning a first language, the process is relatively simple compared to a foreign language: All that's required is to respond to stimuli in the environment and learn a set of new habits. When learning a second language, however, they run into problems: they already have a set of well-established responses in their mother tongue. The second language learning process thus involves replacing those habits with a set of new ones. The complication is that the old first-language habits interrupt this process, either helping or inhibiting it. If structures in the second language are similar to those of the first, then learning will take place easily. Nonetheless, if structures are realized differently in the first and the second language, then learning will be troublesome (Mitchell et al., 2019).

For example, a child who speaks English as a first language and the child is learning French as a second language and wanting to say "I am twelve years old" which in French is realized as "J'ai six ans (= I have 12 years)", and consider the same learner learning the same structure in German, which is realized as "Ich bin zwölf Jahre alt" (= I am 12 years old). According to a behaviorist view of learning, the German structure would be much easier and quicker to learn, and the French one more difficult, the English structure being a facilitator in one instance, and an inhibitor in the other (Mitchell et al., 2019).

Behaviorism was often associated with the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, which was developed by structural linguists in Europe and North America. According to the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, where the first language and the target language are similar, learners should acquire target language structures with ease; where there are differences, learners should have difficulty. Nonetheless, researchers have found that learners do not make all the errors predicted by the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. Instead, many of their actual errors are not foreseeable on the basis of their first language (Lightbown & Spada, 2013).

Behaviorism had a strong impact on second and foreign language teaching, especially in North America, between the 1940s and the 1970s. Nelson Brooks (1960) and Robert Lado (1964) were two supporters of this perspective whose influence was felt directly in the development of audiolingual teaching materials and in teacher training. Classroom activities underlined mimicry and memorization, and children learned dialogues and sentence patterns by heart.

2.2. Interlanguage theory

The term interlanguage was first used by Selinker (1969) to define the linguistic stage second language learners go through during the process of mastering the target language. The term interlanguage refers to the language produced by learners, both as a system that can be described at any one point in time as resulting from systematic rules and as the series of interlocking systems that characterize learner progression. In other words, the interlanguage is the type of language or linguistic system used by second and foreign language learners who are in the process of learning a target language. Interlanguage studies focus on the system of the learner as a whole, rather than merely on goal-like features.

The interlanguage theorists who followed disregard the influence of the first language in Second Language Learning, however, because of their preoccupation with identifying creative processes at work in second language development. They drew attention that many second language errors could not be traced to first language influence, and they were primarily concerned with discovering patterns and developmental sequences on this creative front (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Selinker's explanation of the interlanguage system has a cognitive emphasis and a focus on the strategies that learners employ when learning a second language (Gitsaki, 1998).

According to Selinker (1972), interlanguage is a temporary grammar that is systematic and consisted of rules. These rules are the product of five main cognitive processes:

1) **Overgeneralization:** Some of the rules of the interlanguage system may be due to the overgeneralization of specific rules and features of the target language.
2) **Transfer of Training:** Some of the components of the interlanguage system may arise from the transfer of specific elements via which the learner is taught the second language.
3) **Strategies of Second Language Learning:** Some of the rules in the learner's interlanguage may stem from the application of language learning strategies "as a tendency on the part of the learners to reduce the target language to a simpler system".
4) **Strategies of Second Language Communication:** Interlanguage system rules may also be the result of strategies used by the learners in their attempt to communicate with native speakers of the target language.
5) **Language Transfer:** Some of the rules in the interlanguage system may be the result of transfer from the learner's first language. Negative transmission, also known as inhibiting, is the use of a mother tongue layout or rule that causes an error or inappropriate form in the target language. A positive transfer can occur when having similar words in both the native language and the target language, making learning easier.

2.3. Acculturation Theory

According to the "Acculturation Model" associated with John Schumann (1978), language learning involves a process of acculturation and is hence heavily contingent on the degree of social and psychological distance that learners perceive between themselves and the speakers of the target language. This distance is smaller (and the conditions for learning are correspondingly more favorable) when, for example, the learner's community shares

social facilities and has regular contacts with the target language community. As a result, it is more likely that the input will be tuned to the current level of competence of the individual learner and thereby become "intake" which is available for learning (Davies & Elder, 2008).

According to the acculturation theory, social distance defines the child as a member of a social group whose members are in contact with another social group speaking a different language. Psychological distance is language shock (language confusion when using a second language), culture shock (learners disorientation as a result of cultural differences), cultural stress (internal psychological conflict experienced when adopting the values of a different culture, lifestyle, etc.), etc. are caused by many different emotional factors that concern the child as an individual. (McLaughlin, 1987). If the social and/or psychological distance is great, acculturation is inhibited and the child does not go beyond the early stages of language acquisition. (Trawiński, 2005).

2.4. Nativist Theory

Chomsky (2002) argues that behavioral theory in language learning is wrong because behavioral theory cannot explain the creative aspects of language ability. He points out the "problem of logical language acquisition" and claims that children are endowed with an innate capacity biologically. Within the framework of the innate theory, the Universal Grammar Model created by Chomsky and the Orientation Model created by Krashen will be explained.

2.4.1. Universal Grammar Model

Chomsky and his followers have claimed since the 1950s that the nature of speaker/hearers' competence in their native language can be explained only by innate knowledge that the human species is genetically endowed with. They argue that children come to the task of acquiring a specific language already having a general

knowledge of what all languages have in common, including constraints on how any natural language can be structured. This innate knowledge is in what Chomsky calls the language faculty, which is "a component of the human mind, physically represented in the brain and part of the biological endowment of the species". What all languages have in common is Universal Grammar (Chomsky 2002).

What we have in our minds is a mental grammar of a language consisting of universal principles of language, like the locality principle which shows why a sentence like 'Is Sam is the cat that black?' is impossible in all languages, and of parameters on which languages vary, such as the pro-drop parameter that clarify why 'Shuo' (speaks) is a possible sentence in Chinese, but 'Speaks' is not possible in English. Principles describe all the things that languages have in common; parameters account for their differences (Cook, 2013).

The Universal Grammar model argues that these principles and parameters are built into the human mind. Children do not need to learn the locality principle, because their minds automatically distinguish any language from the languages they know. However, they do need to learn that English sentences have subjects (non-pro-drop), while Chinese and Arabic sentences do not (pro-drop). It is the parameter settings that have to be learned – to have a subject or not to have a subject. All the learner needs for setting the values for parameters are a few samples of the language. Hearing 'There are some books on the table', a learner discovers that English has the non-pro-drop setting since 'dummy' subjects such as 'there' and 'it' does not occur in pro-drop languages (Cook, 2013). When the main language and foreign language parameters are the same for the same principle, there is likely a positive transfer from the native language to the foreign language; however, negative transmission or inhibiting may occur when the mother tongue and foreign language parameters are different (Saville-Troike & Barto, 2016).

The basis of the Universal Grammar model is revised in a theory known as the Minimalist Program. All language learning

is reduced to learning vocabulary. Grammar is seen as universal; The differences between languages depend on how words are used in sentences. Therefore, this model emphasizes the teaching of vocabulary items, with features related to how grammatical structures can occur (Chomsky, 1995).

2.4.2. Monitor Model

One of the last of the early approaches to second language acquisition which has an internal focus is the Monitor Model, proposed by Stephen Krashen (1978). It explicitly and essentially adopts the notion of a Language Acquisition Device, which is a metaphor Chomsky used for children's innate knowledge of the language. Krashen's approach consists of five hypotheses consisting of claims and assumptions about how the second language code was obtained. These hypotheses are:

1. **Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis:** There is a distinction to be formed between acquisition and learning. The acquisition is subconscious and includes the innate Language Acquisition Device which explains for children's first language. Learning is conscious and is exemplified by the second language learning which takes place in many classroom contexts.
2. **Monitor Hypothesis:** What is "learned" is available only as a monitor, for purposes of editing or making changes in what has already been produced.
3. **Natural Order Hypothesis:** The natural order hypothesis was based on the finding that, as in first language acquisition, second language acquisition unfolds in predictable sequences. The language characteristics that are easiest to state are not necessarily the first to be acquired. For example, the rule for adding an -s to the third person singular verbs in the present tense is easy to verbalize, but even some advanced second language speakers fail to apply it in spontaneous conversation.
4. **Input Hypothesis:** Language acquisition takes place because

there is comprehensible input. If the input is understood, and if there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided.

5. **Affective Filter:** Some people who are exposed to large quantities of comprehensible input do not necessarily acquire a language successfully is accounted for by Krashen's affective filter hypothesis. The affective filter is a metaphorical obstacle that obstructs learners from acquiring language even when appropriate input is available. Affect refers to feelings, motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states. A learner who feels tense, anxious, or bored may 'filter out' input, making it unavailable for acquisition.

2.5 Cognitive Learning Theory

Theorists who advocate the cognitive learning approach ignore the importance that behaviorists attach to habit formation, instead of focusing on insight formation. In the context of language learning, he claims that the child's cognitive capacity mediates between teacher input (stimulus) and learner output (response) (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Cognitive psychologists argue that, as with native language acquisition, foreign language learning does not need to make assumptions that people have a language-specific module in their brain or that 'acquisition and' learning 'are different mental processes. According to scientists who defend this theory, the mental processes underlying the answer are important rather than the answer itself (Lightbown & Spada, 2013).

2.5.1. Information Processing Model

In the Information Processing Model, cognitive psychologists view foreign language learning as knowledge for speaking and understanding (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). In this model, it is suggested that children should first pay attention to rules of the language they are trying to understand or produce. 'Pay attention'

in this context is accepted to stand for using cognitive resources to process information. Nevertheless, there is a limit to how much information a learner can pay attention to. Therefore, learners at the earliest stages will use most of their resources to comprehend the main words in a message. In such circumstances, they may not notice the grammatical morphemes attached to some of the words, especially those that do not substantially affect meaning. Gradually, through experience and practice, children process new information more easily and become able to access this information quickly and even automatically. This releases them to pay attention to other aspects of the language that, in turn, gradually become automatic (Norman, 2003).

For proficient speakers, choosing and pronouncing words and combining them with proper grammar rules actually arises automatically. Thus, proficient language users can give their full attention to the overall meaning of a text or conversation, however, new learners use their attention more to process the meaning of individual words. This helps to clarify why second language readers need more time to understand a text, even if they eventually do fully comprehend it (Favreau & Segalowitz, 1983). The information processing model puts forward that there is a limit to the amount of focused mental activity we can engage in at one time (Lightbown & Spada, 2013).

2.6. Interactionist Theory

"Interactionist Theory" was formed by the development of the Monitor Model. The prerequisite for learning is seen as a comprehensible input as in the Monitor Model, but in the Interactionist Theory, attention is drawn to the conditions that allow comprehensible input. Interactionist theory argues that the possibility of comprehensible input is high in social interaction situations. Social interaction situations provide an opportunity for meaning to be negotiated, explained, and understood. As a result,

it is more likely that the input will be tuned to the current level of competence of the individual learner and thereby become "intake" which is available for learning (Davies & Elder, 2008).

Long (1981) suggests that with the Interactionist Theory, it is not what children hear, but how they interact with this subject is important. The basic concept in Interactionist Theory is a negotiation of meaning - the ability to express ideas clearly in communication. Negotiation of meaning involves the repetition and clarification of parts that are not understood as a listener in mutual communication and the successful repetition and explanation as a speaker.

Long conducted a study of 16 native speaker-native speaker and 16 native speaker-non-native speaker pairs, conduct the same set of face-to-face oral tasks (informal conversation, giving instructions for games, playing the games, etc.). Long illustrated that there was little linguistic difference between the talk produced by native speaker-native speaker and native speaker-non-native speaker pairs, as shown on measures of grammatical complexity. Nevertheless, there were significant differences between the two sets of conversations when these were analyzed from conversational management and language functions performed. Specifically, to solve ongoing communication difficulties, the native speaker-non-native speaker pairs were much more inclined to make use of conversational tactics like repetitions, confirmation checks, comprehension checks, or clarification requests.

As in child-directed speech, native speakers resort to these tactics to solve communication problems when talking with less fluent non-native speakers, and not with any conscious motive to teach grammar. According to Interactionist Theory, such collaborative efforts are considered to be very useful for language learning (Long, 1981).

3. Foreign Language Teaching Methods

While the approach is defined as a set of assumptions that include the nature of the language learning-teaching process and are related to each other; the method is the plan for the regular presentation of linguistic material, consistent with the chosen approach (Anthony, 1963). McDonough, Sahw and Masuhara (2012) have done research on foreign language teaching and the factors affecting learning and have included the techniques and methods used among the main factors. This research also shows that; the teaching method chosen has an important role in a qualified foreign language teaching. Many foreign language teaching methods have been developed from past to present. When the emergence processes of these methods are examined, it is seen that each one is developed due to a different need. Some methods emerge as a criticism of existing past methods, while others have been developed as a result of historical events such as war and reform. Existing foreign language teaching methods are distinguished from each other by features such as being student or teacher-centered, target language skills, the place of the mother tongue in the education process, and the approach taken as a basis. When the literature is reviewed, ten basic methods used for foreign language teaching are listed:

- Grammar-Translation Method
- The Direct Method
- Audio-Lingual Method
- Audiovisual Method
- Cognitive Method
- Total Physical Response (TRP)
- The Silent Way
- Suggestopedia Method
- Communicative Method
- Eclectic Method

In this study, The Direct Method, Audio-Lingual Method, Communicative Method, Total Physical Response (TRP), and Eclectic Method are explained.

3.1. Direct Method

Children learn their mother tongue naturally and without any special effort. This means that the native language can be learned directly. As in the mother tongue learning process, the effort to teach a foreign language is called the "direct method." This method is also called the natural method because the mother tongue or second language is learned naturally (Patel & Jain, 2008). Nineteenth-century reformers such as Marcel, Gouin, and Franke have worked and developed methods that laid the foundations of the Direct Method.

Marcel's study of foreign language teaching focuses on four skills: reading, speaking, listening, and writing. Emphasizing on meaningful learning, Marcel advocates that reading skills should be acquired before other skills in foreign language teaching, and then speaking skills should be studied by reading texts. He considered the writing skill less important than other skills. Marcel's argument is based on a distinction between "analysis and synthesis" teaching methods. Analysis methods; it starts from sampling, practice and experiences, then moves on to general facts through an inductive process. The synthesis method example does not consider imitation; turns the student's attention to principles and rules to direct the student's attention to the objects of study, with an indirect lesson. A good method should involve both analysis and synthesis but can be at different rates depending on the characteristics of the child and the relationship between the general aims of education. Marcel discussed important practical details in his lectures that he advocated the extensive use of visuals in the implementation phase of the method. For instance, in a lesson that he uses the book visually, he gives detailed explanations

such as "This is a nice book, I open the book, I close the book, there are pictures in this book, there is a beautiful picture here". Marcel's suggestion for foreign language teachers is; It is the need to repeat the same expressions frequently in teaching and these expressions are always accompanied by explanatory visuals, tone of voice, gestures, and actions (Howatt, 1984).

Gouin (1892) observed the language learning process of children and tried to create a methodology based on his observations. He laid the foundations of the direct method to the methodology he created, and shared his arguments and observations with the book "*The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages*". Gouin emphasized that he switched from classical methods to extra scholastic methods and stated that the new methods would benefit both foreign language students and teachers. Gouin found it unnecessary to include abstract concepts such as roots, irregular verbs and grammar in foreign language teaching and emphasized the necessity of teaching daily expressions required by life. Gouin, who observes the language acquisition process of children, stated that mother tongue acquisition assimilated not as phrases but as sentence structures. Emphasizing that every word presented in isolation is an abstraction and children do not understand abstract concepts, Gouin stated that the teachings should be presented to children in sentence form. Gouin, who defines the child's natural language learning as "the goal reached by successive ways", developed the "Series Method" based on the fact that this stage follows a series. According to this method, the structure of a language text reflects the structure of the event it describes. Gouin explaining all events as a sequence of events smaller than himself, stated that the ordered structure provides a framework for the language. The Series Method teaches students a series of sentences that are directly (without translation) and conceptually (without grammatical rules) connected. For instance; The event of "opening the door"; involves the serialization of moving towards the door, turning the handle, opening the door, and keeping the door open.

Gouin argued that this method helps the student to understand the foreign language more efficiently.

The German scientist Franke has studied the psychological principles of the direct relationship between structure and meanings in the target language. Franke, one of the supporters of the direct method, advocated that the target language should be spoken actively in the classroom. Also, he defended that the teacher should encourage the foreign language to be spoken directly and spontaneously in the classroom and that new words should be taught using demonstrations and visuals (Patel & Jain, 2008).

Sauveur and Heness opened a "School of Modern Languages" in Boston and continued their education with the Direct Method approach. Sauveur using intense verbal interaction in the target language using the questions as a way of presenting and revealing language. He agreed with other views of the Direct Method and argued that if the meaning is directly conveyed through demonstration and action, a foreign language can be taught without translation or the use of the student's native language (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

Teachers using the Direct Method in foreign language teaching aim to teach students how to communicate in the target language. For successful communication in the target language, students need to learn to think in the target language. While the teacher is in the position of directing the classroom activities, the students have a passive role. The only task assigned to students is the obligation to speak using the target language in the classroom. In fact, the teacher and students are like partners who run the teaching-learning process together. Teachers using the direct method believe that students should associate meaning directly with the target language. Therefore, when students need to present a new word or phrase in the target language, a picture, visual or pantomime technique is used to meet the meaning (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

The Direct Method is full of activities; the teacher shows real objects to convey the meaning or takes the action involving that

concept. The teacher shows the meaning of the sentence with the help of gestures, postures and action. Thus, it enables the child to establish a direct link between words and expressions. The teacher never translates the word or phrase in the target language into the native language of the students. In this method that the teaching unit is a sentence, the teacher does activities that explain the meaning of the sentence (Patel & Jain, 2008).

The curriculum followed in teaching with the direct method is based on daily life situations or subjects. For example; While the language expressions used in shopping or in the bank are examples of situations, subjects may be weather, geography, or money. In this method, which never includes clear and detailed grammar rules, grammar is taught by induction. That is, students are given examples and expected to understand the rule or generalization in the examples. With this method, students chat with each other during the teaching process. Language is seen primarily as a spoken phenomenon, not as a written phenomenon. Therefore, students work on everyday speech in the target language. They also study cultures that contain information about the history of the speakers of the target language, the geography of the country where the language is spoken, and the daily lives of the speakers of the language. When language skills are considered, verbal communication is seen as basic from the beginning. Therefore, reading and writing exercises are based on what students apply verbally first (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

The direct method has been criticized by the linguist Henry Sweet. According to Sweet, putting an adult in a baby's position and not being allowed to use the skills of the adult creates a disadvantage in language teaching. These skills are, in short, the power to learn grammar and use a dictionary. Moreover, speaking, which is the main tool of the direct method, is not a tool for Sweet to learn new words and expressions; it is the practice of hearing and reproducing what we have learned before. Trying to use the expressions that a person has accidentally learned from his

environment by transferring them to spoken language can lead to rude and ridiculous expressions (Sweet, 1972). Another criticism was made on the teacher's competence required by the method. The direct method requires teachers whose native language is the target language or who can speak fluently in a foreign language. The success of the method rather than a textbook depends largely on the skill of the teacher, however; It is unlikely that all teachers are competent to comply with the principles of the method in a foreign language. Critics point out that strict adherence to the principles of the Direct Method is often inefficient because teachers have to make great efforts to avoid using the mother tongue (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

3.2. Audiolingual Method

With the participation of America in the Second World War between 1930-1950, foreign language teaching gained importance and people who could speak foreign languages were needed. For this reason, the government has assigned universities in the United States to develop a new foreign language teaching method. With the support of linguist Charles Fries, the University of Michigan and other universities, a new teaching method called ASTP (Army Specialized Training Program) emerged and started to be applied in schools. Later, this method was also named as the army method, and success was achieved in a short time with an intensive language teaching program (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The courses in which the Army Method is used in teaching contain almost no grammar and translation and contain a large number of verbal activities (pronunciation, dialogue exercises and speaking practice). The success of the Army Method and the resurgent national interest in foreign languages pushed educational institutions to adopt the new methodology (Brown, 2007).

Charles Fries is one of the linguists who pioneered the foundation of the Auditory-Linguistic Method at the University of

Michigan. Fries, the main purpose of the Audio-Lingual Method in language teaching; It assumes as complete understanding as possible between people with different linguistic backgrounds. The Auditory-Linguistic Method presents in the form of a systematic method for incorporating not only the sound parts of a language but also the functioning patterns of rhythm and intonation, grammatical system, word sets, as well as all social and cultural meanings. It uses the oral approach in language teaching primarily in the first stage of language learning and does not deny reading and writing skills at any stage of language learning (Fries, 1957).

The auditory-linguistic method remained loyal to the principles of the direct method but took a more rigid stance to refuse grammar teaching. The method derives its theoretical basis from behavioral psychology, which accepts language as a simple form of behavior, and has been developed to learn through the formation of correct habits (Thornbury, 2000). The process of "operant conditioning" mentioned in the Behavioral Theory, which forms the basis of the method, comes to the fore when verbal behavior is first acquired. For example, an adult builds a repertoire of expressions in a child by reinforcing an example of verbal expression. However, before verbal behavior is acquired with adult support, the statement should be heard by the child at least several times. However, not all complex forms of adult verbal behavior are expected to be found in the child's unconditional vocal repertoire (Skinner, 1957).

Brooks, one of the language teaching theorists, supported the auditory-linguistic method, argued that language is a behavior, that learning a language includes how to behave instead of learning how to use grammar, and that this behavior is best learned by forming appropriate habits (Byram & Hu, 2013).

The teachings are made permanent by frequent imitation by students and by memorizing a recorded sound, key phrases, or dialogues. This is called the 'mim-mem' method. Language laboratory developed in the early 1960s provided a functional space for 'mim-mem' exercises. Dialogues and key sentences are

chosen to represent important syntactic structures of the language (Byram & Hu, 2013).

In the classroom implementation phase of the auditory-linguistic method, importance is given to listening and speaking skills training. When entering a classroom in which this method is applied, students who listen carefully to the dialogue presented by the teacher or speak in the target language are usually encountered. Teachings usually consist of dialogues and expressions that students use frequently in their daily life. The teacher makes the presentation of these dialogues and expressions, repeats them, and gives the students the opportunity to experience the dialogues created with different patterns.

For example; the teacher sets and presents a dialogue in a park. Next, the two selected students experience this dialogue:

Student 1: Good morning.

Student 2: Good morning.

Student 1: How are you?

Student 2: I'm fine, how about you?

Student 1: I'm fine. Where are you going?

Student 2: I'm going to the post office.

Student 1: Me too. Shall we go together?

Student 2: Of course. Let's go.

This dialogue by the students is repeated more than once. After each sentence used in the dialogue, the other students in the class repeat the same sentence. In the following lessons, roles can be exchanged between students so that all students experience different roles. As the dialogue is understood by the students, the teacher can diversify the dialogue by adding different words to the conversations. Dialogues are reinforced with exercises such as repetition, chain, displacement, deformation, and question and

answer. In addition to dialogues, emphasis is placed on teaching sentence patterns by memorization.

For example; a teacher using the auditory linguistic method in his/her classroom,

"I'm going to the post office." presents the sentence pattern in stages:

Teacher: Repeat after me: post office.

Students: Post office.

Teacher: To the post office.

Students: To the post office.

Teacher: I'm going to the post office.

Students: I'm going to the post office.

Teacher: I'm going to the post office.

Students: I'm going to the post office.

As seen in the example, the teacher gradually presented the sentence pattern to the students with the induction and repetition method. The auditory-linguistic method is applied in the classroom within certain principles. First of all, only the target language should be used in the classroom. In this method, students create new habits in the target language and shape their old habits in their native language. The teacher, who is in the position of conductor, guides the students and keeps the learning process under control. The teacher immediately intervenes and corrects the mistakes students make while using the target language and prevents the formation of wrong language habits. Students are imitators of the teacher model or the tape recording model speech. They follow the teacher's instructions and respond as accurately and quickly as possible. Students are expected to respond quickly to questions posed without thinking. In the teaching process, the teacher gives feedback to the students' correct target language behaviors such

as "very good" and ensures that the behavior is reinforced with positive reinforcement. The teacher encourages the students to use the target language with correct intonation and correct sounds. Because this method defends that the basis of language is speaking and attaches importance to listening-speaking skills (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

One criticism of the behaviorism-based method represented by Skinner came from Noam Chomsky. Chomsky, who rejected the language learning theories on which the Audio-lingual method was established, argued that the behavioral theory cannot explain the ability of children to produce an unlimited number of expressions in explaining language acquisition through habit formation. According to him, behaviorism cannot explain the creation of human language. Other criticisms made on the method are that students are bored with the practice of practice and memorization and that structures learned through repetition require close guidance for spontaneous reuse. In addition, the materials and methods were evaluated only as suitable for primary school years, not for intermediate and advanced students (Byram & Hu, 2013).

3.3. Communicative Method

It has been observed that the students who studied with the teaching methods developed until the 1970s, could not use the target language while communicating outside the classroom while establishing correct sentence structures using a foreign language in the classroom. Thereupon, it was thought that the concepts of performance and competence suggested by Chomsky were not sufficient to explain the language, and a third concept called communicative competence was added to these concepts. The communicative method, led by the linguist Hymes, was developed with the idea of having communication skills as the main point in learning foreign languages (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). In this method, language is for communication and communication

requires proficiency in the language. Knowledge and meanings of language structures are only part of communicative competence. Another aspect of communicative competence is knowledge about the functions in which language is used (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

According to the opinion of Hymes (1972), an individual who gains the communicative competence that the method aims to acquire, gains both knowledge and ability to use language in relation to the items listed below:

1. Whether a language expression is actually and to what extent,
2. Whether or not the statement in question is applicable to the current situation,
3. To what extent the statement (such as adequate, happy, successful) used in a context is appropriate or not,
4. Whether something is actually done, to what extent and what should be done.

In summary; the Communicative Method, pioneered by Hymes, is a method that aims to provide a foreign language student with the knowledge and skills that he needs to be communicative competent. The main purpose of the Communicative Method is to enable students to communicate in the target language. In order for students to have the ability to communicate, they must have knowledge about the functions and meanings of different forms of the target language. In other words, in order to communicate, it is important to learn the words that form the basis of the language and to use them during communication. Taking the roles of the interlocutors into consideration during the social context and communication, students are expected to be able to choose among the most appropriate structures of the language (Campbell and Rutherford, 2000). In order for students to choose the mentioned language structure correctly; they should know that many different structures of the language can be used for a single function and also that a single structure can serve more than one function (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

In the Communicative Method, the role of the teacher is to be a facilitator; the teacher facilitates communication in the classroom. One of his biggest responsibilities in this role is to create a situation that encourages communication. The teacher acts as an observer during classroom activities, answering the students' questions and monitoring their performance. When the teacher encounters students' mistakes, he/she notes them to ensure accuracy in language use. In addition; In this non-teacher-centered method; students are seen as more responsible for their learning (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Brown (2007) lists the characteristic features of the Communicative Method under four items:

1. Teaching objectives of the method focus on all components of communicative competence; it is not limited to only grammatical or linguistic proficiency.
2. Foreign language teaching techniques are designed to guide students towards meaningful goals and to use them in a pragmatic, authentic and functional way.
3. Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communication techniques. The principle of fluency takes precedence over the principle of accuracy to enable students to participate in language use in a meaningful way.
4. In a classroom in which the communicative teaching method is applied, students ultimately have to use language in an efficient and innovative way that is appropriate for the context of certain contexts.

3.4. Total Physical Response Method

The Total Physical Response Method is a language teaching method in which physical movement plays a central role. The method was developed in the 1960s by Professor James Asher of San Jose State College in California.

The method aims to be a suitable method for language learners of all ages with different individual characteristics and abilities. The Total Physical Response Method has gained worldwide popularity from the moment it was first developed and is a method used by teachers especially for younger age group language learners (Byram & Hu, 2013).

Asher defined his method as "the ideal teaching machine". In the ideal teaching machine, the student sees the target vocabulary in print, speaks it, and hears it from a native language user. This way, he/she has all the skills of a foreign language speaker. This method, which says that theoretically guarantees success in a foreign language, allows the student's pronunciation to be matched with the correct pronunciation and provides immediate specific feedback (Asher, 2012).

Asher (2012) shared three key ideas for foreign language teachers to use in teaching children or adults:

1. The ability to understand a foreign language must be developed before speaking.
2. Understanding should be reinforced by the movements of the student's body. Movements are necessary and powerful aid in this method. The teacher can give commands to manipulate student behavior in this process.
3. Students should not be forced to speak. As students understand what is heard and internalize the cognitive map of the target language, they will be prepared to speak. The individual starts to produce expressions spontaneously in the teaching process.

In a classroom that is taught with the Total Physical Response method, the foreign language is presented by giving commands or instructions, with the appropriate actions modeled by the teacher and the small group of four replicating the actions observed in the rest of the class. In the first place, students don't repeat commands. Next, all students are invited to model the specific activities both in

groups and individually. The atmosphere in the classroom is always fun. The instructor tries to get the students to understand the commands before they are asked to model the commands. The Total Physical Response Method course is a rich sensory environment with visual teaching materials such as posters. Beginning with a few simple basics, such as tables, chairs, books, and windows, students learn classroom vocabulary by initially following instructor commands based on combinations of these objects with a number of common verbs such as walk, run, point, touch. The basic actions such as "turn, sit, stand up, walk" constitute the beginning of the method. As students gain proficiency in a foreign language, new verbs, new nouns and more complex grammatical structures are presented (Byram & Hu, 2013).

As with all methods, the Total Physical Response Method also has limitations. While the method is particularly effective for students at the beginning levels of language proficiency, it loses its effect as students show progress in their proficiency. Today, the Total Physical Response Method is used as a classroom activity rather than a method. Many successful communicative, interactive classrooms make use of the activities of this method to provide both auditory input and physical activity (Brown, 2007).

3.5. Eclectic Method

There are many methods in foreign language teaching, which are based on different approaches, have different target skills, and vary in the application phase. When these methods are examined, it is seen that each of them has strengths and weaknesses. Language teaching includes four different skills as listening, speaking, writing and reading. Foreign language teachers, on the other hand, can use the best of the existing methods and the ones that serve their purposes best for every skill they want to gain. For example, a teacher who wants to gain speaking skills successfully can use the Audiolingual method in one lesson, while in the other

lesson, he can teach his students communication skills with the Communicative method. At this stage, the mixing of different language teaching methods and the richness of methods is called Electic Method (Demirel, 2003).

Wali (2009), one of the pioneers of the eclectic method, stated that teaching should serve students, not methods, and therefore teachers should be free to choose components of classroom education. According to Wali, there is no ideal approach to learning a language, and each method has its own limitations and strong features. Teachers should have the right to choose any method according to the learning situation of the students and then choose the techniques. Teachers can adopt a flexible method and technique to achieve their goals. The desired method should be chosen according to different conditions and times.

In the teaching process, variables such as students' age, motivation levels, class size, teacher's professional competence lead to the development of different teaching situations. According to these variables, teachers can organize different teaching plans and use elective methods in teaching. In order for foreign language teaching to be successful with the elective method, the teacher should have a good command of the principles and characteristics of the mixed methods, and the researches made on that method, and in this way, the teacher can make the most appropriate choice for his educational situation (Demirel, 2003).

Henry Sweet, who is criticized on the Direct Method, is among the advocates of the Eclectic Method. According to him, a good method for everyone should be comprehensive and eclectic (Sweet, 1972). Studies on subjective thinking of teachers seem to support Sweet's idea. Studies have shown that methods are always adapted by those who use them. Most foreign language teachers choose effective and easy-to-use methods that are compatible with existing opportunities and values, supported by a wide variety of published materials (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

4. Conclusion

The acquisition and internalization of the system and rules of the language are among the basic principles of foreign language teaching. For this reason, the more internalized a foreign language is the more learning that is close to the native language. There are many different views and theories in foreign language teaching as well as in mother tongue acquisition. While some theories emphasize the innate skills of human beings, some theories mention the importance of the environment. Some theories also draw attention to both the nature of the individual and the environment. Many theories have tried to explain their views within the framework of the fact that they are based on. Likewise, it is not possible to talk about a single method related to foreign language teaching. Throughout history, many different methods have been applied and generally, each new method is a criticism of the previous one and has been developed and revealed. It is not possible to have a single correct method for foreign language teaching. Since every child has individual differences in terms of developmental characteristics, needs, motivation and learning style; foreign language teachers synthesize and use many different teaching methods. Especially in the early childhood period, the first experiences and affective acquisitions that children will experience in foreign language teaching are very important because; the experiences encountered in the early period are determinative in creating effective foreign language education and positive attitude towards foreign language in the future. The early childhood period differs significantly from other age groups in terms of foreign language teaching. For this reason, the competencies that foreign language teachers should have also differ. Teachers who will teach foreign languages to children in this period must have not only foreign language pedagogy but also pre-school and primary school pedagogy.

References

Anthony, E. M. (1963). Approach, method and technique. *English Language Teaching*, *17*(2), 63-67.

Asher, J. J. (2012). *Learning another language through actions: The complete teacher's guidebook*. Sky Oaks Productions.

Bloomfield, L. (1933). *Language*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Brooks, N. (1960). *Language and learning: Theory and practice*. Harcourt Brace & World.

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. New York: Longman.

Byram, M., & Hu, A. (2013). *Routledge encyclopedia of language teaching and learning* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.

Cameron, L. (2001). *Teaching languages to young learners*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chomsky, N. (1995). Language and nature. *Mind*, *104*(413), 1-61.

Chomsky, N. (2002). *On nature and language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cook, V. (2013). *Second language learning and language teaching*. Routledge.

Davies, A., & Elder, C. (2008). *The handbook of applied linguistics*. John Wiley & Sons.

Demirel, Ö. (2003). *Yabancı dil öğretimi*. Ankara: Pegem.

Fries, C. (1957). Structural linguistics and language teaching. *The Classical Journal, 52*(6), 265-268.

Gass, S., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course*. Laurence Erlbaum Associates.

Gitsaki, C. (1998). Second language acquisition theories: Overview and evaluation. *Journal of Communication and International Studies*, *4*(2), 89-98.

Gouin, F. (1892). *The art of teaching and studying languages*. London: George Phillip & Son.

Harley, B., Howard, J., & Hart, D. (1995). Second language processing at different ages: Do younger learners pay more attention to prosodic cues to sentence structure? *Language Learning*, *45*(1), 43-71.

Haznedar, B. (1997) *Child second language acquisition of English: A longitudinal study of a Turkish speaking child*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Durham, United Kingdom.

Howatt, A. P. (1984). *A history of English language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hymes, D. H. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-293). Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Krashen, S. D. (1978). The Monitor Model for second language acquisition. In R. C. Gingras (Ed.), *Second language acquisition and foreign language teaching* (pp. 1–26). Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching: From method to postmethod*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Lado, R. (1964). *Language teaching: A scientific approach*. London: McGraw Hill.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2013). *How languages are learned* (4th Ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Long, M. H. (1980). *Input, interaction, and second language acquisition*. Doctoral Dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles.

Long, M. H. (1981). Input, interaction, and second language acquisition. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, *379*, 259-278.

Marinova-Todd, S. H. (2003). *Native, near-native or non-native: Comprehensive analysis of the linguistic profiles of highly proficient adult second language learners.* Doctoral Dissertation, Harvard Graduate School of Education, U.S.A.

McDonough, J., Shaw, C., & Masuhara, H. (2012). *Materials and methods in ELT: A Teacher's Guide*. John Wiley & Sons.

McLaughlin, B. (1987). *Theories of second language learning*. London: Edward Arnold.

Mitchell, R., Myles, F., & Marsden, E. (2019). *Second language learning theories*. Routledge.

Norman, S. (2003). Automaticity and second languages. In C. J. Doughty, & M. H. Long (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 382-408). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Patel, M. F., & Jain, P. M. (2008). *English language teaching*. Sunrise Publishers and Distributors

Pinter, A. (2011). *Children learning second languages*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Saville-Troike, M., & Barto, K. (2016). *Introducing second language acquisition*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Selinker, L. (1969). Language transfer. *General Linguistics*, *9*(2), 67-92.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *10*(3), 209-232.

Skinner, B. F. (1957). *Verbal behavior*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Snow, C. E., & Hoefnagel-Höhle, M. (1978). The critical period for language acquisition: Evidence from second language learning. *Child Development, 49*(4), 1114-1128.

Sweet, H. (1972). *The Practical study of languages*. London: Oxford University Press.

Thornbury, S. (2000). *How to teach grammar*. Harlow: Longman.

Thorndike, E. L. (1932). *The fundamentals of learning*. New York: Columbia University.

Trawiński, M. (2005). *An outline of second language acquisition theories.* Poland: Wydawnictwo Naukowe Akademii Pedagogicznej.

Wali, N. H. (2009). Eclecticism and language learning. *Al-Fatih Journal*, *39*, 34-41.

Watson, J. B. (1924). The unverbalized in human behavior. *Psychological Review*, *31*(4), 273.

White, L. (2003). *Second language acquisition and universal grammar*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Whong-Barr, M., & Schwartz, B. D. (2002). Morphological and syntactic transfer in child L2 acquisition of the English dative alternation. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *24*(4), 579–616.

View publication stats