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Cross-situational Learning of Foreign Vocabulary Reveals a Possible Noun Bias in Adulthood

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***Abstract*—While the debate continues into its third decade over why toddlers across languages tend to acquire nouns quicker than verbs, surprisingly few studies have re-directed this same question at adult. Does such a word class learning bias exist among adult second language learners? In the present study, 48 participants were taught foreign (Hebrew) vocabulary as short phrases in either cross-situational or single-situational learning contexts to test for a noun bias and whether it would be reduced through exposure to multiple contexts. Separate, non-interacting effects were found for word class (nouns better) and the number of contexts used (two better than one). How these results support the referential clarity hypothesis and other theories is discussed.**

***Index Terms*—noun bias, word learning, vocabulary acquisition, cross-situational learning, line drawing, fast mapping**

I. Introduction

Nitsch (1977) experimented on the effect of the number of learning contexts by teaching students novel words and their meanings either by a) definition alone, b) definition with examples within one story context (a cowboy story), or c) definition with examples from several contexts (including the cowboy story). There was a positive effect of varying contexts on retrieval of word meanings in a unique story context—students who learned across several contexts performed best. This was one of the earliest demonstrated advantages of what was to eventually be called cross-situational learning. Since then, cross-situational learning studies have become quite widespread, but I have yet to encounter a study which addresses two important questions posed in this paper: first, what is the demonstrated advantage of cross-situational learning relative to its opposite—learning from within a single situation? Second, does the purported advantage of learning across situations apply equally in the cases of two very important classes of vocabulary targets for foreign language learners—nouns and verbs?

A. Potential for Noun Bias

Most cross-situational learning studies train participants with targets of a single word class (nouns and adjectives in the studies mentioned above). It therefore remains unknown whether cross-situational learning is equally effective when used to learn verbs as nouns. These are two words classes that language beginners of all ages typically begin with. Thus finding a difference in usefulness of cross-situational learning as a learning method could have important implications for early foreign word learners.

The noun bias is the tendency for children to acquire noun labels more quickly than other class labels. This noun bias has been well-documented in naturalistic studies of children learning their first language (e.g., Bornstein et al., 2004; Gentner, 1982) and even two languages simultaneously (Levey & Cruz, 2003), yet very few language studies have turned an eye toward the possibility of a noun bias among adult language learners. Findings from two studies suggest there could be a noun bias among adults just as among young children. Piccin & Waxman (2007) found that adults and children were more successful at guessing nouns than verbs from beeps which replaced actual words in video dialogues. One shortcoming of the Piccin and Waxman study was that despite measuring and documenting a word class difference in word imageability, this factor was neither controlled nor assessed for its role in accounting for word guessing accuracy, which could have accounted for the noun advantage found. Gillette, Gleitman, Gleitman, and Lederer (1999) tested and found that imageability did in fact mediate the noun bias effect they found. However as these studies were simulations focused on hypothesis formation in fairly ambiguous settings, their results may not completely address whether or not there a noun bias among adults beginning to learn a foreign language. In the present study, the effect of imageability was considered for its potential effect in mediating the effect of word class on word learning.

Naigles (1990) suggested verbs are harder to learn because they are more morphosyntactically complex, and suggested knowledge of syntax could aid vocabulary acquisition. Gillette et al. (1999), in researching possible explanations of the noun bias, manipulated syntax as a cue to word meaning. They found that knowledge of a target word's class indeed helped participants guess word meanings. In the current study, training trials presented at the beginning of the experiment clued participants in to the grammar, though the target language syntax was not made explicit. This allowed us to test whether, when participants have at least some knowledge of a language's syntax, noun learning is equivalent to verb learning.

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B. Cross-situational Learning

Akhtar and Montague (1999) showed that 2-, 3-, and 4-year olds could map novel adjective terms to either textures or shapes of objects by presenting exemplars which shared a target feature but varied on non-target features. Smith and Yu (2008) found that even participants as young as 12 and 14 months were able to solve an ambiguity problem using cross-situational learning statistics. In their study, infants heard two labels refer to two objects on each of a series of slides. The labels on any particular slide presented an ambiguity problem—these young participants could not know which labels referred to which objects. However across labeled situations infants grasped which labels referred to which referents because labels and referents co-occurred in perfect correlation but labels co-occurred with incorrect referents more randomly.

From a cognitive perspective, the benefits of learning from multiple rather than single learning contexts or situations can be explained in terms of cue-overload theory (Watkins & Watkins, 1976) and stimulus sampling theory (Estes, 1955). Cue-overload theory says that remembering is more likely when multiple learning cues are provided because the additional cues tip the ratio of cues to targets, favoring retrievability. Stimulus sampling theory says memory is a function of the number of stimuli present at the time of recall; by sampling from a variety of environments during learning, the likelihood that any of those stimuli are present during recall is higher and thus recall is more likely. Thus by learning in multiple contexts, learners link multiple cues from each context to their target, thereby increasing retrieval likelihood when targets need to be recalled. In the present study, cross-situational learning is expected to be a superior learning strategy relative to learning target label meanings from single, repeated contexts. Besides the explanations of advantage for multiple learning situations mentioned above, the cross-situational learning effect may function by reducing ambiguity for how words in an utterance maps onto their referents, as explained in more detail below.

In the present study participants learned words for target elements by seeing and hearing them labeled twice per pair of contexts presented sequentially. These "contexts" were images or still scenes of actors performing actions. In each juxtaposed pair of contexts, a single, common element (either an object or action element) was repeated, affording participants the opportunity to solve the ambiguity problem present in each individual image presentation with its phrase description—a problem that immersion learners are very familiar with. By assuming that common visual elements repeated across image pairs instantiate common words repeated between phrase pairs, learners could apply a mapping strategy not otherwise available when learning from single, repeated context. This would demonstrate a purported advantage of the cross-situational over the single-situational word learning strategy.

C. Predictions

I predicted single-situational learning would lead to much poorer learning than cross-situational learning for four reasons. First, in single-situational conditions, participants would have had little way of learning the syntax of the target language (noun-verb word order) besides the subtle clues given through feedback on practice trials. In cross-situational conditions, this syntax would have become somewhat apparent after a few trials because the shared element across contexts was always uttered either first or second in phrases; nouns were always uttered first, and verbs were always uttered second. Second, I predicted a disadvantage for single-situational learning because word parsing would have been much less certain (natural intonation provided a clue). For example in the phrase "tinok shotay" participants might have accidentally parsed "tinoksho tay." Such parsing errors would have led to lower word recognition at test. In cross-situational conditions, however, the phrase "atalef shotay" was followed with the phrase "tinok shotay," allowing learners to parse "shotay" with greater certainty in each phrase. Third, past learning research has shown that varying the learning context is beneficial to learning (e.g., Nitsch, 1977). And fourth, the presence of a second, labeled instance of each target in new contexts should increase certainty in label-to-referent mapping which should facilitate learning.

Initially I predicted that there should be no noun bias because nouns and verbs were closely matched on factors of word imageability, familiarity, frequency, as well as three measures of image clarity—factors which I found matter to word learnability based on prior work (Ludington, in press). Therefore no word class effect was initially expected. However in the process of collecting data, images were measured for their name agreement (proportion of participants who named each element in learned images consistently with predetermined responses). Based on a detected noun-verb difference in target naming, the revised prediction was that nouns should be learned better than verbs due to their more consistent identification across images.

I predicted an interaction between number of situations and word class. The referential clarity hypothesis (Ludington, in press) suggests noun biases among adult learning are due to more referential ambiguity of verbs than nouns. Thus in the present study noun learning may slightly exceed verb learning in single-situational conditions because nouns tend to be more identifiable in context images (Ludington, in press), and indeed were found more identifiable in the current study. I expected the use of two learning situations per target would eliminate much or all of the ambiguity typical of word learning situations with multiple words and referents, thereby eliminating any word class bias.

By modeling word class with factors that might affect word learnability, the latter factors could be statistically held constant while testing the effect of word class. Some model testing and development was performed in order to better understand how these variables related to word learning.

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II. Methodology

A. Participants

Fifty undergraduate participants were recruited from a subject pool of students taking psychology (mostly) or linguistics courses at the University of California, Los Angeles. To be eligible for this study, participants were not to know any more than three words of Hebrew. The first two participants were run only to pilot the procedures; some procedures were altered in response to this dry run, and the data from those two participants were excluded from analysis.

The experiment proper sampled 48 participants: 37 females and 11 males. The average age of participants was 21.5 years (range: 18-40, SD=5.0). To assess whether being a native English speaker had any effect on performance, participants were asked to report their language background on paper; 38 participants reported English was their primary language, and 10 reported English was not their primary language. Those who reported English as non-primary also self-reported their language ability in English on a scale of 1 (unable to use the language) – 10 (native fluency). Scores ranged from 6 – 10, and the mean among these 10 participants was 8.00 (SD = 1.15).

All participants also reported their knowledge of other languages, and self-rated their proficiency in each reported language, because it was wondered if those with more accumulated language learning experience might have a special advantage in foreign vocabulary acquisition. A count was taken of the number of languages besides English reportedly known; numbers ranged from zero (1 participant) to five (1 participant). To test the hypothesis that more acquired language proficiency might put learners at an advantage in the present task, all self-reported language proficiency scores for all reported languages (except their primary languages which I assumed to be 10 = native) were summed for each participant to form a total foreign language proficiency measure. Participants' average total foreign language proficiency was 8.49 (SD = 4.93). A number of participants reported various proficiencies in Spanish (26), French (9), Mandarin Chinese (6), Farsi (4), Hindi (4), Korean (4), Vietnamese (3), Polish (2), Italian (2), Polish (2), German (2), Urdu (2), and a number of other languages (reported once each: Canbrese, American Sign Language, Telegu, Amheric, Japanese, Persian, Punjabi, Tunisian Arabic, Arabic, Portuguese, and Nepali). Proficiency in any particular language was not analyzed as no special link was expected to exist between any of these and the target language, Hebrew.

B. Design

The study was designed as a two-way, mixed factorial experiment. The first independent variable was word class manipulated within subjects at two levels—nouns and verbs. The second independent variable was the number of learning contexts (unique images) presented, manipulated at two levels between subjects: cross-situational and single-situational learning. The dependent variable, recognition, was measured on a binary scale (0=wrong, 1=correct). Outcomes, 24 per participant, were nested within the participant unit of analysis. Sixteen additional predictor variables—characteristics of participants, words, and images—were also tested.

C. Materials

A consent form, a biographical data form, a laptop computer, and presentation software were used. Following are more detailed descriptions of each.

Consent form.

All participants signed consent to participate as required by the institution's review board.

Biographical data form.

A data form collected language background information. One question addressed what the participants' first language was. If not English, another question asked participants to rate their language ability in English on a fluency-scale from 1-10, where *1* meant unable to use any of the language, and *10* meant fluent. A third question asked for other languages the participant knew, and how fluent he or she was in each (using this same fluency scale). Age and sex data were also collected.

Auditory stimuli.

Language and speaker.

Hebrew was used as the target language because relatively few people are fluent in this language worldwide, and because I found a Hebrew speaker for hire by which all auditory stimuli were obtained. The speaker was a 38 years old native Hebrew-speaking male who was raised in Israel and moved to the U.S. as an adult. He spoke all words individually and in phrases at a normal speech rate as requested. He spoke all nouns in singular form; verbs were spoken in either masculine or feminine form according to the gender of the illustrated actor performing the verbs in associated image. Phrases were spoken with natural articulation and sentential intonation.

Some Hebrew words were not suitable to use in this study because they were cognates of English words (e.g., *pinguin* in Hebrew means penguin). For these I substituted other Hebrew words. For example, I let the Hebrew word for angel, *malachit*, stand in for *pinguin*. Four noun substitutions and three verb substitutions were made for target words, each substitution being from another Hebrew word of the same word class. This was done to maintain the target language's status as a completely foreign language to the participants without changing the fact that it was an actual language.

Syntax.

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Hebrew words are normally ordered as subject–verb–object, as in English (Jacobs, 2003). All phrases in this study were produced in a noun-verb order. All verbs were uttered in one gender on each occurrence within the experiment—either in the masculine or feminine form depending on the actor.

Physical attributes.

Words were recorded using Audacity 1.3 (Beta) (sound recording software). Sound clips were edited to include a (approximately) 100-millisecond lag before speech onset and a 200-millisecond lag after speech offset to ensure that the complete word was uttered and that no soft or subtle word-parts were accidentally cropped during editing. Utterance lengths were measured to the nearest hundredth of a second. Table 1 includes utterance length, as well as means of other stimulus characteristics (described below) of nouns and verbs in this study.

TABLE I.
NOUN AND VERB STIMULUS CHARACTERISTICS AND SAMPLE SIZES OF MEASUREMENTS

		Nouns		Verbs		Sample size
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	N
English words	Familiarity	6.56	0.35	6.52	0.45	26
	Imageability	6.78	0.25	6.74	0.25	26
	Frequency	3.56	0.89	3.83	0.99	20
Hebrew words	Utterance length	0.64	0.14	0.75	0.22	48 words
	Phonemic length	5.00	1.38	6.38	2.63	48 words
	Syllabic length	2.33	0.76	2.75	0.99	48 words
Images	Name-isolate	0.91	0.09	0.89	0.13	19[1]
	Name Agree S images	0.91	0.13	0.76	0.25	10[1]
	Name Agree F images	0.93	0.08	0.86	0.18	12[2]
	Goodness of depiction[3]	4.89	0.15	4.82	0.17	20
	Alternative interpretation[3]	4.29	2.07	4.92	2.85	20

Numbers of phonemes and syllables were counted for all auditory stimuli. Although number of syllables did not significantly differ between nouns and verbs, p=.11, independent samples t tests showed verbs were generally longer than nouns in phonemic length, t(46)=-2.26, SE=.61, p=.03, and had longer utterance lengths, t(46)=-2.29, SE=.05, p=.03, (all tests two-tailed). At first glance, a word class difference in word lengths would appear to be of concern as a confounding of word class with length; however this correlation turns out not to be of concern in light of two facts. First, Ludington (in press) worked with nonsense words and found, based on over 7000 observations from 84 participants (96 observations per participant), that target word length as measured in the current study (utterance length, number of phonemes, and syllables) could not predict recognition. Thus no relationship between word length and word learnability was found even with great statistical power. Second, word length was not associated with recognition outcomes in the present study either. Across that and the current studies (using nonsense and Hebrew words, respectively) and with a combined sample of 144, no effect of word length on word learning was found.

Training Images.

There were two groups of images presented to participants during the training phase of this experiment—those always presented first in trials (labeled “F” images for “first”), and those always presented second in trials (labeled “S” images for “second”). Images were mostly obtained from the internet and some were hand-drawn by research assistants. All images appeared as black and white line drawings, and were easily identifiable as line drawings (as opposed to black-and-white photographs); they were drawn with varying artistic abilities ranging from simple lines and cartoony appearance to detailed renditions with proportions and shading of a realistic nature. S images, also used in a previous study (Ludington, in press), did not qualitatively differ from F images; nor did images obtained from the internet qualitatively differ from those created by research assistants. Name agreement values for S images were measured from the responses of 29 participants sampled in a previous study (unpublished dissertation).

Physical dimensions.

The heights and widths of F and S images were measured with a computer mouse using a pixel ruler (freeware); these measurements were used to ensure there were no systematic size differences among image stimuli. Heights and widths were summed to yield a composite measure of each image’s size. The composite measurements were tested for size differenced that could potentially bias certain learning conditions. S images required no comparisons because they were seen by all participants regardless of target word class or number of learning situations. F images sharing a noun with S images (M=933 pixels, SD=147) were not different in size than F images sharing a verb with S (M=991 pixels, SD=161), independent t(46)=1.34, p=.19, demonstrating no word class learning bias owing to image size differences.

Name agreement.

Name agreement measurements of images were defined as the degree to which participant responses were consistent with target responses; averages are provided in Table 1. Measuring name agreement was theory-motivated: the referential clarity hypothesis specifies that vocabulary learnability is largely a function of how clearly meanings are

[1] These were measurements of isolate images, which were viewed only at test.
[2] Values based on 6 coder average of participants' data.
[3] Values based on a single coder of each participant's data.

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given in learning situations. As referential clarity is particularly difficult to equate between nouns and verbs, a further practical purpose of measuring name agreement was to statistically account for the influence of name agreement, a proxy for referential clarity, on learning.

Judgments of agreement between participants' responses and target responses were made in the form of response coding using three codes: 0=incorrect, 0.5=difficult to classify, and 1=consistent. Across developmental phases of this research project, and described in greater detail elsewhere (Ludington, in press; unpublished dissertation), nine different coders participated in making judgments of response consistency, but any one participant's response was coded by either one coder or six coders. Three different response sets (S images, F images, and isolate images) from three phases of the current research were coded by a three different but overlapping sets of coders. Krippendorff's alpha, a measure of inter-rater agreement, was used to measure inter-rater reliability (Krippendorff, 2004) among each set of coders among respective response sets. A code-book was developed and shared with all coders which contained examples and rationales and a few general suggestions for coding responses: to be accepting of morphological variety; to take responses as correct when a noun or verb appears as word-class ambiguous (e.g., vacuum could be a verb or noun); to accept close synonyms as correct, and more distant synonyms as partially correct (.5), but words at other hierarchical category levels (super- or sub-categories) as either wrong or partially correct depending on how distant the relation seems (e.g., "bird" for duck might be .5; "animal" for duck should be 0). To avoid non-independence of judgments, separate Krippendorff's alphas were calculated between coders for each participant's response set (1 alpha per participant), and alphas were averaged over participants to provide a representative sample of inter-rater reliability.

S image name agreement values were measured in prior work (Ludington, in press) using responses from 10 participants (in a sample similar to the present sample in many respects). Their responses were coded by six coders, and coding reliability was measured. Alpha reliability was calculated for each participant; the mean alpha for these 10 participants was .66.

Participants of the present study were asked to name F images they had not viewed during their experiment proper. To measure name agreement values of F images, I randomly selected half of the participants from among the present participant sample, 12 who named one half (24) of the F images (those sharing a noun with S images), and another 12 who named the other half (24) of those images (those sharing a verb with S images). Each of these 24 participants' responses was coded by one of four coders. Additionally, all four coders coded a common set of responses from six participants (25% of the selected participant sub-sample) in order to establish inter-rater reliability. Krippendorff's alpha was calculated based on these four sets of codes for each of 6 participants' responses separately, and the average alpha was .84.

All images in the testing portion of the present study were "isolate" images (images used to convey a single meaning)—either of nouns or verbs—in isolation. Characteristics of these images were measured as part of a previous study (unpublished dissertation). Name agreement values were measured from the responses of 19 participants; Krippendorff's alpha among 6 coders of each participant's response set was calculated separately by participant so that 19 alphas were generated. The average alpha value was .71.

Goodness of depiction and number of alternative interpretations.

Goodness of depiction ratings (scale of 1 (poor) – 5 (very well)) were based on participants' ratings of how well each isolate image represented what it was intended to. Number of alternative interpretations was a count of the number of alternative interpretations offered by all participants who rated each image. Both were measured by the responses from 19 participants in prior, unpublished work using these isolate images.

English words.

Target words were concrete nouns and verbs from the English language. Subjective measures of word familiarity, word frequency, and word imageability were collected as part of a prior, unpublished study. No noteworthy differences existed in the participant samples between that and the present studies.

Word familiarity.

Participants in that unpublished study rated word familiarity using the question, "how familiar is each item to you" by entering a number from 1-7, where 1=completely not, and 7=completely.

Concept frequency.

Concept frequency ratings were taken to assess "How often have you encountered these concepts—either directly or in images—over the course of your life?" on the following scale: "1=never, 2=rarely (once every 2 years or less), 3=frequently (once every 6 months or less), 4=quite frequently (once every month), 5=extremely frequently: once every week at least."

Word imageability.

The same participants that rated familiarity also were asked to rate *word imageability* on "How easy is it to generate a mental image of each item" using this same scale. Table 1 lists all stimulus characteristics described thus far separately by word class.

The learning program.

A Toshiba laptop computer (screen size: 19 inches diagonally) was used to present auditory and visual stimuli using Superlab 4.0. Details on how this program file was created follow.

Events.

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A learning event was composed of an image and auditory stimulus (a two-word utterance in Hebrew) presented at nearly the same time. The auditory files purposely included about 100 milliseconds of silence at the beginning of each sound clip so that onsets of sound did not occur simultaneously with the onsets of images. In this way images temporally preceded and succeeded sounds. Events advanced over time at a rate of one event every three seconds.

Trials.

Each learning trial was composed of a pair of events; thus each trial lasted 6 seconds. Trials were presented back-to-back as a continuous progression of images throughout each segment.

Blocks.

A block was composed of four trials that repeated once in the same order, so eight trials. Four orders were created and used between participants to counterbalance order and sequence effects. Each participant viewed a total of 6 blocks.

Learning conditions.

Half of the participants were assigned to cross-situational learning, and the other half to single-situational learning. Fig. 1 uses a flow diagram to illustrate two cross-situational learning trials. Participants assigned to cross-situational learning would have seen either the upper pair of images in order or the lower ones, but never both pairs. Only one target element (a noun or a verb) was observed twice between each pair of images. By fixing one element but varying other elements between each pair of images, cross situational learning of the said target element was made viable. With images symbolized as letter bigrams, this learning series, in Hebrew's noun-verb syntax, was AC (first image), AB (second image) for learning a noun across contexts, or DB (first image), AB (second image) for learning a verb across contexts. Underlined letters indicate the common referent between image pairs. Thus while all participants viewed the same second image of each pair, only half viewed the first image as image AC (sharing a noun with the second image), and the other half viewed image DB (sharing a verb with the second image).

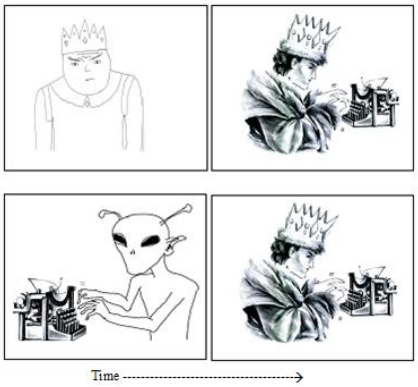

Figure 1. Pairs of context images. Each cross-situational learning trial was composed of a pair of context images linked by a common element (either a noun or a verb). The upper left panel should show an image of a king who is frowning (Hebrew: "melek zoef") and the upper right panel shows an image of another king who is typing (Hebrew: "melek maklid"); between the pair of images, participants could learn the word for king. The bottom panels show an image of an alien who is typing (Hebrew: "yitsuor maklid") and a king who is typing (Hebrew: "melek maklid"; all Hebrew phrases transliterated here by me); their consecutive presentation taught the word for typing. The artistic contributions and adaptations above by Goldie Salimkhan, Kay Lee, and me are reproduced with written permission.

Half (12) of the cross-situational learning trials were constructed to teach nouns, and half (12) were constructed to teach verbs. Manipulating a trial to teach a noun versus a verb was a matter of altering which one of two F images to present before an S image. Half of the participants assigned to the cross-situational condition learned either a noun or a verb from each trial, and always learned 12 nouns and 12 verbs across all 24 trials. The other half of the participants learned the opposite word class from each trial as the first group, also learning 12 nouns and 12 verbs. These participant groups all viewed the same S images, but different F images.

Participants assigned to single-situational learning all saw only S images, the same as those assigned to cross-situational learning, but none saw any F images. Instead each S image was seen twice in a row. A few milliseconds of white screen intervened between these images to create the impression of seeing two images rather than one. A sound clip with the Hebrew phrase to describe this image was played at the onset of the image's two presentations. Fig. 2 demonstrates this condition as a flow diagram.

Figure 2. A pair of (identical) context images. Each single-situational learning trial was composed of two of the same image. This image by Goldie Salimkhan is reproduced with written permission.

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Test.

In the present paradigm word learning might progress gradually in a way not well measured as translated products. A target word's meaning may not lend itself well to translation until it reaches a definition-mature point of development. Maturing hypotheses of word meanings may not be as nuanced as specific word translations into the native tongue, and therefore testing underdeveloped vocabulary with words as targets may not be ideal. Testing with images of learned targets should be preferable because these theoretically depict less nuanced versions of target meanings than words would. Therefore word learning was measured as image recognition. Test images choices were of different exemplars than those viewed during learning to provide a realistic model of word recognition in real world settings.

The learning assessment, a multiple-choice test, was to select each spoken target word's correct meaning from four image choices (chance performance was at 25%). Two of the four image meanings were presented in an S image, as were the other two, as a way to limit performance based merely on associating a target words with its whole S image. There were always two nouns and two verbs presented among the options; this helped to limit performance based merely on having learned the targets' word class.

Participants were tested after a 30-second filler task (to eliminate target contents from working memory) given after each block. The choice to measure learning soon after each block, rather than once at the end of the entire experiment, was motivated by an aim to minimize primacy and recency effects or proactive and retroactive interference effects. Furthermore, recognition performance was anticipated, and indeed found to be, in an ideal range for detecting differences between groups (more items per block or a longer delay between training and test could have caused floor effects, but fewer items or a shorter delay might have caused ceiling effects). Six tests, one given after each of six learning blocks, contained four test items presented in a single order for all participants. Each item tested recognition of one target word from each of the four trials per learning block.

Targets.

Among participants assigned to the cross-situational learning condition, only words learned across situations were correct options (participants were not told this). For those assigned to single-situational learning, only one of each trial's word pair was the correct option. For half of these participants either the noun or the verb of each S image was tested, and for the other half of these participants, it was the other of each word pair that was tested, thus controlling the number of items tested across all participants and conditions. The location of the target on the screen was randomly chosen from four possible locations (upper left, upper right, lower left, and lower right) and were counterbalanced across test items to control against participants acquiring a location bias during test performance. The locations of foils were randomly assigned to disguise the relationship between foils and targets.

Foils.

Among all test items, the target image of one test trial was presented again as a foil option in one other test trial. In this way every image option was presented twice during testing. No element pair (elements from a single S image) was presented with another element pair more than once during test. This was done to discourage participants from using a process of elimination strategy based on their performance on prior items.

D. Procedures

Participants began the experiment by completing a consent form and biographical data sheet. Next the experiment proper was run, followed by an image naming task. Finally, participants were debriefed and thanked, and 1 credit (for one hour of participation) was awarded. The experiment usually lasted about 30 minutes. Following are more detailed descriptions of the experiment proper and the naming task.

Experiment proper.

Training.

Instructions presented on screen informed participants that they would be presented with images and short Hebrew phrases describing those images, and that the stimuli would progress at a rate of one image every three seconds. Two learning trials (four images) were presented back-to-back. Then instructions immediately appeared on screen to select the correct target meanings of words just learned. Two test trials were given, a spoken word and four choice options given for each. Participants used the mouse to click on a target for both test training items. Then participants were asked to explain their task. The experimenter corrected any response that was not essentially "to learn the meanings of the words." Then the experiment proper began.

Learning.

The learning phase of this experiment began immediately after training was completed. Participants were presented with six learning segments interleaved with filler tasks.

Filler task.

After each segment, a filler task was given to participants to work on for 30 seconds to prevent rehearsal of words just learned. Participants were instructed to read a numbered question on a sheet of paper and answer it in writing. If they finished writing their response before 30 seconds had passed, they were instructed to continue writing until 30 seconds had passed, at which point they were stopped from writing. The questions asked were made to be interesting and thought-provoking to gain participants' attention and discourage rehearsal of words just learned. Responses to these questions were not analyzed.

Testing.

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Following each 30 second filler task, a recognition test was given. Each recognition test, four items long, tested one target from each of the four trials in the just-seen block.

Naming Task.

After the experiment was finished, participants were given a context image identification task (to measure name agreement among F image elements). To avoid having participants name the same images seen during the experiment proper (because their prior viewing experience could alter the validity of name agreement as a measure of referential clarity), each participant viewed and named the 24 images they had not seen during the experiment proper. Participants were asked to type two or more words to describe each image (each of which depicted an actor performing an action).

III. Results

Data were analyzed with logistic regression, a method appropriate for data with a binary outcome variable (successful versus failed recognition). With logistic regression I could see which, if any, factors of targets, images, or participants were predictive of recognition, and could control those factors while analyzing the effects of other factors, if needed. However one disadvantage of using logistic regression in this instance was that model testing with a sample this size (N=48) had to be limited to very small models. In testing measured factors, I developed a small model to describe word learning in the present paradigm.

A number of factors were considered for logistic analysis. I initially tested these 18 factors in individual models. Results and descriptive statistics are displayed in Table 2, below. An alpha criterion of .05 was used for determination of significance. Effect sizes are provided only in more developed models to avoid over- or under-exaggeration at this point.

TABLE II.
ALL 18 FACTORS TESTED IN INDIVIDUAL MODELS

Factor type	Factors	Mean (SD), or % cases	Wald $\chi 2$	p
Independent	Word class	50.0% nouns	6.57	.01
	Number of situations	50.0% within	22.89	.00
Image	Goodness of depiction	4.87 (.16)	2.47	.12
	Alternative interpretations	4.57 (2.45)	3.62	.06
	Name agreement, F images	0.90 (.14)	0.57	.45
	Name agreement, S images	0.84 (.21)	5.45	.02
	Name agree, Isolate images	0.90 (.11)	0.01	.92
Hebrew Word	Utterance length	0.70 (.19)	0.4	.53
	Syllables	2.54 (.89)	1.53	.22
	Phonemes	5.69 (2.17)	0.05	.82
English Word	Familiarity	6.56 (.39)	1.59	.21
	Imageability	6.76 (.25)	0.51	.48
	Frequency	3.72 (.94)	3.11	.08
Participant	Age	21.53 (5.01)	0.69	.41
	Sex	77.1% female	2.13	.15
	English 1st language	78.7% Eng 1st	1.63	.20
	English proficiency	9.57 (.96)	0.51	.22
	Total proficiency	18.49 (4.93)	3.01	.08

Number of situations was significant, model Wald $\chi^2(1)=22.89$, $p<.01$, favoring cross-situational learning over single-situational learning. Word class was also significant, model Wald $\chi^2(1)=6.57$, $p=.01$, with a learning advantage for nouns over verbs. To estimate their effect sizes, these models were further developed. Although there were inter-correlations between all three name agreement indices—all $r > .40$—only S image name agreement was significantly predictive of outcomes, model Wald $\chi^2(1)=5.45$, $p=.02$. Contrary to prediction, the noun bias mentioned above was no less present in cross-situational learning than in single-situational learning conditions, interaction $p=.93$.

Having determined which individual factors appeared to affect learning, I modeled them together to confirm each finding with other significant factors held constant. I entered name agreement of S images, word class, and number of situations into a model because these were all found reliable when individually tested. This model was significant, Wald $\chi^2(3)=29.55$, $p<.001$, with word class ($p=.003$) and number of situations ($p<.001$) as significant factors; however, name agreement did not add significantly to this model so it was removed.

Next I tested whether the significance of word class found above might just owe its effect to differences between nouns and verbs in name agreement (S images), number of alternative interpretations (which bordered on significance), or imageability (found predictive of word learning in Ludington, in press). To address this, I tested word class with each of these factors, one by one, in two-factor models (to keep models small). First I modeled number of alternative interpretations with word class. Alternative interpretations was not a significant component but word class remained significant, $p=.02$, suggesting even when number of alternative interpretations was controlled, word class continued to explain performance. Next I did the same thing with imageability. Word class remained significant, $p=.01$, but imageability did not, suggesting imageability could not account for performance beyond word class, but word class could account for outcomes even when imageability was controlled. Finally I tested word class and name agreement of S images. Although both were significant predictors when tested individually, neither factor was reliable when modeled

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together. This result suggests that some of the common variance shared between each variable and outcomes was also shared between these variables (i.e., they were confounded). Word class was slightly more reliable, so it was moved forward into the final model.

The final model arrived at was the most reliable model of word learning for its size. The model was significant, Model Wald $\chi^2(2)=27.37$, $p<.001$, with word class ($p=.01$) and number of situations ($p<.001$) as reliable model components. This model indicated the number of situations presented had a large effect, nearly tripling the odds of recognition (odds ratio = 2.82) when two situations were presented as when only one was. The model indicated the effect of word class was relatively small such that nouns stood 1.39 times greater odds of recognition than verbs, all other things being equal. Fig. 3 translates these model-specified effect sizes into word recognition probabilities by experimental condition.

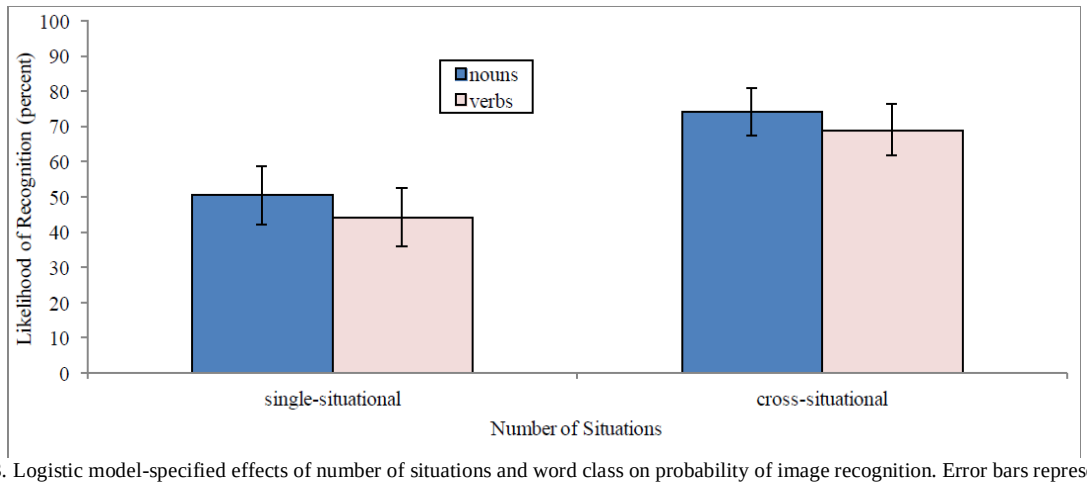

Figure 3. Logistic model-specified effects of number of situations and word class on probability of image recognition. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

IV. Discussion

Of eighteen predictors tested, three were significant—number of situations, word class, and name agreement. The large effect of cross-situational learning over single-situational learning agrees with Nitsch (1977), who found that increasing the number of learning contexts (stories) increased word learning. By re-defining "contexts" as line drawings of actors performing actions, the present study demonstrated better word learning when learners were presented with two different, juxtaposed contexts than a single, repeated context. This positive effect of two contexts rather than one could have been due to reduced referential ambiguity based on cross-situational target inference. Alternatively this effect could be mediated by identification of the target language syntax, or even by allowing participants to better parse words in each utterance. Any combination of these reasons could account for the current results. Further study would be needed to untangle these possibilities. However moving beyond this issue, on the results of the current study, incorporating multiple, varied learning situations in language lessons may provide an efficient way for learners to acquire new vocabulary by identifying and thus mapping words to meanings in otherwise-ambiguous mapping contexts. In another application, while review is important for learning, it is hypothesized that review could be made more effective by presenting examples that differ from those already presented.

Although nouns were better learned than verbs in the current study, it was unclear whether the effect of word class owed to name agreement differences between nouns and verbs, or if lower name agreement in verbs was driven by a name-agreement-limiting factor. As several colleagues and one reviewer pointed out, the use of static images as a learning method could handicap verb learning because while nouns can be perceived as stable, motionless entities in the real world, most verbs cannot. Thus teach their meanings through representation in static images might not be a very appropriate or efficient strategy. The greater referential clarity of nouns in images is not unusual: verb images are typically rated as more poorly depicting their intended referents (Kauschke & von Frankenberg, 2008; Ludington, in press), tend to be rated as more complex than noun images (Masterson & Druks, 1998), take longer to name (Humphreys, Riddoch, & Quinlan, 1988), and are not named as well (Kauschke & von Frankenberg; Ludington; present study). Evidently for one or more of these reasons, adults learning foreign vocabulary from still-media appear to be prone to a noun bias. One implication based on this view on the cause of a verb learning handicap is that it could potentially be removed by presenting verb vocabulary in a different medium—perhaps video or real-life—or with clearer illustrations. Illustrations might be made clearer by highlighting intended verb referents with color, motion marks (used in this study), or another visual technique to draw greater visual attention to verb-relevant aspects of images to support more effective verb vocabulary acquisition. This hypothesis should be further studied.

The prediction that the word class effect would hold only in single-situational learning conditions was not supported. The word class effect was fairly constant across levels of the number of situations presented. That cross-situational

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learning did not close the learning gap between nouns and verbs suggests that the noun-verb gap is not due to whatever forces improved learning in cross-situational above single-situational conditions. That is, perhaps the observed verb handicap was not due to poorer parsing, syntactic understanding of, or mapping certainty for verbs than nouns. Perhaps verb learning was handicapped by another factor such as poorer name agreement. Future research is needed identify the cause of this observed noun bias among adults.

Name agreement among images presented second (S images) (but not first, or F images) in trials was a significant predictor of word learning. This could be explained as greater participant attention to the second images in each trial because these provided confirmatory evidence of mapping each target word to its meaning. Alternatively, because name agreement among S images (but not F images) was higher for nouns than verbs, its predictive significance could have derived from the significant effect of word class. Finally, name agreement among F images might not have been significant as a predictor because this measure was based on five times fewer response-judgments per word compared to name agreement among S images, and was therefore a more course measure of name agreement.

Name agreement S images could account for the word class effect, or word class could account for the name agreement trend (or there could be a third-variable cause). I support the first possibility. Verb may refer to a category of actions with unrelated goals, actors, patients, and instruments (e.g., consider the verb *to brush*). As Gleitman and colleagues noted, there is greater "surface variability in how verbs get realized ... within and across languages" (Gleitman, Cassidy, Nappa, Papafragou, & Trueswell, 2006, p. 32). Verb situations naturally arise with great variance in terms of the goals, actors, patients, and tools involved, making feature-sharing across situations far less likely. Due to having more variable meanings, people may *learn to not learn* verbs too quickly in order to avoid mistaken mappings. Greater variance in the exemplification of word meanings across situations could make verbs harder to learn than nouns in general, as well as in the current study. Poorer verb name agreement might tap this root cause of less-reliable verb than noun learning or recognition.

The referential clarity (name agreement as the main predictor) hypothesis is but one explanation of the current results. Natural partitions / relational relativity hypothesis (Gentner, 1982) is one of the best-cited explanations of the noun bias in childhood; its application to adult foreign language learning might be considered. The natural partitions aspect of Gentner's theory could explain why context image name agreement was higher for nouns than for verbs—that nouns are easier to identify because they can be more easily partitioned from their environmental context. The relational relativity aspect of Gentner's theory, that verbs are difficult to acquire because they label a fragment of a change or action scene not usually "given" by the situation itself, does apply in this case because all verb stimuli were developed from English words, and all participants knew English. Therefore participants' knowledge of English in this study put them at a relative advantage over first language learners by virtue of their knowing how to segment actions (i.e., how to set semantic boundaries around verb meanings) while viewing images. Thus the natural partitions, but not the relational relativity, aspect of Gentner's theory lends well to explain the noun bias observed among the present sample of adults.

Some researchers (e.g., Naigles, 1990) have suggested morphosyntactic complexity could account for the noun bias. Verbs tend to allow and require more morphological inflection than nouns across instances and languages. Verbs, in the present study, were uttered either in the masculine or feminine form depending on the actors. It is possible that these inflections account for the found verb disadvantage. The use of inflection on verbs was not manipulated at the individual verb level in the present study, and was not analyzed; therefore this postulation remains speculative.

Finally, it could be that a difference in the target referent itself, and not the accompanying noun or verb in its context, contributed to better word learning in cross-situational over single-situational conditions. I am currently conducting an experiment to address this very question—to look for an effect of changing the target referent across learning repetitions. While people learn categories better by viewing multiple exemplars than by fewer or only one exemplar, a connection between this and word learning is not always drawn. Yet it could be argued words *are* categories—words represent all cases within a meaning-category. A paradigm developed by Roediger and McDermott (1995) from the work of Deese (1959, cited in Roediger & McDermott) demonstrates that word categories are often better remembered than their particular members. In their paradigm a list of words, related by some category, is learned while one centrally-related member is surprisingly not presented in the list. When tested, participants falsely recognize or recall the non-presented member, often with greater certainty than words actually seen. Generalizing from this effect, it would seem that number of related exemplars contributes positively to category learning, and that categories themselves have the potential to be learned even better than their constituents. Perhaps word learning, as a case of category learning, occurs more efficiently from learning a number of different exemplars than from learning a single exemplar repeatedly. It is plausible that exemplars may be remembered more for their category identity than for their exemplar identity.

Cross-situational learning was much more efficient than learning from single, repeated image contexts. This effect might be explained in terms of reducing the number of unknown referents in each image (Greenfield & Alvarez, 1980), increasing the ratio of cues to targets (Watkins & Watkins, 1975), increasing the number of familiar cues present at retrieval (Estes, 1955), revealing the syntactic pattern of the target language to allow meaning induction based on syntax (Gillette et al., 1999), or by allowing the learner to induct categories from different exemplars. This work adds to a growing number of studies showing benefits of cross-situational and contextual variation effects on word learning.

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English Learning in Chinese Minority Areas: The Challenges and New Directions

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***Abstract*—This paper examines the English teaching, the use of English, and the attitudes towards English learning amongst university students coming from Chinese minority areas. Starting with the introduction of China's ethnic minority education, this paper explores the situation of current English education in minority areas in China. After the brief introduction, the paper describes the current English curriculum requirements in universities and schools based on the Chinese Educational System, including both major parts and ethnic minority areas. This is followed by a discussion of the research design to investigate the differences in students' attitudes on English extracurricular between minority students and students coming from urban areas. Afterwards, research findings are provided. In conclusion, it provides suggestions and discussions of the challenges and new directions for minority English education.**

***Index Terms*—Chinese minority area, English learning and teaching, Chinese Educational System, English extracurricular, English curriculum**

I. Introduction

Although English, as a foreign language, was first taught in 1862, the Chinese Cultural Revolution became a stumbling block to the development of English education after the foundation of the PRC. Thus, English language learning did not become an essential part of Chinese Education until the late 1970s. From the beginning of the 1980s to the present, English teaching and learning has been in a higher status than other subjects in schools and universities both academically and practically (Gil, 2006). However, English teaching and learning has been largely ignored by both Chinese and western scholars for decades. As we know, China is a developing country with more than 1.3 billion population, among which 8% makes up minority population. Thus, it is essential to investigate their attitudes on English learning and teaching in the development of English language in China. This paper presents research findings based on the survey and interviews. It explains the current difficulties of English learning for minorities. Also, it suggests challenges and new directions.

A. Current English Learning and Teaching in Minority Areas

It is known that China has 55 different ethnic minorities but the regions where most ethnic population is in are designated as autonomous areas. In mainland China, there are five autonomous areas, 30 autonomous prefectures, and more than 120 autonomous counties. The minorities have the equal rights as others, such as the freedom of choosing religions, the rights of free speech and writing, and the rights of education. Accordingly, the central government allocates funds to help these areas to build ethnic minority schools. What is more, many undergraduates and post graduates can have privileges when hunting jobs after graduation if they are willing to work in autonomous areas for more than two years as in-service teachers. Although the Central government and the Ministry education put much effort to help these minority schools to improve their education level, the gap between the minorities and Han nationalities is still very obvious in English education. Lacking English language educational resources, largely advocation of bilingual education policy, and limited use for English are three major reasons.

Lack of educational resources

Educational resources play an important role in all levels of education. Some significant improvements have been made since the foundation of the PRC, the overall situation is still not satisfied, particularly, in the rural areas. There are shortages of "teachers, books, and all other educational facilities" (Mackerras, 1995, p. 139). Based on the researches, it is not difficult to find examples of extremely poor ethnic schools (Postiglione, 1992). In Wuwu County, Guangxi Province had only one toilet for 2000 students. Also, students and teachers had to use their legs as desks since the school buildings were not safe for learning and teaching (Postiglione, 1992, p. 324). Compared with these educational infrastructures, English learning resources are largely slim. According to Kong and Chen (2012), large quantities of ethnic university students lack English learning resources to improve their spoken and listening ability. A lack of teaching resources is prevalent in English education in minority areas. Although the number has been increased these years, there is still a shortcoming in qualified teachers. Gao (2011) researched in Inner Mongolia and supported that "the number of teaching staff capable in English remains in insufficient and most schools carried out English education in Chinese" (p.153). Some teachers are unwilling to work in minority areas because of poor conditions and unsatisfied career plans (Postiglione, 1992, pp. 323-324; 1999), and in cases where there are qualified teachers, some want to quit

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teaching to hunt satisfied jobs in more developed coastal cities (Shih, 2002, p. 186). Another example was in Baiwu Town of the Yi Autonomous Prefecture, Sichuan Province. Schools in surrounding areas did not provide education for students from Grade 4 to Grade 6 so that all students needed to go to the same primary school in Baiwu if they wanted to continue receiving education. However, some students need to walk for nearly two hours since they live far away from the school in Baiwu (Harrell & Ma, 1999, p. 224). A survey in a western minority area school by the State Education Department Research Center showed that " 37.8 percent schools lack enough desks and stools, 22.3 percent schools do not have safe classrooms and offices, and about 32.5 percent schools do not have enough funds to buy teaching aids" (Yang, 2005, p. 20). Therefore, it is argued that perhaps more educational resources should be allocated to minority areas and attitudes towards ethnic groups should be significantly changed, which could be possible to improve English language teaching and learning (Gil, 2006).

Bilingual education policy

Implementing a bilingual education policy in minority areas has many merits but it is difficult to put into practice. Firstly, the purpose of bilingual education is not clear so that it becomes like a transitional language education (Baker, 1996) . It also reveals that this ambiguity exists in minority education in China (Shoji, 2003). Based on the policy, it plans to promote the use of the minority languages and to emphases the importance of perceiving its own culture. On the contrary, in fact, this policy finally becomes a tool to expand Mandarin (Shoji, 2003). Secondly, qualified bilingual teachers are largely in a shortage. Because of poverty, slim chances to attract qualified bilingual teachers to devote their efforts to implement bilingual education to minority students, let alone to improve their language learning and realize their rights (Xing, 2001). Thirdly, English, as a third language is rather difficult to be instructed in minority areas. Based on the bilingual education policy, students need to be a proficient bilingual learner in the primary education then they have access to learn a third language-English otherwise they cannot understand the transitional language-Mandarin. Although many researchers have indicated that bilingual learners have a higher metalinguistic awareness than monolingual learners and bilingual students can learn a third language in a quicker pace, it is unlikely to learn a third language efficiently as it will add a heavily burden on a bilingual learning process. In other words, the bilingual education policy and English language learning are not realistic in a harmony in Chinese minority areas (Gao, 2011).

Limited use of English

The function of a language is to communicate in a social context (Klippel, 1987; Leech & Svartvik, 1974). Based on Gil's research, English has very slim chances to use and little presence in minority areas (Gil, 2006). It is found that students and teachers are two main groups to speak English compared with students in other areas (Gil, 2006, p. 457). Similarly, some empirical researches illustrated that an unbalanced economic development in minority areas and other big cities hinder graduate to progress and develop themselves in the local employment markets, which further lead to a fierce competition in seeking jobs in these areas. Given the situation, a large number of students give up English learning in an early age since they do not think it is useful for them in future.

B. English Curriculum Requirements

After the restoration of the College Entrance Examination in 1978, the Ministry of Education issued a trial English Syllabus for secondary schools for the whole nation. Although, English language teaching has been paid more attention to in the early days of the 1980s, the aim of the teaching was to boost the national economy and technological exchange. Therefore, the school teachers just focused on how to develop students' intellectual abilities rather than to teach them how to learn a different language. The suggested teaching approach was a combination of the grammar-translation method and audio-lingualism (Adamson & Morris, 1997). In 1982, the syllabus was subsequently revised to satisfy the needs of English language teaching in key secondary schools. To put more effort and to raise the teaching and learning quality in schools curriculum, the time allocated for English class was from 656 hours to 960 hours per year for students (Ministry of Education, 1982). Also, the English textbooks for secondary schools were revised at that time. On the one hand, it required teachers in schools to emphasize more on intonation training and oral practice through pattern drilling at the early stage of the 1980s (G. Hu, 2002; S. M. Hu & Seifman, 1987). On the other hand, however, because of a lack of information about English teaching from other countries in the world, English teachers still followed a similar pedagogical approach as those published before Cultural Revolution- a method of grammar-translation in English language classrooms. Although the students could have access to oral training, it seemed very hard to change traditional practice characterized by detailed study of sentence-level grammar, text-translation, rote learning of vocabulary and reading and writing skills. The other feature was that the textbooks were heavily emphasized literacy together with political and moral messages, which dominated secondary English language teaching for a decade.

Since the 1990s, the English language curriculum has been experienced a top-down reform from primary schools to universities in China. First of all, English exams play an important role in the educational framework in all levels of education. Chinese students must attend English exams in order to get a satisfactory score if they want to continue to receive a higher education. It is basically required that a Nine-year compulsory education occurs for all Chinese children. This refers to children who are seven years old need to receive a basic nine years education, from primary schools to junior middle schools. After these nine years, students could have access to hunt a job or advance their English learning in senior middle schools according to their family economic burden. Apart from family affairs, whether students could be accepted to a top university and further to be a postgraduate, English examination is essential in their life. Figure 1 below shows the details of the framework. Moreover, English has been implemented as a

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compulsory subject from Grade three from primary schools in some coastal cities and developed areas, such as Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou. Thirdly, it is required to promote students' communicative skills as an essential task in English language education, which should be presented in newly issued English textbooks and learning materials. Compared with the traditional GT (Grammar Translation) Method, the Ministry of Education have emphasized improving students' communicative competence is the key to motivate them to learn a language (Ministry of Education, 2003).

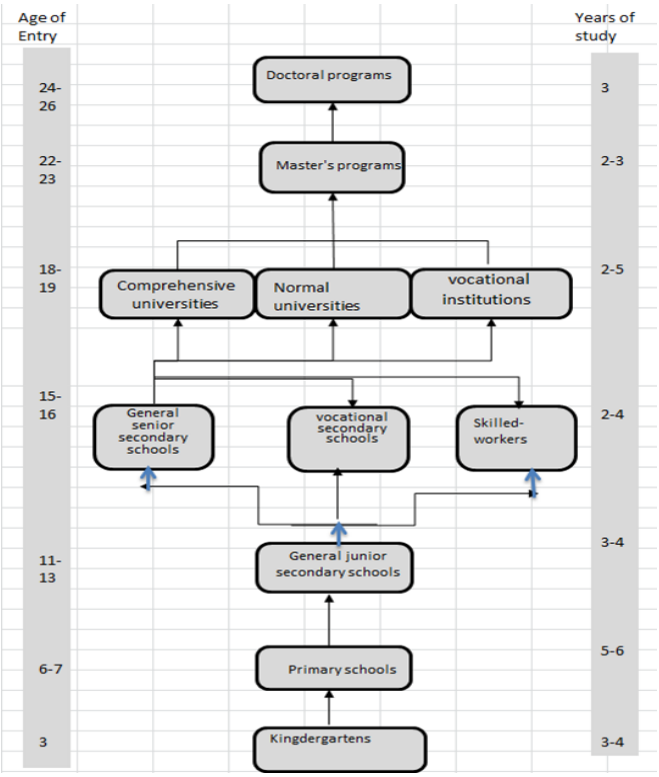

Figure 1. The educational framework

Compared with the major parts in China, however, it is not the case that everyone is able to enjoy this kind of policy. As mentioned previously, largely advocating bilingual education is finally to emphasize learning Chinese instead of promoting students' abilities on learning a foreign language. What is more, ethnic autonomous regions have the authority to develop their own educational programs, including "levels and kinds of schools, curriculum content, and languages of instruction" (Postiglione, 2009, p. 503). Thus, it is allowed to have some flexibility regarding unique regional differences in education. It is illustrated that there is no history of foreign language education when compared with urban schools, many of which have over 50 years' experiences in English teaching (Gao, 2011).

II. METHODOLOGY

Data Collection

So far the cases of English learning has been researched in broad terms (H. Hu, 2004; Hua, 2001a, 2001b; Jin & Cortazzi, 2006). However, little attention has been paid to English as a third language in minority areas. In order to understand better the actual situation and improve English language teaching and learning in minority areas, a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were carried out in the first semester of 2012-1-2013 in a Chinese minority university. This university was chosen for its large ethnic population and its top rank in China. With more than 15,000 students in the subject university, almost 80% of the students are minorities and these students come from nearly 55 different ethnic regions. Also, this university is ranked in the 2nd place among minority universities within mainland China. Thus, it is reasonable to choose this university as a subject university in this subject.

Participants

The information sheet of this research was emailed to the university students on campus before the project was conducted. In the information sheet, it has noted that research topic, research process and research method. Thus, it is believed that students could understand all the information related to the research. In the first semester of 2012, 150 students participated in this research questionnaire. After the survey, 20 students were willing to join in the semi-structured interviews, including 13 female students and seven male students.

Instrument design

In the first phrase, the questionnaire was designed to examine students' attitude towards their English learning and

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their teachers' teaching, particularly, on the English activities outside English classes, which adopted a five-Likert Scale (Likert, 1932) was utilized in this survey. The semi-structured interview was conducted after the survey, which concluded 10 questions. These 10 questions were believed to further explore students' views towards their learning and their teaching problems as a supplementary of the questionnaire.

Data analysis

The Statistics Software SPSS 19.0 was used to analyse the quantitative data. In order to ensure the validity of the study, the students were required to complete the same questionnaire twice, which was a month time in between. Later, the agreement analysis was used by SPSS to test the inner validity and credibility of this questionnaire. For the case of two raters, this function gives Cohen's kappa (weighted and unweighted) and Scott's pi as measures of inter-rater agreement for two raters' categorical assessments (Fleiss, 1981; Scott, 1995). For three or more raters, this function gives extensions of the Cohen kappa method, due to Fleiss and Cuzick (1979) in the case of two possible responses per rater, and Fleiss, Nee and Landis (1979) in the general case of three or more responses per rater. According to Landis and Koch (1977), the strength of agreement is divided into five levels, from poor to very good, which shows in table 1. Therefore, this survey had a strong strength since the strength of agreement reaches 0.715 in this study.

TABLE 1.
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN KAPPA VALUES AND THE STRENGTH OF AGREEMENT

Kappa	Strength of agreement
< 0.2	Poor
> 0.2>=0.4	Fair
> 0.4>= 0.6	Moderate
> 0.6 >=0.8	Good
> 0.8 1	Very good

Among 150 participants, 95 students, including 52 males and 43females, returned their questionnaires with a 63% response rate. More than half of these 95 students came from ethnic regions. The details are presented in the following figure.

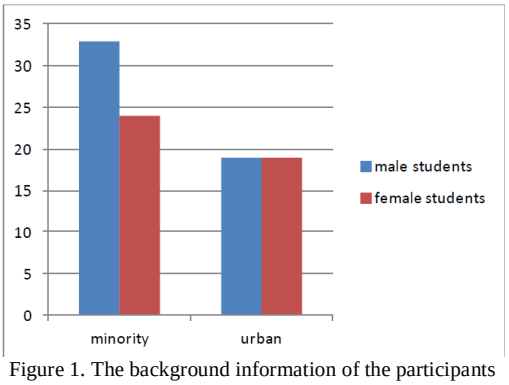

Figure 1. The background information of the participants

In this project, two groups of students (minority and non-minority) need to be tested by using the Mann-Whitney U Test as it tests for differences between two independent variables on a continuous measure (Pallant, 2007).

III. RESEARCH FINDINGS

Phase I

After the SPSS software analysis, it finds out two questions in the survey are strongly significantly to the minorities. Question 9 asks students' attitudes on using computers to assist their English learning and teaching. Question 10 is regarding their opinions of using English via blogs and the Internet to contact foreign friends. Scale 1-5 represent 'never', 'seldom', 'sometimes', 'often', and 'very frequent' respectively. Table 2 shows descriptive statistics of these two questions.

From the descriptive statistics (Table 1), students prefer to use computers as media to assist their English learning rather than using Internet and blogs to communicate with foreign friends by comparing the mean values in two groups (2.22>1.76).

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TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS IN QUESTIONS.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Location	95	1	2	1.40	.492
Q7	95	1	5	2.22	1.222
Q9	95	1	5	1.76	.942
Valid N (listwise)	95				

By using a Mann-Whitney U test, it shows that 95 students coming from minority areas and urban areas have significant difference in these two questions. In Table 3 and Table 4 below, we can see that the P values (Asymp. Sig.) of two questions are less than 0.05 (0.029<0.05, 0.035<0.05), which are considered to be significant (Pallant, 2007).

TABLE 3.
A MANN-WHITNEY U TEST OF QUESTION 7

Test Statistics[a]	
	Q7
Mann-Whitney U	808.500
Wilcoxon W	2461.500
Z	-2.180
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.029
a. Grouping Variable: Location	

TABLE 4.
A MANN-WHITNEY U TEST OF QUESTION 9

Test Statistics[a]	
	Q9
Mann-Whitney U	828.000
Wilcoxon W	1569.000
Z	-2.111
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.035
a. Grouping Variable: Location	

After using a U test to know the differences between students from ethnic groups and urban areas on the two questions, the mean value of two questions needs comparing to understand better different choices from degrees ‘1’ to ‘5’ on these two activities. The details are shown in the following table.

TABLE 5
REPORT OF MEAN VALUE OF Q7 AND Q9

Location		Q7	Q9
Minority areas	Mean	1.98	1.93
	N	57	57
	Std. Deviation	1.077	1.033
Urban areas	Mean	2.58	1.50
	N	38	38
	Std. Deviation	1.348	.726
Total	Mean	2.22	1.76
	N	95	95
	Std. Deviation	1.222	.942

It is reported that the mean values of the ethnic students are smaller than the students from urban areas (1.98<2.58) regarding question 7. However, regarding question 9, the mean values of the ethnic students are larger than the students from urban areas (1.93>1.50). From the mean values of these two groups of students, it shows that more students coming from urban areas prefer to use computers to assist their English learning and teaching than those from minority areas. On the contrary, the students in ethnic group have a stronger desire to communicate with foreign friends via blogs and Internet.

Phase II

After using the statistical analysis to analyze the data, a semi-structured interview was conducted among 20 students to understand better students’ views on their English teaching and learning. 13 female students and 7 male students were involved in this interview. The background information of the 20 participants is presented in Figure 2.

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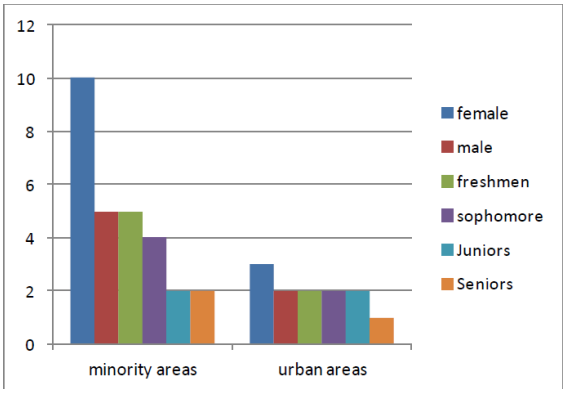

Figure 2. Background information of interview participants

It shows that more minority students would like to join in this interview to express their opinions than those from urban areas. Moreover, freshmen and sophomores are keener on this research rather than juniors and seniors. Not surprisingly, juniors and seniors had a lot of burdens such as education practices, employment trainings and other professional development. Generally, students from minority areas were not satisfied with English teaching methods, teaching and learning materials, and educational expenses on their language learning. The students in ethnic group showed a stronger desire to learn English than students from urban areas. For the other group, however, students coming from urban areas are concerned more on the reform of all kinds of English examinations, which would be significantly related to their employment. Two groups of students have obvious goals for English learning and all of them think the biggest problem for them is their communicative ability. In other words, they do not have enough time to practice their oral English. Following examples are two participants' views regarding their English learning problems.

Although I have learnt English for almost 6 year, English, as a foreign language for me, was still difficult. Compared with other subjects in schools, English teachers only guided me in class time but I could not communicate with others in English after class. The only thing I could do was to practice my grammar and write more essays. It did not change much until I came to the university. In the university, oral English and listening comprehension have been paid much attention in my learning. However, I found it has a huge gap between me and other students (from urban areas) due to they laid a good foundation of speaking and listening when they were in schools. Now, I am very eager to learn English but I feel very hard.

(A student from minority areas)

I felt English learning and teaching was very boring these years. From primary to university, I have tried my best to learn English as I have been told it is the most important exam for my future. School teachers emphasized English grammar because it was important in College Entrance Examination. Only if I could get a high score, a top university is open for me. In this situation, I did not have motivation to learn English. After I was enrolled in the university, English teachers pushed us to learn English for CET-4 and CET-6 exams as these exams are keys for our future job. Almost all companies and institutions require students to get these two certificates to prove their English abilities. Nowadays, I really think all these English exams need to be reformed to be more interesting and more practical rather than only testing grammars and writing.

(A student from urban areas)

IV. Suggestions and Future Directions

In the previous section, it showed research finding in two phases: Phase I and Phase II. Phase I is the quantitative data from the survey, which reveals that students from minority areas and urban areas have a significant difference on two questions regarding English extracurricular activities. Findings of Phase II are textual data, which are further explored by using interviews to investigate students' opinions on their English learning and teaching. Suggestions and challenges facing us are provided based on the research finding from two stages as follows:

1. Strengthening educational funds in minority areas

Allocating more funds on minority education is essential and necessary. As mentioned above, a lot of students in minority areas lack basic equipment to study, such as computers, comfortable desks and chairs, and qualified teaching and learning tools, which became obstacles in minority areas. The responses from the questionnaire were the cases in point. Minority students had not any chances to learn English using computers and internet although they had a stronger desire to learn English well. They would like to communicate to friends by using blogs and the Internet but they lack such resources. In addition, increasing funds for teacher' training and in-service training is urgently needed. In particular, the question of how to increase numbers of qualified bilingual teachers needs further researching. It is suggested that schools could be established according to the characteristics of the ethnic minorities and stipends provided for students (Postiglione, 2009).

2. Progressing the economic development in regional development

The main reason why minority students do not use English often is the unbalanced regional development. It is known

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that most foreign enterprises set up branches, offices, and factories in some coastal areas and big cities due to its convenient transportation and intense labor force markets (Ministry of Education, 2006). On the one hand, they think improving their oral English competence is vital in language use. On the other hand, it is difficult for them to use English in classes and after class as there are slim chances for them to get a job related to English in future. Thus, improving the industry of public infrastructures, human resources training, and construction of information super-highway are important for regional development in the 21st century.

3. Enforcing the English curriculum and evaluation reform

As an unbalanced development of economy and education between minority areas and urban cities, it is suggested that speaking and listening parts should be added into current English books otherwise minority students cannot catch up with other students when they come into universities. Also, minority students should have equal rights to enjoy their English learning from primary education. Specifically, most ethnic students have started English learning from middle schools while English is a compulsory subject in urban cities from primary schools. Therefore, in order to enable minority students to have the equal rights of students from urban areas, English is called for to be put into practice from primary education. Finally, due to the dissatisfaction of current English assessment, which is supported from data collection from the interviews, English evaluation could be used by multiple kinds rather than only through examination papers. For example, computers as major tools in assisting learning and teaching could be adopted as a examination tool in English assessment in future.

V. Conclusion

This paper has presented an overview of the status and situation of English learning and teaching in minority areas. It aimed to investigate the students' attitudes on their English learning and their teachers' teaching through a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview. It has shown that although minority students are eager to learn English, they do not have a lot of chances to get access to English learning tools and resources after their English class, such as computers, bilingual teachers, and so on. However, compared with the minority group, students from urban areas have an obvious advantage in English learning in addition to the requirements of the English curriculum, appropriate and sufficient English learning resources, and more educational funds. Efforts must be made to narrow the huge gap between two groups of students and ensure English is acquired without being detrimental to their own cultures and languages.

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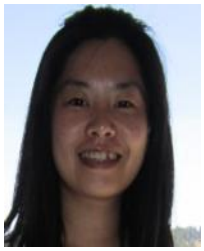

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The Internet in French Language Teaching and Learning: Positive and Negative Impacts

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***Abstract*—The computer assisted learning technology, like the internet, is considered an ideal aid for language teaching and learning. It provides a learner-centered and functional approach to knowledge but may present an easy but also a culturally limited, learning medium. Only a few studies examine the net benefits of the internet and other computer technologies on students' desire to learn a romance language in spite of the controversy surrounding their use in mastering a language. I examine the role of computer technology with emphasis on the internet and its associated media in the facilitation of teaching and learning French employing a review of literature, anecdotes from students' class interaction to point out that the computer enhancing technology, like the internet, is an important but controversial cultural and political tool for teaching and learning the French language.**

***Index Terms*—computer, technologies, internet, French, teaching, learning**

I. Introduction

Computer technology has become an important and indispensable tool in teaching and learning in recent years (Jensen 1993; Mike, 1996). Computer assisted learning language (CALL) programs, found on the internet, have been used profusely in science, mathematics engineering and the social sciences, but have been making gradual and unbalanced in-roads in the teaching of languages (Van Der Linden, 1993). Language teachers who have become attached to old fashion language laboratories have now recognized the benefits of the internet, (from here on is referred to as the 'Net'), and associated tools, and are using them as hybrids for combining the old style of drills and repetition with modern self-involvement. Technology has become an integral part of the learning process as new tools are being introduced and are made available to language teachers (Singhal, 1997). Many researchers and experts (Blake, 1987 and Chun and Brandl, 1992) have outlined numerous benefits of technology in language learning, and among them is the abundance of opportunities provided by this computer technology to learn the language. The opportunities provided, however, are not without costs. Many claim that while the computer may facilitate students' preparation for tests, and may increase students love for the language in the short-run; it may not enhance the long-term appreciation of the language and culture (Cononelos and Oliva, 1993). Others are of the opinion that learning and practicing grammar rules of foreign language through fill-in-the blank exercises, for example, does little to improve a speaker's ability to produce grammatically appropriate utterances (Armstrong &Yetter-Vassot, 1994). The use of the Net, for example, for studying one language may not universally fit the teaching and learning styles of all languages. Warschauer and Meskill (2000) suggest that there is too much rigidity in CALL compared to language flexibility. Though Singhal, (1997) and Murphy (1995) state that computer assisted technologies enhance the teaching possibilities of French. In this paper, I examine the both sides of the discussion on the effects of computer assisted technologies on French teaching and learning.

The accusation of the computer assisted language learning technology increasing rigidities in teaching and learning French is not based on tests, but insinuations that are embedded in the attachment to older teaching habits, in that the teacher is the focus in the classroom experience and is unwilling to embrace new developments and change. Chapelle (2001) believes that the limitations in the use of the computer technology in teaching a foreign language are more influenced by the limitations of the software and the learner since the computer is merely a technological instrument. Romance language teachers, like those teaching French and Spanish, who are more adverse to change than science and technology teachers, require some cultural understanding and appreciation that the Net affords to language learning (Cononelos and Oliva, 1993). Hence many wonder whether such cultural enrichment is possible without human interaction and contact in the learning process. In this paper, I discuss the benefits of computer assisted language learning; the computer and French language accessibility; the computer and French language accuracy; the limitations of the Net and associated electronic and then I conclude.

II. Benefits of Computer Assisted Language Learning

If we accept that cognitive approaches to language teaching are based on the view that learning is an individual process (Warschauer and Meskill 2000) then the individual computer can facilitate knowledge acquisition since the learner can work on language skills at any time. Educators (Jonassen, 1996; Rost, 2002) indicate that the computer and its attached language learning programs can provide second language learners more independence from classrooms;

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thus allowing them the option to work on their learning material at any time of the day and facilitate learning at their own pace. The benefits to be gained from learning do outweigh the costs. Lee (2000) listed a number of advantages of computer assisted language learning: (a) provide practices for students through the experiential learning, (b) enhance students learning motivation, (c) improve student achievement, (d) increase availability of authentic materials for study, (e) encourage greater interaction between teachers and students and peers, (f) emphasize the individual needs, (g) regard independence from a single source of information, and (h) enlarge global understanding.

Computer technologies made accessible on the internet, do not only influence the learning process, but also enable the individual development, attitude and behavior. Chenu et al. (2007) in their study, however, found no correlation between positive attitude and successful outcomes. Taylor (1980) stated that computer assisted learning can stimulate interest in a language and provide communicative activities that reduce learning pressure while providing necessary growth in the language learning process. Itma (2010) argues that there is a possibility of improving the learning environment by using the Net as a tool to develop new learning styles and innovative methods of teaching French. The author stated that successfully teaching French within a degree program relies on methods that promote global reading, critical thinking, collaborative learning, reflection in the target language, and engaging students in the learning process by using information technology. Some of the Net based computer assisted learning activities include games, skits, and contests. Through communicative and interactive computer programs, learners' skills and attitude are modified and the learners develop confidence to study the language. Robertson et al. (1987) recognized that computer-assisted learning programs had significantly higher self-esteem ratings. Students who are shy and unwilling to speak out in class find it easy to participate in language conversation once they begin developing mastery of the language (Beauvois, 1995; Gonzâlez-Bueno, 1998; Warschauer, 1995). Beauvois (1997) reported that computer-mediated communication increased total class participation to 100%.

In the study by Tuernbull and Lawrence (2001) 90 % of the 274 teachers reporting revealed that computer application promoted French curriculum enhancement, improved appearance of students' work, provided remedial support for student work and variety in lesson planning, and helped in technology skill development. The authors also agreed that the computer assisted in motivational development.

Among the various electronic tools for learning languages, the Net it is argued, provides a vast amount of resources to students that would not be available to them in one geographical area. It enables learners to connect with people of different cultures and develop an appreciation of their cultures and customs that enable them to place language learning in a context. The Net may assist students in developing communicative skills and critical thinking. Morrison and Dede (2004) argue that the Net is an intelligent tool that facilitates learning and flexibility. Mike (1996) also believes that the Net has been shown to promote higher order thinking skills. Though the Net has been accused of using much instruction time, a language teacher, for example, may train learners to search for specific information which they would not have been able to find using books in the allotted time required to complete the exercise. Perrett (1995) mentioned that students are provided with the opportunities to use language at their leisure and learning strategies in the second language, and some training or explanation in their application through the Net.

The socio-cognitive approaches, in comparison to the cognitive, emphasize the social aspect of language acquisition (Warschauer and Meskill 2000). The Net, through its large coverage and abundance of information, places language learning in a socio-cultural context (Patrikis, 1995). According to Schieffelin & Ochs (1986) and Gee (1996) learning a language can be viewed as a process of apprenticeship or socialization into particular groups, and students must be given the opportunity for social engagement where they are culturally immersed. It is believed that language and culture are highly dependent. The understanding of the culture enhances the learning process and facilitates the development of an appreciation for the language (Trivedi, 1978). In this light, the Net is important to teachers and students who would like to learn about the people who communicate in the language. As Warschauer and Meskill (2000) stated, students in advanced business French class at Case Western Reserve University in Ohio can Follow French news online and get involve in daily happenings in France. Scinncariello (1995) indicated this helps the students learn background cultural information about current events and attitudes in France, as well as noting the various forms of discussion. The Net improves learning about the countries of the world where the language is spoken and provides the learners' access to historical and current information as well as geographical, historical, social/cultural, economic, and political information from the countries in which the target language is spoken (Armstrong and Yetter-Vassot, 1994). Students can read web versions of daily newspapers and same-day news. Students with various tastes for sports, culture, fashion and poetry can access reports from sources such as the French Embassy's gopher service, and the daily ''Revue de Press''. Such experiences can allow learners to participate in the culture of a targeted language which in turn can enable them to further learn how cultural background influences one's view of the world. Teachers can effectively use this medium to encourage students to obtain newspaper clippings and summarize them. This helps the students to relate what they learn in the textbook to current events (Can, 2009).

The e-mail is another internet based computer tool that facilitates teaching and learning of a language. It facilitates teacher/student communication. Gonglewski et al. (2001) stated that the e-mail, a computer-mediated communication, has been called "the mother of all Internet applications". They listed a number of advantages of the e-mail. The e-mail allows learners to make contributions to the learning process (Rankin 1997). The teacher is able to communicate with all students in the class in various locales simultaneously and in a nano-second and this ensures that the same message

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is conveyed undiluted to all participants (Jonassen, 1996). With the e-mail students can make contributions to the learning process at any time. This provides reliability and consistency in communication. The e-mail can reduce personal contact allowing one teacher to spend more time with students who actually need more attention (Kroonenberg, 1994/95). It is also a fascinating tool to use for long distance learning for teaching a language since it extends what one does in the classroom because it provides a venue for meeting and communicating in the foreign language outside of class (Davis et al. 1994/1995). Students and teachers can communicate with others around the world (Hedderich, 1997; Roakes, 1998). By sending e-mail and connecting to various people globally, one has never known, the learners can expand their horizon and accelerate the learning process. As Signhal (1997) stated the e-mail allows language learners to communicate directly with native speakers; thus the net facilitates the use of the specific language in an authentic setting. With the use of the e-mail, individuals can make sense of abstract materials through social interaction on the Net. Schwienkorst (1998) suggested that the e-mail can help in the improvement of written communication.

Computer assisted language learning (CALL) programs accessible through the Net have been presented as technologies that may revolutionize the teaching and learning of languages (Blin, 2005). There are numerous software packages introduced in the classroom which speeds up the learning process of languages. There are a number of applications available for learning and teaching vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation tutors, spell checkers, electronic workbooks, writing and reading programs (Paramskas, 1993). There are also a new software packages that allow instructors to create their own exercises to supplement existing language courses. These packages have been criticized for presenting limited exercises and modules for stimulating interest in the language (Villada, 2009). However, there have been numerous new learning tools on the market. There are other interactive programs that provide immediate feedback to students while learning the language. The learning software packages are becoming more user-friendly and allow the students to practice at their own speed (Kulik and Kulik, 1991). Though the growth of the software learning curve has not received much attention, I believe that once the students obtain the hang of it the learning process accelerates. One of the most popularly used Net packages, but much criticized, is the translation software. The French translation software is criticized for encouraging dependence on a technology which is not culturally and politically sensitive (Eisner, 1976). The Net and French translation will be dealt with in another section.

III. French Computer Technology Accessibility and Usage

The use of computer technology is here to stay and its use in teaching French will proliferate with time and by countries. Already in Canada it is used in more than 50 percent of schools (Turnbull and Lawrence, 2001). The net is one of the principal cyber communication outfits in use today. It has also been one of the primary technology integration tools used to stimulate the learning of foreign language. English has really dominated the net, but the Net can be a powerful instrument for learning French (Williamson, 1998). French, however, still has a relatively small presence on the Website and the French has made little effort until recently to advance in the digitalization of its literature and culture (Lupien, 2005). It is estimated that about 750 million people globally use the net annually. The largest number of English speakers amount to 59.8 million or 26.8 percent of total users. This is followed by Chinese which makes up about 24.2 percent. Only about 59.0 million people or 3.0 percent of French users access the Net. Though this might provide a basis for interpretation of the Net use, because of population differences, the penetration of the net by French users is 17.2% in comparison to 79.5 percent for Germany and 78.4% for Japan. Internet penetration is the ratio between the sum of internet users speaking a language and the total population estimate that speaks the language. What is most striking is the growth of the various language users which is 2,501.2 percent, 1, 825 and 1,478.7 percent for Arabic, Russian and Chinese respectively, but only 301.4 percent for French from 200 to 2011.

The limited access of French users to the Net means not only a small percentage of French speakers use the internet but the penetration and growth are slow compared to other countries (Neisen on Line (2001). It also translates into a lack of French information and materials available for teaching and social interaction on the Net. Therefore, students learning and studying French globally may have a disadvantage in their ability to access information and to participate in cultural engagement with French speakers and other students.

The accessibility of learners of French to computers may vary by country since a study by Turnbull and Lawrence (2001) in which 274 out of 500 Canadian teachers had responded showed that 58% of teachers surveyed showed that they used computers in core French courses while 61% had used computers for laboratory exercises. About 60 % showed a preference for using computers in both classrooms and laboratories. A large percentage (41%) had never used computers. About 87% of 88 students had computers at their homes.

In the same study by Turnbull and Lawrence (2001) students reported learning more French when computers are part of their lesson plan. About 96% indicated that computers helped them with their lessons, their reading skills, and more about French culture. About 92% felt that computers helped them write better and the same percentage felt that computers helped them learn independently. While students may claim that computer assisted instruction helped them to learn better, Chenu et al (2007) did not find much difference, but indicated that individuals with low level French learning aptitude benefited the most from CALL. In a study by Adair-Hauck et al. (1999) they found that students using technology-Enhanced Language Learning, Multimedia curriculum performed equally well as those learning French using the traditional method in listening and speaking and better on reading and writing achievement measures.

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IV. The Computer and French Language Accuracy

French is a Romance language that is spoken with passion and accuracy. The quality and accuracy of the French language grammar have been guarded politically. However, there is much suspicion that the wider use of computers in teaching and learning French is based on the whole ecology within which the computer technology is viewed. While political might is being displayed to maintain a pure language that represent cultural superiority, the French seemed to be retarding the important introduction of a technology which may irrevocably change the language for fear that the technology might adulterate the accuracy of the language with the introduction of new words and slang into the language. Hence we may say they are 'throwing the baby out with the bath water'. This is myopic approach of guarding the accuracy of language by carefully scrutinizing the rapid adoption of new words and phrases into the language while limiting the diffusion of a technology that may enhance its cultural embrace by non-native speakers for fear of the loss of accuracy and cultural subjugation.

The government of France has introduced legal and cultural barriers to preserve the paccuracy and integrity of the French language because it is believed that the French language, and consequently the French nation are under attack of cultural imperialism (Grigg, 1997; Cohen 2012). The Loi Toubon was passed in 1994 and states that any government entity, broadcast media and advertising companies that use foreign words where suitable "French equivalents" exist will be fined $2,000 for the first offence and up to $4,000 for the second offense and sentenced to prison terms (Yentz 2007, Scheel, 1998). The linguistic accuracy of the French language has been protected by the prevention of infiltration of other languages and cultural expressions through songs and music into the language. The French cultural ministry regulates the percentage of French songs that can be played on the radio (Yentz, 2007). However, with the influence of cultural penetration, global commerce and migration there has been a perceived decline in the accuracy of the French language (Scheel, 1998). This perceived dwindling in accuracy has been accelerated with the Net, and other technologically advanced instruments of communication.

There are other areas, sports, technology, advertising, and the media, where the English influence is heavily felt. The introduction and use of new technology in the common French language are accelerated by the adoption of musical lyrics and the audiovisual system. In 1996 for instance only 48% of the songs played on the radio had French origins (Gordon and Meunir, 2001). This has serious financial and economic implications. According to Cohen (2012) in 1998 the market for American audiovisual goods in European Union, "including movie ticket sales, videocassette rentals, and television rights," was $7.4 billion, compared to reverse US market for the same European goods, totaling $706 million (Gordon and Meunir, 2001).

The Cyber Challenge is even greater when it comes to the internet because the French has no way of controlling the use of the net. According to Cohen the internet challenges the French agenda to keep out English words and promote the use of French. First English overwhelmingly dominates the internet; in 2012 reports show that only 4.1%of websites had French content, lagging behind English with 56.1%. The second aspect is that the internet does not lend itself to policing as the Minitel; hence individuals are free to roam and contact individuals from any other country or cite.

The internet has added a number of new words to the French language. Some words have crossed over directly from English in spite of the dismay of the French purists. Terms such as 'l'internet, le web, and le cyberspace' are only a few (Williamson, 1998). It is feared that a number of words found on the Net are English words in which the individuals add a 'le' in front of the word instead of doing the proper translation. Some of those words "le week-end", "le parking", "le jogging", "le footing" show the inclusion of English words into the French language. The permeation of such words into the French language, it is claimed, will introduce a new culture into the language since students believe it is cool to speak English (Scheel, 1998). It is believed that if this process continues students who use the Net for learning will develop a sub-culture where they will disregard French grammar rules and just add a 'le' in front of a new English word when translation becomes difficult. Culture is related to language and with time new words will be added to a language, and that is what excites young learners of a language.

One major criticism in prolonging the purity of the language at the College level is related to translation from English to French. At the college level, students often use Net downloaded software for translation. The software translation may alter the purity and style of the French language as students seek quick ways of learning the language. The quality and structure of the text may be invariant to the correct speaking and use of the language. There are many ambiguous words that may not translate the correct meaning of the language. There are words like "apporter" (bring something) and "amener" (bring someone); "à ma maison" (at home) instead of "chez moi"; "Je te manque beaucoup" (I miss you a lot) instead of "Tu me manques beaucoup"; "si je suis bonne impression" (if I'm in good mood) instead of "si je suis de bon humeur"; "Alors" (then) instead of "Ensuite"; "J'ai dit à lui" (I told him) instead of "je lui ai dit"; "J'ai pris un voyage" (I took a trip) instead of "j'ai fait un voyage"; "J'ai fait mon breakfast" (I made my breakfast) instead of "J'ai fait mon petit dejeuner"; "je me mange" (I eat myself) instead of "je mange" (I eat). The words if used inappropriately can make quite a difference. There are other words that may have more than one meaning and if not translated properly may cause social uneasiness. The word "coucher avec"(to sleep with someone) instead of "se coucher"(to lie down) may result in social disgrace if translated improperly as it almost cost isolation of one pop singer from her religious community and father.

With the use of the Net, individuals often try to communicate by using phonetics instead of proper spelling and grammar. Others use slang and write coded words and phrases to prevent individuals outside the loop from

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understanding. An example of this is "verlang" which is used to promote secret forms of communication among groups. There do not seem to be any proper rules in the design and use of slang. Hence this generates the debate and constrains the furtherance and modernization of the French language and the adoption and inclusion of new terms that the younger generation uses. However, there has been no research conducted as to whether the inclusion of new terms and phrases in a language facilitates the learning process.

In order to combat the introduction of words into French and the influence of the new cyber technology, the French Minister for Culture suggested diffusion of the French language and culture through the net instead of working against it. In his speech he emphasized removing any technological obstacles which may impede the presence and successful diffusion of the French language (Tattersall, 2003). The Académie Francaise is more worried to introduce words to meet the equivalents of English equivalents, for example "*logicel* for software; *matériel* for hardware, *ordinateur* for computer and *baladeur* for Walkman (Grigg 1997).

V. Limitations of Use of the Net and Associated Electronic Learning Packages

The Net has been hailed as an ideal tool to facilitate learning as it allows the student to be the focus of learning and encourages education planners to seek ways of enhancing students' participation in the learning process. The Net serves as a learning tool but is not a panacea for language teaching and learning. Gips, DiMattia, & Gips (2004) indicated that the computer and its attached language learning programs increase cost for some students who are unable to purchase the computers and can ill-afford the monthly charges of the Net. The Net is said to create disparity in knowledge access and learning. While this may be true in the short run the costs of computers have been at a decline and people are able to access the Net at a low cost through various telephone devices (Guo et al., 2007; Lai and Kritsonis, 2006). What must be understood is that more people are able to access the e-mail for instance than people are able to globally gain access to a college education. Hence the internet may be used as a means of teaching a language to larger amounts of students at college level without them stepping foot into a college classroom.

Another criticism is that not all teachers have the training and skills to teach language using the computer (Turnbull and Lawrence, 2001). Though this problem persists in some locales the setback is being tackled by some institutions by providing some training to teachers on the use of the computer for teaching languages (Rost, 2002). As this problem is recognized by institutions of higher learning they may put in place incentives to encourage more teachers to embrace the technology. This problem may soon vanish as a new generation of computer savvy teachers replace the older generation of teachers (Kreutzer and Neunzig, 1997).

Computer assisted learning tools are criticized for being restricted to the learning of grammar, and loaded with drills and exercises geared towards preparation of students to succeed in multiple choice exams. This view is not supported by Murphy (1995) who believes that the Net is the ideal tool to access resources, exchange ideas, ask questions and most importantly, to give students access to the new global classroom. The speaking programs, it is also argued, do not allow students to practice and immerse themselves in the cultural aspects of the language. As Ariew (1984) puts it "The computer is just not capable of interacting orally with anyone at this time". He indicated that some activities may be orally cued, and hence exchange cannot take place. The language exercises found on the Net may not present accurate French text that is culturally correct and acceptable to French purists. Warschauer (2004) pointed out that a program should ideally be able to understand a user's "*spoken"* input and evaluate it not just for correctness but also for "*appropriateness"*.

Students of a language are often faced with different situations, and learning problems. It is believed that the computer learning packages are unable to handle changing situations and circumstances (Aoki, 1984). The language packages are unable to think and deal with changes. Dent (2001) stated that the problem exists because humans and computers utilize information differently. Blin (2004) inferred that the computer technology does not operate with the degree of intelligence that allows it to change methods of processing to interact sufficiently with various users.

The old time adherents to the forms of learning where students must be subjected to long periods of contact with their teachers are worried that the use of the computer discourages the speaking of the language (Lee, 2000). Though it is agreed that the computer can be used to practice grammar, fill-in-the –blank exercises do not help to improve a speaker's ability to produce grammatically appropriate sentences (Amstrong & Yetter-Vassot, 1994). The rigidity and complexity of learning a language are lost by using programs that provide only drills for learning the language (Jung, 2003).

VI. Conclusions and Implications

The computer provides immense potential for teaching a foreign language and increasing students' willingness to study the Romance Languages, especially French. It is stated that the computer provides them with an abundance of information in one place and in a very short time. However, French speakers are less likely to access the Net than other major language speakers; thus providing students of French less information sources and chances for cultural engagement. Hence college students from countries who adopt French as a second language may not easily connect on the Net with counterparts who speak French as their primary language for social and cultural exchanges. The students learning behavior, attitude and interests can thus only be altered to a limited extent as they interact with their

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counterparts globally. Their ability to develop deep interests is constrained as they attempt to make cultural inroads as they examine native speakers use the language. However, there are other negatives associated with the study of the language as the rigidity, correctness; thoroughness and appropriateness usually suffer with the use of cyber technology. The benefits of the use of the Net for teaching French seem to outweigh the costs, but teachers must be careful to stress the accuracy required to maintain language accuracy and the important linkages between the cultural setting and the spoken language. The purists of the French language, however, may not be convinced that the information received on the computer is reliable enough to enhance the proper learning and sustain the purity of the French language.

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Facilitating the Development of the Autonomous Language Learner Using Online Virtual Learning Environments

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***Abstract*—This paper argues that if used correctly, computer-mediated courseware (CMC), in the form of an online Virtual Learning Environment (VLE) such as Blackboard or Moodle, has the potential to offer adult learners in university settings an optimal autonomy-supportive environment for learning English as a second language at a distance. The paper firstly considers how to promote learner autonomy through offering participants choices during the initial stages of a course through a negotiated syllabus. It then divides the language learning process into metacognitive and cognitive linguistic capacities and provides examples of strategies to increase autonomy in these spheres. Autonomy with regard to metacognitive linguistic capacities can be developed first by the multimodal aspect of CMC, in particular, the unprecedented access to resources, second, through the array of mediums to select in the creation and submission of assignments and third, through the notion of 'dissemination' (Mayes, 2002), which allows for 'vicarious learning' (Bandura, 1986). Autonomy with regard to cognitive linguistic capacities can be promoted through goal-oriented participant interaction on spoken and written forums on the platform, followed by consciousness-raising language activities guiding students to notice patterns in the language. In conclusion, it is suggested that a VLE might lead to optimum learning through the facilitation of a state of 'flow' or 'autotelic' activity, a concept closely related to autonomy and intrinsic motivation.**

***Index Terms*—computer-mediated courseware, virtual learning environment, autonomy & self determination theory, metacognitive and cognitive linguistic capacities**

I. Defining Autonomy

The term, 'autonomy' was first introduced to the field of adult language learning by Holec in the early 1970s (see CRAPEL: Centre de Recherche Appliquée Pour l'Enseignement des Langues in Nancy and its researchers, e.g., Riley, 1986, 1997). Its catalyst was the political climate of France in the late sixties, which reached its climax in 'Mai '68', and saw the growth of liberal morality in particular in the spheres of equality, sexual liberation and human rights. As Jane (1977, cited by Holec 1981, p.1) postulates, rather than 'products', citizens become 'producers of society'. Individuals were encouraged to be responsible and active in positively shaping their own lives and in doing so, aware that they were contributing to a change in the life of others. In the words of Collins & Hammond (1991):

'Autonomy begins with the assumption that the ultimate purpose of education is the betterment of society, and that critical awareness and social action to promote emancipation are desirable results of any educational intervention' (p.13 cited in Reinders, 2000, p. 4).

The origin of autonomy in education is therefore inextricably linked with notions of interpersonal relations; social responsibility and activity; belief in communitarian values; and freedom of choice and expression.

II. Autonomy and Language Learning

These emerging ideas were in direct opposition to the dominant ontological and epistemological notions inherent in the educational practices of the fifties and early sixties in Western Europe and America. The prominent Objectivist or Positivist paradigm assumed that knowledge is external to the knower and can be transferred from one person to another in a static way emphasising 'learning as an incremental mathematically-facilitated process' (Felix, 2002, p. 6), i.e., a student would first learn the use of I + verb, then he + verb, followed by you, they and so on or a student would first learn the present simple tense, second, the present continuous and so on. However, as Larsen and Freeman (cited in Thornbury (2001) argue:

'Learning linguistic items is not a linear process - learners do not master one item and then move on to another' (p. 37).

The foreign language learning methodology based on this linear process was led by approaches such as the Audiolingual Method (see Fries, 1945, and Fries & Fries, 1961 and appendix 1 for an example of the structure of a typical lesson of this method). The teacher's role in the classroom was of paramount importance as he or she delivered a pre-conceived syllabus and the supposed appropriate methodology with which to implement it (predominantly a question-response interaction, also known as the IRF sequence: initiation (tutor) – response (student) – feedback (tutor).

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The students, on the other hand, were extremely passive and a minimum of peer to peer interaction took place. Their role was to remember and reproduce the knowledge transmitted by the teacher (Schank and Jona, 1991, call this the 'sponge method'). Based on Behavioural Psychology (see Thorndike, 1913 and Skinner, 1953), these methodologies propounded that learning could only take place if it was followed by rewards. According to this school, learning is dependent on three crucial elements: a stimulus, which serves to elicit behaviour; a response triggered by a stimulus; and reinforcement, which reveals if the response was appropriate (followed by positive reinforcement) or inappropriate (followed by negative reinforcement). In other words, if learners responded well to a question or prompt by the teacher, they would be praised or receive a congratulatory token. This praise would encourage the learner to reenact this response and even increase the reoccurrence and strength of it.

Researchers, such as Harlow (1950) and Hunt (1965, 1971) opposed Behaviourism as they revealed that even monkeys had curiosity-related behaviours, such as exploration, which were performed purely for the pleasure of the behaviours themselves, and not merely due to the desire for rewards. In addition, Chomsky (1966) rejected these learning theories offering one based on the creativity of the human mind: 'transformational grammar'. He writes:

'Language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behaviour characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy'. (1966, p. 153)

Chomsky (1966) argued that each individual uses language uniquely. If segments or patterns of a language were merely absorbed and regurgitated, why did different individuals using the same words, construct them in different ways to form unique sentences? Another view to learning theories was needed as notions of curiosity, interest and creativity could not be accommodated by the drive theory of Behaviourism.

The Objectivist (Positivist) paradigm, Behaviourist assumptions and Audiolingual Methodology, related to these, are in direct opposition to the ontological and epistemological underpinnings of the Constructivist Paradigm as well as Self Determinism Theory (SDT: http://www.psych.rochester.edu/SDT/theory.html), a movement which stresses the importance of autonomy. Deci and Ryan (1985, 1991, 1995 and 2000) outline the fundamental dichotomy between these two broad theoretical orientations to motivation: one is mechanistic (Behaviorist theory); the other, organismic (Self Determinism Theory or SDT):

'Mechanistic theories tend to view the human organism as passive, that is as being pushed around by the interaction of physiological drives and environmental stimuli, whereas organismic theories tend to view the organism as active, that is, as being volitional and initiating behaviours'. (Deci & Ryan 1985, pp. 3-4)

As Piaget declares:

'The nature of life is always to overtake itself.'

(Cited in Deci and Ryan, 1991, p. 239)

Development and progress are among the fundamental cruxes of existence. In addition, Constructivists argue that individuals build their own reality based on a unique set of experiences, beliefs and personal abilities. Consequently, the onus is on the subjective processes of understanding and learning about one's environment. Thus, as Evans and Nation (1992) state, information can be transmitted but knowledge solely induced. An item will be learnt when a learner is ready to do so and what the learner learns may not necessarily be what the teacher aspires to teach i.e., the lesson's target language. This is wholly at odds with Audiolingualism.

SDT, in addition, propounds that rewards, in direct contrast to Behaviorist assumptions, hinder learning. Such external influences, according to DeCharms, (in Deci and Ryan, 2000: 8; see also Amabile, DeJong and Lepper, 1976) cause a shift in a person's 'perceived locus of causality' (PLOC) and thus a movement from intrinsic to extrinsic perceptions of control. As studies by Deci and others (e.g., Lepper et al., 1973) have suggested, the behaviour increasingly moves from internally to externally-motivated and individuals no longer feel 'causality pleasure' (Nuttin, 1973) as their actions are progressively other-initiated.

The need to learn and evolve without feelings of being externally (extrinsically) controlled is inherent in living organisms and this is evident in the basic, innate, psychological need for autonomy. Two others: competence and relatedness also underpin, though to a lesser extent, the human psyche. According to Deci & Ryan (1991):

'Autonomy refers to being self-initiating and self-regulating of one's own actions'. (p. 327).

This, along with competence and relatedness are life-span tendencies and together form an organismic dialectical meta-theory which at its core propounds that a person's natural state is to be intrinsically motivated:

'Intrinsic motivation [in contrast to extrinsic] is in evidence whenever students' natural curiosity and interest energise their learning'. (Deci and Ryan: 1985, p. 245)

In its truest form, the learning experience is its own reward. Research (Deci and Ryan, 2000, p. 70) has shown that contexts striving to support the optimal satisfaction of these innate needs, in particular perceived feelings of autonomy, promote intrinsically motivated individuals. In contrast, when these are thwarted, there is diminished motivation and well-being (Deci and Ryan, 2000). In addition, it is essential to strive to maintain intrinsically motivated behaviours as this natural tendency does not operate automatically but 'requires nutriments to function effectively' (Deci and Ryan, 2000, p. 238.). As a result, Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) is presented by Deci and Ryan (1985) as a sub-theory within SDT, with the aim of specifying environmental and social factors that explain variability in intrinsic motivation, i.e., degrees to which these facilitate versus undermine intrinsic motivation. As Deci and Ryan demonstrate, there are not solely two factors of activity regulation, or degrees of intentional behaviour/ relative autonomy, i.e. self-regulated or

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other-regulated, but at least four types, and the contextual factors that facilitate or hinder the regulation of these behaviors, based on individuals' or groups' perceptions of extrinsic or externally-originated environmental forces. Deci and Ryan (1985) present this as the Organismic Integration Theory (OIT).

The following is the taxonomy of OIT, moving from externally to internally motivating forces: external; introjected; identified; and integrated regulation. 'External regulation' is behaviour initiated by another (a reward, threat, a desire to be praised). This is the least self-determined form of external motivation. The second is 'introjected regulation' which 'involves internalised rules or demands that pressure one to behave and are buttressed with threatened sanctions (e.g. guilt) or promised rewards (e.g. self-aggrandizement)' (Deci et al. 1991: 329). Although another does not necessarily need to be involved for this form, it is still not considered as self-determined, or part of the integrated self as it is not a choice based on free will. An example given by Deci and Ryan is a boy who turns up at school punctually because he would feel bad if he were late. The third type of extrinsic motivation is 'identified regulation'. In this case, the individual is interested in an activity and has identified with it. The behaviour is 'more fully a part of the self, so the person does the activity more willingly' (Deci et al. 1991, p. 330). Internally stimulated feelings such as choice and volition accompany a particular activity. Deci et al (1991, p. 330) note that this might be a student whose goal is to become 'good at Maths' but this is not undertaken through intrinsic interest but through egocentric desire. Finally, the fourth category is 'integrated regulation'. This is 'the most developmentally advanced form of extrinsic motivation' (Deci et al. 1991, p. 330). It differs from intrinsic motivation because while an activity chosen is personally valued, it is related to an important outcome whereas for the latter, the activity is chosen purely from interest and enjoyment itself.

Offering choices to learners, promoting the integration of external forces in the environment is therefore of paramount importance. As Deci & Ryan state:

'Events such as choice and positive feedback that facilitate self determined competence have an informational significance and were found to enhance intrinsic motivation.' (1985, p. 85)

Deci and Ryan (2000, p. 73) argue that studies in education reveal that the more extrinsic forces are integrated, the more they are associated with deeper engagement (Connell and Wellborn, 1991, cited in Deci and Ryan, 2000, p. 73), better performance (Miserandino, 1996: ibid), lower dropout (Vallerand and Bissonnette, 1992, Ibid), higher quality learning (Grolnick and Ryan, 1987, ibid), and better teacher ratings (Hayamizu, 1997, ibid). The notion of integration is thus of paramount importance for education, in this case, with regard to online adult distance courses in the field of TESOL. In concrete terms, and with reference to researchers on autonomy in the TESOL community (Aoki, 1999; Benson 2000, 2001; Benson and Toogood, 2001; Bergen 1990, cited in Dam, 1995; Dickinson, 1987; Holec, 1981; Little, 1991), the ideal is to promote an environment that can offer choice leading to self determining actions hence building learner motivation in deciding what, why and how to learn English. It could be argued that this is particularly relevant to distance learning to bridge the physical, temporal and geographical divides which segregate learners from the institution at which they are enrolled and from the participants and tutors on the course provided.

III. Using Technology to Nurture Autonomous Language Learning

A. Developing Metacognitive Linguistic Capacities

Murphy (2005) argues that only with metacognitive awareness can students decide which learning strategies and resources they prefer, and if they have preferences, to what extent these are to be used. As O'Malley et al (1985) note:

'Students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction and ability to review their progress, accomplishments and future learning directions' (p. 24).

Metacognition in second language learning is, in part, the knowledge of one's learning styles and preferences and the efficient use of this self-awareness to self-regulate these processes. According to Hedge (2000), this predominantly includes the planning, self-monitoring, and evaluation of one's own language learning. In SDT theory, having these choices require a learner to develop self-initiating and self regulating skills.

In a tertiary institution, it is evident that an online course, offered at a distance, consists of pre-conceived intended learning outcomes and evaluation criteria, and in this way is impersonal, and to a large extent extrinsically motivating as learners have no say in the content or delivery of the programme. However, a significant impact on the development of learner autonomy can be made at the outset by, as Clarke (1991) argues, working towards a 'negotiated syllabus':

'Learners might be allowed a degree of choice and self-expression, unavailable in most existing syllabus types' (pp, 13-28).

Influenced by Dewey's 'Experience and Education' (1938), Moore's theory (1993) of 'Transactional Distance' describes the dynamic relationship that exists between dialogue and structure in a distance programme. Dialogue is communicative interaction. Structure refers to the instructional programme. The 'transaction' is a negotiation between teacher, students and course obligations. Structural change depends on striking a balance between needs and formal requirements. As its title suggests, this theory aims at reducing the divides. A contemporary VLE such as Blackboard or Moodle, because of its multimodal nature, provides this unprecedented infrastructure, allowing syllabus negotiation (see Steeples et al, 2007; Bangeni and Nel, 2007).

By increasing students' freedom to choose a variety of technological connectivities and social interactivities between teachers and learners and learners themselves, choices in the medium of communication can be given and promoted. Milton (2007) http://www.cs.ust.hk/gong, for example, has developed "Gong", a discussion forum with a voice-

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recording feature, in addition to a text-chat area, that can be used synchronously or asynchronously. Learners can also be given choices regarding the delivery of teaching courseware as well as the submittal format of assignments (e.g., written or spoken, individual or collective). As Chun and Plass (2000) note:

'Networked hypermedia environments not only present learners with information in various modes (visual, audio, and verbal/textual), but also require learners to engage in productive tasks and activities in a variety of modes, both synchronous and asynchronous methods of student collaboration, and they employ video, images, sound, and text for both the presentation and the negotiation of information' (pp. 152).

In addition, access to concordance software, online reference works (dictionaries and thesauruses), e-books, e-films, online language learning software programmes as well as an increasing number of online virtual libraries and conference areas for seminars and exhibitions such as those accommodated in Second Life (www.secondlife.com/) are readily available.

Apart from these choices in resource and communication modes, one of the main, unique benefits of a VLE for developing metacognitive linguistic capacities is the creation of a relevant database offering access to entire previous courses. As Deci and Ryan (2000) argue, one of the primary reasons why people initially perform extrinsically-motivated behaviours is because these are:

'Prompted, modeled, or valued by significant others to whom they feel (or want to feel) attached or related' (p. 73).

Complete courses can be recorded online, and, in this way, new students, starting the same course, can navigate through these in their own time and participate in discussion with peers as well as previous students and tutors when and if they wish to.

Mayes (2002) states:

'The concept of tertiary courseware is to offer a new kind of resource which, instead of providing direct explanations of subject matter, tries to capture the essence of being an active member of a community of learners of that subject matter, providing access to the questions, comments and dialogues of previous learners' (p. 5).

Mayes (2002) terms this system 'dissemination'. In an experiment, the products of previous courses (written and spoken forums throughout; assignments and so on) were offered in addition to the standard online courseware. Two groups were compared, one with access and one without. Results demonstrated that the group with access showed much more enjoyment and satisfaction with the course. They also performed better.

'Dissemination' offers the opportunity for learners to relate to significant others and to participate in 'vicarious learning' (Bandura, 1986): learning solely through observing. Learners are encouraged to feel efficacious as they observe course activities that have already been modeled by significant others. They are encouraged to familiarise themselves with the kind of tasks and the standards of quality of these tasks on a course of study they are about to embark upon. Using Deci and Ryan's degrees of regulation, 'dissemination' fosters 'integrated regulation' (Deci et al. 1991, p. 330) as the activity to observe other courses peripherally, and learn vicariously, does not need to be an obligation or formal requirement of a course. In addition, there is no necessity for tokens, deadlines or evaluations at this initial stage. Therefore, vicarious learning can be solely recommended to students, to enable them to feel part of a larger community and to become familiar with the course they have decided to study.

'Dissemination', also strengthens the significance of the 'process of learning' rather than the 'product of learning'. Several different forums (i.e. whole class or group) can be set up at different stages of a course and relevant tasks uploaded and recorded. Students can then be asked to navigate through the stages of these previous courses and make significant commentaries, comparisons, evaluations or presentations. In this way the onus is, to a large extent, shifted to the process of development of the course, rather than solely focussing on the end-goal (passing the course successfully). This means a move away from an ends-oriented system of education (it has already been noted that concepts such as deadlines and rewards thwart integrated regulation).

B. Developing Cognitive Linguistic Capacities

Cognitive strategies for language learning are what might be termed learning the 'nuts and bolts' or 'mechanics' of a language (lexico-grammatical and phonological systems). Unlike metacognitive capacities, which may be carried out more or less independently, cognitive language growth is more often than not, embedded in the dynamics of social interaction and 'using English to learn it' (Howatt, 1984, p. 279; see also Breen and Candlin, 1980). The Soviet psychologist, Lev Vygotsky (1962, 1978) postulated that the social construct of a human's consciousness was primary. He stressed the interaction between internal and external forces, as do Deci and Ryan, but he exaggerated the primacy of the social aspect of our being. His premise is that consciousness is made up of two constructs – the intra-mental (similar to metacognition: individuals' abilities to make sense of the world and organise the multi-dimensional information that they are subjected to daily) and the inter-mental (the social). At the inter-mental level, consciousness is fundamentally social. Language was born through social interaction (i.e. hunting) and through communication it has grown. It is a shared, cultural artefact and thought (see also Sapir, 1921) requires language and undergoes many changes as it becomes language. It is thus, social in origin and cognitive language learning cannot and should not occur in isolation. Its basis should be communication and shared action.

Subsequently, through participation (first peripheral and then more complete) with peers and tutors, a learner is offered many opportunities for cognitive development. Language learning can be facilitated if learners are given opportunities to notice, learn, use and experiment with new language created through the connectivity of social

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interaction. As no two learners have the same lexicon, dialogues form a shared unit of language representing the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), defined by Vygotsky (1978) as:

'The distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers' (p. 86).

The ZPD is a natural social phenomenon. In first language learners an older peer such as a parent adopts 'caretaker' speech or 'motherese' (see Lightbown and Spada, 1993) for a child (commonly around the age of three) using language the child can understand, offering explanations of language used which might be slightly above the child's linguistic ceiling. Krashen (1982) calls this input (I) + 1, Bruner (1983) 'scaffolding'. In the same way, the ZPD is created by two predominant dynamics: interaction that takes place with more capable peers and that which occurs between relatively equal peers. In accordance with the Roman dictum 'Docendo discimus' ('we learn by teaching'). It is also said that the more able peers can also significantly benefit from this interaction.

An autonomy-supportive environment appears here as the individual's or group's freedom to choose the language they wish to analyze as it is created through written or spoken goal-oriented discourse and mediated through an online forum. Unlike the majority of standard classroom interaction, synchronous and asynchronous written or spoken dialogues can be recorded online, and a language database created and stored. Tudini (2005) argues that asynchronous computer-mediated written communication (ACMWC) thus promotes the 'noticing' of language errors and learner engagement in self-repair. In contrast to spontaneous and time-bound synchronous interaction in the classroom, studies have revealed that as students have time to reflect upon and formulate their thoughts before expressing them, this genre of communication produces a better quality of discourse. The loss of pressure associated with temporal experience (Kern, 1995; Ortega, 1997) reduces affective features (see Krashen, 1982), commonly understood as the areas involving feelings, emotions, mood and temperament (Chaplin, 1975), allowing students to become more absorbed in the tasks and less concerned with making linguistic errors, or deviances from the standard norm. Also, as learners have access to the database at all times, they are given the opportunity to spend time reflecting on their own language which has been created through meaningful social interaction and to correct or reformulate what they have said, with a view to improving it.

C. The Role of the Online Facilitator in Promoting Autonomous Language Learning (Developing Community, Encouraging Discovery Learning and Offering Feedback)

Although a great deal of language learning can take place independently, as argued above, some recent research to develop a group's awareness of the benefits of autonomous language learning collaboratively, (Ding, 2005), what Ding defines as 'inter-subjectivity collaborative autonomy', was disappointing. Ding invited international students at the University of Nottingham to work together through peer mentoring, collective language analysis and group writing online. He reports a lack of uptake as learners revealed disinclinations to identify as a group. Participants, who were all studying for the same undergraduate degree, offered in English as the medium of instruction, were also taking language courses with Ding as a support to their studies. It was found that competitivity from participants' major was transferred to their language course and subsequently, learners were particularly concerned about revealing their language weaknesses to each other.

The above-mentioned example might reveal the need for a tutor or facilitator in some instances. Although affective features can be significantly reduced through asynchronous communication, they may not be entirely removed. Thus, building a community of learners through online socialization tasks and discussions about the benefits of the online environment can help to instill learner motivation at the outset (see Brooke, 2012). Following this, activities analyzing the language that significant others from previous databases have compiled can help participants to become aware of the usefulness of the discourse mode. A skilled language tutor can provide students with language examples for analysis and:

'.. with activities which encourage students to think about samples of language, and to draw their own conclusions about how the language works'. (Willis, D & J. 1996, p. 630)

Second language learning researchers and practioners (Ellis, R. 1992; Rutherford cited in Thornbury, 2001; Willis, J & D, 1996) have termed this as consciousness-raising (C-R) and this is one way to guide learners on the road to autonomous learning with regard to cognitive strategies (see appendix 2 and 3). Ellis (cited in Willis, D & J. 1996, p. 64) identifies three main goals for these grammar interpretation tasks: the first is to help learners identify meanings created by specific grammatical features; the second, to enhance input so that noticing a grammatical feature is induced; and the third is for learners to analyze the way they themselves use grammatical features. Using these aspects of language interpretation tasks, tutors are invited to challenge learners and to aid them to develop their cognitive strategies. Related to this is Holmberg's 'Theory and Practice of Distance Education' (1989, 2005), Laurillard's Conversational Model (1993) and more recently Ros, Solé and Truman's model (2007). It is suggested that tutors, rather than providing direct correction of errors, should leave clues through dialogue to enable learners to discover their errors. This helps to build autonomous, self initiating and self regulating reflection about language. Thornbury (2001) refers to this as 'intervention', and contrasts it with 'interference'. It should also be 'effectance' relevant (Ryan, Mims and Koestner, 1983, 738), signifying to a person whether she is competent with the target language and if not, how to become so. Throughout, a concentric approach is recommended incorporating language already discussed whilst at the same time

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introducing new language. This also means that meaningful feedback is given in its social and linguistic context and it should be delivered in an informal, friendly way ensuring a maximum of learner participation.

SDT argues that giving feedback to learners is essential. This has already been cited in this paper (p. 10). For the promotion of an autonomy-supportive environment:

'A person needs to be able to get some sense of how well he or she is doing at the activity to remain intrinsically interested'. (Ryan, Mims and Koestner, 1983, p. 738)

Asynchronous spoken, and particularly written CMC, is an optimal environment for giving feedback. The tutor, as well as sharing feedback with all participants at once, can communicate with individuals privately at any time, and in any time (real time, asynchronous time) during periods of interaction. If the tutor feels that open feedback to an individual might have affective repercussions, this can therefore be avoided. This means that the tutor is able to perform as both facilitator and counsellor providing psycho-social support.

IV. Conclusion

This paper has argued that VLEs, such as Blackboard and Moodle, offer new possibilities for an optimal autonomy-supportive environment for two-way language learning at a distance. They offer a range of mediums for communication and knowledge retrieval; they facilitate both vicarious learning and learning through participatory interaction; they give opportunities for deeper thinking via the 'time gap' or loss of temporal experience, in asynchronous spoken and written communication. Through interaction, tutors can create consciousness-raising language activities to challenge participants. In addition, there is scope for learners to acquire new language from their peers within the dynamics of the ZPD. Peer and tutor feedback need not be shared with the whole class, but can be given privately to individuals, reducing affective factors and personalising commentary. Finally, it has been demonstrated that a focus on process rather than product can also be facilitated through the creation and review of forums; the interaction recorded on these by participants (past or present) can be referred to and compared. By focussing on process and analysing the language used in their own database, students can also be guided to reflect on their own language in use (spoken or written). This type of language learning activity, it might be suggested, (see Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi, 2002) could lead more readily to the facilitation of a state of 'flow' or 'autotelic' (auto: self; telos: goal) activity, a concept closely related to autonomy and intrinsic motivation, as they build interest and energise learning. Goleman (1995) states:

'Flow represents perhaps the ultimate in harnessing the emotions in the service of performance and learning. In flow the emotions are not just contained and channelled, but positive, energised and aligned with the task at hand' (p. 91).

This is an optimal state for effective learning and, although using VLEs for language learning remains at an early stage of development, it is evident that these are potentially very effective environments for facilitating autonomous language learning. It is hoped therefore, that future research in this field can help to explore these possibilities.

Appendix 1

(Adapted from Richards and Rogers, 2001, pp. 64-65)

In a typical audiolingual lesson, the following procedures would be observed:

1. Students first hear a model dialogue (either read by the teacher or on tape) containing the key structures that are the focus of the lesson. They repeat each line of the dialogue, individually and in chorus. The teacher pays attention to pronunciation, intonation and fluency. Correction of mistakes of pronunciation or grammar is direct and immediate. The dialogue is memorised gradually line by line. A line may be broken down into several phases if necessary. The dialogue is read aloud in chorus, one half saying one speaker's part and the other half responding. The students do not consult their book throughout this phase.
2. The dialogue is adapted to the students' interest or situation, through changing certain key words or phrases. This is acted out by the students.
3. Certain key structures from the dialogue are selected and used as the basis for pattern drills of some kinds. These are first practised in chorus and then individually. Some grammatical explanation may be offered at this point, but this is kept to an absolute minimum.
4. The students may refer to their text books, and follow up reading, writing or vocabulary activities based on the dialogue may be introduced. At the beginning level, writing is purely imitative and consists of little more than only copying sentences that have been practised. As proficiency increases, students may write out variations of structural items they have practised or write short compositions on given topics with the help of framing questions, which will guide their use of the language.
5. Follow up activities may take place in the language laboratory, where further dialogue and drill work is carried out.

Appendix 2

Typical content of consciousness-raising activities for learners of a second or foreign language (adapted from Willis, 1996, p. 70).

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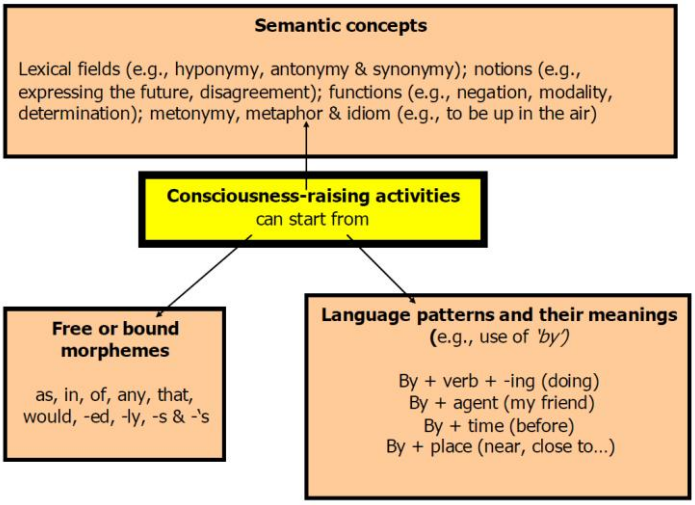

APPENDIX 3

Example of a simple consciousness-raising activity for the use of *'would'* in English

Here are some sentences with '*would*' that students should have seen in previous lessons. Students are asked to find sentences in which *would*:

1. … is used as a conditional.
2. … is the past tense of will.
3. … means 'used to'.

With the remaining sentences, what are the uses of '*would*'?

a) If you were designing a poster, which two *would* you use?
b) *Would* you like to ask anything about it?
c) Yes, I *would* agree with that.
d) We *would* always have band practice on Friday nights.
e) He looked at the painting and decided he would hang it in the sitting room.

Answers

a = 1
d = 3
e = 2

b = an offer
c = a (semi) fixed expression in which 'would' acts as a marker of politeness

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Other Places and *The Caretaker*: An Exploration of the Inner Reality in Harold Pinter's Plays

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***Abstract*—Exploring in his plays an overlapping area where social forces and human instincts interplay and superimpose upon each other, Harold Pinter dramatizes the inner reality of the characters who are trapped in various ambivalent forces, which collide and conflict, thereby producing the paradoxical tension in the subject's instinct of escape and impulse to stay within.**

***Index Terms*—man in modern society, the realm of "the real", other places, inner reality**

I. Introduction

If we examine Harold Pinter's plays from *The Room* (1957) to *Moonlight* (1993), we may find that, however diversified the themes may appear (politics, family, or gender), two narrative models always can be found in them. In the first model, an individual escapes from various forms of "rooms" (either a mysterious club, or family, or the Establishment) and is hounded, seized, interrogated and tortured for his attempt to be a non-conformist. Such characters as Stanley in *The Birthday Party* (1958), the son in *Family Voices* (1982), Victor in *One for the Road* (1984), as well as Fred and Jake in *Moonlight*, all belong to this category. In the second type of structure, characters are presented within various rooms, to which the characters cling as their territories. They are faced with not only threat from outside, but also menace from within. This group of "room plays" covers almost all of Pinter's works whose setting is a room, ranging from *The Room*, *The Caretaker* (1960), *Old Times* (1971) and *Party Times* (1991). Together, the two kinds of dramatic modes in Pinter's plays compose the duality of the essential living reality of human beings that Pinter intends to present. The central image of "room" works both as a shelter and a confinement to individuals. It is the realm where the exterior social force and the internal private voice interact and collide. To those who pursue the utterance of their private voice, the room is a confinement they feel irritated with; to those who play the game along social rules, the room is a territory they fight for. What Pinter presents is the characters trapped in the discrepancy between outside social forces and the internal private voice, i.e., a situation which is similar to the realm of "the Real" in Jacques Lacan's theory.

This can be particularly shown in his triple bill of *Other Places* and the early classic, *The Caretaker*.

II. Lacan's Realm of "the Real"

According to Lacan, men undergo two important stages in their infant phase: the Mirror stage and the Symbolic stage. Every infant goes through a mirror phase, in which he ("*le petit homme*") gets identified with a coherent and self-governing entity through mirror or his mother. Lacan also calls this pre-linguistic, pre-Oedipal stage the realm of the "Imaginary," which is a metaphor of Freud's narcissism. The importance of this stage is that before the infant experiences itself as a shapeless mass, it gains a sense of wholeness, an ideal completeness, by modeling itself upon the mother. In this fantasy of completion, there is no gap for the child between a concept and its application because the child's desire for the mother is identified with the desire of the mother. Here, what is the most important is, as Malcom Bowie (1987) points forth, this moment of self-identification "represents a permanent tendency of the individual: the tendency that leads him throughout life to seek and foster the imaginary wholeness of an 'ideal ego'" (pp. 105-6).

When the child begins to learn to speak, he starts a process of entering into the Symbolic order, a domain of "the paternal signifier" (Holland, 1999, p.47). The structures of language are marked with social imperatives–the Father's definitions, orders, laws and taboos. To Eugene W. Holland (1999), this transformation is like "the Oedipus complex"– "losing touch with the physical realm of bodily substance or 'being' ...and accepting the realm of meaning and the law of signification in its place" (p.47). In the words of Sean Burke (1998), the subject can enter into the signifying chain of language, the symbolic system of differences and arbitrary identifications through which (for Lacan) all human society is constructed, only through losing its pre-linguistic state of imaginary oneness.

Compared with the Imaginary Order, a feature of the Symbolic order is the facet of lack or gap. Concerning this point, Holland (1999) explains,

The illusory sense of wholeness produced by Imaginary identifications in the mirror-stage is then compounded by the subject's entry into the Symbolic Order of language, within which the fledgling ego has long since been assigned a place through the imprimatur of a proper name.... The speaking subject henceforth, according to Lacan, lacks access to its own body, lacks the ability to grasp or express its substantial being in the only means made available to it:

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differential language. (p.50)

The gap appears when the illusory sense of the wholeness formed in the mirror stage is shattered by the subject's entry into the symbolic order of language where the ego is assigned a place through names. In that way, entering the realm of language, the child also enters the world of "the other," which "introduces a gap between desire and its object(s) which the subject is bounded by," and makes man a "unified ego" based on lack. In this respect, the Other, which introduces "gap" and "lack" into the operation of the subject, "provides an essential precondition for the humanity of man" (Bowie, 1987, p.119). Burke (1998) once made a vivid summary of the change of Lacan's subject: he "moves from the (pre-Oedipal, imaginary) realm of the 'I am' through the 'I think' only to discover that 'it is not where I think'" (p.100).

What Pinter tries to present in his plays is just the dramatic tension of "it is not where I think"—a tension and the "gap" that we social beings are born into between the tendency of seeking the imagery wholeness and the "perpetual flight of the goals of desire" (Bowie, 1987, p.117). Or, we may say, it is a realm that is like Lacan's "the Real." But the difference between Pinter and Lacan in this respect is that Lacan is philosophical and psychological, while Pinter's concern is the human reality of existence. "The Real" in Lacan's theory is an overlapping, interacting and conflicting area where both the Imaginary and the Symbolic voices are found in operations. In this realm, as Elizabeth Wright (1984) illustrates, "Language [social voice] imposes a chain of words along which the ego must move while the unconscious remains in search of the object it has lost" (p.111). In a similar way, what Pinter dramatizes and explores is the inner reality of the characters who are liable to the influence of the two voices—the social and the private—which collide and conflict, thereby producing the paradoxical tension in the subject's instinct of escape and impulse to stay within. While the social force intends to impose its dominating, signifying and regulating power on the subject, the private impulse constantly reminds him of the gap between his desire and what the social order offers, and of the pain of the forever difference and ineffable displacement. It is in this attempt to seize the inner truth in the profound psyche of modern men that Pinter's work demonstrates another kind of duality in his artistic approach.

III. Men in the "Other Places"

In Pinter's plays, his characters are frequently trapped in a painful state of "lack": no matter how powerful a figure is in society, he seems to cherish a dream that belongs to some place in the past, and is locked in the difference between the dream and the reality. In *The Caretaker,* the tramp frequently mentions his attempt to go to Sidcup to seek a certain document that can prove his identity; and the two brothers in the same play also have their own respective dreams (while Aston's is to build a shed in the ruined garden, Mick is to redecorate the family house); in *Old Times*, Kate's dream appears in a form of memory of the "old times"; in *Betrayal,* the audience finds Emma and Robert locked in their memories about the past. And even such villains as McCann and Goldberg in *The Birthday Party* carry some dreams despite their brutality: McCann's is Paddy Reilly that brought him the Garden of Eden and Goldberg's is a memory of his father's words about the world. Sometimes, the dream may take the form of the characters' attempt to seek a substitute self or home as what happens in *The Homecoming, Family Voices* and *Moonlight*. No matter what forms the "substitute home" takes—either the home the son finds for himself in *Family Voices, The Homecoming,* and *Moonlight,* or the apartment rented by Emma and Jerry for their extra-marital affairs – it represents a certain pursuit of the characters. To the "sons" and dissenters, the new home embodies their pursuit of their individuality; to the female figures like Kate and Emma, it represents their ideal of free womanhood and marital expectations.

In each image of Pinter's plays, people can perceive the characters' impulse to seek and foster the imaginary wholeness of an "ideal ego" in Lacan's theory. This image of dream and substitute home is actually an ego's attempt to search for the self-identity in the social world of the language that imposes compulsory laws and taboos on him. So, to Pinter's characters like Stanley in *The Birthday Party*, the real terror "is not just that he is destroyed as he is led away at the end of the play, but that he is also destroyed if he remains, that if 'It's no good here' and no good out there in the world of Monty, then truly, as Stanley remarks to Lulu, 'There's nowhere to go'" (Hale, 1986, p.38). It is true indeed that in most cases, the hounded victims usually end their attempt to seek freedom in a frustration or cynical attitude of taking life as a game (as what the two sons do in *Moonlight*), that is, to end in a failure to find the ideal "home" or "room" they want.

What Pinter tries to explore is just the complicated and contradictory feelings of man trapped in the duality of running on the road with a furtive glance behind his back, or staying in the "substitute home" (chosen by himself) but being troubled constantly by the voice of the "real home", i.e., trapped in the feeling of "other place" and gap. Among all his works, the idea of the "*Other Places*", the triple bill formed by *Victorian Station, Family Voices* and *A Kind of Alaska,* illustrates most effectively the trapped state of men in modern society.

In the short play of *Victorian Station,* for instance, the dramatic portrayal of the contradictory relationship between the controller and the driver exemplifies the pattern in the three plays and the general situation of man in society as a whole. The opening scene of the controller sitting at microphone in the lit-up office with the driver cruising somewhere on the road immediately paints a symbolic picture of the man in the society. Facing the call from the controller in the "lighthouse", the individual man feels both controlled by the director and lost on his own road. The controller wants the driver to go to Victorian Station to meet a customer there and then send him to Cuckfield. When he says, "I am just talking into this machine, trying to make some sense out of our lives. That's my function. God gave me this job…I'm

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your local monk" (p.198), the controller assures his identity clearly as the role of Lacan's "paternal metaphor": the father-figure of the nuclear family, kings, despots, gods and all other things or figures that work in the social voice of defining, naming, prohibiting and controlling. The dilemma and psyche of the driver invites audience to think of Lacan's confused subject who is forever struggling in the displacement caused by the "gap". On the one hand, the driver declares that he is lost and does not know what he has been doing all these year; but on the other hand, when the controller is to give him up for another driver 135, he is scared. He shouts: "Don't leave me. I'm your man. I'm the only one you can trust" (p.202). The driver's paradoxical response to the controller is the same with other characters' feelings towards "room", from which they try to escape and to which they also cling. Eventually the controller's angry voice, like a thunder from God, makes the driver know his location: "I'm sitting by a little dark park underneath Crystal Palace" (p.203). At the same time, the audience also sees the same contradictory situation on the side of the controller: his dominating posture to the driver is equally matched with a reliance on the cooperation of the individual components that form its very texture of power: "I'd like you to come with me…we can swim together in the blue Caribbean" (p.208). But by this time, the driver has found the "true love": she is asleep on the back seat. The play ends in the paradoxical state of the driver who roams with an awareness of the controller's voice but cherishes the private faith in the "woman" on his back seat. The dilemmatic state of the driver is echoed later in the next play in the triple bill, *Family Voices*, in which the son struggles in the predicament between an old home (dominated by his parents) and a new one (chosen by himself).

If the *Victorian Station* and *Family Voices* portray a man's dilemma in the society, *A Kind of Alaska*, the third one in *Other Places*, depicts the frustrating and painful experience of man's (the ego with an illusionary wholeness of self-identification) transplanting of himself into the Symbolic order of language, where an authentic voice of "father" awaits to deny all that once belonged to his existence and to relocate himself.

A kind of Alaska is the only play by Pinter that is inspired by another writer's work—*Awakenings* by Oliver Sacks. It tells the moment when a woman who has slept for decades wakes up after an injection from the doctor, her sister-in-law who has nursed her in all those years. The whole play, built on the dialogues between the woman, Deborah, and the doctor, Hornby, and can almost be read as a dramatic moment of "the Real" in Lacan's theory: the moment when the subject transfers from his private world into the social one. The initial image of "A woman in a white bed" suggests a pure state of wholeness in the Imagery Order of Lacan's. When the play begins, as the first sentence tells, "Something is happening" (p.155). The repetition of the same sentence in the following moment suggests the confusion and horror of the dazzled speaker when suddenly falling into a totally strange world. As soon as the two characters begin to talk, their discourse immediately betrays the difference of what they represent:

DEBORAH: Do you recognize me?
Silence
HORNBY: Do you know me?
Silence.
Can you hear?
She does not look at him. (pp. 153-4)

While she uses the word, "recognize" to suggest an identity that belongs to the past, Hornby's sentences of "Do you know me? Can you hear?" imply a present world of existence that she is expected to know and accept. Since this moment, they two develop their dialogue by following their respective discourses: Hornby's is to follow the signifying social language, while Deborah's is to pursue a private one.

What they express reveals their respective characteristics. What the doctor stresses is the importance of "name" — "Do you know who I am?" (p.154)—that is, the social function of language, "which represents the subject for another signifier" (Bowie, 1987, p. 200). Through his talk, he tries to transplant and locate this newly awakened woman in the patriarchal realm of names, facts, concepts and reason. As he tells her: "I would like you to listen to me. (*Pause.*) You have been asleep for a very long time. You have now woken up.... You are still young, but older" (p.155). He tries hard to let her accept the basic facts and concepts that make the world what it is: time, age, and the living state in the past years. But in most of his talk with her, he is assuming the paternal tone to correct her confusions and put her into the right order:

DEBORAH: ...Tell her [Deborah's sister] not to marry him. She'll listen to you. (*Pause.*) Daddy?
HORNBY: She didn't marry him.
DEBORAH: Didn't? ...
HORNBY: She didn't marry him.
...
DEBORAH: But you mean I've been dead?
HORNBY: If you had been dead you wouldn't be alive now.
DEBORAH: Are you sure?
HORNBY: No one wakes from the dead. (pp. 159-64)

Here, while she insists on thinking on the basis of her memory, he keeps on resetting a new logic of reason and facts into her mind.

In contrast with Hornby's attempts to relocate her into the "normal world" of the paternal language, Deborah clings

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desperately to the Alaska world of white wholeness in memory, struggling painfully for a standing point. From the beginning, she has kept on resisting his attempt to impose various facts on her conscious by seeking a refugee in her past world. So when he asks her, "Who am I," she answers, "You are no-one" (p.155). Instead, she lingers in her own familiar realm which has its own "language": "What language am I speaking? I speak French, I know that. Is this French? (*Pause*.) I've not seen Daddy today. He's funny...we play with balloons" (p.156). If the paternal authority and the factual concepts are the features of Hornby's social system, then the maternal authority and the bodily impulse are the facets of Deborah's world of "sleep": "If I sleep late my mother wakes me up....You shouldn't have brought me here. My mother will ask me where I've been. (*Pause*.) You shouldn't have touched me like that. I shan't tell my mother" (pp.157-8). Here, she tries to use the authority of her "Mummy" to fight against the imposing reality of the present: "If I have been asleep, why hasn't Mummy woken me up?"(p.157). She makes it clear that she lives in a world of the body instead of that of concepts or morality: "it was my lust made me cry. You are a devil. My lust was my own. I kept it by me" (p.161). And she uses her law of the body to justify her behavior: "What's wrong with that? ...Why do you blame me? I was simply obeying the law of the body" (p.163). The shift from her familiar realm of "Mummy" and the "law of the body" to his world of names, facts and concepts suggests a transfer, which is similar to Lacanian transition from the mirror phase to the symbolic one—"Separation from the mother means losing touch with the physical realm of bodily substance or 'being'...and accepting the realm of meaning and the law of signification in its place" (Holland, 1999, p.47).

Here, the strongest feeling revealed in the dialogue between these two figures is Deborah's sense of gap when facing the social realm that Hornby imposes on her: "Asleep? (*Pause*.) I do not remember that....Where is everyone? Where is my dog?" When she tells Hornby, "What room is this? It's not my bedroom. My bedroom has blue lilac on the walls. The sheets are soft, pretty. Mummy kisses me. (*Pause*.)" (pp.157-9), she is not merely talking about a bedroom, but rejecting the fact of change and the dislocation brought by it. The significant point here is that while she resists his imposed realm of facts, she also tries simultaneously to adjust herself to the new system—because gradually she comes to raise questions and link them with her world. Nevertheless, being trapped in this sense of "gap", Deborah's feeling to the new world is one of confinement. As she says, "I've obviously committed a criminal offence and am now in prison. I'm quite prepared to face up to the fact. But what offence? ... such a terrible sentence"(p.166). Throughout the play, she moves back and forth between her world of the past and his of the present. For a moment, she tries to achieve a balance by identifying him with the prince in her fairy tales, but this attempt crashes in front of his cool masculinity of reason and law:

DEBORAH: Or did you no not wake me up? Did I just wake up myself? All by myself? Or did you wake me with a magic wand?

HORNBY: I woke you with an injection.

...

DEBORAH: And you are my Prince Charming. Aren't you? ...I think I love you.

HORNBY: No, you don't. (pp. 168-9)

Deborah's insistence on identifying herself with the sleeping beauty exemplifies the life-long tendency of the ego's seeking for wholeness; the picture of the whole family laughing at the dinner table when she fell into the long sleep foregrounds the sense of loss of the ideal.

When Deborah's sister, Pauline, appears in front of her, the final moment of entering the social world of Hornby's paternal language comes at last. With the sister's image of suffering and her story of their devotion to Deborah and her half-true and half-false account of the family, she introduces to Deborah other essential features of the language world: the moral principles of loyalty and the concept of truth and lies, thereby bringing the picture of the social world to its fullest form. It also pushes Deborah's painful journey of self-transplantation to the end. When Deborah says in a lamenting tone, "I must be quite old. I wonder what I look like... You say I have been asleep...You say I am a woman ...Mummy and Daddy and Estelle are on a world cruise.... I think I have the matter in proportion" (pp.189-90), the world she accepts here is one of both truth and lies: the truth is that she has been asleep for many years; the lie is that the family is not on a world cruise, but is in a bleak state with the mother dead, the father blind and the oldest sister wretched in marriage. Reading the play in this way, the image of the approaching birthday party for Deborah is indeed a hallmark of her new birth: the birth into the world of social orders.

Deborah's feeling of "gap" and "other" is of course not her own. Most of Pinter's characters suffer the same discrepancy between the dream in the past and the reality of the present. The dramatist seems to know it well himself. He once suggested that there are two Pinters: the private one in his "no man's land" of plays where he is bothered by nothing else outside, and the public one. And sometimes, he feels trapped by this kind of duality. In a 1971 interview with Gussow, Pinter (1994) said,

HP: I think I am in a trap, always. I sometimes wish desperately that I could write like someone else, *be* someone else....You're trapped with yourself all your damned life....I must admit that I also tend to get quite exhausted about being this Harold Pinter fellow. This is quite apart from being me. Harold Pinter sits on my damn back.

MG: Who's Harold Pinter?

HP: He's not me. He's someone else's creation. It's very curious. (p.25)

As Pinter's school friend, Goldstein, recalls their early experience of feeling the gap: "I recall Harold Pinter quoting

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Cardinal Newman to me about the creation being a vast aboriginal calamity. I never forgot the phrase because it seemed to me beneath the surface of our talk lay the empty, gaping black hole which for me Schubert–and much later, Beckett–knew all about." (Billington, 1996, p.13) About Goldstein's recollection, Billington (1996) comments, "If Goldstein never forgot the phrase, neither did Pinter. The notion that beneath the surface of daily existence lie desolation and emptiness permeates his work..." (p.13). The sense of difference between the highly private and stimulating feeling about the life they experienced in art and the ordinary life they led in reality must have been Pinter's earliest awareness of the profoundly black hole in life that could never be touched and filled up.

IV. Men Caught in Ineffable Forces

It is the double act in the inner world that Pinter's plays try to dramatize and present. Being eternally trapped in the false balance (which is actually a gap and lack) between the social voice of the arbitrary signifiers and the ego's instinctive voice for an imagined wholeness, Pinter seems to suggest in his works that man is doomed to struggle forever in the confusion. And the two images of the "other place" and "the room" where Pinter's characters are snared reflect vividly their contradictory forces in their psyche. Here, we might take *The Caretaker*, a typical "room" play, as an example to examine how Pinter presents the inner reality of the men caught in the ineffable forces.

There are three characters in the play: two brothers, Aston and Mick, and a tramp that Aston brings to the flat. The flat belongs to the younger brother, Mick, though he does not live there. He entrusts his older brother, Aston, to re-decorate it. The moment the tramp is brought to the room, he begins to covet it as a shelter of security. Being mild and quiet, Aston has been offering things to Davies throughout the play—seat, cigarette, shoes, bed, key to the flat, jacket, and finally the job as a caretaker. As a contrast, Mick is both violent and cunning. In the whole play, he is trying his best to drive the tramp from the exclusive world of the brothers. But as the dominating image of the bucket hanging under the roof suggests, there is clearly a certain kind of breach between the brothers. Soon, Davies begins to play the dangerous game of using Mick to repel Aston who, he discovers, once suffered psychiatric trouble. After repeated conflict between Aston and Davies over the window and the bed, Aston asks the tramp to leave.

The Caretaker is traditionally seen as a comedy of menace, in which characters fight for their territory. Many critics focus their attention on Davies, the tramp, and their opinions are mainly unfavorable: in the eyes of Billington, for instance, Davies is "a blustering, belligerent, selfish imposer" (Page, 1993, p.26) while in Benedict Nightingale's (1981) views, Davies "has not one atom of good in his make-up. He's a complete liar, bully and manipulator" (1981, 11). But critics can not deny the fact that "Tramp has always been popular with audience" (p.11). Repellent as Davie is in his manipulation and aggression, the audience still cannot help sympathizing with him. In fact, Davies is a typical Pinteresque figure, a pitiful figure trapped in the human predicament rather than a real villain. To a certain degree, he might stand for the universal dilemma of man in society as a whole, and the film version of the play reveals this point more explicitly than the stage one.[1]

A great change from the stage play to the film of *The Caretaker* is that seven exterior scenes are introduced into the former exclusive "room" story: Davies is shown to come from the road into the room when the story begins. This emphasizes his situation as one who is trapped between the world of the street and the interior realm of room, and a man locked in the threshold state of the permanent gap and loss.

In the play, Davies is the character who arouses the most mixed feelings in the audience. The exterior scenes introduced by the camera accent the trampled and deprived image of Davies on the street or in the society that was only implied in the stage play. When the film begins, the audience sees how Aston brings Davies from the world of the street to the flat. While they walk on the snowy and bleak street, Davies talks to the silent Aston about the rough experience of being kicked out from the place he worked when he refused to take a bucket of rubbish out. And from his talk we know that this kind of things happened frequently to him in the past years on the road. In the seven exterior scenes, four are about Davies. Aside from the first scene mentioned above, another scene sees Davies stumbling in the snowstorm, begging to a person passing by. In the third scene, we find him on the street alone in the bleak morning when Mick invites him to a drive to Sidcup, only to drop him on the same spot a few minutes later. This scene not only shows the miserable situation of Davies, but the picture of Mick dropping Davies on the same spot after driving a circle shows symbolically how life has worked like a pipe dream to the tramp: a doomed circle of having dreams and of those dreams being crushed. Beginning with Davies being brought into the flat one night and ending with his eviction into the street on another night, the play demonstrates effectively how life is forever a futile game of "loss", in which he is forever a "tramp." Moreover, the exterior scenes not only give a realistic sense to the story as many critics suggest, but also explain the cause of the character that is shown more explicitly later in the play. Davies has been made what he is in life—he is the victim of the discrepancy between what he yearns for and what he finds, a victim of the eternal "gap." In the play, everything he finds turns out to be not what he expects—the cigarette, the shoes, the bag, jacket, position as a caretaker, and the "room" as a "home." Everything comes and then goes—he seems to be on an eternal threshold of gain and loss. The image of Davies habitually punching his hands and the gesture of boxing emptily as if constantly fighting against certain rivals in the air signify vividly how hard he struggles to grab the forever-differential things in

[1] The film version of *The Caretaker* was released in 1964, four years later after the stage performance. It had Clive Donner as its director, and Alan Bates and Robert Shaw, the actors for Mick and Aston on the stage, still performing the two roles. The most important point is that Pinter re-wrote the script on the basis of the former stage script with moderate changes, and took part in the whole process of filming.

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life.

But here, Pinter's attention is not on the social significance reflected in Davies. Like the stage play, what the film version explores is the inner world of the man: how a man tries painstakingly to enter a "room" and how he, once in it, tries to possess it as his territory. The fatal flaw in Davies' character is that pitiful as he is in life, he demonstrates the nastiest qualities of human nature: arrogance, greed and bullying. He is on the constant threshold of being trampled and trampling others. The very moment when he is offered something and gets relieved from the victim position, he is unconsciously assuming the role as a repulsive bully and tries to manipulate the person who helps him. This can best be shown in his relation with Aston.

In the play, there are two scenes in which Aston offers Davies a pair of shoes. In both cases, Davies declares the shoes are not "suitable" for him. In the several minutes after Aston makes the first offer, the screen shows how Aston sits on the bed rubbing the shoes for him while the old man walking around him, throwing his hands, telling excitedly of a story of how a "bastard monk" did not give him a proper pair of shoes. Through the whole process, the camera gives a sequence of close-up shots: with Aston sitting on the bed and Davies moving dominatingly in front of the camera. With such shots, the camera frequently catches a symbolic relationship between the two figures: though Aston is still sitting on the "bed" (the "bed" works like the "chair" in *The Homecoming* as the symbol of power in the "room"), Davies's moving figure and his comparatively standing posture give people a subtle sense of threat. Moreover, while he moves restlessly, his torrents of grumbling about the "monk" is mixed with his reference to the shoes Aston finds. The whole effect is violent enough to disturb any audience:

Can't wear shoes that don't fit. Nothing worse. I said to this monk, here, I said ...I said, you haven't got a pair of shoes, have you, a pair of shoes, I said, enough to keep me on my way. Look at these, they're nearly out, I said, they're no good to me. I hear you got stock of shoes here. Piss off, he said to me. Now look here, I said, I'm an old man, you can't talk to me like that...I said, what do you think I am, a wile animal? What about them shoes I come all the way here to get I heard you was giving away? I've a good mind to report you to your mother superior. (p.14)

The monk that Davies decries so bitterly in his speech reminds people of the solitary and hermitic Aston who is rubbing the shoes for him: this association immediately throws some light on the tramp's real intention in telling the story. The monk he grumbles of so menacingly must be another imagined Aston in his mind. By condemning the monk's failure to give him a pair of proper shoes, he is actually protesting to the person who is offering an equally unsatisfactory pair of shoes to him.

Near the end of the play, Aston offers another pair of shoes to Davies—the last offer he makes. By this time, the scene has been changed. In the frame of the shot, it is not Aston but Davies who is sitting on the bed while the room-occupant moves about, looking for the proper laces for the shoes. Davies' posture of sitting there like a master expresses vividly the transformation in the relationship between them and his dominating feeling towards Aston. By this time, Davies has had the offer from Mick to be the caretaker and he also learns Aston's traumatic experience in the asylum—all these seem to give him the reason to trample his former patron as an inferior. His examination of the shoes Aston finds for him is picky and critical: "Well, I'll tell you what, they might do...until I get another pair. (*Pause*.) Where's the laces? ... I can't wear them without laces"(p.103). After Aston finds laces for him, he is still dissatisfied: "These are brown...These shoes are black" (p.104). After this, the screen becomes a total blackout, which embodies both the crashing of Aston's hope for communication and the blackout of the tramp's prospect in the room. The next minute, the audience finds the final explosion of their conflict and Davis being expelled. By dramatizing the process of how Davies subverts his relationship with Aston by turning the latter's offers into his own demand, the play succeeds in showing the nasty side in the tramp's character.

But the crucial point of the play is that manipulating as Davies is, the image of the old tramp fighting for the "bed" and "room" still wins somehow the sympathy of the audience; after all, he is but a man ensnared in a doomed predicament of eternal "lack". As a man in society, he learns to use intrigues (bully and manipulation) to fight for his territory, but as a social man, he is doomed to suffer the pain of eternal gap between what he wants and what he gets. After accepting Aston's shoes but denying its value, Davies gives an important speech that throws new light on his character:

Maybe they'll get me down to Sidcup tomorrow. If I get down there I'll be able to sort myself out.... (*Aston quietly exits, unnoticed.*) Don't know as these shoes'll be much good. It's a hard road, I been down there before. Coming the other way, like.... lucky I didn't die there on the road, but I got here, I kept going, all along...yes... I kept going all along. But all the same, I can't go on like this, what I got to do, I got to get back there, find this man—(*He turns and look about the room.*) Christ! That bastard, he ain't even listening to me! (p.105)

Speeches like this suggest that perhaps Davies should not be simply understood as an imposter or bully. Nor is it simply his bad nature that makes him run down Aston's offers. His relations with the "room" reflect the deadlock of mankind as a whole in his continual fight for his desired object when that object keeps fading away. As he cries bitterly, "I kept going, all along...yes...I kept going all along." In the film, part of this speech is cut off. But a much stronger poignancy about Davies is achieved through the visual effect of the last scene in the film. After Aston tells him firmly that he cannot change beds with him, Davies cries to him: "But you don't understand my meaning! ...Christ, we'll change beds!"(pp.122-3). While the old man utters this sentence, he is angrily punching his hands again—but this violent gesture conveys more pitiable desperation than menace as critics usually suggest. When his last suggestion of

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sleeping in his own bed is also refused, the close-up shot shows that the man is shivering with fury. His face tries to squeeze a smile, but the smile is more horrible than cry. The final shots shift between Aston's back at the window and the old tramp's helplessly shivering face. Then the screen becomes a total blank soundtracked by sad music.

To a certain degree, the strong feeling of poignancy aroused by the close-up scenes of Davies's facial expressions forms the other aspect of the tramp's dilemma. He demands the bed because it is the "thing" that can end the insecure life on the street, a sanctuary from that "draught" that has characterized his very existence so far. The final scene of the old man standing there, holding his bag and looking in desperation at Aston's back beside the window, articulates the dilemma of Davies the tramp in specific and mankind in general. He needs the "bed" as it is the necessity in life; but by demanding it from another man's hand, he turns himself into a threat to another fellow being. The image of the old man standing before the camera asking for a bed exemplifies the universal situation of men in "need" and "gap". This might be the reason why the tramp would arouse such mixed feelings in the heart of the audience.

Pinter wants to present in Davies the despair of living in the "other place" and the eternally elusive sense of security. Similarly, in *The Birthday Party*, it is not the external violence that happens on Stanley that Pinter aims to portray—but the deepest horror of "no place to go" and profoundest desire to be left alone. Nicolas in *One for the Road* is another example of how the dramatist explores the inner reality of his characters. In a 1996 interview, Pinter (1996) made such an explanation about Nicolas: "I recognize the plight he's in. Don't forget Nicolas is a deluded man; he's a man possessed, religiously really. He's enacting a religious and political obsession, and I feel very sorry for him" (Billington, 1999, p.62). In Pinter's eyes, Nicolas is a political villain, but he is also a man whose situation of gap and lack is pushed to an extreme. By portraying the brutality of Nicolas, Pinter examines the psychological complexity of his protagonist—the subconscious impulse to erase the private "I" that can never be fulfilled and to attach himself instead to the social "I" that is defined by the language of society. In Nicolas' "I am not alone" lays not only his pride in the collective power in his hand, but also an ineffable bitterness and desperation for the eternal loss that he feels in his subconscious. In this respect, we can understand why "Nicolas, who seems to have no life outside his official function and who is sustained by the ersatz family of the state, is magnetically drawn to the very people he is bound to destroy" (Billington, 1996, p.295). In torturing his victims, he is unconsciously torturing the real voice of himself whose wholeness he despairs of ever gaining. In Nicolas' character, it is not just malice and jealousy, but something deep in his mind and even unconscious that Pinter is bent on presenting.

V. Drama in the Inner Reality

However, Pinter's exploration of the inner reality is not limited to figures like Nicolas or Stanley, but to most of his characters (both villains and victims) who are involved in the family hostilities, gender suppressions and political persecutions. In all his plays, there are two levels on which the characters are examined: socially speaking, they can be categorized into villains and victims; but psychologically, they are all just human beings. Their difference lies in which "I"—the social or the private one—they choose. To a certain degree, there seem to be no real villains in Pinter's plays (no matter how "villainous" some characters appear). All the "villains"—Goldberg, Nicolas, Max, Teddy, and the rough Andy—are but "real men". Pinter implies that there are even some similarities between Shakespeare's tragic heroes and his "villains". In *The Dwarfs*, the only novel by Pinter, his character Mark makes such a brilliant comment on Shakespeare's characters:

...Othello, Macbeth and Lear, are men whose great virtues are converted by their very superfluity into faults...Othello is jealous because of an excess of love.... Macbeth's real trouble was that he thought too much of his wife. The trouble with these people is that they refuse to recognize their own territorial limitations. Their feelings are in excess of the facts. All they're doing is living beyond their means. And when they have to act, not upon their notions but upon their beliefs, they're found to be lacking. When they're called to account by common justice they're wrong. At the same time, of course, they're right. They are right according to our admiration and sympathy. But that's to look at them in no way morally.... We're sympathized with what they are when unhampered by the responsibility of action....

All they can see is the natural process of cause and effect working in a system of which they have ceased to be a part. They fall away from this system by lack of a social virtue.... They try to overcome a machine of which they remain, whether they like it or not, a part. The machine, if you like, is morality, the standards of the majority. It seems to me that Shakespeare justifies both the man and the machine. (pp.132-3)

Here it is more Pinter the author rather than Mark the character who is making this statement about Shakespeare and commenting on the traditional sense of humanity. What Mark criticizes is Shakespeare's blurring of the worlds of their private self and the public one defined by moral "language". To Mark (and Pinter), these heroes are the very specimen of "real men". Their life becomes a tragedy because they refuse to recognize "their own territorial limitations," thereby making their great virtues converted by their very superfluity into faults. That is to say, refusing the "gap" between their private longing for the wholeness and the Symbolic world of society (i.e., all the taboos and morality), they are actually the victims of Lacan's concept of the Other: "when they have to act, not upon their notions but upon their beliefs, they're found to be lacking. When they're called to account by common justice they're wrong." But it is just the faults of the heroes that make them human. It is this basic human situation of being the slaves and victims of "lack" that make Pinter's characters similar to Shakespeare's heroes.

Whatever their behaviors are in the plays, being villains or heroes, "we're sympathized with what they are when

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unhampered by the responsibility of action" (p.133). Maybe the only difference between the villain and the hero is that the former transplants himself thoroughly in the social machine he is in and uses it to balance the lack in his unconscious, while the latter tries "to overcome a machine of which they remain" (p.133). Actually here also lies one of Pinter's political dilemmas**:** his perception of the origin of the power and brutality as part of human nature, and his moral indignation against all the injustice in the power relations. On the one hand, Pinter suggests that there is no real division between the torturers and victims in the basic instinct for seeking for wholeness and security. What makes them different is their way to seek for it: victims turn to their individual voice of instinct as a positive way to get his sense of wholeness while the "villains" turn to the external world of power as a cynical way to forget their deepest hunger for it. Their remote yet inerasable dream hidden beneath their brutality—Goldberg's illusionary faith in the Dad, Max and Andy's longing for filial love, Nicolas' longing for a life of love–seems to the primordial drive to their brutality. Their failure to have their desires satisfied makes them turn to the tools in the "language" world (either paternal authority or political power) to release those twisted emotions: Goldberg reduces Stanley to another mindless figure like himself, Max reduces Teddy to a brute like himself who bears the loss of family with equal iciness, and Nicolas shatters the family love and independent mind he cannot possess.

It is just this human drama of Lacan's realm of "the Real" that Pinter tries to present: the men who are trapped in various ambivalent forces which turn family love into hatred, and human relations into political persecutions. Presenting the inner reality of his characters, Pinter is dealing with the overlapping realm of the external and internal world, a realm when the characters' private voice from the deepest part of their unconscious collides with the demands of the social force.

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Why Is the Grammar-translation Method Still Alive in the Arab World? Teachers' Beliefs and Its implications for EFL Teacher Education

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***Abstract*—Language teachers' agency to their belief system has been widely reported to influence classroom teaching practices. Whilst the bulk of research has dealt with second language learner teachers' beliefs, few studies have been conducted on how and why tenured EFL teachers activate their beliefs within a context of strictly controlled curriculum and imposed language teacher education programmes and what influence this may have on their teaching practice. Specifically, when EFL teachers adapt the imposed communicative language teaching approach (CLA) in teaching grammar, tensions are bound to arise and influence their decisions regarding implementation of the proposed curriculum. The study addressed this gap and contributed more broadly to our understanding of how attention to teachers' beliefs and self-initiated models of professional development such as reflection could aid the effectiveness of top-down policies. This paper aimed at exploring the interplay between EFL teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching and their reported practices in public schools in Saudi Arabia, and the extent of influence of teacher education programmes in informing such beliefs. The investigation utilized semi-structured interviews with four EFL Saudi teachers. Qualitative data analysis revealed that despite the mandated CLA approach and training programmes, teachers reported dominant forms-focused (traditional) grammar instruction which was for the most part informed by consistent beliefs and influenced by prevailing contextual factors.**

***Index Terms*—beliefs, communicative language approach, forms-focused grammar teaching, procedural knowledge, theoretical knowledge, language teacher education**

I. Introduction

Over the past four decades, the repositioning of teachers' work into the educational research has sparked wider recognition of and interest in teachers' mental lives and practical knowledge. Hawkes and Olson (1984; Cited in Freeman, 2002) emphasized this shift in the history of research and argued that,

"Looking from a teacher-thinking perspective at teaching and learning, one is not so much striving for the disclosure of the effective teacher, but for the explanation and understanding of teaching processes as they are. After all, it is the teacher's subjective school-related knowledge which determines for the most part what happens in the classroom; whether the teacher can articulate her/his knowledge or not" (p.5).

In line with this, recent trends in second language teacher education (LTE) research have moved away from the behaviouristic paradigm, which focuses on the process-product or behaviours of language teaching, to the cognitivist and socio-constructivist paradigms where the focus is laid on teachers as the corner stone of the teaching process (e.g. Johnson, 1994; Peacock, 2001; Warford and Reefs, 2003; Borg, 2003; Freeman & Johnston, 1998; Golombek, 1998; Phipps & Borg, 2009). This move towards understanding teachers' mental lives is due to the recognition of teachers as decision makers, and who have their own belief systems which function as filters to their cognitive knowledge gained through in-service teacher education, college preparation and prior-experiences (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Farrell, 2005; Busch, 2010). Johnson (2006) indicates that research in the last four decades on teachers' cognition has significantly enhanced our understanding of the complexity of the teaching process.

Whilst previous research emphasized the role of novice teacher's beliefs in informing their teaching practices, little is known about how and why tenured EFL teachers perpetuate certain beliefs despite top-down professional development initiatives and what background sources underpin such beliefs. As regards the context of this study, when EFL teachers adapt the imposed CLA in teaching grammar, tensions are bound to arise and influence teachers' beliefs about the way they implement the proposed curriculum.

II. Literature Review

Although teachers' beliefs have been extensively researched, there is still no consensus on what the term means. Pajares (1992) described the term as "a messy construct" and this is in part due to the perceived complexities in terms of definition, understanding as well as the multidisciplinary nature the term embraces (p. 307). He spotted more than 17 'aliases' of beliefs which cynically 'travel in disguise'. These include "attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories,

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personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertories of understanding, and social strategy, to name but a few that can be found in the literature" (ibid, p.309).

Despite the abundance of definitions of beliefs in the literature, the study was not meant to provide a discourse analysis or track the etymology of the different connotations of term. Rather, it adopted Borg's (2001) definition of 'beliefs' which provides concise and clear explanation of what the term means. A belief is "a proposition which may be unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour" (p.186).

Borg's definition emphasizes salient denotations of 'beliefs' reported in the literature such as propositions, implicit theories and propositional knowledge which influence teachers' decision-making in their classrooms (Clarck and Peterson, 1986). Studying beliefs is part and parcel of second language teacher educators' repertoire because, without it, it will be difficult to fully understand the complexity of the teaching process. Awareness of teachers' beliefs does not only shape our knowledge about how they impact teaching but more importantly about how it informs teacher educators' decisions regarding what measures to be taken to promote teachers' professional growth. In this sense, beliefs show the extent to which teachers' teaching decisions may be informed by their cognitions or experiences and hence teach in accordance with their own theories. According to Peacock (2001) some of these beliefs might be 'detrimental' to the teaching or students' learning processes and hence intervention from astute teacher educators becomes necessary in a bid to change such beliefs. This conceptual framework informed my understanding and exploration of teachers' beliefs in the context of this study. Such conceptualisation did not only cover epistemological or subject-specific beliefs about grammar teaching, but also included broader areas of teachers' beliefs which contributed to deeper understanding of the interplay between teachers beliefs, teaching practices and the extent of harmony or tension between what teachers learned in teacher education programs and how their reported teaching practice looked like.

The importance of investigating teachers beliefs about grammar teaching stems from the fact that, to date, there is no consensus among language educators about how best to teach grammar (e.g. Littlewood, 1981; Ellis, 2001; Borg, 2003). For example, whether grammar should be formally taught is still an unresolved issue. Grammar teaching, therefore, might involve focus on forms (with an s), focus on form and focus on meaning or communication (Burgess & Etherington, 2002). Focus on forms refers to the type of instruction that views language as discrete set of rules and that mastering them would be best attained through deductive teaching, use of terminologies and where accuracy is emphasized over fluency (Schmidt, 1994; Ellis, 2001). Focus on form, differs in that it is a feature of CLA where there is occasional reference to forms (Basturkmen et. al., 2004). Meaning-focused instruction derives from the CLA and involves implicit practice of grammar rules through communicative tasks or authentic situations, where the focus is on meaning and fluency rather than form and accuracy (Cele-Murcia & Hilles, 1988; Ellis, 2006).

Therefore, grammar teaching can be described a 'messy construct' as well, and hence it is highly likely that teachers are left undecided about which approach(s) to survive with in teaching grammar lessons. For this reason, it is feared that teachers might default into the ways they were taught when they were language learners (Bosch, 2010). The polarity of traditional grammar teaching dominating the Arab world (Abdel Rauf, 2010) is one in a case and hence makes it vital to investigate the belief system of English language teachers as a potential perpetuator of the tradition.

Borg (2001) drew our attention to "the value of developing pedagogically oriented understandings of grammar among teachers, as opposed to conceptions of grammatical knowledge" which has no connection with real classroom practices (p.124). Borg' (1999, 2003) series of studies on teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching are highly influential in this terrain as it anchored beliefs to specific linguistic components such as grammar. However, it falls beyond the scope of this study to investigate real classroom practices. Meanwhile, the study aimed to explore the reported classroom practices through teachers' declarative knowledge about grammar teaching. It also explored LTE and other sources of developing such beliefs.

My approach to exploring this relationship between grammar teaching beliefs, practice and teacher education is informed by the following assertions (Pajares, 1992; Borg, 2006; Bosch, 2010, Basturkmen et. al., 2004), although precautions were taken to account for emergent data to fully shape my understanding of such relationship:

- Some beliefs are core while others are peripheral, and it is the scope of this study to concentrate the former.
- Beliefs filter pedagogical knowledge gained via LTE programmes.
- Beliefs highly influence practice, yet are not always congruent.
- Contextual factors (e.g. students, time) impact decision making more than beliefs do.
- Prior experiences as language learners shape teachers' beliefs.

Sources of Grammar Teaching Beliefs

Foreign language teachers enter the teaching profession with a knowledge base and expertise gained via a number of sources that contribute to their teaching practices in general and grammar instruction in particular. These range from their experiences as language learners whether in schools or colleges, to professional preparation, training and teaching experiences (Richards, 1998). The influence of prior language learning experiences on EFL teachers' knowledge system has been reported in a number of studies (e.g. Borg, 2003; Elbaz, 1981; Grossman, 1990; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). For example, in reference to teachers' 'apprenticeship of observation' or the years individuals spent observing teachers and participating in classroom as students, Denscombe (1981; Cited in Freeman, 2002) stated that teachers' 'hidden

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pedagogy' "may do more than any professional preparation to shape how individuals actually teach" (p.7). For Grossman (1990), hidden pedagogy accumulates from a number of sources including subject-matter knowledge, professional development courses and classroom experience. Quite closely linked to the context of this study, Borg (1998) disseminated that teachers' decision-making in grammar teaching was influenced by their awareness of the context, pedagogical knowledge and subject-matter knowledge. Johnston and Goettsch (2000) also indicated that teacher's knowledge about grammar teaching was drawn from apprentice of observation as well as teaching experiences.

The professional preparation of teachers has surfaced in the literature as a major source impacting on the formulation of teachers' implicit theories. However, pre-service education seemed to have little effect on changing teachers' beliefs about language teaching. Peacock (2001) for example indicated that the learner teachers' belief system only slightly changed after their participation in the 3-year pre-service education. With regards to in-service education, Borg's (2011) longitudinal study showed that the 8-week training programme has a considerable impact on teachers' beliefs. Despite the fact the professional preparation is the most prominent source informing teachers' beliefs; its value is still debatable given the broad gap between propositional and procedural knowledge due to the power of wider socio-cultural and socio-political discursive realities (Ellis, 1990; Freeman & Richards, 1998, Johnson, 2006). For example, students' expectations have been reported to guide grammar teaching practice (Borg, 2003). Other researchers have pointed out to the capacity of teachers' experiences when they were learners as another source of experience which informs their practice (e.g. Richards, 1998).

III. Context of the Problem

This study came as a response to my long-standing interest in LTE. I worked as a teacher educator in the Ministry of Education, Saudi Arabia, for about six years whereby I undertook the responsibility of enhancing improvement of English language teaching and learning in public schools. I was expected to train, visit, observe and update teachers with articles in professional development and methods of language teaching, especially CLA.

From my personal experience, one thing I did not find an answer to, at the time, was the slow change, if any, of erroneous teaching assumptions and practices, when most of the teachers defaulted the bulk of their lessons into grammar instruction. No matter how hard I tried to train, observe and discuss implementation of CLA, teachers were less responsive and more "stubborn" to change. My personal observation is also advocated in recent quantitative studies which diagnosed the status of English language instruction in Saudi Arabia as product-focused where teachers were seen as implementers of top-down curriculum, and students were reported to have low English language proficiency (Grami, 2010; Al-Hazmi, 2003).

Additionally, teacher education programs in colleges have widened the rift between theoretical and procedural knowledge, where, apart from two methodology modules, their focus is on linguistics and literature (Al-Hazmi, 2003). Studies also reported insufficient pre- and in-services training programs for English language teachers provided by the ministry of education (Al-Ahaydib, 1986; Zaid, 1993, cited in Al-Hazmi, 2003).

IV. Focus of the Study

To my knowledge, mainstream studies were paradigmatically positivistic in which voices of grammar teachers were alienated. The relationship between LTE and grammar teaching is worth considering and researching where the voices of teachers are heard (Borg, 2003). Moreover, and more specifically in Arab countries, research intrusion is even more crucial in a world dominated by grammar translation methods of language teaching (Abdel Rauf, 2010). The need for research is still ongoing given the paucity of studies in LTE in Saudi Arabia.

Thus, it is the aim of this study to bridge the gap in mainstream research in teacher education in Saudi Arabia by taking a deeper stance into the theoretical and procedural knowledge of teachers about grammar teaching. Additionally, by relating beliefs to grammar teaching, this study bridges the gap in previous research where the focus of beliefs is generic in the most part (Borg, 2003).

V. Questions of the Study

The study aimed to explore English language teachers beliefs about grammar teaching and their practice through teachers' self-reports. Additionally it sought to elucidate the influential sources that shaped their beliefs. So, the following questions summarize the purpose of the study.

1- What are the beliefs about grammar teaching that English language teachers hold? And what is the underlying rational for each belief?

2- To what extent do teachers' reported practices align with their beliefs?

3- What are the sources through which teachers developed such beliefs about grammar teaching?

VI. Methodology

The exploration of teacher's beliefs about grammar teaching in this study is informed by the interpretive paradigm. Within this paradigm, the researcher's role is to understand the social phenomena by describing the intentions, thoughts

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and beliefs of the participants, where knowledge is viewed as subjective reality and socially constructed (Cohen et al., 2000; Crotty, 1998). The epistemology of this framework calls for interpretation of human behaviour by understanding the reasons behind doing it (Dunne et al., 2005). In this regard, my aim of the study was to construct a realization of how Saudi EFL teachers approach grammar teaching, from their own perspectives, and what LTE sources informed such experiences.

This study bridged the gap in previous research where, as far as I know, qualitative studies on grammar teaching beliefs have never been conducted in Saudi Arabia.

A. Participants

The participants were four male Saudi EFL teachers in public schools (see table 1). They all had a major in English language teaching and their teaching experiences ranged from 3 to10 years. My approach to choosing this number was based on convenience sampling, a process of selecting participants based on availability, ease, speed, and low cost (Marshal, 1996). Since the four teachers opted to participate voluntarily in the probing process, this number is also convenient to the purpose of my study, as it is exploratory and does not aim to generalize the results.

It should also be pointed out that the research ethical bold lines were taken into consideration. The participants were reassured that they were under no obligation to participate. Additionally, to make them aware of the background about the interview, they were e-mailed a two-page document about grammar teaching beliefs. They were also made aware of their rights in terms of consent, privacy, and confidentiality prior to conducting the study. Pseudonyms (teacher X) were used to protect the participants' identities.

TABLE 1.
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION ABOUT THE PARTICIPANTS

Participants	Major	Institution of Graduation	Teaching Experience	Level of Students	Professional Development activities
Teacher (1)	B.A. Teaching English Language in Saudi Arabia	Teachers' College	3 Years	Intermediate	----------
Teacher (2)	B.A. Teaching English Language in Saudi Arabia	Teachers' College	3 Years	Intermediate + Secondary	Training Programs
Teacher (3)	B.A. English language with Educational Preparation	University	10 Yeas	Intermediate + Secondary	Training (home + UK.), Peer-Observation
Teacher (4)	B.A. English language with Educational Preparation	University	10 Yeas	Intermediate + Secondary	Training, Peer-Observation

B. Data Collection Method

Driven by the interpretive paradigm which calls for qualitative data collection methods, semi-structured interview were undertaken with the informants to understand how they approached grammar teaching and what sources of LTE informed their teaching practices. The interviews served as an elicitation instrument of beliefs and at the same time as a self-report about teacher's grammar teaching practices. Polkinghorne (2005) stated that, the latter helps the "researcher to produce a core description" of the teachers' reported accounts of their teaching experiences (p.138).

An interview protocol was devised in order to guide the interview but not control it. The participants were given room to express their thoughts and ideas in a friendly manner. The protocol comprised four elements:

1- demographic information about the participants,
2- beliefs about foreign language learning and teaching,
3- beliefs about grammar teaching, and
4- sources of teachers knowledge and experiences.

It should be noted that the third component adopted Borg's outline about how and why teachers teach grammar (Borg, 2003. p165-166). The second and fourth components were developed based on my experience and on the literature review. The sequence of the questions is based on the idea that beliefs about language learning and teaching inform grammar teaching. However, it falls beyond the scope of this study to investigate in depth general language beliefs.

Within grammar teaching, four questions covered the content to be taught, lesson structure, strategies to teaching grammar and evaluation. The fourth question probed sources of LTD that impact teachers' teaching practice.

After the interview had been piloted, I set up convenient times for each respondent to conduct the interview using VOI (voice over the internet) with three interviewees and a phone call with one participant. Each interview lasted from 30 to 50 minutes. The interviews were digitally recorded and electronically saved for later stages of retrieval and transcription. After that, I transcribed the data verbatim, returned it back to each participant with the pseudonyms (Teacher X) for cross-checking.

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Finally, it should be noted that only one participant returned back his interview transcription with confirmation, whereas the other three participants replied over the phone that they approved the transcripts. Then, I was ready to undertake data analysis.

C. Data Analysis

The interviews produced a large quantity of very interesting data in relation to questions of the study. However, for the purposes of this paper and bearing in mind the word limit, I intended to focus on beliefs about grammar teaching and LTE sources of beliefs.

I utilized both approaches of data analysis; deductive and inductive. The former involves approaching the data with predetermined codes known as 'priori' which served as a manual whereby "analysis normally starts with some predefined codes intended to help guide analysis" (Waring & Wainwright, 2008, P.87). The latter, inductive analysis was undertaken as a complement to the deductive analysis to "allow for themes to emerge direct from the data" (Fereday& Muir-Cochrane, 2006, p.4). I employed this method to make my data analysis trustworthy, credible and far from bias (Golafshani, 2003).

So, the first task of data coding was based on a template or priori of four general categories for grammar teaching and three for LTE sources. These categories were driven out of current grammar teaching research and beliefs about grammar teaching (e.g., Borg, 1998, 2003; Ellis, 1992, 2006). Such categories included a number of terms (meaning/forms-focused instruction, inductive/deductive instruction, presentation, practice, evaluation, grammatical errors and use of grammatical terminology, etc.) which were tabulated in the interview protocol and functioned as guide for analysis as well. This, however, did not mean imposing the priori codes solely on the data, as Silverman (2000) warned against. Hence, in the second task of data coding, I was aware and took all precautions to give room for emergent data to add, amend or alter the predefined codes which eventually did.

I went through each set of data to look for recurrent themes and code them under each category of the template. I re-read again to look for new sub-categories which were abundant in the data and coded the themes under each subcategory. The third-time reading was for sorting the codes into the data for quoting. For example, the "grammar teaching" category generated seven sub-categories and each sub-category included a number of themes:

VII. Findings

The analysis of teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching and their teaching practices were both aligned and paradoxical. Where aligned, all four teachers' reported grammar instruction was forms-focused; they used L1, terminologies, and corrected errors. Where paradoxical, teachers' beliefs included meaning-focused and communication oriented practices.

The consistency of beliefs and teaching practices stems from harmony between theoretical knowledge and contextual factors. The paradox, on the other hand, is caused by the capacity of contextual factors on the belief system which obliged teachers to submit to. Hence, contextual factors shape the belief system. As far as sources of beliefs are concerned, college preparation and training represented the most effective sources for beliefs about grammar teaching.

A. Beliefs about Grammar Teaching

Generally speaking, the participants' belief system was dominated by a mechanical forms-focused approach to grammar teaching. There are however some reported meaning-focused grammar instruction. These will be illustrated below.

B. Forms-focused Grammar Instruction

Explicit grammar teaching appeared in the data as the core teaching strategy for grammar instruction among all the participants. One teacher for example starts his grammar lesson by writing an outline of the form of the grammar rule on the board so neatly, followed by teacher's led explanation.

"My way, when I teach the present continuous, I write on the board present continuous. After that, I use colours to write the rule for example, I put pronouns, in blue, after that I put verbs in blue…and just (verb+ing) by another colour" (Teacher 1).

It seems that this teacher is concerned with the grammar rule based on his belief that successful grammar learning entails "*acquiring the language*" (Teacher 1). This was clear in his justification of explicit teaching of the present continuous tense. He stressed that, when students are taught grammar explicitly, they *"understand or remember when they go home, oh,,, my teacher put he pronoun in a specific colour"*. Teacher (2) used more or less the same outline and was also driven by the belief that grammar teaching is important because if students "learn grammar the correct way, they would speak 100% correctly"

"In grammar lessons, I put the grammar at the general way….and sometimes I use (the following approach) *like 'the verb to be lesson':*

I takes am.

He and she take is

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After that, I may use I, we or they (substitution drills*). I take the lesson the easy way and end it the hard way. They give me examples, they use examples… they say fluently" (*Teacher 2).

Forms-focused instruction featured so intensely in one of the teachers' reported practice when he strongly opposed meaning-focused phenomenon once it was mentioned to him.

"No, no, according to the meaning, I don't concentrate on the meaning at all. The most important thing is the form" (Teacher 4).

The lesson structure follows a consistent pattern for three teachers i.e. the lesson usually starts with illustration of rules on board, use of colours, explanation of rules, and use of Arabic language, understanding action by students, recognition and substitution drills, repetition drills, and repetition of chunks of the language. This is typically what Schmidt (1994) called "consciousness raising" in grammar instruction. Teachers are obsessed with explaining grammatical rules for their students, assuming that knowing the rules leads to correct language use. However, one teacher, although frequently uses forms-focused grammar instruction, pointed out that he used meaning-focused strategy in revision lessons. This will now be explored.

C. Meaning-focused Grammar Instruction

Implicit grammar teaching surfaced in one of the participants' reported practices as a conceptual teaching practice but not a procedural one. For example, he emphasized situational language teaching and the importance of context to introduce grammar rules which can supposedly be done through discovery learning, and pair/group work. His theory of teaching grammar was for his students *"to pick it up indirectly".*

"Usually, when I want to teach grammar to my students, I begin by setting the scene either with a short a story or some activities that may have the same pattern that is introduced to them, give them some cards with some chunks of the language being introduced, with sentences, with colours " (Teacher 3).

His theory of teaching grammar, however, is idealistic rather than realistic. There were many conflicts that intercepted his aspiration and, had there been, were kept minimally. For example, he retracted his position from a meaning-focused and followed a forms-focused grammar instruction in all the lessons but revisions. It seems that the availability of time or lack of it is a critical factor in choosing which one approach to follow. Lack of time was reported to be one of the reasons which compel the teacher to default into explicit grammar teaching.

"If, for example, I am teaching them the present tense for the first time, I'll teach it explicitly. If, on the other hand, it is a revision or remedial work, I'll teach them implicitly just to save the time "(Teacher 3).

These incidents are telling of the superficial and secondary role of implicit grammar teaching, where its use is reduced to revision lessons. However, this is a good indication that this teacher is aware of counter-grammar translation teaching approaches dominant in the Arab world as reported earlier, but may be squeezed to the minimal use for logistic obstacles in terms of time and other parameters. These are regarded as contextual factors which exert decision making and will be discussed at a later stage.

Another inference is the capacity of teacher education on quality instruction and hoped change in grammar teaching. It seems that teacher (3) has "tensions" between the repertoire of pedagogical knowledge and contextual constraints. However, Teacher (3) differs from all the other interviewees in this study in his exposure to the various professional development programs he had undertaken. Important among these is the one-month training course he had in Leeds, UK, as well as many training programs in his home country.

D. Use of First Language in Grammar Teaching

The use of teachers' mother tongue (Arabic Language) featured categorically among the three participants' reported grammar teaching practices. The use of L1 was reported to be used in giving instructions to students as well as in transferring the meaning of grammar rules from L2 to L1. For example, Teacher (1) stated his frequent use of Arabic in grammar lesson as a means for simplifying the rules for his students.

"I mix Arabic and English….. Because I explain for students "town" in English but students don't understand….for this reason I have to use Arabic" (Teacher 1).

Initially, I thought that this teacher used L1 to facilitate learning vocabularies "town in this case". However, when I asked him for clarification he indicated that in grammar he had to use "*both languages because all my students live in village and as their environment, they see English strange language*" (Teacher 1).

Another teacher mentioned using Arabic language in grammar teaching for classroom management purposes. If he did not use L1, he would not expect his students to learn the grammar at hand. Moreover this teacher advocated using L1 in grammar lessons, but saw no point of using the mother tongue in other skills such as speaking or listening. This was based on the assumption that using L1 in grammar teaching would make English language easier for the students:

"I can't give him the grammar in English, all in English, because they will not know very well. But, to make things easier, I write the rule in Arabic (pronoun + verb + complement) ". (Teacher 2)

Teacher (4) blamed his use of Arabic language in grammar lessons on the inevitable code-switching or transferability from English to Arabic, since he is a native Arabic language speaker. However, he theorized its efficiency had it been reduced to the minimum.

"It is efficient if we minimize the Arabic use to 5%. So, you can use it with modals only to convey the meaning of an abstract word like ability" (Teacher 4).

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Therefore, where forms-focused grammar teaching is exploited, L1 was seen as one of the basic strategies of facilitating English grammar teaching where English is taught as a foreign language.

E. Use of Grammatical Terminologies

One of the categories that surfaced in the data was teachers' divergent views about the use of grammatical terminologies. Two teachers emphasized the importance of using grammatical terms in their grammar teaching practices.

"Yeah, I tell them (students) before (the lesson).. Today we are going to know how to give sentences in the future tense." (Teacher 2).

Another teacher exempted its use with beginners, but regarded terminologies important to be used with adult language learners. Actually, for this teacher, age factor determined the kind of instruction he decided to follow. He reiterated that adult learners have the capacity to understand grammatical terminology but not beginners.

"I'll teach them (adults) the same way (as beginners) but, I'll give them terminologies" (Teacher 3).

However, it should be pointed out that there is no indication of the reasons behind teachers' use of terminologies in grammar instruction. What we know, though, is the capacity of its use as an indicator of explicit grammar instruction (Phipps & Borg, 2009).

F. Errors

It could be well said that errors were seen by all the teachers in this study as indicators of bad linguistic behaviors that tell about how good or shaky the learners' understanding of the grammatical pattern is. This is in line with forms-focused approach which emphasizes correct production of language and is intolerant of grammatical errors (Schmidt, 1994). In terms of speaking and writing, teachers in this study demanded their students produce grammatically correct sentences, or else they will be corrected.

"I have to stop the students a lot of times and they have to say the good thing, correct thing" (Teacher 2).

The perceived belief behind correcting mistakes is that grammar is regarded as the base of learning and need to be guarded against flaws. This job can be done only by language teachers.

"So, you have to stop them and tell them the right..(Correct them)..Because you are the teachers" (Teacher 2).

Another teacher had to correct grammatical mistakes, because *"if students cannot understand what is wrong, they will show to him mistakes"* (teacher 1). He meant that mistakes should be eradicated; otherwise they would be indicators of bad learning or failure to learn grammar. This is one of the tenets of anti-communicative approach movement that claim fossilization to be one of the aftermaths of errors tolerance (Ellis, 2006). This was also advocated by another teacher who articulated clear reasons underlying his beliefs about correcting grammatical errors:

"My theory is that when I correct their [students] mistakes they will learn the grammar point in question" (Teacher 4).

Contrary to the above view about error correction, Teacher (3) partially condemned explicit error correction, especially for beginners, and restricted its use till the end of the grammar lessons. He added that he will locate the mistakes and spring them back to the students at the end of the lesson to make them aware of their mistakes.

"I'll let them to communicate with their colleagues….and I will just summarize the main mistakes they fell in.. I'll ask them to be conscious about their mistakes" (Teacher 3).

His underlying belief was that intrusion by the teacher during the course of communication will stop the flow of meaning negotiation and hence is better delayed to a later stage in the lesson.

"Because I agree with those linguists who say that correction to beginners is harmful for the learning situation. So, I delay the correction till the end" (Teacher 3).

Yet, this teacher believes in the role of errors as signs of bad learning habits, and therefore has to be eliminated.

G. Sources of Beliefs

This category refers to the LTE sources that informed grammar teaching practices. Although sources of beliefs involve received knowledge (e.g. training) as well as personal knowledge(e.g. critical reflection, experience) in addition to others such as contextual factors (Richards, 1998), the participants of this study reported one-sided, top-down institutional preparation and development programmes initiated by colleges or the ministry of education. All the blame was levelled at both institutions for not providing them with sufficient training programmes and few supervisors' visits. Three teachers complained about these issues with a sigh of relief.

"When I was a learner teacher in college, I had no training, just a supervisor came to observe me in the classroom, and did nothing apart form highlighting my pronunciation or grammatical mistakes. As a teacher, in (X) educational directorate, I haven't had any training, no supervisor has visited me yet" Teacher (1).

The sources of knowledge that bear on teachers' belief system about grammar teaching, featured as theoretical and practical.

H. College Preparation

Teachers reported that college preparation was mostly theoretically-oriented and did not tell much about classroom practices.

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"Yeah, I know a lot of things from college…but the big problem is that I forgot it or sometimes you cannot use because the background of the students is Zero. So, I cannot use a lot of things that I learnt at college" (Teacher 2).

Another teacher stated that college preparation did not provide classroom practice:

"Only the courses were about English literature and second language acquisition…… but it did no provide us with solutions to the problems in the classroom…." (Teacher1).

However, for another teacher, the theoretical knowledge gained from courses in college pertained to his effective classroom practices, despite the quality of training he had been through.

"……I think, those two modules I studied at my college affected my teaching styles and strategies" (Teacher 3).

I. In-service Training

Two Teachers reported training to be one of the main sources of informing their grammar teaching practices. For example, one teacher, although undertook a one-week preparation course, eulogised the benefits of training.

"For training, yeah… I took a lot of benefit ……I know how to prepare very well, respect my students. So, if you are not prepared very well…..you'll be embarrassed" (Teacher 2).

Teacher (4), although stressed the role of training that informed his teaching practices, he confessed that they were not professionally related to English language teaching. Rather, they were introduced in Arabic language and were about pedagogical knowledge of teaching in general. He was quite happy with the pay-offs of classroom observation and post-observation interviews with one of his supervisors as far more beneficial for his professional growth than the one-size-fits-all training sessions because such observation provided him with context-specific and classroom survival strategies.

"…I do not remember that I got this experience from college…But, training, yeah, is very important. And when I sit with the X supervisor, this is training…because we are talking with a motivation….we are fetching solutions" (Teacher 4).

However, it is clear that teachers referred to generic pedagogical knowledge, gained via training (e.g. lesson planning), rather than knowledge about grammar teaching. Quite interestingly, teacher (3) who had undertook intensive ELT programmes and demonstrated interesting theoretical pedagogical knowledge, was quite skeptical about assigning his pedagogical background to training. He was very obsessed with the two modules that were introduced as a requirement for obtaining the educational preparation honoured as a bachelor of art in teaching English language.

"I cannot decide which aspect is responsible for my knowledge, whether my experience, college or training. But, I think, those two modules I studied at my college affected my teaching styles and strategies" (Teacher 3).

J. Contextual Factors

Contextual factors emerged as a critical source that informed practice more than TE programmes. The reason behind this conclusion is that although teachers mentioned TE programmes that were introduced in college or in-service training, they failed to identify the matching teaching practice. Contextual factors on the other hand, were reported to be decisive in guiding practice. For example, students' low levels, fixed-chairs classrooms, time and tests influenced teachers to teach consistently. So, teacher (2) tended to ignore difficult grammar rules as a compromise to the low levels of the students.

"So, I sometimes never teach some grammar, I think it is difficult for the students or they don't use it" Teacher (2).

Teacher (1) exploited speaking and listening lessons to teach grammar due to lack of instructional materials or because of the status of his students in rural areas.

"….because the ministry does not give us teaching materials like tapes we use in conversation….in every lesson, I focus on grammar, regardless of other skills in the same lesson, " (Teacher 1).

Teacher (3) mentioned time demands as well as rigid syllabus as determiners of forms-focused teaching which is his second preference.

"I'll teach it explicitly, I think just to save time" (Teacher 3).

Teacher (4) mentioned students' lack of motivation as a restraint to his aspirations of meaning-focused grammar instruction.

"But, about the grammar lesson, I think there is no practice…we cannot, and the reason behind that is the students' lack of motivation… they do not want to learn. I just concentrate on how the exam will come" Teacher (4)

To conclude, teaching grammar was in the most part guided by emergent contextual factors that obliged teachers to adopt explicit grammar teaching which has eventually shaped the belief that this is the best way to teach grammar.

VIII. Discussion

By saying that grammar translation method is 'still alive in Arab countries, Abdel Rauf (2009) struck a note. Grammar instruction, revealed by this study, is dominated by a teacher-centred, forms-focused approach where the target is comprehension of discrete rules and production of correct forms rather than communication or meaningful language. The use of first language surfaced among three teachers as a very important strategy to facilitate grammar learning, hence not far from grammar translation methods (Ellis, 2006). This episode shows a great degree of agreement between teachers' beliefs and reported practices. The underlying beliefs of explicit grammar teaching related to the

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potential learning outcomes such as grammar comprehension and correct sentence or language production. This consistency between beliefs and practices was evident in teachers' reported practices; three teachers believed that grammar should only be taught explicitly and articulated clear reasons about such beliefs. Hence, factors like time, students' age, students' expectations, low levels, difficult grammar rules, and lack of materials exerted decision making by teachers to accept forms-focused instruction as a suitable grammar teaching method. These are regarded as contextual factors that impact the belief system, and are widely recognized in grammar teaching research to guide teachers' decision making (e.g. Andrews, 2003; Borg, 1999, 2001; Freeman & Richards, 1996, Johnson, 2006). It could be well said that teachers' beliefs and practice ran defiantly against the CLA endorsed by the imposed curriculum and professional development activities.

It seems that top-down professional development approaches were too preoccupied with knowledge transmission from experts to teachers and downplayed the influence of the wider socio-political and socio-cultural realities on teachers' beliefs and practices. It is argued though that for professional development to prosper in such a controlled context, teachers' beliefs should be recognised and clearly articulated so as to aid the effectiveness of top-downness.

Conversely, there was a conflicting episode between what one teacher believed about grammar teaching and his reported practices. For one teacher, grammar teaching was theorized to involve contextualization of rules, communicative tasks, pair/group work, and implicit grammar instruction. Practically, however, grammar teaching entailed rule presentation, practice and production (PPP) where the focus is on correctness or accuracy of production, all of which represent different facets of the forms-focused instruction. This is also widely recognized in grammar teaching research (e.g. Basturkmen et al., 2005; Farrell, 2005; Phipps & Borg, 2009). This is another indication that despite teachers' willingness to implement communication-oriented activities, socio-cultural and socio-political factors could impede such ambitions and make teachers revert to the status quo for guiding their practice.

With regards to the other sources that informed the belief system about grammar teaching, college or university preparation as well as training represented the channels through which teachers gained such beliefs (e.g. Borg, 2003; Elbaz, 1981; Grossman, 1990; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). However, the latter had been granted the rule of thumb for providing general pedagogical knowledge about teaching such as classroom management and lesson preparation. The former provided teachers with general knowledge about second language acquisition and teaching methodologies. Practice rather than theoretical knowledge, therefore, was a missing theme for teachers and was clearly voiced in this study. This is a challenge that LTE need to resolve if successful implementation is desired. The participants complained about the polarity of theoretical knowledge about language teaching introduced by colleges and universities. They expressed their anguish at missing the chances to be guided through practice rather than theoretical knowledge. I would argue that what teachers actually need, in addition to theoretical background, is survival tips that would help them in real teaching practices.

Additionally, the role LTE played in actually preparing prospective English language teachers is questionable. That is, apart from one teacher in this study, it was not easy to identify instances of theoretical knowledge about grammar pedagogy. Terms like form/meaning-focused instruction, accuracy and fluency were not clear to the teachers. Once I mentioned such terms, Teacher (1) for example, asked me to clarify them. Others were not able to name substitution drills, role-plays, guided-activities, communicative task, deductive and inductive teaching (Teacher 2, Teacher 3). Another teacher could not describe grammatical terms like short forms or contracted forms in natural communication. They described the term with sentences instead (e.g. I am= I'm).

It could be the possibility that the current theoretical orientation of LTE contributed to a large extent to teachers' entanglement into contextual factors that intercepted their theoretical knowledge and informed their current belief system. This led the teachers to resort to their inclinations about how to teach grammar or default into ways they experienced as learners and take them for granted. For example, all teachers followed the same rigid forms-focused approach with slight differences spotted in reported teaching practices. This means that either LTE prepared teachers to teach grammar explicitly, or that the teachers followed suit the way they were taught with. This entanglement, though, can be mediated by LTE programmes if practice is taken into consideration. This was evident with Teacher 3 who demonstrated quite solid knowledge about grammar teaching approaches which were supposedly gained via a series of intensive LTE programmes he has been through.

Another aspect that should be emphasized is the evident teachers' thirst for top-down LTE programmes. In order to gain fruitful development, LTE programmes need to enhance teachers' self-initiated or bottom-up professional development activities such as action research, peer-observation, self-monitoring and journal writing. Teachers need to get involved in diagnosing, assessing and seeking solutions to their teaching practices, on their own as decision makers.

IX. Conclusion

This study has clear implications for LTE and research methodology. I would argue that it is not always the case that top-down LTE programmes are the only source of knowledge underlying classroom teaching practices. Beliefs should be acknowledged as more powerful and have more impact on teaching. Hence, in-service teacher education programmes could address any foreseeable incompatibility between teachers' beliefs and desired practices by providing teachers with the chances to reflect on their beliefs and classroom practices. Additionally, contextual factors intercept as a source and contribute to the formulation of the belief system which might alter altogether or filter knowledge

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gained from LTE. Such challenges need to be addressed when planning training programmes. Moreover, qualitative studies need to be undertaken to help tenured teachers elucidate their belief system, explore the relationship between what they belief, know and what they actually instigate in classroom, and reveal the contextual factors underlying their beliefs.

LTE programmes also, besides literary preparing or equipping teachers professionally, have the responsibility to encourage them to explore their beliefs, practices and initiate required professional developments rather than desperately wait for the TE programmes to work its magic to change grammar teaching practices among English Language teachers.

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The Jewish Motif of Intellectualism and Saul Bellow's Heroes

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***Abstract*—Based on the 'intelligence motif' in Jewish culture, this paper explores the heroes depicted in the novels by Saul Bellow. The authors hold that Saul Bellow repeatedly delineates his heroes as intellectuals embodied in the Jewish intelligence motif and associated with the Jewish tradition of intellectualism. The authors propose that Saul Bellow's writings about the heroes are shadowed by the collective unconsciousness of the Jewish people.**

***Index Terms*—motif, Saul Bellow, Jewish literature, intellectualism**

I. Introduction

The rise and fall of national literature are closely associated with its history. It is true whenever it refers to the Oriental literature or the Occidental ones. There are always some people and events occurring in some stage of the national history that offer vivid images of literary prototypes. The people or events are repeatedly portrayed, mentioned or sung, as they embody the national spirits, which echo to George Brandes (1842-1927), a Danish critic who thought literary history is a representation of its national spirit. The people or events still have some things in common, though they are often changed or adapted in writings by authors. Thus, quite often, not only are they borrowed to be thematic materials, but they are also regarded to impose some special connotations of the racial culture. Gradually, the people or events are evolved and woven into all types of motifs in literary works. So, it is essential for us to understand and recognize them. In the very beginning we are supposed to know what a motif is. The authors of the paper consider a motif as "a shared theme in literary evolution, which is repeatedly written or renewed. It is derived from an epoch in history and borrowed in literary writings and developed into a kind of archetype because of its universal representation of core emotions" (Dong & Zhang, 2001, p.103). Therefore, readers of literary works are not only enjoying the disinterested pleasures, but also the interested knowledge of a national history and culture when it comes to the literary reading. To conclude, the literature reflects the history and culture from which it originates.

Readers of Saul Bellow find some unanimous features in his works, such as heroes with similar characteristics, who are a sort of intellectuals, like a professor, poet, scholar or somebody associated with higher education. For example, Moses Herzog of *Herzog*, a history professor with a Ph.D., studies intellectual history and has published a book called *Romanticism and Christianity*. In *Humboldt's Gift,* which tells the lives of American modern intellectuals, one hero is a drama-writer and the other is a poet. Still, Albert Corde of *Dean's December*, as the title indicates, is the dean at a Chicago college. Furthermore, Benn Crader of *More Die of Heartbreak* is a world-renowned botanist and Abe Ravelstein in *Ravelstein*, which was published in 2000 when Bellow was 85 and tells about the life of a modern thinker, was a renowned professor of philosophy at the University of Chicago. Despite these examples, there are some exceptions in Bellow's writings. One is Augie March, the hero of *The Adventures of Augie March*, who has only two years' attendance at college. Another is the college graduate, Joseph, of *Dangling Man*. Yet, they are still associated with higher education.

We find that themes, writing techniques, and the style of the novels are multiple-faceted, though the heroes are a kind of intellectual. However, they are not flat characters or static ones, but rather fully developed into round or dynamic ones with their own image. We cannot help asking the following questions: why does Bellow often focus on intellectuals? Is there any relation between the heroes and the Jewish settings of Bellow? Boarded on Jewish motif of intellectualism, this paper is going to explore these issues.

II. The Jewish Background of Saul Bellow

Bellow's parents immigrated to Canada in the Immigrant Rush to North America in 1913. Born in 1915 in a Russian Jewish family, Saul Bellow was immersed into Jewish culture and history. The family background greatly confined him

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to his outlook to the world and life. His father was an average Jewish dealer, who supported his family by selling onions or potatoes. Bellow's Jewish background was recounted in the following autobiographical account of his early years written in 1955:

My parents emigrated to Canada from Russia in 1913—my father, a business man, he often told me that he imported Egyptian onions into St. Petersburg—and settled in the town of Lachine, Quebec. I was born there in 1915, the youngest of four children. Until I was nine years old we lived in one of the poorest and most ancient districts of Montreal, on the slope of St. Dominick Street between the General Hospital and Rachel Market. (Bellow, 1955)

His mother was an heiress of an impoverished Jewish family, who had faithfully lived on a life of Judaism in the 19th century. The grandpa of Bellow's mother's side was a rabbi in a synagogue. So, his mother hoped for him to be a scholar of *Talmud* like his grandpa.

Bellow spent his childhood in an English- and French-speaking community. Because of the family, he started the traditional learning of Jewish culture at the age of 4. He often recited part of *Genesis*. The families even spoke Yiddish as well as English and French, which laid a good foundation to his translating Yiddish texts into English. As achievements, Bellow translated Isaac Bashevis Singer's *Gimpel the Fool* and Sholom Aleichem's *Eternal Life* (both are written in Yiddish) into English, and edited *Great Jewish Stories*. Because of his translation abilities, Bellow was asked to preface an anthology of the Jewish short stories. At the age of 9, he moved to Chicago in the United States with his family. At the age of 13, he was given the traditional ritual of adulthood, whose ritual not only meant his mastery of Hebrew and Judaism, but also a new identity of Jewish organization, and some kind of leadership. The ceremony was significant to him, which marked his transition from secularity to the state of being in quest for the holy sublime. Bellow himself recalled the importance of this event to his creative writing: "it was a very good base, upon which I drew a lot into my works of arts. It is in my memory. Actually, every artist is affected by the events in his childhood if I were bound to be in the label" (Goldman, 1989, p. 37).

Being from a Jewish family, Bellow's familiarity with Jewish culture helped him pick up abundant and various materials from the Jewish culture and history. The themes, motifs and images of the Jewish culture are used to depict or express his moods or ideas about the United States. It is true as John Jacob Clayton (1979) pointed out that Bellow's writings were originated from two mainstreams: the Jewish experience and the American experience. Therefore, without doubt, we can conclude that the Jewish cultures of Bellow with some Russian heritage are part and parcel of his writing materials in life. Especially, intellectualism is closely connected with the heroes of intellectuals repeatedly described and depicted in his texts.

III. The Intellectualism in Jewish Tradition

Jewish intellectualism is not only the content of Judaism but also part and parcel of Jewish tradition. In Judaism it is stressed that every disciple should learn the creed and the covenant of Judaism. Therefore, Jews are supposed to learn the holy books of Judaism at an early age. In the Jewish tradition, to learn the religious creed is the first important part of life. A child often learns to read and write the basics as well as some Jewish creeds and covenants, which he finishes at around 10 years old. Generally speaking, many families begin to teach children at home from 4 years old on. But, if a family could not afford to support a child to attend school, other Jewish families or charity organizations at the ghetto of the family would give help to the family. For example, they would invite the children to eat at their home as a guest week after week by turns. The children would be supported until they could go to a Rabbinical institution, a higher level of school education.

After some years of learning the creed and the covenant, a youth is allowed to learn some practical or technical arts of a trade. In Judaism, the faith is emphasized before the art of a trade. In fact, when children are learning the religion, such as religious rituals, techniques to make religious objects, they have also acquired a lot of practical knowledge.

We would know why Jews are keen on learning if we read ancient Jewish books of law. Almost every book of law in Judaism has written such content, that it is necessary for a Jew to learn the Word of God and the Jewish laws. "The fear of the LORD is the beginning of knowledge" (*Proverbs* 1:6). In the books it is said that it's equal for everybody, whether a noble or a lower, to learn wisdom or knowledge. The Jewish intellectualism is recorded throughout their classics. There are records about the intellectualism among the *Old Testament*, *Talmud*, *Torah* and *Bible Code*. For example, it is written that there are two trees in the Garden of Eden: one is the tree of life, the other the tree of wisdom. For Hebrews, they believe that the tree of wisdom lives together with their Supreme God Jehovah, which shows that knowledge and wisdom are deified in ancient Hebrew classics; and wisdom is part of God's wisdom. For the Jewish to love knowledge is to love God. To love God is the beginning to learn knowledge and to gain wisdom.

As for wisdom and knowledge, they are the theme of the holy books. In *Proverbs*, we can see the praises and hymns to wisdom and knowledge. The excerpt quoted above (*Proverbs* 1:6) is only a small example of the theme and purpose in the book. Besides *Proverbs*, there are other books of the *Bible* that discuss the importance of wisdom and knowledge. They are *Job*, *Psalms*, *Ecclesiastes*, *Exodus*, *Deuteronomy*, *1&2 Samuel*, *1Kings*, *Isaiah*, *Jeremiah*, *Lamentations*, *Ezekiel*, *Hosea*, *Amos* and others. *Job* and *Ecclesiastes* are nicknamed the "book of wisdom". Because of the books, we can conclude that the pursuit for wisdom and knowledge are rooted in Jewish tradition, history and culture. The intellectualism is like a thread which ties Jewish tradition and culture throughout Jewish history. So, the majority of the Jewish families make their children read the *Bible*. They think reading the *Bible* is the best choice for them to gain

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wisdom and to worship their Only God. The custom to learn knowledge and wisdom verifies that Jews are nations of books.

Another fact to show Jewish intellectualism is their *Old Testament*. It is not only a required textbook of Judaism but also an encyclopedia of education. Every Jew absorbs what he needs, from philosophy to general subject matter. The *Old Testament* provides the best choice of content for family education, school education and community education. For instance, the Jewish parents often use the *Old Testament* as an enlightenment of common sense, and a moral textbook as well.

The intellectualism is part and parcel of Jewish traditions, which can be traced back to King Solomon. It is written that King Solomon built schools of prophet to train religious and practical talents to meet his needs. Perhaps the schools are attached to the First Palace. After Judah was conquered by Babylon in 586 B.C., Jews were endangered to be assimilated and they established Synagogues to learn and pass down the covenants of Judaism; later they set up libraries and primary schools. At about the 1st century, they had intermediate schools of the religion and higher ones. As we mentioned above, the children less than 10 years old attend the primary school to learn how to read and write; the adolescents enter the intermediate school to learn the laws; and the youth begin to study the Jewish classics. In Synagogues priests, prophets or would-be priests are teachers. In the 3rd century B.C., there were 394 synagogues in Palestine. Hence, after several centuries, a new type of community education formed.

In addition to the synagogue schools, there is another kind of combination of academy of the law studies: the Rabbinical Institution. It is a good place for ordinary people to study God's Word and think about worldly questions.

It is known to the world that the Jewish history is characterized as Diaspora, which refers to the Jews' exile in their history. If we think about the time span from 70 A.D., in which the Second Palace was destroyed, up to 1948, in which Israel established their home country of its own, Jews had been scattered over the corners of the world over 1,800 years. During the long years of Diaspora, they formed their unique culture and history, which were recorded in the *Old Testament*, *Talmud* and other books. Intellectualism is regarded as the most valuable heritage by Jews. In addition, intellectualism is embodied throughout Jewish life, history and tradition, in brief, in Jewish culture. There is no surprise that Israel is considered the nation of wisdom and knowledge, nicknamed as "the nation of the book". Homeless as they had been, they had not been extinguished, but stood out among the forests of nations on the Earth. The authors of the thesis hold that it is the intellectualism that has played a big role in Diaspora.

Therefore, intellectualism has shaped the unique Jewish history; the tradition is general and widespread among average families. That explains why Jewish people are keen to read books. It is said that every adult Jew reads 50 to 60 books per year. The intellectualism is turned into an act of reading books. To a certain degree, every Jew is a vehicle of the culture. However, the individual representation is only a dimension of the collective unconscious. In fact, there is no individual consciousness that is isolated from the collective, the nation; there is only collective heritage. Jewish intellectualism is heritage passed down from their ancestors.

IV. Jewish Adoration for Intellectuals

Jews have highly adored intellectuals because of their appreciation of knowledge and wisdom. When invaded by Romans, a group of Jewish villagers begged to the Romans to keep their prophets alive so they could pass down their history and traditions. This story indicated that the prophets were indispensable to the Jewish culture. For thousands of years, their intellectuals have collected, selected, constructed, canonized, spread, and interpreted cultural signs of Jews, which had written the Jewish history. They had adapted some of the historical traditions to survive and keep up with the times. It is evident that the intellectuals have contributed a lot to the heritages and preserved the culture and history. We may say, in a way, that they have protected one of the origins of the Occidental civilization—Hebrew civilization. For the viewpoint, we posit that Western civilization owes something to Hebrew intellectuals. The Hebrew intellectuals, or Rabbi, had been the actual leaders or spiritual props of Jewish communities since 70 A.D., when the second Palace was destroyed. From then until 1948, Jews had no national territory. But, ironically, Jewish people were not assimilated and extinguished by other nations in the Diaspora. The intellectuals deserve praising for their protection and preservation of national culture and tradition. One of the typical heritages is that every Jewish family studies the classics of their culture and history, such as the *Holy Bible*, *Talmud* and the like. Moreover, they have never altered the custom but kept well the interpretations given by ancient Rabbis in the Diaspora. Even today there are some extremists of Judaism, who claim that 'we must adhere to *The Pentateuch* in spite of the progress of science and technology, and follow the heritages stipulated by Rabbis'. Rabbis are the intellectuals of Jewish people, who are regarded as the heart and soul of the nation. So, as far as the Jewish intellectuals are concerned, they are supposed to stand out anywhere to speak for the nation, to criticize the dark side of reality, and to rescue the nation, even facing any danger. As Malcolm Cowley (1898—), an American writer, remarked:

"They are such kind of people of a nation, trying to think about all kinds of schools of thought independently without taking other prejudices and the interests of his own into his account." (Ma Lin, 2003, p.30)

And Edward Said (1935—), a Palestine American critic, defines an intellectual as subsequent characteristics:

"An intellectual should be the organ of the public, a representative of the justice, the exploited and the fragile. He shall express his own opinions to the public in front of frustrations." (Said, 2007, p.11)

Throughout Jewish history people can see that, whether it is in Judges' times, or King's times or in Diasporas, the

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Jewish intellectuals, such as Rabbis and prophets, were leaders of Jewish fights against foreign invasions. They criticize the dark side of reality and have succeeded in preserving the Jewish tradition, customs and culture. To some extent they promoted their national image or rank among the forests of the world nations. The Rabbis, Judges, and prophets played big parts in the history and culture. In Judges' times, Judges or prophets were actual herdsmen of Jews to protect the nation's survival; in King's times they were King's helpers to govern the nation; and in Diasporas they tried to maintain national traditions and culture to awake the Jewish national confidence, pride, and faith in the future.

Among the ancient intellectuals, prophets, such as Amos, Samuel, Elisa, Elijah and Jonah, are especially renowned for their outspokenness. They are regarded as the representatives of the racial image and have been recorded in the *Old Testament*. Therefore, they are remembered as the examples to follow for Jewish intellectuals and kept in the memory bank of the collective unconscious. The collective unconscious, that is, the Jewish memory, has had an impact on Saul Bellow's initiative and creative writing.

V. The Archetypes of Bellow's Characters

Karl G. Jung (1875-1961), a Swiss psychologist, referred to the archetype as the collective unconscious or vice versa: literature is rooted in the collective unconscious (Zhang et al., 2003). The writing of a writer is dominated unconsciously by the unconscious, which are primordial images as well, like ancient heroes, a monster or a series of acts or events repeatedly occurring in the history of a nation. The archetypes are formed and kept in distant memory of racial ancestors; they were collected, written down, and descended as a racial memory of history and culture. Thus, the archetypes foreshadowed the characters of works of Bellow. Ironically, the contemporary intellectuals in his works are not spokesmen or heroes of the community, with little patriotism compared with the ancient prophets. They are intellectuals, a kind of knowing-people but unlucky in daily life.

The main characters created by Bellow have not enjoyed their life and fate. They are "unlucky guys", whose situations of life are full of "anguish" or "disgust". Although they are knowledgeable, they cannot find the life style that they hope, the peace and calmness and spiritual homeland in the crazy world. Some of them are divorced and estranged with friends or families, such as Herzog and Citrine; others are unlucky and poor like Humboldt and Tommy. While some are distorted and not capable of using their talents like Abe Ravelstein and Albert Corde, others are lost in seeking their own dream or identity like Henderson, Joseph and March. In brief, they are a kind of "dangling men" like Joseph, or a wanderer with no foothold over the "wasteland". They are just like what Bellow (1965) had said about Herzog: "Herzog lives a life of American intellectuals. However we may say that at least he finds the life is very unsatisfactory. "

However, the characters harbor wonderful ideas, love, and humanism, though there are gaps between the ideas and the reality. We may say the irony of fate, which can be dated back to *Oedipus King*, is formed here again. There is only one optimistic character—Augie March among the characters; others are similar to Joseph, who is moody, isolated, alone and painful. They can see little hope of the world. For them, this world is not the place to get a spiritual foothold but only a trap to get hit and be tolerated to survive.

Because of the characters' misfortune, Jewish literature is referred to as a mourning literature (Hoffman, 1983, p. 275), which means the characters' lives are teemed with anxiety, suffering, failure or fear. And they are not tough heroes portrayed by Earnest Hemingway, but rather a new style of characters, a series of anti-heroes, which have paved a new way in American literature. In Yiddish they are called schlimazel (a chronically unlucky person or the recipient of unlucky events) not schlemiel (a habitual bungler or a dolt), often described by Singer and Malamud. Schlemiel is referred to as the first Jewish immigrant, poverty-stricken without much education like the characters described by I. B. Singer or Bernard Malamud. Schlimazel is the second generation of Jewish immigrants to the U.S.A., economically successful but mentally unhappy in life.

If readers take a comprehensive look at the Jewish history, they can better understand the characters. They have failures, frustrations, and hits in their life as they are isolated from the community, which is a hint to the Jewish fate, that is, the Jews were isolated from the world community for over 1,800 years. Because of the long isolation, most Jewish writers have a historical complex and make their characters moody. Their fate is similar to their national history to some extent, which is filled with paradox and irony. The Jews claim that they are 'chosen people' favored by God; on the contrary, they are not given any grace or blessedness but rather racial extinction. Is it not the greatest irony to the claim? If some people say they have cherished humanist ideals, it shows they have yearned for Messiah, who is considered as their Savior and will establish a world of justice for them in the future.

VI. Conclusion

Wisdom or intelligence is a main domain in Jewish culture, history and tradition, which have been stipulated as part of Judaism for several thousand years. Bellow, as a Jewish heir, has repeatedly described the similar type of characters, a series of kind of knowing-men. It is apparently closely connected with the Jewish intellectualism, whose writings are influenced by Jewish collective unconscious as well. As Belinsky (1811—1848), a Russian literary critic, stated, fiction is a real reflection of national spirit. So is it to Bellow. Boarding on the Jewish motif of intellectualism, readers of Bellow can understand something about Jewish history, culture and his writing mode as well. Bellow's mode goes

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according to the following sketchy outline: he traces back into Jewish memory of the collective unconsciousness to express his ideas about contemporary intellectuals, kind of knowing-men in the USA. Bellow's texts are a kind of representations to describe racial history, of which defamiliarization is used. Today's readers of Saul Bellow cannot help but think of why Bellow's heroes are unhappy. Sharp contrasts of images between the old intellectuals and the new ones have formed easily in mind. The old ones are heroes seen from traditional viewpoints, while the new ones are anti-heroes against the traditional mores, even when they are a sufferer, joker, moaner, cuckolds, charmer, a man of our time seeing themselves as a survivor. Of course we see irony is used here by Bellow, which is a popular technique used in contemporary American novels. The moody description of characters can arouse reader's thinking of Jewish history and culture and lengthen the readers' aesthetic effect.

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Teaching English through Principles of Instructed Language Learning

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***Abstract*—Teaching is an interesting profession with new approaches expanding teachers' roles and giving teachers more insights into how to help their learners (Larsen-Freeman, 1988). This paper serves as a reflection on our teaching English to first-year EFL students at Saigon Technology University which demonstrates how Ellis's (2005) principles of Instructed Language Learning were applied in Vietnam context.**

***Index Terms*—instructed language learning, second language acquisition, learning style, teaching strategy**

I. Introduction

Ellis (2005, p. 209) draws together "findings from a range of second language acquisition studies" and formulates 10 general principles of instructed language learning. "They are:

1. Instruction needs to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence.
2. Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus predominantly on meaning.
3. Instruction needs to ensure that learners also focus on form.
4. Instruction needs to be predominantly directed at developing implicit knowledge of the L2 while not neglecting explicit knowledge.
5. Instruction needs to take into account the learner's built-in syllabus.
6. Successful instructed language learning requires extensive L2 input.
7. Successful instructed language learning also requires opportunities for output.
8. The opportunity to interact in the L2 is central to developing L2 proficiency.
9. Instruction needs to take account of individual differences in learners.
10. In assessing learner's L2 proficiency it is important to examine free as well as controlled production."

These principles neatly sum up the current understanding of L2 acquisition theories and practices. Even though Ellis (2005, p. 210) called these principles "provisional speculations", they have been attested in L2 classroom research and practice. The following reflection on our teaching English to first-year EFL students at Saigon Technology University demonstrates how these principles of Instructed Language Learning were applied in Vietnam context.

II. Literature Review on Second Language Acquisition Theories

Nativist Theory or Naturalistic Approach

According to Brown (1973), the term nativist "is derived from the fundamental assertion that language acquisition is innately determined, that we are born with a built-in device of some kind that predisposes us to language acquisition." Chomsky (1965) proposed the theory that all people have an innate, biological ability to acquire a language or possess a Language Acquisition Device (LAD), a sort of neurological wiring that, regardless of the language to be acquired, allows a child to listen to a language, decipher the rules of that language, and begin creating with the language at a very young age. According to Chomsky, LAD 'governs all human languages, and determines what possible form human language may take' (Dulay, Burt, and Krashen, 1982, p. 6ff).

Krashen (1981) developed his Monitor Theory based on Chomsky's concept of a LAD. The Monitor Theory is composed of four hypotheses: The Input Hypothesis; The Natural Order Hypothesis; The Affective Filter Hypothesis; and The Acquisition vs. Learning Hypothesis. These hypotheses provide the framework for the communication-based teaching strategies.

Environmentalist Theory

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Environmentalists posit that environmental/outside influences over the learner play a substantial role in acquisition of a second language. The principal environmentalist theory, Schumann's "Acculturation Model," suggests that a learner's social and psychological distance from the target language group influences that individual's ability to develop proficiency in the target language.

Schumann (1978) describes psychological distance consisting of three factors: 1) culture shock, 2) language shock, and 3) motivation. Social distance refers to the social proximity of two cultures that come into contact with one other. Schumann (1978) describes social distance comprising "eight social variables which affect the quality of contact that second language learners have with the target language community:

1) *Social dominance*: When the English Language Learning (ELL) group is politically, culturally, technically, or economically superior to the target language (TL) group, then it will tend not to learn the target language. On the other hand, if the ELL group is inferior to the TL group, they may resist learning the target language.

2) *Assimilation, preservation, and adaptation*: If the ELL group chooses assimilation as the integration strategy, it gives up its own lifestyle and values and adopts those of the TL group. Similarly, preservation means that the ELL group maintains its own lifestyle and values and rejects those of the TL group. Adaptation means that the ELL group adapts to the lifestyle and values of the TL group, but maintains its own lifestyle and values for intragroup use.

3) *Enclosure*: Enclosure refers to the degree to which the ELL group and TL group share the same social constructs such as schools, churches, clubs, recreational facilities, crafts, professions, and trades. If the two groups share these social constructs, enclosure is said to be low, and the L2 acquisition is facilitated.

4) *Cohesiveness*: If the ELL group is cohesive, it will tend to remain separate from the TL group.

5) *Size*: If the ELL group is large, the intragroup contact will be more frequent than contact with the TL group.

6) *Congruence*: If the two cultures are similar, social contact is potentially more likely and L2 learning is more easily facilitated.

7) *Attitude*: If the ELL and TL groups have positive attitudes toward each other, L2 learning is more easily facilitated.

8) *Intended length of residence*: The longer an L2 learner plans to remain in the TL environment, the more likely it is that they will feel the need to learn the target language."

Cognitive Approach

Cognitive psychologists claim that one of the main features of second language acquisition is the building up of a knowledge system that can eventually be called on automatically for understanding.

McLaughlin's Attention-Processing Model

This model connects processing mechanisms with categories of attention to formal properties of language. Consequently there are four cells. The first one refers to 'focal automatic processes' like the student's performance in a test situation or a violin player performing in a concert. The second one characterizes 'focal controlled processes'' such as the learner's performance based on formal rule learning. The next cell refers to 'peripheral controlled processes' such as the phenomenon of learning skills without any instruction. The last cell focuses on 'peripheral automatic processes' and can be related to a learner's performance in situations of communication. 'Controlled processes are "capacity limited and temporary", and automatic processes are "relatively permanent"' (McLaughlin et al. 1983, p. 142 in Brown, 2002).

Implicit and Explicit Models

According to Brown and other linguists, there is a distinction between implicit and explicit linguistic knowledge. Explicit knowledge means 'that a person knows about language and the ability to articulate those facts in some way' (Brown, 2002, p. 285). Implicit knowledge is 'information that is automatically and spontaneously used in language tasks. […] Implicit processes enable a learner to perform language but not necessarily to cite rules governing the performance' (Brown, 2002, p. 285).

III. Implementation of Principles of Instructed Language Learning

Principle 1: Instruction needs to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence

A notional-functional approach lends itself perfectly to the teaching of prefabricated patterns and routines and may provide an ideal foundation for direct intervention in the early stages. Conspicuously, though, a complete language curriculum needs to ensure that it caters to the development of both formulaic expressions and rule-based knowledge (Ellis, 2005).

Formulaic expressions were utilized throughout our English lessons. Our students had access to formulaic expressions in the ensuing ways:

1. Expressions were written on the blackboard. Our teaching Unit 1A "Let's get to know each other" of the coursebook "Let's Talk" (Jones, 2008, pp. 4-5) covered such examples of formulaic expressions as: What's your last name? Where are you from? Where do you live? Where do you work? and What are your hobbies?. The students were continually encouraged to use these expressions to communicate with one another in class.

2. The students had sheets of expressions handed out to them at the beginning of class.

These formulaic expressions also arose out of interactions with framework goals. That is, they consisted of instructional language, in which I endeavoured to explain the procedures for performing an activity or to monitor the

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students' understanding. These expressions from Unit 11A "How to get there" of the coursebook "Let's Talk" encompassed "Go/Walk up Second Avernue", "Turn left/right", "Go past the drugstore", and so forth (Jones, 2008, pp. 48-49).

The students also used numerous formulaic chunks in English. The phrases they used during the lessons embraced: "Thank you very much", "You are welcome", "My name is X", etc.

Teaching formulaic expressions was indispensible since formulaic expressions relating to framework goals could be useful if the students went to and studied in an English-speaking country. Furthermore, one of the biggest advantages of learning these formulaic expressions was that the students could develop listening skills, especially getting accustomed to sounds of English through exposure to these expressions. Instruction also focused on developing the students' ability to apply grammatical rules.

Principle 2: Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus predominantly on meaning

The term 'focus on meaning' is somewhat ambiguous. It is essential to distinguish two different senses of this term. The first refers to the idea of semantic meaning (i.e. the meanings of lexical items or of specific grammatical structures). The second sense of focus on meaning relates to pragmatic meaning (i.e. the highly contextualized meanings that arise in acts of communication). To provide opportunities for students to attend to and perform pragmatic meaning, a task-based (or, at least, a task-supported) approach to language teaching is needed (Ellis, 2005).

Our lessons focused predominantly on semantic rather than pragmatic meaning. For instance, in Unit 7A "Eating out" of the coursebook "Let's Talk" (Jones, 2008, pp. 30-31), the students learnt the names of different foods such as beef curry, fruit salad, onion soup, and spaghetti, listened to a taped dialogue where they had to identify what a family had for a particular meal, and participated in a role play where they had to decline or accept food (as depicted on cards that they turned over) according to given instructions. Occasions where they had to focus on pragmatic meaning were when they were required to follow instructions given to them in English by the teacher such as discussion in groups on how to make a birthday cake or on what foods they prepare for their family reunion on the weekend.

Principle 3: Instruction needs to ensure that learners also focus on form

Learners need to pay attention to specific forms in the language they are learning. In the context of attempting to communicate accurately, learners discover the magnitude of focusing on the form of the language that they use. Teachers can help them by giving them focused tasks rather than teaching grammar in isolation. However, "focus on form" and "focus on forms" have different connotations in the literature.

Focus on form

Focus on form is the term used to depict the cognitive processes by which learners attend to form incidentally when comprehending or producing communicative messages. Long (1991) uses the term to refer to instruction that engages learners' attention to form while they are primarily focused on message content.

Focus on forms

Long (1991) uses this term to refer to instruction directed at teaching pre-selected linguistic items in activities where the students' primary focus of attention is on form rather than meaning.

Instruction can seek to provide an intensive focus on pre-selected linguistic forms (as in a focus-on-forms approach or in a lesson built around a focused task) or it can offer incidental and extensive attention to form through corrective feedback in task-based lessons (Ellis, 2005).

Opportunities to focus on form were provided for students in all our lessons. These opportunities were through grammar lessons designed to teach specific features; therefore the focus on form was both planned and intensive. The students were given explicit information about target-language structures, which included grammatical rules and the use of metalinguistic terms.

For instance, in our lesson on Unit 6A "How was your trip?" of the coursebook "Let's Talk" (Jones, 2008, pp. 26-27), I asked students to summarise the use of the simple past tense and the pronunciation of irregular verb past forms and the suffix "–ed" in regular verb past forms. The students then worked on activities that gave them structured practice of verb past forms, which provided occasions for teacher-initiated corrective feedback.

There were also examples of incidental and extensive focus on form. For instance, in discussing Your interests in Unit 3A "What are your interests" and Unit 3B "What sports do you like?" of the coursebook "Let's Talk" (Jones, 2008, pp. 12-15), I drew the students' attention to the difference in the use of indefinite article between "play a sport" (eg. play tennis) and "play a musical instrument" (eg. play the guitare). Correction of students' errors was at times occasion for a brief period of "time out" to focus on form in the lesson. In our lesson on Unit 8B "What's on TV tonight?" of the coursebook "Let's Talk" (Jones, 2008, pp. 36-37), I explicated, in response to the error "I see TV", that students had to use the verb *watch* instead of *see* with the noun TV.

Principle 4: Instruction needs to be predominantly directed at developing implicit knowledge of the target language while not neglecting explicit knowledge

In Ellis's (2005) standpoint, explicit knowledge is held consciously, is learnable and verbalisable, and is typically accessed through controlled processing when learners experience some kind of linguistic difficulty in using the L2. In contrast, implicit knowledge is procedural, is held unconsciously, and can only be verbalized if it is made explicit. It is accessed briskly and easily and thus is available for use in rapid, fluent communication.

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Focus on developing students' explicit knowledge was addressed in our teaching. In Unit 15A "Childhood memories" of the coursebook "Let's Talk" (Jones, 2008, pp. 66-67), for example, where the focus was the use of verb past forms, the students were asked to explain differences in pronunciation of verb ending "–ed". On a number of occasions, irregular verbs such as *feel* and *hide* were conjugated on the board for students.

There were also opportunities, however, for students in the lessons to "proceduralise" explicit knowledge (that is, develop implicit knowledge through practice – DeKeyser, 1998). Students were given repeated practice in orally naming pictured activities, which required the use of verb past forms. In another lesson, students were given opportunities to practise verb past forms in response to questions posed by the teacher (What games did you play as a child? What did you like about your childhood? What didn't you like?) and in structured pair work.

I also used implicit feedback to involve students in error correction process. Implicit feedback occurs when the corrective force of the response to learner error is masked, for example, a *recast*, which reformulates a deviant utterance correcting it while keeping the same meaning:

Student: *Why Howard felt sad?*
I – the teacher: *Why did Howard feel sad?*
Student: *Yeah, Why did Howard feel sad?*

Principle 5: Instruction needs to take into account the learner's "built-in syllabus"

Research has shown that there is a consistent process for acquiring language. Initial research revealed that second language learners who had no formal instruction mastered the use of grammatical structures in a fairly consistent order, going through similar learning stages for each structure. This could be called the "natural" developmental process; it is also known as the "built-in syllabus".

Researchers concluded that teachers could best help learners by providing explicit instruction that was compatible with the "natural" developmental process and that built on that process.

Nouns on clothing were the specific grammatical focus of Unit 5A "Shopping and clothing" of the coursebook "Let's Talk" (Jones, 2008, p. 22). In introducing this grammar point to the students, I provided a listening task without planning the grammatical content of the lesson. Students would hear the word "jeans" in plural form. From this knowledge base the students have just developed, I then focused on making key information about grammar point on plurality of the noun of clothing which consists of two integral functional parts. Based on this "natural" developmental process or "built-in syllabus", the students can use similar nouns in plural forms such as shorts and pants.

Principle 6: Successful instructed language learning requires extensive target-language input

If learners do not receive exposure to the target language, they can not acquire it. By and large, the more exposure they receive, the more and the faster they will learn (Ellis, 2005). Our teaching, therefore, endeavoured to turn all lessons into occasions for students to gain extensive input in English.

Language goals

The lessons aimed for more than 70% interactions in English. The students discussed with the teacher in English. I explained to the students how language activities were to be conducted in English, for example, *Work in pairs. One of you should look at Task 2 on page 76, and the other at Task 19 on page 84; Interview your partner and take notes; Complete the chart with a partner; Label the pictures with the words in the box*.

Social goals

Before the lesson began, individual students were greeted in English and there was some discussion on how they were.

Framework goals (classroom management)

Again, in almost all lessons, the target language was used for these goals. The students were given instructions in English, for instance, *Who is missing today? Can you get me some pieces of chalk? Close your books! Write it down on the board! Quiet please!*

Principle 7: Successful instructed language learning also requires opportunities for output

Contrary to Krashen's insistence that acquisition is contingent entirely on comprehensible input, most researchers now acknowledge that learner output also plays a part (Ellis, 2005).

There were numerous opportunities for the students to produce target-language output in all our class meetings. I frequently told students that yes/no answers were insufficient. They were encouraged to use phrases such *as I agree/I don't agree/ I disagree/ I share your point*. Students tended to speak in full clauses and, from time to time, in multiple-clause sentences. Our lesson on Unit 8A "Let's see a movie!" of the coursebook "Let's Talk" (Jones, 2008, pp. 34-35) demonstrated examples of this kind:

I saw Transformer 3 last month, but I didn't like it very much. It was too violent.
I think Kungfu Panda looks exciting and educational.
Cars 2 is playing today.

The students were involved in text creation as well as text manipulation in that they had to use their own linguistic resources to answer questions requiring them to give explanations, make comparisons, express an opinion, and so forth. Our lessons also provided students with 'auto-input' (i.e. learners can attend to the 'input' provided by their own productions) (Ellis, 2003) for instance:

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I think Kungfu Panda looks exciting and educational. Yes, it is educational since it reminds us of inner peace needed for effective actions. We students need inner peace when we study English.

Principle 8: The opportunity to interact in the target language is central to developing proficiency

While it is useful to consider the relative contributions of input and output to acquisition, it is also crucial to acknowledge that both co-occur in oral interaction and that both computational and sociocultural theories of L2 acquisition have viewed social interaction as the matrix in which acquisition takes place (Ellis, 2005).

Almost all student interactions with I - the teacher was in the target language. As has been depicted elsewhere, lesson objectives were negotiated in discussion with the teacher, tasks were discussed, awarding of points was negotiated, and the lesson was appraised. The right and need to speak in English had to be negotiated by both the teacher and the students.

There were numerous instances of our – the teacher's – scaffolding the students' attempts to use the target language. The following are given as examples.

1. The teacher cued students as to the word that they needed, for instance,

I (Teacher): *I like to ride on roller … (Look at the picture), roller coasters.*

2. The teacher cued students as to the appropriate response to a question.

I (Teacher): *What kind of music do you like? I like …*

Student: *I like … pop music.*

On other occasions, I gave students a choice of linguistic structures appropriate to a particular context.

I (Teacher): *You like or you don't like pop music?*

Student: *I like pop music.*

There were a number of occasions where students worked in groups. Interactions between students occurred in the target language.

It is also crucial to give students a choice about the topics that they focused on in class and that it was very motivating for them when they were involved in negotiating these. I also endeavoured to set up opportunities for students to interact with native speakers. I from time to time invited a native English speaker who was our colleague at an evening English center to attend our class for our students to interact with him.

Principle 9: Instruction needs to take account of individual differences in learners

The values of learner diversity are acknowledged by Sarasin (1999) that: "We improve our courses because our classes benefit from the diversity of our students, […]" whereas most Asian teachers 'ignore' learners' ways (Renandya et al., 2001). Therefore, prior to teaching this class, I conducted a questionnaire survey to explore the distribution of learning styles among the students. The questionnaire comprising 44 closed-ended questions suggested by Solomon and Felder (1999) was reproduced in Vietnamese and delivered to the students. The distribution of learning styles among these students is displayed in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
LEARNING STYLE DISTRIBUTION (N = 38)

Dimensions of learning styles		n	%
Perception	Sensing	15	39.47
	Intuitive	23	60.53
Input	Visual	26	68.42
	Verbal	12	31.58
Processing	Active	22	57.89
	Reflective	16	42.11
Understanding	Sequential	28	73.68
	Global	10	26.32

Teaching strategies involve choice of tasks, forms of answer, forms of interaction, and references appealing to the range of learning styles of the class (Table 2).

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TABLE 2:
TEACHING STRATEGIES TO MATCH DIFFERENT LEARNING STYLES

Learning styles	Teaching strategies	Tasks	Forms of answer	Forms of interaction	References
Sensing	images, sounds, video, demos	creations of demos, images	quizzes with accompanying images, audio	pair work, group work	video or audio clips from a media collection
Intuitive	settling and prediction	problem solving	essays that ask for outcome projections	group work	readings from various view points
Visual	use of a video clip, diagram, image or map	mind mapping of concepts (webbing), diagramming	identification on maps, diagrams, required drawings or sketches, read and response	pair work, group work	reference maps, diagrams, pictures
Verbal	summaries, outlines, debates	journaling, peer critiquing	summaries, outlines	group work	observation, reading
Active	class participation	model building, role playing, presentations, surveys/ opinion polls	projects, reports	group work	questionnaires
Reflective	class time for reflection or critical thinking	problem sets, journaling	problem solving	group work	observation, reading
Sequential	outlines, lists, examples	creation of steps, processes, scanning	creation or reenactment of steps, processes	small discussion groups	reference materials of a procedural nature
Global	discussion of concepts	journaling, discussion, relationship construction, mapping, skimming	essay questions	large discussion groups	broad based reference materials, newspaper articles, magazines and books

Principle 10: In assessing learners' target-language proficiency, it is important to examine free as well as controlled production.

Assessment should measure how proficiently learners can communicate. Our oral test sought to combine free and controlled production of language. The students were invited to choose a topic such as shopping and clothing to think and talk about. Talking about a topic is a guided or controlled speaking process. However, within the topic, the students could talk about that topic as freely as they could. After the free talk about the topic, the students would have to answer some questions posed by I - their teacher – built on the content of their talk. Nonetheless, students are not required to provide a particular "right answer". A communicative task that calls for a constructed response (with no single "right answer") is more like authentic communication and is therefore the best measure of learners' target-language proficiency.

IV. CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

Teaching is an interesting profession with new approaches expanding teachers' roles and giving teachers more insights into how to help their learners (Larsen-Freeman, 1988). A key to getting and keeping students effectively immersed in English language acquisition primarily lies in how Principles of Instructed Language Learning are effectively applied. Our reflection on teaching English through Principles of Instructed Language Learning is our way of continuous learning as Hyman and Rosoff (1987, p. 185) suggest teachers should also become students of teaching.

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Integration of Multicultural Education into English Teaching and Learning: A Case Study in Liaoning Police Academy

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***Abstract*—The multicultural education has become the educational reality all over the world with the deepening and widening of the international and interpersonal communication in economic and cultural spheres. More and more people regardless of race, nationality, language, and culture come together to share the human cultures and make spiritual communication. How to promote smooth and successful interpersonal communication among different peoples, and how to enhance mutual respect and understanding among diverse cultures? The paper takes these issues into account and aims to find appropriate answers. Based on the fundamental theories of multiculturalism and actual practices of multicultural education in America and Canada, the paper discusses the practice and significance of multicultural education in English class in Liaoning Police Academy. This creative multicultural plan adheres to four basic principles, carrying out unique warm-up and after-class activities, such as Cultural Journey Series, Native American's Cultural Nurturing, Cultural Immersion in Growing-up QQ English Group. After one and a half years' multicultural training, 20 minority students build sufficient self-confidence, introducing their respective minority cultures to other students and learning a lot of Chinese traditional cultures and Western cultures. The Han students also reap bountiful harvest, taking active interest in other cultures and mastering basic knowledge and skills to cope with cross-cultural communication. As the accumulation of multicultural educational experience and reflection upon its strengths and limitations are continuously enriched, this multicultural education program will be more efficient, diversified and fascinating.**

***Index Terms*—multiculturalism, multicultural education, English class, cross-cultural communication**

I. Introduction

The first decade of the 21st century has displayed the new trend that more and more people are frequently involved in the activities of cross-cultural communication. This cross-cultural communication between two persons from different countries or ethnic groups is going on in diverse living space ranging from international negotiation table, professional situation to classroom environment. The international experiences indicate that Multiculturalism and multicultural education have become the national policy or the educational routine in such countries constituted by multiple peoples as America, Canada, and Australia. This educational strategy on the basis of Multiculturalism effectively avert interpersonal contradictions and conflicts due to cultural differences or misunderstanding, contributing to creating friendly, trustworthy and harmonious working and learning atmosphere. China is a country with long history of multiethnic habitation and interaction dating back to Qin dynasty. Although China didn't enact the formal law or make the policy as Canadian Multiculturalism or American cultural pluralism, it did implement and carry forward the principles of multiethnic equality, multicultural exchange, mutual learning and common development. The paper just describes vividly the real experience of the author's multicultural education in and after her English class, giving us a good example to carry out multicultural education via English immersion and sparking the profound thinking about the appropriate approaches of multicultural education in China.

II. Multiculturalism and Multicultural Education: American and Canadian Experiences

A. The Multiculturalism in America and Canada

Individuals who have competencies to operate successfully in two or more different cultures are bicultural or multicultural. Multiculturalism is states in which one has mastered the knowledge and developed the skills necessary to feel comfortable and communicate effectively. (Hoopes, 1979) Goodenough (1976) defined multiculturalism as the "normal human experience." All Americans participated in multicultural group, thus they can be proficient in multiple systems for perceiving, evaluating, believing, and acting according to different cultural environments in which they are participating. Banks (1981) suggested that multiethnic and multicultural education programs can help students expand their cultural competencies to include those required to function effectively in microcultures (subsocieties within the United States contain cultural elements, institutions, and groups who share cultural patterns that are not common to the

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U.S. macroculture, or mainstream culture. The cultures of these groups are called microcultures) in which they are not members.

Given many Canadian domestic circumstances, the leader of Liberal Party brought forth the Multiculturalism as the national policy in the early 1970s in Canada. Its initial objective was to integrate new Canadians into the mainstream through cultural adjustment and mutual understanding. The Canadian government would strengthen the solidarity of the Canadian people by enabling all Canadians to participate fully and without discrimination in defining and building the nation's future. (Wei, 2012) Multiculturalism has been developed from its initial folkloric multiculturalism focusing on equality of status, Canadian identity, personal choice and protection of individual rights to the second stage of institutional multiculturalism stressing social justice and institutional accommodation through removal of discriminatory barriers. The third stage is civic multiculturalism which hopes to foster a sense of belonging and a shared sense of Canadian identity. (Cardozo, 1997) Table 1 (Fleras and Elliott,1999) presents us with the detailed description of the Multiculturalism development in different stages.

TABLE 1
THREE STAGES OF MULTICULTURALISM POLICY

Three Stages of Multiculturalism	*Folkloric Multiculturalism (1970s)*	*Institutional Multiculturalism (1980s)*	*Civic Multiculturalism (1990s)*
Focus	Celebrating differences	Managing diversity	Society building
Reference point	Culture	Structure	Community
Mandate	Ethnicity	Race relations	Citizenship
Magnitude	Individual adjustment	Structural accommodation	Social participation
Problem source	Racial prejudice	Systemic discrimination	Social exclusion
Problem solution	Cultural sensitivity	Employment equity	Social inclusion
Key metaphor	Mosaic	Level playing field	belonging

All in all, as a national policy to mitigate the interethnic contradiction and promote multicultural exchange and understanding, Multiculturalism has attained its original goal and continues to add new connotation into its core ideology and new strategy into its concrete policy with the social progress and demographic change in Canada.

B. The Multicultural Education in America and Canada

The multicultural education is a specific educational strategy in which the student's cultural background is viewed as positive and essential in developing classroom instruction and a desirable school environment. It is not a new concept in America because it has existed since 1920s when educators began writing about intercultural education and ethnic studies. The goal of multicultural education in America at that time was to make the dominant majority populations more tolerant and accepting toward first and second generation immigrants to maintain national unity and social control. (Montalto, 1978) The American multicultural education is based on the following beliefs: (1) The U.S. culture has been fashioned by the contributions of many diverse cultural groups into an interrelated whole; (2) Cultural diversity and the interaction among different groups strengthen the fibre of U.S. society; (3) Teachers and other professional educators must assume a leadership role in creating an environment that is supportive of multiculturalism. (Bidol et al. 1977) In most of American schools, they develop effective instructional strategies to implement the essential principles of multicultural education; they pay more attention to the cultural democracy, instilling the ideology of racial, gender, and status equality into the students' minds; they advocate promoting students' critical thinking, pursuing cooperative learning strategy. From 1982 to 1992, the school reform cycle occurred. However, the reformers and critics were more concerned with furthering their own professional career and winning election, which resulted in the poor progress in education. Nevertheless, many educators and researchers developed some powerful intervention strategies to integrate schools and their communities into a cooperative, supportive endeavour, helping to initiate a program of accelerated learning over 700 schools. With the ideology of cultural pluralism popularized among Americans, the multicultural democracy started to reform the school system, the multicultural education being the focus of the reform which monitored the achievement of all groups including language minority, ethnic minority, social class, and gender, making specific curricular assessment, and faculty recruitment plans for language acquisition. In 1990s, bilingual education helped the immigrant student to succeed. The educational practices turned out that multicultural education was a necessary response to the growing diversity in the nation like the United States. This educational ideology taught students to respect and value diversity, to cherish and empower their own communities. The school administrations seeked to improve the efficiency of the current system, leaving sexism, racism, and class privilege intact. The educators built trust and solidarity with the parents, the students, and the communities across cultural boundaries. Teachers entered the school improvement struggle, assisting their students from different minorities in finding their own identities, their cultural roots, and achieving academic success in the unfair world.

Multicultural education is carried on among all the Canadians involving diverse ethnic groups, language groups and religious groups for the purpose of promoting mutual respect for all the citizens. The early educational system checked the features of minorities and thus reflected a small number of minorities who contributed to the Canadian building. Conversely, the multicultural education stressed various cultural traits of diverse peoples and their unique contribution to the Canadian society. Every school is an element of multicultural society, which helps the students to find out the real content of this colourful society, educating them to build a more brilliant future together. Generally speaking, there are

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two levels of multicultural education in Canada: social education and school education. The former one focuses on the macro educational policies or programs, and the educational activities held by the social organizations, while the latter one includes two parts, the overt education in the classroom activities, and the covert education in after-class activities. From the perspective of macro environment, the social multicultural reality existed in Canada is a kind of educational factor which definitely contributes to mutual understanding and common learning. This is an imperceptible multicultural education, just like the spring breeze and rain to change the natrual world softly. The school teaching system transmits and develops multiculturalism, cultivating the students' multicultural awareness. In terms of textbooks compiling, the Canadian educational institutions try to compile the teaching materials reflecting racial, cultural and regional differences and advantages. Compared with the social education, the school multicultural education is more systematic and convergent. The multicultural contents are integrated into regular courses, for instance, the curriculum in Ontario contains wide range of multicultural contents, from the origin and building of Canada, the western development and social change in the courses of Grade 7 and 8, to the tolerant values, cultural tradition, cultural conflicts and coping strategies in the courses of Grade 9 and 10. As a matter of fact, the multicultural education is a constant process of cultural immersion in which the students are gradually cultivated to think in multicultural perspective, learning to appreciate and respect the cultural traditions and values of other ethnic groups.

III. A Case Study of Multicultural Education in Liaoning Police Academy

Although multicultural education is an exotic term, the principle and the practice of multicultural education have been the important components of ethnic educational progress in the whole area of China, especially in the minority areas. With more and more minority students coming from the southwest and northwest parts to the inland higher education institutions, the multiethnic diversity and multicultural education grow to the focus of attention in the university accepting minority students. How to provide them with high-quality educational programs and management strategies to live up to the practical and unique requirements of the minority students is the major task and the critical challenge for the administrative departments and classroom teachers in these universities. The paper is going to illustrate these issues from two perspectives.

A. The Supportive Foundation of Multicultural Education: The Macro Administration

The educators in minority areas excel in multicultural education thanks to the long-history reality of multiethnic integration and interaction. Whereas, teaching professionals in the inland university (Minzu University of China is exceptional) are mostly unfamiliar with minority education, even knowing nothing about ideology and methodology of multicultural education. For all that, the main administrative department of Liaoning Police Academy set us a good example to explore management strategies and priority policies concerning 100 minority students from Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region.

In order to respond to the call of Ministry of Education which proposes that greater efforts should be exerted to support Xinjiang minority education in Twelfth Five-year Plan, increasing the number of inland college students from Xinjiang minority areas, the administrative departments concerned in Liaoning Police Academy made adequate preparations for greeting and arranging for 100 minority students who finished their one-year preparatory courses in the School of Education, Ningxia University. A special department entitled Western Teaching and Administrative Office was set up, and a minority administrator from Xinjiang Police Academy was invited specifically for coordinating minority students' work. According to the author's statistical data collected from outside campus network of Liaoning Police Academy, there are three important news regarding Xinjiang minority students among 69 items, and 18 campus dynamic news among 304 news from Sep. 21, 2011 to Dec. 18, 2012. Luxin, the Vice Minister for Ministry of Education has visited these newly-admitted college students from Xinjiang for two times, conveying the great care and active encouragement for minority students. These freshmen from Xinjiang are responsible for promoting national solidarity, maintaining the harmonious stability of the country, and protecting the healthy development and social order through working hard in the academy. Figure 1 is the report of Luxin's addressing the minority students after the opening ceremony of national teaching contest for 34 police academies on Aug. 8, 2012.

Figure1: Luxin, Vice Minister of Ministry of Educaiton, addressed the minority students from Xinjiang.

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During these two years, whenever the important festivals of Islam came, such as Kurban Festival and Fast-breaking Festival, the chief leaders took active part in their celebrations. Figure 2 is the group photo taken in the Muslim Dining Hall immersed in a festival atmosphere. They tasted the Muslim festive dishes; they piped up and danced; they enjoyed their traditional and cultural celebration with other ethnic brothers, which in itself reflected the fact that multiethnic integration and mutual understanding could be realized through frequent contact and equal communication sincerely and consciously. Besides the festive gathering, the administrators and the class teachers adopted more responsible attitudes towards these minority students, opening special remedial classes in English and Chinese in view of their weak knowledge in these two subjects and relatively difficult textbooks. Abundant recreational activities attracted talented minority students to take part in dance and song competition, and even yearly English Speech Contest. Admittedly, Liaoning Police Academy has become an epitome of conducting multicultural education actively from the macro perspective, and the positive atmosphere of mutual respect and multicultural understanding on the campus has been shaped.

Figure 2: Celebration of the Kurban Festival in Liaoning Police Academy on Nov.8, 2011.

B. The New Concept and Pattern of Multicultural Education in and after English Class: The Micro Teaching Activity

Fortunately, the author, as a researcher of multicultural education for more than 8 years, encountered nearly 20 minority students in her English class for the first time in September 2011, which offered her a stage to practice the principles of multicultural education and display educational strategies in a unique way with Chinese feature. In reality, the police academy as a semi-military administration college tends to focus on military training rather than build cultural atmosphere, especially multicultural atmosphere. However, owing to the integration of these minority freshmen into our campus and into our English class, the author actually devised different English plans to be compatible with the new ingredient in this multicultural class.

A suvey on cross-cultural communication learning requirements: the author's project of Cross-cultural Communication Competence through Network and Field Training (No. WYYB110088) in Liaoning Province was undertaken from September 2011. At the beginning, the author conducted a survey on the students' learning requirements and recommendations. There are 70 effective questionnaires. According to their answers, there are 62 percent of the total subjects who aren't familiar with this newly-developed discipline: Cross-cultural Communication; 62 percent consider this discipline has close relation with their future police career; 68 percent take teacher's instruction and network self-study as the most effective way to learn this discipline; the subjects who are interested in American, English and Canadian cultures account for 22 percent, 22 percent and 19 percent respectively; 89 percent consider their present English competence cannot help them fulfill the task of cross-cultural communication; 67 percent and 54 percent of the total subjects hope to improve their cross-cultural communication competence through selective course and field training. This survey reflects the concept of equality promoted by multicultural education. The teacher and the students are equal partners in the process of education, so the teacher must respect and listen to the voices and suggestions of the students, giving them some power to make decision. On the basis of the first-hand analytical data, the author can devise appropriate teaching plan for English class to meet the needs and arouse the interests of the students so as to realize the actual purpose of multicultural education.

Basic principles to follow in multicultural English class: it is really a challenge for the author to teach college English to the students from five peoples including the Han nationality (72 percent of the total students), the Uygur nationality (10 percent), the Mongolian nationality (5 percent), and the Kazak nationality (3 percent). In order that every one in the classroom could get equality and respect, the author made it clear to all that this English classroom is a typical multicultural classroom where equal respect and participation among all classmates are ensured. In the first class, the author delcared the following principles: (1) to respect all the students, and every student is encouraged to participate into the class activities equally; (2) to respect all the students' languages (though English is the main language in use), and they can use their native tongues if necessary; (3) to promote multiethnic cultural exchange and understanding through regular cultural introduction and interaction; (4) to enhance the students' cross-cultural communication competence by intentional teaching and training in and after English class.

Creative multicultural teaching plan for English class: in order to help students enhance their basic multicultural abilities in a relatively short period, the author spent one term on introducing the theoretical foundation of cross-cultural

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communication, the basic framework of the Western culture, the Han culture, and the Muslim culture, carrying out adequate practices of intercultural communication.

Unique warm-up activities: the main task for an English teacher in a multiethnic classroom is to attract the attention of all the students just at the beginning of the class. Thus, it is vital to devise the warm-up activity with ethnic peculiarity and cultural diversity. The author paid attention to different cultural and linguistic features, taking every cultural trait into account. The Muslim religion and cultures are unfamiliar to most students of the Han nationality, so the author gives priority to the introduction of Muslim culture. For example, the origin, the ceremony, and the modern features of Kurban, Fast-breaking and Nulusi Festival were introduced to the students as the first cultural stop of the Cultural Journey Series to bring students from different ethnic groups closer together through understanding "the other culture" with respect and appreciation. The author specifically made a series of PPTs entitled Cultural Journey Series including Muslim culture, traditional culture of the Han nationality, and of course, the Western culture. Figure 3, and Figure 4 are some of PPTs that the author used in the first part of English class as Knowing Other Culture warm-up activities. Apart from these attractive PPTs with texts, pictures, and videos, the author adopted various approaches to transmit colourful cultures, such as ask-and-answer approach (teacher-to-student interaction), case study approach (text discussion), and individual introduction approach (student-centered speech). When we were learning the Mongolian culture, the student Bazhen from Mongolian nationality came forward bravely and confidently. He introduced the origin, the function, and the significance of Obo. It was the first time for us to know that Obo was used for counting the number of the dead soldiers after the battle. When the soldier left for the front, he would put one stone on a fixed place on his tribal boundary. This heap of stones was erected strikingly on the endless grassland. Once the battle was over, the fighters came back to take away the stones, and the left ones indicated how many fighters had died upon the battlefield. But today Obo is full of fertile essence besides the markings of roads and boundaries, intended to worship the residence of the spirit. Although the number of Obo has declined recently, its symbolic meanings and spiritual guidance are promoted excessively. It will become the symbol and inner resources of Mongolian nationality. Bazhen's typical historical and cultural introduction regarding his nationality is only one of approaches that the author used as the unique warm-up activities. Once the student could fulfill this task in English, then he or she would use English. If it was difficult for them to introduce their history or culture in English, then they could choose Chinese. At last, the author would try to translate their main ideas into English in order to realize the goal of approaching the culture through English learning.

Figure 3: The Cultural Journey Series: the origin of Muslim Kurban Festival in Chinese.

Figure 4: The Cultural Journey Series: the introduction of Chinese Spring Festival in English.

Native American's cultural nurturing: the author concentrates on the Canadian Studies, especially the Canadian Aboriginal studies, so she can provide the students with plenty of Aboriginal cultural resources in and after English class as an important ingredient of cross-cultural communicaiton training. The electronic edition of her newly-published book entitled On the Status Quo and Development Policies of the Canadian Aboriginal Peoples was uploaded onto Multicultural Education and Policing English Network and Field Training Platform. Thus, the students could have a brand-new perspective to understand native Americans including their colonial history, their long-standing tradition, their splendid cultures, their honorable values and morals, and their scientific vision and sense. Furthermore, the author introduced her American Indian friend teaching in Liaoning Normal University to the students through reading her papers and sharing their exchanged E-mails. These E-mails are good examples to reflect the real experience of cross-cultural communication between a Chinese and an American Indian, which assists the students in having keen insights into the native American's inner hearts. The following is one of Linda's E-mail to the author, and you must marvel at an American Indian's seriousness in her work and faithfulness to her friend. This is the positive cultural exchange and

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meaningful spiritual communication from which all of us can enhance our mutual understanding and cultural awareness, promoting international and interpersonal friendship.

09:53, Nov. 4, 2011, Friday

Dear Vicky,

Thank you for sending the picture--it is a good one! I did enjoy the conference so much, it was a great success.

Also, I've reviewed your PPT again and am so impressed. I don't see anything about it that needs to be changed, in particular. It is a great introduction to the culture; one thing to watch for: separate the American Indians from the First Nations People of Canada. While the borders were artificially created by governments, and the native peoples flow back and forth readily across the borders, they do by now identify themselves by these different name categories. Actually, all native people identify themselves by their tribal names rather than by the artificial designations that the two governments hav imposed upon them. But for most purposes, either the terms "American Indian" or First Nations" is appropriate. The other indigenous group in Canada is the Inuit. I have a whole slide show of Inuit pictures from the Arctic Circle that I present. I was the founder and organizer of a cultural to cultural and spiritual to spiritual project called" Journey to the Arctic's People" for a good number of years. We sent four teams over a four year period to the Arctic Circle. Someday, I'd love to go back.

Another thing I'm puzzled about: in the U.S. and Canada, we do not refer to ourselves as Aboriginals.... To me, an aboriginal is from Australia or New Zealand and represents a specific group of people. I have a minor degree in Anthropology too, and never remember any other groups being identified as aboriginal... am wondering if this is a Chinese characteristic? Did the Canadian professors who were in attendance at the conference identify First Nations people as aboriginals? No American Indian ever uses that term as a means of identification... so this is a puzzle. I know that Professor Wang (Lily) uses the term, as well. We have discussed it a bit. Even in China, you refer to your ethnic groups as "ethnic" instead of aboriginal. Can you solve this mystery for me?

Vicky, you just have no idea that feelings it gives to me to see a PPT on North American culture, with Chinese characters!! I have several professor friends in Canada who would love to see your PPT and would enjoy it so much. Just the idea, the thought, that a few Chinese academics are interested in the native culture in North America is delightful, validating, and empowering.

Your classes sound wonderfully diverse. Perhaps sometime I can visit one of them? You mentioned the remote frontier--it is my heart's desire to go there before I have to leave China (which should be a couple of years away, at least. I will stay as long as I can).

Also, I want to send you Kevin Locke's bio with pictures but must find it first. While I'm looking for it, I'm going to share with you an American Indian funeral PPT. Your help with 'our' Locke project is greatly appreciated. I have a number of American Indian books you can borrow, if you want to.

Best, have a good weekend,

Linda

The American Indian funeral PPTs attached to this letter were appreciated and commented by the students. This was an intuitive way to know about the culture of the native American's formal funeral ceremony. In the PPT of A Wake for An Indian Warrior, he (the dead marine) earned the eagle feather from his people, and the wake services were held for three days in order to pay respects to this 21 year old Marine who was killed in Iraq on January 14, 2006. An eagle feather rested on his body and the mournful tune of organ and bagpipe reverberated among all the grave pictures. Our students learnt a vivid cultural lesson through watching and tasting every section of funeral procession with detailed text explaining, multidimensional pictures displaying, and background music ringing. Figure 4 exhibits the last segment of the funeral process: As a Lakota, the Marine was honored during a three day wake service at the Little Wound School in Kyle, SD.

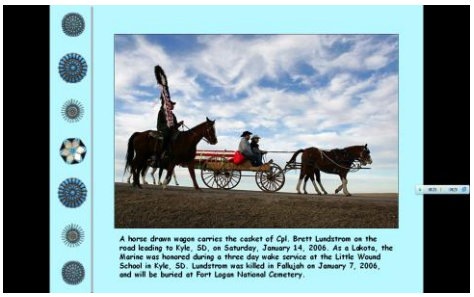

Figure 5: The American Indian's funeral procession "A Wake for An Indian Warrior".

Diversified and colourful after-class activities: the author not only devised creative and attractive multicultural English class, but also expand the students' English learning space after English class. These fortunate students can exchange ideas, share cultural fruits, and get cultural immersions by means of taking part in the Growing-up (an English QQ group, Figure 5 gives us the communication recording of group members on Dec. 31, 2012) activities, and logining into the learning platform of Multicultural Education and Policing English Network and Field Training Platform which has adquate cultural and English resources including several course wares of the author's cultural books, the classical

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English movies and E-books representing cultural differences and traits, the virtual platform for cross-cultural communication practice in English. On all accounts, the students can find various opportunities online or offline to fulfill their destinies of understanding the other cultures and their own cultures via English tool. Apart from that, the author also encouraged her students to take part in the performance of the play adapted from a text in Intensive Reading, Book 3. It was about the intense contradictions between the father and his three children due to generation gap. 12 students took part in the three-act performance after careful and repeated rehearsals, and other 27 students enjoyed watching, thinking deeply about the cultural conflict due to the concept differences. Figure 6 is one of the pictures taken in the second act happened in the dining room. This performing activity through students' personal participation can not only arouse their desires for learning English language, but also increase multiple opportunities to touch and experience the culture itself behind the language, which constitutes the cultural essence.

Figure 6: The Growing-up QQ Group activities on the last day of 2012.
On the right is the list of uploaded materials of multicultural education.

Figure 7: Six students are performing seriously in the second act of the play.

IV. Conclusions

The multicultural education has become the educational reality and common consensus around the world along with the Global Village forming. Undoubtedly, interpersonal communication regardless of race, ethnic group, nationality, gender, and cultural background will become prevalent and universal. In view of this mega trend, every world citizen is responsible for learning and understanding the other culture through formal multicultural education in school or informal self-study through other different approaches. The English teacher, functioning as the cultural bridge, has the inescapable duty to transmit the best of the Eastern and Western cultures. The integration of multicultural education into English class is the best combination. The author's creative English plans for students coming from different peoples offer them precious opportunites to proudly present their own cultural heritages in front of the classmates who are unfamiliar with their traditions and cultures. It has been proved that the author's creative ideas and persistent practices achieve the great success. 20 minority students from Xinjiang are very satisfied with one and half years' English learning in Liaoning Police Academy because they can maintain their self-confidence and introduce their ethnic cultures to the Han students, and meanwhile, they can learn a lot of Chinese traditional cultures and Western cultures through English immersion. For the majority students, they also reap bountiful harvest in cultural garden. They have deep understanding of minority cultures owing to personal communication with minority classmates and systematic cultural learning in and after English class. This is an exceptional harvest on the campus. In reality, this is only the beginning for the author to carry out the multicultural education. As the accumulation of the educational experiences and reflection upon its strengths and limitations are continuously enriched, the author's multicultural plan in and after English class will be more effective, diversified and fascinating.

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Stylistics and ESP: A Lexico-grammatical Study of Legal Discourse

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***Abstract*—This paper is a stylistic investigation of the lexical and grammatical patterns in a selection of legal discourse. Employing linguistic theories derived from the postulations of Hutchinson and Waters, Dudley-Evans and St. John and Strevens on English for Specific Purposes (ESP) as well as Halliday's scale and category grammar as its theoretical and analytical framework, the study exemplifies the step by step procedure and the effectiveness of stylistic analysis in revealing the lexical and grammatical complexities of the language of law. Drawing on the relationship between stylistics and ESP, the research focuses on jargon, contextual collocations, tautology, pleonasms, archaisms, periodic and subordinate clause structures for which legal documents are well known. It observes that the need to avoid ambiguity and loopholes which may be exploited by opponents of the law – which in itself is the overriding concern of the drafters of legal documents – often paradoxically results in ambiguity itself. The study concludes that, stylistically, the language of law is at once necessary, artificial, generally inaccessible and redundant.**

***Index Terms*—lexico-grammatical, jargon, pleonasm, periodic, collocations**

I. Introduction: Stylistics, ESP and Registers

In the past few decades, there have been striking advances in the discipline of stylistics resulting inevitably in increasing focus on its interdisciplinary potential. Some of the fields which stylistics has partnered are discourse analysis, pragmatics, literary criticism, eco-criticism, error analysis and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). However, the relationship between stylistics and ESP has often been neglected by linguistic scholars. In its relationship with stylistics, ESP can safely be described as a systematic study of, and indeed a modern replacement for, register.

ESP can be defined as the study of registers or varieties of specialised English usage. It is a discipline in which linguists focus attention on the language of specific disciplines and how its main function as a means of communication is performed. Ike (2002) draws an analogy between it and the clothes we wear as well as the chameleon in the sense that the clothes and the chameleon change their colours to suit specific contexts and environments. According to him:

…language is not only comparable to the clothes we wear, of which there are different ones for different occasions, but also comparable to the animal, chameleon, which changes colour with every environment. Like the chameleon, with its innumerable colours, English does not only have regional, social and functional varieties; it also has varieties for specific purposes. Thus, English has a variety for law, engineering, business, journalism, science and technology, religion etc (p.7).

ESP studies the nature of communication in the various disciplines and professions. In doing this, it focuses attention on two concepts which are of interest to stylistics – registers and jargon. We shall return to these concepts presently. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.19) argue that 'ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning'. A few other scholars describe it as 'the teaching of English for any purpose that could be specified'. Others describe it more precisely as 'the teaching of English used in academic studies or the teaching of English for vocational or professional purposes'.

In almost all definitions of ESP, scholars seem to be agreed that ESP studies varieties of English which are – though standard for the most part – in slight contrast to general English. This can be seen in especially the definitions of ESP proffered by scholars such as Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Strevens (1988) and Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998). These definitions tend to identify the nature of ESP in terms of absolute (essential) and variable (non essential) characteristics. Strevens (1988, pp.1-2), for instance, makes a distinction between four absolute and two variable characteristics as follows:

Absolutes

ESP consists of English language teaching which is:

i) designed to meet specified needs of the learner;

ii) related in content (ie in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;

iii) centred on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc; and

iv) in contrast with General English.

Variables

ESP may be, but is not necessarily:

i) restricted as to the language skills to be learned (eg reading only); and

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ii) not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

In spite of this definition, the debate about the nature of ESP became quite considerable despite the fact that the approach had been in use by then for over three decades. At the 1997 conference on ESP in Japan, Dudley-Evans offered a modified definition based on Strevens'. This was later revised and published by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, pp.4-5) as follows:

Absolutes

ESP:

i) is defined to meet specific needs of the learner;

ii) makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves; and

iii) is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

Variables

i) ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;

ii) ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English;

iii) ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level;

iv) ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students; and

v) Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

Having already referred to the definition of Hutchinson and Waters (1987), the study considers it fairly accurate to state that a common position in all these definitions is that ESP is slightly different from general English. In fact, Anthony (1997) notes that it is not clear where ESP courses end and general English courses begin because a good many non-specialist ESL teachers and researchers employ an ESP approach since their syllabi are based on analysis of learner needs and their own personal specialist knowledge of English usage for real communication.

Another significant point which emerges from these definitions of ESP and which is germane to this study is the emphasis on grammar, register and jargon. It is significant because these are the chief concerns of stylistics as a discipline. We have noted elsewhere a crucial definition of stylistics by Wikipedia thus:

Stylistics is the study of varieties of language whose properties position that language in context. For example the language of advertising, law, politics, religion, individual authors etc or the language of a period in time, all belong in a particular situation. In other words, they all have 'place'.

and now observe that this definition applies also to ESP, the operative words here being 'language in context' 'law' and 'particular situation.' Both stylistics and ESP study language in context, that is, language as it relates to a profession, a discipline or a situation, and this includes the language of law. They are both interested in language in context at the level of grammar (syntax), register (lexis), discourse, semantics and even genre. In stylistics, these concerns are often grouped under the Neo-Firthian/Hallidayan stylistic concepts of register, province or field of discourse. Crystal and Davy (1986, p.71) argue that these are:

the features of language which identify an utterance with those variables in an extra-linguistic context which are defined with reference to the kind of occupational or professional activity being engaged in….The occupational role of the language-user, in other words, imposes certain restraints on what may be spoken or written…Clear examples of provinces would be the 'language of' (shorthand for 'distinctive set of linguistic features used in') public worship, advertising, science or law….

The term 'registers' itself has attracted some measure of controversy both in stylistics and ESP. It refers to a form of the language considered to be appropriate to a particular social situation or a particular kind of subject matter. Based on the classical concept of decorum, it can be further defined as 'a particular usage required by politeness or decency'. According to Crystal (1987):

Literature reflects the whole of human experience, and authors thus find themselves drawing on all varieties of language (or even on different languages) as part of their expression (Russell, 1996, p.33).

Russell (1996) herself argues for instance that 'a single work of Eliot or Joyce may draw on the registers of commerce, nursery rhyme, religion, philosophy, psychology, demotic speech and popular song'. She goes on to posit that:

the technical register embraces the terminology of thousands of occupations from the making of false teeth through the programming of computers to the building of ships; the scientific register includes the terminology of professions as diverse as nuclear physicist and professor of environmental science, astronomer, and forensic surgeon (Russell, 1996,p.46).

In the words of Yule (2007, pp.210-211):

A register is a conventional way of using language that is appropriate in a specific context, which may be identified as situational (eg in church), occupational (e.g. among lawyers) or topical (eg talking about language). We can recognize specific features that occur in the religious register…, the legal register…and even the linguistic register….

He also goes on to state that one of the defining features of a register is the use of jargon. Jargon itself is a concept which is of major interest to stylistic and ESP scholars and the study will return to it presently. Simpson (2007) refers to the Hallidayan conception of register and points out that:

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a *register*…is defined according to the *use* to which language is being put. In other words, a register shows, through a regular, fixed pattern of vocabulary and grammar, what a speaker or writer is doing with language at a given moment. Registers are often discussed in terms of three features of context known as *field*, *tenor* and *mode* (p.104).

Simpson proceeds to illustrate this with two short pieces of discourse which relate to the field of chemistry:

A quantity of copper sulphate crystals was dissolved in a beaker containing 200ml of H20. The aqueous solution was then heated.

(1) I was just sayin', Jimmy, that me and my mate Will were putting some copper sulphate stuff into a jug of water the other day. It was bloody great fun.

and observes that if we specify that the language event should take the form of written interaction between a student and a lecturer then these parameters will strongly constrain the sort of text type that is anticipated. Consequently, only the first sentence above is appropriate to the demands of the language of chemistry. Its vocabulary and grammar confirm its field of discourse/province/register as that of science (chemistry). The same can be said of any discourse on legal language. This phenomenon is of great interest to stylistics and ESP.

Leech (1969, p.9) describes register as the role of the communication and adds:

The ROLE of a piece of language is the place it has in the manifold patterns of human activities and institutions. Types of language which can be more obviously pigeon-holed as performing different roles are legal English, scientific English, liturgical English, advertising English, the English of journalism, all corresponding to public institutions which we acknowledge and identify with little difficulty. All these varieties of English may be comprehended in the notion of REGISTER….

Registers then, like dialects, are often seen as different 'Englishes' because they are often distinguished by special features of semantics, vocabulary, grammar and sometimes phonology. As Leech goes on to observe, the 'Englishes' of different roles are most clearly differentiated by special vocabulary: legal English by 'fossilized' forms like 'hereinafter' in addition to an extensive technical vocabulary.

Wales (2011) proffers perhaps one of the most elaborate and significant postulations on the concept of register when she refers to it as a concept employed in linguistic anthropology, sociolinguistics and stylistics to refer to a variety of language defined according to the situation. She opines:

It is part of the communicative competence of every speaker that he or she will constantly switch usages, select certain features of sound, grammar, lexis, etc., in different situations of everyday life….All these uses of language serve or index different social roles….The codification of the significant linguistic features which determine overall the style of the register was much to the fore in Britain in the 1960s, particularly Michael Halliday and later systemic linguists.

and then goes on to add:

it is probably easiest to see registers as particular situational configurations of linguistic resources quite specifically contextually determined….Register is thus a useful flexible concept: we can appreciate genres for their shared elements; but no two registers will ever be identical (pp.361-363)

This Hallidayan view of the notion of register is also inherent in the opinion of Coupland (2007, pp.12-13) who points out that:

Register is language organized in relation to 'what use is being made of language'. Halliday treats register, or 'language according to use', as a plane of semantic organization, which can be specified through the concepts of *field*, *mode* and *tenor*. So a particular register or way of speaking…will have distinctive semantic qualities, reflecting speakers' choices from the whole meaning potential of the language…. Register or style, in Halliday's conception, is the semantic organization of linguistic choices taking account of communicative purposes and circumstances.

Thus, register is as much about the 'what' of language use, such as what is discussed and in what terms, as it is about the 'how' of language use. There is no act of speaking without a register or style dimension at work within it. Greenbaum and Nelson (2009, p.4), on their part, describe registers as 'varieties of language associated with specific uses and communicative purposes,' whereas Matthews (2007,p.339) writes of it as 'a set of features of speech or writing characteristic of a particular type of linguistic activity or a particular group when engaging in it…'. Finally, Leech (2008, p.13) argues that the register scale:

handles various registers or roles of linguistic activity within society, distinguishing, for example, spoken language from written language; the language of respect from the language of condescension; the language of advertising from the language of science.

From these definitions, it is clear that the concerns of both stylistics and ESP not only overlap but also merge imperceptibly into each other especially when the discourse is on the context and purpose of linguistic communication. The special relationship between stylistics and ESP is further clarified in spite of the differences in their origins.

II. The Origin and Types of ESP

Despite the convergence in the modern concerns and approaches of ESP and stylistics especially with regard to the varieties of English and jargon, their respective histories present quite a different scenario. Stylistics, it has been noted elsewhere, traces its origin from three classical Greek disciplines namely rhetoric, poetics and dialectics through the Middle Ages to the European Romantic and French traditions of 'Explication de Texte' and then through the French

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'stylus' – a writing instrument. ESP, on the hand, has a more recent history which is often divided into three watersheds. These three watersheds include a Brave New World, revolution in linguistics and renewed focus on learning psychology.

The first of these phases in the development of ESP is the aftermath of World War II and the resulting expansion in the linguistic and cultural influence of the United States of America. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) suggest that two key historical periods are crucial to the development and expansion of ESP. According to them:

…the Second World War brought with it an age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale. For various reasons, most notably the economic power of United States in the post-war world, the role [of international language] fell to English (p.6).

Secondly, the Oil Crisis of the early 1970s resulted in a great deal of the money and technology flowing into the oil-rich countries. The language of this knowledge was English. The consequence of this was the inevitable pressure which was exerted on the language teaching profession to deliver the goods. Thus, whereas English had previously decided its own destiny, it now became subject to the wishes, needs and demands of people other than language teachers (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p.7).

The third factor was the revolution in linguistics. This revolution occurred in the sense that whereas traditional linguistic scholarship was basically prescriptive and descriptive of the theoretical aspects of language, those who pioneered the revolution in linguistics began to focus on the ways in which language is used in real communication rather than on how it ought to be used. For instance, they discovered that spoken and written English are different in several respects. In other words, given the particular context in which English is used, the variant of English will change. This idea was developed. If language varies in different contexts and situations, then modifying language teaching to meet the needs of learners in specific contexts would be a natural consequence. Consequently, the late 1960s and the early 1970s witnessed several attempts to describe English for Science and Technology (EST). According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Ewer and Latorre, Swales, Selinker and Trimble were the prominent pioneer descriptive EST Scholars. Others include Balogun (1979) and Okunnuga (1979). It is this consideration therefore which makes it possible for the language of specific disciplines such as law, despite its arcaneness, to attract the interest of ESP scholars.

The last factor which influenced the rise of ESP has more to do with psychology than with linguistics. Rather than simply focus on the method of language delivery, there was renewed focus on the way in which learners acquire language and the differences in the ways language is acquired. Learners were seen to employ different learning strategies, employ different skills, enter with different learning schemata, and be motivated by various needs and interests. Therefore, focus on the needs of the learners became as important as the methods employed in the teaching of language. Planning specific courses to better meet those individual needs was the natural result of this phenomenon. The slogan thus became learner-centred or learning-centred.

Apart from the difference in history between ESP and stylistics, there is also a slight divergence in their formal subdivisions or types. Unlike stylistics which is often formally divided into such types as literary, linguistic, formalist, cognitive, feminist, functional, critical, pragmatic and pedagogical stylistics, ESP types are slightly more situational. But like discourse analysis, ESP and modern stylistics focus a great deal of attention on contextual variation in language use. The main types of ESP identified by Carter (1983) include:

i) English as a restricted language exemplified by the language of air traffic controllers, waiters, communication and social media such as text messaging, facebook, twitter etc because, as argued by Mackay and Mountford (1978):

the repertoire required…is strictly limited and can be accurately determined situationally, as might be the linguistic needs of a dining-room waiter or air-hostess….Knowing a restricted 'language' would not allow the speaker to communicate effectively in a novel situation, or in contexts outside the vocational environment (pp.4-5);

ii) English for Academic and Occupational Purposes which in English Language Teaching, combines the two sub-divisions – EAP and EOP – of each major branch of ESP such as English for Science and Technology (EST), English for Business and Economics (EBE) and English for Social Studies (ESS). Legal discourse is often classified under the EOP sub-division of English for Social Studies although others see it as belonging under English as a restricted language; and

iii) English with specific topics, which, to Carter (1983), represents a slight shift in emphasis from purpose to topic in the sense that this type of ESP is uniquely concerned with anticipated future English needs of, for example, scientists requiring English for postgraduate reading studies, attending conferences or working in foreign institutions.

It is clear from the above that ESP, like stylistics, focuses on situational/contextual uses of language, but – in the case of ESP – in professional settings. Both disciplines investigate the ability to communicate successfully or otherwise, stylistics being generally so whereas ESP is occupationally or professionally restricted. Both also study the use of everyday English in formal and informal communication. Therefore, both disciplines pay attention to specialised language use such as register, and, in addition, jargon. Since the language of legal documents is suffused with jargon, this study examines the concept of jargon in some detail in the next section.

III. Jargon in ESP and Stylistics

Jargon refers to a set of specialised words and phrases or other linguistic terminology peculiar to a trade, profession or occupation. The name itself is derived from an Old French word which means 'the twittering (or warbling) of birds'.

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In English, it now has at least three principal meanings. First, it means the technical vocabulary of a science, trade or other hermetic group. This is jargon in its useful, positive sense. In this sense, it is considered essential and indispensable. Second, it also refers to language which is conspicuous for its pretentious syntax and vocabulary, that is, circumlocution and periphrasis. This sense of the term is considered pejorative. Third, jargon can also mean a medley of more than one language or gibberish. Although this sense of the term is now rare, it reflects more than the others the original meaning of the word. Significantly, in informal English, the term 'jargon' is mostly used pejoratively despite definition one above.

Stylistically, that the jargon of definition two above has often overshadowed its use in a more positive sense is unfortunate for occupations such as law, medicine and engineering. In order to solve this problem, a distinction has often been made by ESP and stylistic scholars between what they refer to as 'true jargon' and 'pseudo (popular) jargon'. With this in mind, Ike (2002) for instance argues that there are three main types of jargon namely, true jargon, popular jargon and specialised vocabularies. He elaborates:

True jargon consists of technical words or vocabulary freely used and generally well understood among members of a particular profession. These are mostly of Latin, Greek or French origin. They constitute the larger percentage of technical words in the professions and are made up of single morphemes with or without affixes (p.8).

Concerning popular jargon, Ike observes as follows:

This is so called because it is what most people recognize as jargon in the real sense. On the surface, popular jargon mostly applies to a style of writing embodying long winded and involved expressions, sometimes used for their own sake. It represents a style of writing that is at once verbose, pompous, and overdosed with clichés and hackneyed expressions that mostly add little or nothing to the general meaning of what is written but rather tend to obscure the real meaning to a point of incomprehensibility (p.8).

Finally, he defines specialised vocabulary as 'words or phrases in the profession which embody technical as well as general meanings…words that have different meanings in general English from the meaning in the technical sense' (p.12).

Ike is obviously alluding here to such examples in legal style of referring to a child as a 'minor' thus converting this general English expression to an example of legal 'jargon'. Russell (1996) points out that jargon in its real sense can range from slangy expressions to the dignified terminology of the law and other learned professions. She also refers to it as 'specialized vocabulary used when expert talks to expert' and states that it is often used for two main reasons as follows:

i) It is a kind of shorthand. Much quicker to refer to a *lien* than to 'a right to retain another person's property pending discharge of a debt'…; and

ii) It is more exact than everyday language; being drawn largely from 'dead' Latin and Greek, it does not change as living English does, altering its connotations or acquiring new meanings (pp.46-47)

This kind of jargon, however unintelligible to the layman, is never obscure as long as it is used in its proper context. But when it is employed by experts to laymen who do not understand it, it is both a form of bad manners and, like pseudo-jargon, a barrier to communication. Pseudo-jargon itself, according to Russell, 'is used in imitation of jargon proper' and 'seeks to impress with learned-sounding abstractions, and the result is a terminology that nobody, not even its users, can clearly understand' (p.47). In this kind of jargon for instance, a speaker or writer prefers 'he resides' to 'he lives'; 'surplus emoluments' to 'extra money'; 'predicated upon the availability of' rather than 'because of' or 'depends on'. Yule (2007, pp.210-211) links the concepts of register and jargon closely and states as follows:

One of the defining features of a register is the use of jargon, which is special technical vocabulary associated with a specific area of work or interest. In social terms, jargon helps to create and maintain connections among those who see themselves as 'insiders' in some way and to exclude 'outsiders'. This exclusive effect of specialized jargon…often leads to complaints about what may seem like 'jargonitis'.

Another stylistic scholar, Wales (2011), refers to the concept of jargon in the sense of easy semantic shift from bird noises to unintelligible human language, and then to a register or variety of language which non-users fail to understand because of the kind of specialised vocabulary used. In her opinion:

Different professions and disciplines have of necessity evolved their own terminologies for specialised needs, from science to stylistics, marketing to the internet; and jargon can be used quite neutrally to describe these. What is often objected to, however, is the (sometimes willful) manipulation of jargon for obfuscation, pomposity or mere verbosity… (p.242).

This distinction between true jargon and pseudo jargon is also implicit in the contentions of Crystal and Davy (1986, p.210) when they opine as follows:

It is usual to regard as technical terms only those words which appear to have a very precise reference, and often what are believed to be less exact items are classified under such headings as 'argot', 'slang', 'cant' and 'jargon'.

as well as in what Matthews (2007,p.208) refers to as 'the ordinary sense of technical or pseudo-technical vocabulary.' Orwell's complaints about the 'lack of precision…mixture of vagueness and sheer incompetence … characteristic of modern English prose' featuring 'dying metaphors, pretentious diction and meaningless words' refers obviously to popular jargon. According to Orwell (1981):

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Bad writers, and especially scientific, political and sociological writers, are nearly always haunted by the notion that Latin or Greek words are grander than Saxon ones, and unnecessary words like *expedite, ameliorate, predict, extraneous, deracinated, clandestine, sub-aqueous* and hundreds of others constantly gain ground from their Anglo-Saxon opposite numbers….The result, in general, is an increase in slovenliness and vagueness (pp.737-738).

From the foregoing therefore, it is fairly certain that jargon, whether 'true' or 'pseudo-', is, for stylistics and ESP, of special importance in the consideration of the language of specific disciplines such as law. Sometimes, the boundary between both types of jargon appears blurred, but legal discourse is often criticized for being replete with them. In the following sections, the study exemplifies this with the lexical and grammatical features of legal language.

IV. The Language of Legal Documents

Almost every aspect of human existence is circumscribed by legal restrictions, most of which are codified in the form of legal documents. Law itself is composed of the entire fixed body of principles which regulate conduct and are enforceable in the courts. It is therefore a composite process of activities including the drawing up of statutes to the contracting of agreements between individuals all of which are recorded in a written form. Since it is through such documents that rights are conferred and obligations imposed on us – tasks which are often complicated – we need to be able to read them. As such, these laws need to be able to withstand the scrutiny and tests of any individuals curious about these obligations. There must be no loopholes in their drafting. As Crystal and Davy (1986, p.193) point out:

Whoever composes a legal document must take the greatest pains to ensure that it says exactly what he wants it to say and at the same time gives no opportunities for misinterpretation…. when a document is under scrutiny in a court of law, attention will be paid only to what, as a piece of natural language, it appears actually to declare …and if the composer happens to have used language which can be taken to mean something other than he intended, he has failed in his job.

As they go on to observe, of all the uses of language, legal discourse as reflected in its documents is perhaps the least communicative in that it is designed not so much to enlighten language users at large as it is to allow one expert to register information for scrutiny by another. Legal writers, who are driven by the need to eschew ambiguity as much as possible, are pulled precisely in the same direction. The result is obfuscation and inaccessibility to the general public. Russell (1996, p.180) observes that lawyers 'write in "bad" -- that is, clumsy and obscure English,' but nevertheless admits that:

The use of jargon in legal documents is usually justified on the grounds of convenience and brevity: lawyers know exactly what they mean by their technical terms; spelling them out so that laymen could understand them would consume large amounts of time, energy, and space (p.184).

V. Lexical Features

The vocabulary of legal discourse can be said to conform to the following three basic principles, cast mnemonically as three p's namely, 'precision', 'preservation' and 'prestige'. Its arcaneness and essential inaccessibility result from a reluctance to experiment with new words and thereby risk instability and ambiguity of meaning with the possible consequence of invalidation of agreements and contracts. As we have observed earlier, legal jargon, being drawn largely from 'dead' languages such as Latin, Old French and sometimes classical Greek, is preferred by the drafters of legal documents because it does not alter its connotations or acquire new meanings. Agreements, contracts, treaties and seals rendered in such words remain valid for decades. Also, lawyers, in their quest for precision of terminology, frequently have recourse to established, arcane words – often in groups of two or three synonyms to make up for any perceived imprecision – because they are sometimes more exact then everyday language.

Another motivation for legal jargon in legal documents is prestige. Its use fosters a feeling of prestige and the maintenance of professional connections among lawyers thus allowing one 'learned gentleman' to communicate exclusively with another as an 'insider', and exclude 'outsiders'. Let us consider some lexical examples with their origins and meaning. They are classified into true jargon, pseudo-jargon, synonyms/pleonasms/tautologies and contextual specialised vocabulary.

A. True Jargon

1. addendum (Latin) an addition; something added
2. affidavit (Latin) a written declaration made upon oath
3. alias (Latin) an assumed name
4. alibi (Latin) the excuse of being elsewhere when a crime was committed
5. arson (Old French; Latin) a crime of willfully setting fire to property for purposes of mischief
6. assault (Old French; Latin) an intentional or reckless act which results in immediate and unlawful violence to another
7. bail (Old French; Latin) money for temporary release of a suspect who must appear in court or it is forfeited
8. battery (Old French; Latin) unlawful physical violence against a person
9. defendant (Old French; Latin) a person against whom a court action is brought

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10. equity (Old French; Latin) decisions based on principles of natural justice and fair conduct
11. exhibit (Latin) a document or object produced as evidence in court
12. felony (Old French; Latin) a (serious) crime
13. fiduciary (Latin) trustee; a person who acts on behalf of another in relation to his beneficiary
14. homicide (Old French; Latin) the killing of a human being by another person
15. libel (Old French; Latin) a written offensive material considered injurious or defamatory of another person
16. lien (Old French; Latin) right to retain possession of another's property pending the discharge of a debt
17. litigate (Latin) to bring a lawsuit
18. manslaughter (Old English) the accidental killing of another human being
19. murder (Old English: Latin) the unlawful and willful killing of another human being
20. perjury (Old French; Latin) the offence of giving false evidence under oath in court
21. plaintiff (Old French) a person who brings a civil action
22. proviso (Latin) a clause containing a condition; a condition
23. quash (Old French; Latin) to make void or invalid; cancel
24. res (Latin) matter; issue or object
25. slander (Old French; Latin) a spoken offensive material considered injurious or defamatory of another person
26. subpoena (Latin) under penalty; a writ issued by a court requiring a person to appear in court
27. tort (Old French; Latin) a wrong arising from an act of commission or omission without regard to a contract
28. treason (Old French; Latin) betrayal of, or crime against, one's country
29. trespass (Old French; Latin) to intrude or encroach on another person's private property, privacy and rights
30. writ (Old English) a sealed document ordering a person to do, or refrain from doing, some specified act

As can be seen above, the majority of technical diction of law derives either directly or ultimately from Latin. As we have observed already, being drawn from this 'dead' language as well as Old French ensures precision and stability in meaning for these lexical items. Significantly, a good many of them like 'manslaughter', 'murder', 'quash' and 'trespass' have passed somewhat into general English possibly on account of their being (at least in the case of the first two) native English words. But more fundamentally, these items are examples of true jargon because they do not have exact English equivalents. It is decidedly more convenient and precise to refer to 'lien' than to 'a right to retain another person's property pending discharge of a debt'. Similarly, what single word equivalents can there be in English for words like 'assault', 'fiduciary', 'res', 'tort' and 'treason'? As Russell (1996) points out, 'the definition of *tort*, for example, takes up twelve words in the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*, and still gives us only the most general and therefore vague notion of what it means…'(p.184).

Morphologically also, most of these lexical items have no affixes reinforcing their ease of pronunciation. This is why the drafters of legal documents turn to them again and again. In their syllabic structure, however, there is noticeable variety with words of two and three syllables predominating.

monosyllables	dissyllables	trisyllables	polysyllables
bail	alias	addendum	affidavit
lien	arson	alibi	fiduciary
quash	assault	defendant	
res	battery	equity	
tort	libel	exhibit	
writ	murder	felony	
	plaintiff	homicide	
	slander	litigate	
	treason	manslaughter	
	trespass	perjury	
		proviso	
		subpoena	

This confirms the contention that true jargon consists of lexical items which are morpho-phonemically less complex, and it also refutes the view that the native English word is always shorter than the borrowed Latinate word. The words 'murder' and 'manslaughter' are longer than 'res' and 'tort' for instance. Significantly also, with the exception of the item 'quash' which is a verb, virtually all the lexical items in legal jargon appear to be nouns. This, not surprisingly, is because naming and conceptualization are two of the most important linguistic phenomena in the legal profession. This is not to say, however, that other word classes such as verbs and adverbs do not exist. They do exist, as will be seen presently, but they are totally swamped by the nominals.

B. Pseudo-jargon

Some of the lexical items in legal jargon have crossed over into popular, especially journalistic, usage. These have been so often used in the media reportage that they tend to clichés. These are classified here as popular (pseudo-) jargon because they are 'much sought after'. Here is a list of ten of the most popular of these expressions.

1. ab initio (Latin) from the start
2. amicus curiae (Latin) friend of the court; a person who is not directly involved in a case but advises the court

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3. ex parte (Latin) motion or injunction on behalf of one party only in a court case
4. habeas corpus (Latin) you have the body; an order for a detainee to be brought to court
5. interlocutory injunction (from Latin) a provisional pronouncement in the course of court proceedings
6. locus standi (Latin) a place for standing; the right of a party to appear and be heard in court
7. mens rea (Latin) guilty mind; a criminal intention or knowledge that an act is wrong
8. pari passu (Latin) with equal speed or progress; the right of creditors to receive assets equally from the source
9. prima facie (Latin) at first sight; evidence as it seems at first
10. sub judice (Latin) under judicial consideration; a rule which makes it an offence to make comments which might prejudice a case in court

Here again, the list indicates a predominance of words of Latin origin together with those of Old French in the lexicon of law. Note also that here, unlike true jargon, the expressions are all compounds which may perhaps account for their 'popularity' in the prestige-besotted media and among legal correspondents. They are frequently deployed more for purposes of bombast than for the registration of information. Readers of modern newspapers will be familiar with the following;

a) The evidence of the witness was *ab initio* fraught with inconsistencies.
b) The Chief Justice condemned the indiscriminate granting of *ex parte* motions by judges in the High Courts.
c) The trial judge ruled that Fawehinmi lacked *locus standi* to institute the action.

These expressions have perfect general English equivalents such as *from the start, friend of the court, one sided, bring-to-court order, temporary/provisional, right of action, criminal intention, equally/hand in hand, at first sight* and *still under judicial consideration* respectively. And these are effective substitutes for the popular jargon expressions. Their persistent use in the media as well as in some legal contexts is largely superfluous. Lexical items such as 'pari passu' and 'prima facie' are often employed in facetious contexts and serve the bombastic needs of the modern journalist or prestige-seeking expert. But they are seldom desirable in serious academic contexts.

C. Synonyms, Pleonasms and Tautologies

In this subsection, we focus attention on the tendency of lawyers to use synonyms or near synonyms, words which merely repeat each other's meaning without any elaboration. These words are often used in pairs or in sets of three even though only one would be sufficient. Here are some examples some of which are adapted from Levine in Russell (1996) and Crystal and Davy (1986).

1. able and willing
2. assault and battery
3. discharged and acquitted
4. made and signed
5. null and void
6. rules and regulations
7. terms and conditions
8. covenants, conditions and agreements
9. heirs, successors and assigns
10. leave, surrender and yield up
11. rest, residue and remainder
12. retain, repossess and enjoy

As we have already observed, the pleonastic and tautological meanings of these sets of expressions arise from the desire of the legal expert to ensure precision and make legal documents as watertight as possible. There is often the feeling of doubt as to whether on its own, each lexical item in the set is sufficient to prevent any loophole in the document. Crystal and Davy (1986) suggest that:

Draftsmen got into the habit of using these pairs at a time when there were in the language both native English and borrowed French terms for the same referent. In this situation there was often a certain amount of doubt as to whether such 'synonyms' meant exactly the same thing and there developed a tendency to write in each alternative and rely on inclusiveness as a compensation for lack of precision (p.208).

But paradoxically, this kind of inclusiveness has its limitations. In reality, coordinating items which mean the same thing brings very little additional information, except at the stylistic level, to the discourse. Expressions such as 'discharged' (freed; released) and 'acquitted' (freed; released) or 'null' (not valid) and 'void' (not valid; not binding), according to some legal experts, contain pairs which, as in the first, express not only freedom and release for an accused person but also the foreclosure of the possibility of the accused being arraigned for the same charges in future. In the second, the invalidation achieved by the word, 'null' is reinforced by the total 'emptying' (void) of all the related phenomena to the entity which is made 'null'. As in the case of some of the items of the previous subsections, some of the expressions here such as 'able and willing', 'rules and regulations' and 'terms and conditions' have made their way into general English.

D. Contextual Specialised Vocabulary

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In this category are lexical items which, though not necessarily restricted to legal contexts, seem highly formal in effect when they are employed in legal contexts. They consist of some general English expressions mostly nouns, verbs and adverbs which have been appropriated by lawyers and made, through formal usage, to appear like jargon. These include:

NOUNS: contempt, custody, declaration, minor, stipulation, termination.

VERBS: accept, agree, constitute, deem, depose, exercise, issue, observe, require, specify, state, take.

ADVERBS: herein, hereinafter, hereinbefore, hereinto, hereof, hereto, heretofore, hereunder, hereupon, therein, thereinafter, thereinto, thereof, thereto, theretofore, thereunder,therewith.

These expressions often do no more than reinforce the esoteric quality of legal discourse as well as bestowing prestige more than they are capable in everyday usage. We see this frequently when a court of law:

holds someone in *contempt*

remands in/grants *custody*

makes a *declaration*

takes or *accepts* a plea

and recognize that to 'hold in contempt' for instance in legal usage, which may result in a jail term, is slightly different from the use of the item 'contempt' (scorn) in general English. But the difference between the meaning of the word 'depose' in law (to give a written testimony) and in general English (to remove from office or position) seems to be total despite the inherent implication of 'putting down' common to both uses. The 'here-' and 'there-' combinations above may not be common in general English but it is obvious that they are stylistic reversals of normal general English phrases such as:

in here, in after here, into here, upon here

in there, to there, under there etc.

which are much too long and less prestigious for the legal expert. Thus, in essence, these are general English expressions which the legal profession takes over and converts into technical terms by using them in a special way.

The general principles behind the lexical items in legal discourse is, as we have observed, precision, preservation and prestige. This is made possible by the plethora of loan words from Latin and Old French co-existing with their native Anglo-Saxon counterparts. But of the three principles, only the last two can be said to be effective with any degree of certainty. The jury is still out, as it were, on the degree to which the lexicon of legal discourse achieves precision.

VI. Grammatical Features

The peculiar grammatical features of legal documents consist chiefly in the awkward piling and placing of subordinate clauses and phrases (avoiding anaphoric links between sentences), excessive repetition, a preference for periodic (anticipatory constituents) sentence structures and the constant use of passive verbs. Let us consider the following examples, two of which are adapted from Russell (1996).

[1.6.1] If, after the confirmation of an order made by a local authority under the last preceding section, the owner or occupier of, or any person interested in, any private dwelling which is or will be within a smoke control area as a result of the order, not being a new dwelling, incurs expenditure on adaptations in or in connection with the dwelling to avoid contravention of the last preceding section, the local authority shall repay to him seven-tenths of that expenditure and may, if they think fit, also repay to him the whole or any part of the remainder of that expenditure….

[1.6.2] Subject to the provisions of this section a child shall not, except under and in accordance with the provisions of a licence granted and in force hereunder, take part in any entertainment in connection with which any charge, whether for admission or not, is made to any of the audience; and every person who causes or procures a child, or being his parent or guardian allows him, to take part in an entertainment in contravention of this section, shall, on conviction by a court of summary, jurisdiction, be liable to a fine not exceeding five pounds, or, in the case of second or subsequent offence, not exceeding twenty pounds.

[1.6.3] Should the Hirer fail to pay in full any instalment within fourteen days after the same shall have become payable or should the Hirer die or be made bankrupt or should the goods be seized under any distress of the Hirer for rent or other obligation or the Hirer do or suffer anything….

[1.6.4] You are hereby commanded that within eight days after the service of this writ on you, inclusive of the day of such service, you do cause appearance to be entered for you in an action at the suit of the plaintiff and take notice that in default of your so doing the plaintiff may proceed therein and judgment may be given in your absence.

[1.6.5] Upon going through the motion paper filed ex parte, in court on 20th January 1998 and the accompanying affidavit deposed to by one…in the law office of…on behalf of the applicants and after hearing…of…caused for the applicants, it is hereby ordered as follows….

In all the texts above, there is a preference for 'chainlike', periodic structures resulting from restrictions on the use of pronouns, excessive repetition and the use of passive verbs. The aim here also is to avoid ambiguity. The legal draftsman tries to anticipate every condition or loophole that may stem from ambiguous constructions and writes them in. But this paradoxically results in ambiguity as it interferes with intelligibility and communication. All the texts above consist of just one sentence each with text [1.6.3] lacking in predication. [1.6.1] for instance, is divided into a complex beta (subordinate conditional adverbial) clause:

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If, after…contravention of the last preceding section
and an alpha (main) clause:
the local authority…expenditure

The beta clause in turn consists of minor periodic, anticipatory, constituent clauses and phrases including even an embedded 'minor' main clause as follows:

1. if…the owner of occupier…dwelling (conditional clause)
2. after the confirmation…section (adverbial phrase)
3. the owner or occupier of…incurs…section (minor main clause)
4. which is or will be…new dwelling (relative clause)

Note that all these qualifying clauses and phrases are governed by the major *if*- conditional clause, but they result in the reader having to store several bits of information in his memory in anticipation of the arrival of the alpha (main) clause which contains the main statement itself further interrupted by another subordinate qualifying clause: '…if they think fit'. The entire sentence has the systemic structure: ASPACC as follows:

Adjunct:	If, after…section
Subject:	the local authority
Predicator:	shall repay/may…repay
Adjunct (rankshifted:	if they…fit
Complement:	to him/to him
Complement:	seven tenths…expenditure/the whole…expenditure

The subordinate clause introduced by 'if' is interrupted by the lengthy adverbial phrase 'after the confirmation…', then by the relative clause 'which is…' then by two other phrases 'as a result of' and 'not being'. This makes it difficult to easily grasp the relationship between the beta clauses as well as that between them and the alpha clause.

We see a similar phenomenon in [1.6.2] which consists of a compound sentence with two alpha clauses having two major parts as follows:

1. Subject to the provisions …audience
2. and every person…pounds

Each of these alpha clauses contains several smaller qualifying clauses and phrases such as:

1. Subject to…section (adverbial phrase)
2. a child…audience (main clause one)
3. except…thereunder (conditional adverbial phrase)
4. whether for…not (adverbial phrase)
5. and every person…a fine (main clause two)
6. who causes…section (embedded relative clause)
7. or being his parent…guardian (adverbial phrase)
8. on conviction…jurisdiction (adverbial phrase)
9. in the case…offence (adverbial phrase)
10. not exceeding…twenty pounds (adverbial phrase)

The structure of the whole sentence is ASPAA linker SPAC as follows:

Adjunct:	Subject…section
Subject:	a child
Predicator:	shall…part
Adjunct:	except…thereunder
Adjunct:	in any…audience
linker:	and
Subject:	every person…section
Predicator:	shall be
Adjunct:	on conviction…jurisdiction
Complement:	liable to…pounds

The extract in [1.6.3] illustrates the avoidance of anaphoric links by legal documents resulting in unnecessarily repetitive structures. Impersonal, neuter nouns like 'hirer' are repeated as many times as possible rather than being replaced by a pronoun such as 'he' or 'she', or even a nominal such as 'the man' or 'the woman' in the fear that it could be exploited by other lawyers. Note that the repetition of the expression '(should) the Hirer', while avoiding (grammatical) anaphora, paradoxically produces (rhetorical) anaphora in the following:

Should the Hirer fail…
Should the Hirer die…
Should the goods be seized…
the Hirer do or suffer…

Again, this extract illustrates the periodic (anticipatory) adverbial conditional clause structure devoid of the main clause.

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Texts [1.6.4] and [1.6.5] continue this syntactic overloading peculiar to legal documents. The former consists of subordinated elements while the latter contains coordinated constituents. [1.6.4] has the passive structure SPA thus:

Subject: You
Predicator: are
Adjunct: hereby…absence

while [1.6.5], replete with verbs in the passive voice, is structured: ASPA as follows:

Adjunct: Upon…applicants
Subject: it
Predicator: is ordered
Adjunct: hereby…follows

Remarkably, the final adjunct of [1.6.4] and the initial adjunct of [1.6.5] consist of numerous minor clauses and phrases such as:

1) …that you…plaintiff (noun clause)
2) …that the plaintiff…absence (noun clause)
3) …within…days (adverbial phrase)
4) …after the…service (adverbial phrase)
5) …in default…doing (adverbial phrase)
6) …upon…ex parte (adverbial phrase)
7) …in court…of (adverbial phrase)
8) …on behalf…applicants (adverbial phrase)

Finally, we note the impersonal passive constructions in the following:

You are hereby commanded	(We/I hereby command you)
cause appearance to be entered…	(cause them to enter appearance)
judgment may be given…	(We/I may give judgment)
affidavit deposed to by one	(affidavit that one…deposed to)
it is hereby ordered…	(We/I hereby order…)

which, as we have observed, reinforce the formal and impersonal tenor of the language of judicial proceedings.

VII. Conclusion

In studying the language of professions such as law, ESP and stylistics are remarkably similar in their approaches. Despite the slight variation in goals, the results of stylistics being meant for experts in the field whereas those of ESP are targeted at non experts, their contribution to linguistic theory is similar. As the study has demonstrated, research in ESP and stylistics reveals that in lexis and grammar, the drafters of legal documents are guided by the principles of precision, preservation and prestige. The desire to avoid ambiguity results in the preference for established jargon made up of items from Latin and Old French which provide stability of meaning. Also, the desire for precision leads legal experts to employ pleonastic and tautological synonyms where just one of the items would suffice. Lexically also, legal documents deploy ordinary general English expressions in extraordinary ways.

At the grammatical level, legal documents employ sentences which are complicated by a myriad of qualifying subordinate clauses and phrases as well as excessive repetition. This makes the structures jerky and unwieldy and often unintelligible to the general public. Here again, the overriding concern is the avoidance of ambiguity in order to frustrate the possibility of loopholes which may be exploited by other lawyers or judges. On the face of it then this makes the complexities of the language appear like a necessary evil. However, since humanity at large does not employ language in such artificial ways, the result is linguistic inaccessibility and redundancy. Consequently, it can be argued that in making the lexis and grammar of legal discourse not easily accessible to vast sections of the populace in pursuit of precision, preservation and prestige, the drafters of legal documents paradoxically end up with the very ambiguity they wish to avoid.

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Does Metacognitive Instruction Improve Listening Comprehension?*

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***Abstract*—Listening comprehension is an active and complex process, and is a major concern for Chinese English learners. Based on previous theory and practice of teaching English listening, this paper reports a case study of three English language learners in a Chinese university. It is found that metacognitive instruction proves to be more effective in intermediate to more advanced level students than in less-skilled students. It is also found that the effectiveness of metacognitive teaching is also much related to learning motivation.**

***Index Terms*—metacognition, listening, Chinese learners, case study**

I. Introduction

Listening comprehension is an active and complex process, in which listeners must combine the detection of sounds, meaning of vocabulary and grammatical structures and interpretation of stress and intonation, and finally interpret it within the immediate and even the larger sociocultural context (Vandergrift, 1999). It is the basic and essential skill which is challenging for both learners and instructors. Listening comprehension is by no means a passive activity, which deserves thorough research and pedagogical support. Metacognition is referred to as higher order of thinking involving active control over the thinking processes involved in learning. Activities such as planning, monitoring comprehension, and evaluating progress toward a task are metacognitive in nature. Thus is metacognitive instruction beneficial to listening activity? This paper investigates the effectiveness of metacognitive instruction in the context of China through a case study of 3 students of different English levels.

II. Literature Review

"Metacognition" is generally and often simplified as "thinking about thinking or cognition about cognition". In recent years, there has been an increasing concern on raising language learners' metacognitive awareness recently (Berne, 2004; Mendelsohn, 2006, Vandergrift, 2007). Metacognition is defined by Flavell as:

"'Metacognition' refers to one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them…Metacognition refers, among other things, to active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes in relation to the cognitive objects or data on which they bear, usually in the service of some concrete goal or objective." (Flavell, 1976, p. 232)

"Metacognitive knowledge" is first used by Flavel (1979) to refer to an individual's personal knowledge or beliefs about learning. Wenden (1991) applies the term to language learning, which can be further distinguished into three types: person knowledge, task knowledge and strategy knowledge. Person knowledge refers to what language learners believe themselves to be as learners, including one's cognitive, affective traits. Task knowledge, as the name suggests, refers to learners' understanding about the listening tasks, e.g. the purpose, the demands and nature. Strategy knowledge is learners' effective use of strategies that may facilitate learning and achieve desired learning goals (Goh, 1997; Zhang & Goh 2006; Goh & Taib, 2006; Goh, 2008). Wenden's application has been followed by more research into metacognitive knowledge about language learning and learning specific skills in listening (Goh, 1997), reading (Zhang, L.J., 2001) and writing (Victori, 1999; cf. Zhang & Goh 2006).

Goh (1997) introduces the idea of using listening diaries as a learning and reporting tool for the purpose of improving learners' metacognitive awareness. She concludes that listening diaries demonstrate a high degree of metacognitive awareness in students and offers implications for teaching practitioners to foster learner autonomy by raising metacognitive awareness (Goh, 1997). Vandergrift's (2002) research on beginning-level French students on listening tasks makes use of instruments that engage the students in prediction, evaluation, and other processes involved in listening. He argues that reflection on the processes of listening can help students develop metacognitive knowledge and achieve success on listening tasks (Vandergrift, 2002). Vandergrift (2004) introduces a metacognitive cycle in which learners employ strategies to regulate listening and achieve good comprehension. This cycle is best featured by typical

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metacognitive elements: verification, evaluation, et al. These are aimed to raise learners' awareness about strategy use and offer necessary scaffolding in the process of listening. Using these strategies not only help learners to improve their comprehension, but also experience an increase in motivation (cf. Goh, 2008).

Goh (2008) claims that sole focus on utilizing strategies for comprehending listening materials is not enough. She then proposes an expansion in a wide range of metacognitive activities, aiming at deepening learners' understanding of themselves as L2 listeners, realizing the demands and process of listening activities, and managing learners' comprehension and learning (Goh, 2008). She again emphasizes process-based approach to teaching listening (Goh, 1997, 2008).

Metacognition is deeply rooted in cognitive psychology and has been introduced to language learning for more than two decades (Goh, 1997; Zhang & Goh 2006). The study on metacognition is difficult due to its cognitive nature, as has been commented by Goh "Like all mental processes, learners' awareness about listening cannot be observed directly" (Goh, 1997, p. 362). Metacognition has ever been referred to as "seventh sense" (Nisbet and Shucksmith, 1986; cf. Goh, 2008) and more in-depth and systematic investigation are called for. Research has always centered on self-report or similar methods, including Goh's (1997) self-report by keeping diaries, Goh and Taib's (2006) process-based listening lesson involving three-stage sequence(listen and answer-reflect-report and discuss), Vandergrift's (2002) instruments engaging learners in prediction, evaluation, and other processes involved in listening.

Furthermore, the basic idea underlying metacognitive awareness is encourage students' planning, monitoring and evaluating listening processes, which has been incorporated in the management of classroom activities. This is vital in developing self-regulated learning. Wenden (1998) claims that learners are no longer passive recipients of instruction. Learners are expected to actively construct their own understanding of knowledge. In listening context, listeners can plan a listening task, monitor their comprehension and evaluate listening performance. Through this process, listeners achieve success in listening tasks and the responsibility is shifted from the teachers to the students. However, a great deal of work and research are needed to study the effectiveness of metacognitive instruction in younger learners, to study how the process of mental development influence metacognitive development in L2 listening (Goh, 2008), how the metacognitive instruction for young learners is different from adult learners (Goh, 2008), et al.

Then, research on metacognition has never been separated from process-based approach of listening instruction (Goh, 1997, 2008). This may serve as good guiding principles for teaching practitioners. However, studies on metacognitive instruction have mostly centered language learners' prior knowledge, use of listening strategies and strategy training. Goh (2008) points out that there still great needs to investigate and clarify the role of metacognitive instruction and what may affect the effectiveness of it, so as to better inform teaching practice. This is of great importance for practical purpose. In the following, the case study of metacognitive instruction and English as a foreign language teaching context in China will be introduced.

III. Research Focus

The aim of the case study is to see whether and metacognitive instruction will benefit English learners. In the context of the university the researcher is teaching, non-English majors have 4 in-class contact hours each week for English learning. Students meet English teachers twice a week, each lasting two 45-minute sessions. One session is dedicated to intensive reading course, and the other two 45-minute period is for listening and spoken course. Generally teachers will incorporate listening and speaking in class, which means about 45 minutes are allocated for listening instruction in class. Furthermore, the students are required to listen to more materials outside of class on their own, and the teachers can assess their performance via online control of students' listening activities. There are two main reasons for doing so in the context of non-English majors. First, the number English teachers is smaller than that is needed. Therefore, much work has to be done out side of the class, and the well designed textbooks may help learners complete the listening tasks on their own. Another reason is the popularity of fostering learner autonomy in teaching. The self-access center is established to encourage students learn independently and encourage teachers to do research in this area.

A. Participants

The researcher and teacher did a small survey of the students' previous learning experience and expectation of the four language learning skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) in a cohort of 38 students in one classroom, at the beginning of the semester. Three of them reported that listening had not been included in their high school, with sole emphasis on reading. They hoped that listening skills needs improving most. Most of them (twenty-nine) reported they did get listening training in high school, but still found it hard. They expressed varied needs, like improving speaking and writing as well. Only seven of them showed confidence in listening skills and expected the willingness of improving English in an all-around way.

Based on a general idea of the students' past learning experience and their College Entrance Exam (the most important exam for high school learners) scores, 8 students (3 from the less-skilled, 3 intermediate and 2 advanced) are further negotiated to ask for their intention of joining the research project. In the end, 6 learners from the three different levels expressed willingness of participating the project. The other 2 students declined the offer. In the end, 3 of them followed the researcher's research plan. They belong to different levels: a boy with the lowest score, two girls with higher scores (1 intermediate and 1 advanced).

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B. Materials

New Standard College English (Listening Level 1) textbook published by Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, which is one of the most prestigious foreign languages publishing organizations in China. The textbook involves different tasks and exercise types, like multiple choice question, true or false statements, short answer questions, etc. It is the required textbook in the university the teacher and research works for.

C. Procedure

The teacher explicitly explains the metacognitive listening methodology to the students in class instruction. Metacognitive processes are typically predicting, planning, monitoring, evaluating and problem solving (Goh, 2008). After each session, the participants will be asked to write learning journals on their use of metacognitive listening process in Chinese, so that their ideas can be fully conveyed. The lower level English learner submitted 4 learning journals altogether in the 16 weeks of teaching. The intermediate and advanced learners submitted 6 and 7 respectively. Six interviews have been conducted to in the middle of the semester and the end of the semester. The three participants are interviewed on a one-to-one and face-to-face basis. Each participant has been interviewed twice. The interviews involve the learners' listening process, their reflections on predicting-monitoring-evaluating listening process. During the interview processes, learners didn't know they were recorded. At the end of each participant's interview, they were told that they were recorded for the purpose of future study. All of the three students willingly accept it.

IV. Results

To report the results of journals keeping and interviews in this session, LL refers to "Lower Level", IL to "Intermediate Level" and AL to "Advanced Level". The journals are numbered according to the sequence of their submission time, and numbered for the purpose of future analysis.

A. Journal Keeping Result

In the first journal kept, all 3 students showed ignorance of "metacognitive listening".

LL Journal 1: I didn't have listening class in high school, so my listening is very poor. I need to work harder in it (高中没有听力课，我的听力很差，我得努力).

IL Journal 1: Listen and answer questions. That's all (听完答题，没想那么多).

AL Journal 1: Sounds interesting, but I have never heard of it (听起来挺有意思，但从未听说过元认知).

As the course went on, the three students exhibited different attitudes towards listening. LL student experienced great hardship in listening process. He was "completely helpless". When the teacher approached him, he was not as cooperative and optimistic as he had been. In several weeks, he was not pressed to keep journals. The 2nd and 3rd journal mainly featured his inability in listening comprehension.

LL Journal 3: When I come across unfamiliar words, I forget everything (当我听到那么多不认识的词时，大脑一片空白，一切想法都没有用了).

LL Journal 4: I seem to know what metacognitive learning is, but I could do it on my own. I need someone else to help me (我似乎明白什么是元认知学习了，但是我是自觉独立操作，我需要别人管我).

IL and AL students submitted journals around every other week. They were less stressed and worried than the LL student. They reflected their own listening experience and reported their understanding. In coping with exams, they have both previewed the test items and listened with questions. The listening process is much question-oriented.

IL Journal 3: I think I predict what the question is like, but I don't plan and monitor my listening process, let alone evaluating it (我会预测题目会是什么样的，但是我不懂得计划、控制，更谈不上评估自己的听力过程).

IL Journal 5: Metacognitive listening is a systematic process. It's quite hard to practice the skill. we need to do more listening activities (这是个比较系统地听力过程，但用起来，不是很容易，还是需要多练习).

AL Journal 4: We have been doing something which we have developed in dealing with exam papers, although I don't know what the skills are (我们在学习过程中开发了些应试的技巧，还说不好这些听力技巧是什么).

AL Journal 7: I find metacognitive knowledge useful. Actually it is also applicable in campus life. We also need planning, control and evaluation in life. I think this is a much needed aspect for me as the only child in my family (我觉得这个技巧还是很有用的，其实不只是听力需要元认知，我们的大学生活也是需要计划、控制、评价的，这对于我这样的独生子女来说是很重要的).

B. Interview Result

The interviews are guided by questions, though the talk might cover more than that is expected. To make sure the interviews do not deviate from the topic, some questions were preset. The first interview, conducted during the 2nd to 3rd teaching week, focuses on their past English learning experience, their idea about listening skills and their expectations of the course. The second interview, conduced during the last 2 teaching weeks, then focuses more on metacognitive listening process, including their understanding of it, and difficulties in practicing it.

LL student showed his eagerness of improving listening. To him, listening and speaking are "the most important skills", but he sure didn't know how. He showed little interest in English listening and labeled himself as "exam-sitter

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（应试机器）" like learner. IL is very helpless in exercising metacognitive listening process. After several weeks explicit teaching, he expressed better understanding of metacognition. However, he still preferred to be pressed by the teacher. He preferred to finish a task in an environment in which everything is set well for him. So he concluded he would work hard to learn how to plan and control his learning.

IL student has been very cooperative both in the classroom and outside of the classroom. She loved listening to English songs and watching English movies. She enjoyed learning English very much. She was more confident in listening than in speaking and writing. IL student found metacognitive process very useful and effective. She even predicted what a movie is about before watching a new movie. Movie title, posts and clips together form necessary information for her to make predictions. "I feel like I could be a director when I could foresee the result of a movie". Her conclusion is she could exercise the skill better when she wanted to do something enjoyable. To better perform in tests, as well as other skills, she still needed more exercise and treatment.

AL student's English has always been the top three in her high school class and in the present class. She had a very expectation of her academic performance. She modestly saw herself as a good exam taker, and could develop a series of strategies in sitting for tests. However, she expressed the difficulties in performing the metacogintive listening in class. She couldn't explain why conscious application of the skill was harder for her. She would be more comfortable when she didn't exercise the skills consciously. She expressed the needs of more explicit listening strategy training so that she could exercise them more effectively. Her encouraging conclusion was she found metacoginitive awareness is very important in other aspects of life besides listening.

V. Discussion

Based on the students' learning journal and interviews conducted, the effectiveness of metacognitive instruction depends on at least two factors. One very important factor is learners' English level. It can be inferred from the research that intermediate and advanced level learners would be more capable of employing new methods. The relatively low level learners, on the other hand, exhibit more difficulties. Furthermore, learning motivation can also be a very significant factor. The intermediate level learner is highly motivated in learning English. She expresses more comfort with the new idea and strategy. Another finding is that learner autonomy is highly related to metacognitive awareness, which is in line with previous research such as Goh's (2008). However, it is found that although learning autonomy is stressed in school, the students find it hard to plan, monitor and evaluate their own learning.

Then the questions arise: Is metacognitive instruction is feasible? What makes it easy or difficult to carry out metacognitive instruction? First of all, as Wenden (1998) has claimed that metacognitive awareness is vital in developing self-regulated learning via engaging students in planning, monitoring and evaluating listening processes. On the one hand, it quite fits teaching listening context in China. Students' self-regulated learning is what the teachers most expect to see in them. On the other hand, maybe due to the one child policy in China, which was launched more than thirty years ago, the young learners lack the ability to plan and control their life. It is possibly because children's life has been managed by parents, resulting in youngsters' lack of experience in exercising control over their learning process. Therefore, the contact hours in class may be dedicated to scaffolding learners in fostering the habit of planning, monitoring and evaluating listening process. More importantly, this habit will benefit learners in the long run as lifelong learners.

Secondly, reflection on successful completion of listening task through raising consciousness and using strategies may build student motivation for L2 listening and hence learning (Vandergrift, 2002). Also, Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, and Robbins (1999) point out success may be achieved through raising strategy awareness and deployment of proper strategies, and thus building self-efficacy for language tasks. This again is what teachers desire through teaching. However, one of the problems which have obsessed me in my own teaching experience is that college students lack the motivation of learning foreign language. The question is: Does metacognitive awareness raise motivation, or does it work in the reversed way? Measures of raising metacognitive awareness, such as diary keeping, anxiety graph, evaluation checklist, (cf. Cross, 2010) would be extremely difficult to carry out in less motivated learners. So, more research is needed to study the relationship between the two in Chinese context.

Thirdly, Vandergrift (2002) gives a final caveat in teaching practice. Development of metacognition in L2 listening can be achieved only outside the context of evaluation. Anxiety and apprehension brought by testing might probably debilitate metacognitive knowledge development (Vandergrift, 2002). In the context of China, Chinese learners of English learn English as a compulsory course and listening for tests is a strong motivation for some learners. This caveat is, on the one hand, valuable in guiding teachers' scaffolding, and on the other hand, discouraging in the Chinese learners' context. Therefore, teachers may help learners cope with anxiety and help foster a favorable learning environment.

VI. Conclusion and Limitations

In all, metacognitive instruction is important in listening, and learning, just as O' Malley and Chamot (1985) have commented that "Students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to review their progress, accomplishments, and future learning directions." (p.561) In the context of English as a foreign

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language teaching in China, metacognitive instruction is still rather new, and more research is needed to study the feasibility and effectiveness of it. However, promoting motivation and fostering self-regulated learning are indeed most desired.

The importance and effectiveness of metacognitive instruction could not be neglected. However, teachers need to do more empirical research to investigate what might be done to ensure the feasibility. No matter what strategy is employed, teachers need to take their students' English levels, different learning styles, etc. into consideration.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that this research is a case study involving only 3 English learners. Thus the conclusion might be biased to some extent. Also, due to the small number of participants, caution should be exercised to generalize the result to all Chinese learners. Furthermore, this paper only discusses the influence of learners' English levels and motivation, there might be more behind what is presented in discussion part. Future study could be carried out to see, for example, the social cultural factors that would influence metacognitive instruction, which may be more interesting. The methods can be varied as well to give a panorama of metacognitive instruction in listening process.

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The Relationship between Foreign Language Anxiety and Language Learning Strategies among University Students

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***Abstract*—This study sought to investigate the relationship between Language Learning Strategies (LLS) and Foreign Language Anxiety among Iranian university students. The instruments used in the study consist of: (a) the SILL (a questionnaire on language learning strategies developed by Oxford, 1990), and (b) the FLCAS (a questionnaire to measure the amount of anxiety English language learners experience while taking part in English classes, developed by Horwitz, 1986). The participants of the study were 85 students studying English at Islamic Azad University in Khorramabad, Iran. The results of this study revealed that generally language learning strategies correlate meaningfully and significantly with language anxiety. This correlation was negative (r = - 0.33) which means that the higher use of LLS is related to less amount of English Language Classroom Anxiety (ELCA). On the other hand, cognitive, compensation, and social strategies correlated meaningfully with language anxiety, while metacognitive, memory, and affective strategies did not correlate significantly with ELCA. After calculating the homogeneity of variances, a t-test was run to find whether there is a meaningful difference between high and low LLS users in terms of their ELCA. The results of the t-test analysis showed that a significant and meaningful difference exists between the two groups. High LLS users had a relatively lower ELCA than low LLS users.**

***Index Terms*—language learning strategies, foreign language anxiety, correlation, khorramabad, Iranian university students**

I. Introduction

A prominent change has occurred in language teaching and learning over the last forty or so years. In the past the emphasis was on teachers and teaching, but now the emphasis is on learners and learning. As a result, much research has been aimed to find the roles of learner characteristics on language learning such as attitude (e.g. Wenceslao, 1991), self-concept, self-efficacy and self-perception (e.g. Chapman, & Tunmer, 2002; Slavin, 2003 in Brown, 2007), and motivation (e.g. Yihong, Yuan, Ying & Yan, 2007). Other learner variables such as aptitude, age, gender, career choice, cultural background, cognitive style, and learning strategies are investigated as the role of the learner has received due emphasis. Among these, learning strategy research has experienced tremendous growth. In Nyikos and Oxford's (1993) words, "interest in leaning strategies is due in large part to increased attention to learner and to learner-centered models". Of these characteristics, affective factors have always been an area of interest to the researchers in the field of educational psychology and language teaching and learning. Many studies have been conducted on the relationship between affective factors and other variables.

Research studies designed to determine the effect of anxiety in the classroom have indicated that anxiety is common among students (Aida, 1994). A previous body of literature suggests that a high level of foreign language anxiety interferes with foreign language learning (Bailey, 1983; Baily, Daley, Onwuegbuzie, 1999; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Young, 1991; Ohata, 2005; Pappamihiel, 2002; Williams & Andrade, 2008). In concluding their paper, Lucas et al., (2011), state that "foreign language learners … equip themselves with learning strategies that would help them not only to learn the target language but also to cope with their language learning anxieties". Therefore, conducting research into the correlates of language learning strategies used by student with different level of foreign language anxiety can help both teachers and learners in meeting teachers' desire to teach foreign language in a way that their students learn efficiently. This study will attempt to identify whether any

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relationship between the extent of language learning strategy use and foreign language anxiety exists or not. In other words, the purpose of the study is to find out whether students who use more language learning strategies will be less or more anxious than the other students. Moreover, this study will attempt to investigate the amount of foreign language anxiety that high and low users of language learning strategies, at the university level, report experiencing.

In this study we will try to make a brief introduction of language learning strategies and language anxiety and the related research done on both. Then, the procedures of the study, the results of the study and finally the conclusion will be presented.

II. Literature Review

Language Learning Strategies

Much of the research done on language learning strategies, beginning in the 1960s, was influenced by developments in cognitive psychology (Williams and Burden, 1997, p.149). In most of this research, the major concern has been on "identifying what good language learners report they do to learn a second or foreign language" (Rubin and Wenden, 1987, p.19). Rubin started doing research in 1971, focusing on the strategies of successful learners and claimed that, if such strategies were identified, they could be made available to less successful learners. Processes contributing directly or indirectly to language learning were the basis of Rubin's (1975) strategy classification. Strategies employed by language learners while processing foreign language learning were investigated by Baily et. al. (1999), Cohen (1998), Wenden (1987), Chamot and O'Malley (1987), and many other researchers.

The term, ***"Language Learning Strategy"*** has been defined by many researchers which show more or less similar assumptions, so only a few of them are mentioned here. Rubin (1975, p. 43) defined the learning strategies as 'the techniques or devices that a learner may use to acquire knowledge. Based on Chamot (1984, p.71) "learning strategies are techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information". Oxford and Nyikos (1989, p.291) defined learning strategies as "operations used by learners to aid the acquisition, storage, and retrieval of information." O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p.2) stated that learning strategies are "special ways of processing information that enhance the comprehension, learning, or retention of the information." According to Ehrman and Oxford (1990 p.312), "Strategies are the often conscious steps or behaviors used by language learners to enhance the acquisition, storage, retention, recall, and use of new information." They (1995, p.68) stated that language learning strategies are "the specific behaviors or techniques learners use to improve any aspects of their learning development." Cohen (1998, p.1) maintains that "the term strategies, in the second-language-learning sense, has come to be applied to the conscious moves made by second-language speakers intended to be useful either in learning or using the second language." And Oxford and Lavine (1991, p.203) in an attempt to compare learning style with learning strategies, state that, "in contrast to language learning styles, language learning strategies are specific behaviors or techniques that students use, often consciously, to improve their own progress in internalizing, storing, retrieving, and using the target language."

Classification of Language Learning Strategies (LLS) has been done by various scholars including, Wenden and Rubin 1987; O'Malley et al. 1985; Oxford 1990; Stern 1992; Ellis 1994, etc. However, these classifications follow more or less the same categorizations of language learning strategies. In this study, only Oxford's (1990), taxonomy of language learning strategies is handled because it is considered more systematic by many scholars.

Oxford (1990, p.9) considers the goal of language learning strategies as 'being oriented towards the development of communicative competence'. Oxford divides Language Learning Strategies into two major categories, **direct** and **indirect**, which are then sub-divided into 6 sub-groups. In Oxford's system, ***metacognitive*** strategies aid learners to regulate their learning; ***affective*** strategies deal with the learner's emotional requirements such as confidence; and ***social*** strategies make enhanced interaction with the target language. ***Cognitive*** strategies are the mental strategies learners use to understand their learning, ***memory*** strategies are those used for memorizing information, and ***compensation*** strategies provide devices for learners to overcome knowledge gaps to continue the flow of their communication.

Foreign Language Learning Anxiety

Anxiety has been said by many researchers to influence language learning and language performance (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2000). MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) defined language anxiety as "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning" (p. 284). For years, researchers have indicated that language anxiety is a special type of anxiety experienced in the course of learning a second or foreign language (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). Horwitz et al. (1986), found that more than one third (38%) of the respondents to their survey selected "strongly agree" or "agree" for the item that had stated "I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes." A number of other studies (such as Gardner and Lambert, 1989) failed to find evidence of the effect of general anxiety on second language learning. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) define language anxiety as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process." (p.128). Horwitz and Young (1991) also refer to language anxiety as a form of performance anxiety, which 'can be observed through face-saving (e.g., joking), physical activity (e.g., tapping a pencil), psychosomatic symptoms (e. g., headache), and avoidance behavior (e.g., not doing homework)'. Horwitz et al. (1986) defines ***foreign language anxiety*** as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to

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classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p.31). The interrelated processes that are the basis of their theory are: a form of 'communication apprehension', 'concern about the frequent testing and examinations in a language classroom', and 'fear of negative evaluation'. Horwitz (1986) has reported evidence to support this theory. Spielberger (1983) reported significant correlations 'between the Foreign Language Class Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and scales of test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, communication apprehension, and trait anxiety'.

Jen (2003) found that irrespective of the language teaching method, secondary school students experienced anxiety. Personality factors, fear of negative evaluation, low English proficiency, lack of preparation, pressure from the language instructor and tests, and parental pressure were found to be the common instigator of foreign language anxiety among highly anxious language learners (Jen, 2003). Five main causes of foreign language anxiety among elementary school children, mentioned by Chan and Wu (2004), include: 'an anxious personality, fear of negative evaluation, low language proficiency, competitive games, and pressure from parents and self'.

Some other studies attempted to tackle other variables related to language anxiety, such as reading comprehension (Liu, 2010; Wu, 2011), learning difficulties (Chen & Chang, 2004), emotional intelligence (Chao, 2003), and motivation (Huang, 2005).

Clinical observations reported by Horwitz, and Cope (1986) have supported the general identification by teachers of the existence of anxiety specific to language learning context. Based on Krashen (1981), anxiety causes the arousal of an 'affective filter', which blocks students from receiving input, and as a result language acquisition fails to progress.

Gardner, Moorcoroft, and MacIntyre (1987) claimed that 'students could structure the free speech according to their level of ability, thereby coping with the anxiety that the task might arise'. This ability is accessible to language learners through the application of language learning strategies.

The pattern of French Class Anxiety Scores was found by Gardner, Smythe, & Brunet (1977) examining 62 English speaking students learning French in an intensive summer school environment. In their study beginner learners experienced the most anxiety and advanced learners the least, and intermediate learners were between the other two groups. The levels of French Class Anxiety from the beginning to the end of the course declined in all three groups. Desrochers and Gardner (1981) came to the same results and they suggested similar implications for their results, i.e., the level of anxiety in language learners could be reduced if they gain some experience in the course of language learning. This experience leads to favorable attitudes in those participating in language learning situations. In a study by Chapelle and Roberts (1986) students of English as a second language were tested and they did not find a significant correlation between English Class Anxiety and TOEFL scores at the beginning of a semester while they found a significant correlation between the two by the end of the semester. The reason for this reduction of language learning anxiety in the course of language learning can be attributed to the learning of some language learning strategies over time. Research on the relationship between language learning strategies and language learning anxiety have indicated that there is a meaningful relationship between different subsets of language learning strategies and language anxiety. For example, Schmeck (1988) found that highly anxious students show a "shallow learning style" that is associated with strategies such as repetitive, rehearsal, rote memory, and use of mnemonic devices. Oxford and Ehrman (1995) found that self-report anxiety about speaking in class was positively related to the use of cognitive strategies. Furthermore, the use of compensation strategies was negatively related to anxiety about outcomes ($r=-0.30$, $p<0.05$). Noormohammadi (2009) also found a negative and significant correlation between all categories of language learning strategies and language anxiety.

III. Research Methodology

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Because the use of language learning strategies can have a positive effect on the acquisition of a foreign or second language, it is important to be able to identify students with a high level of language learning strategy use and those with a low level of it; so that, where possible activities can be adjusted to their level of abilities. By studying different research papers, it becomes evident that studies examining the relationship between LLS and learners' characteristics can help us increase our understanding of language learning from the learners' perspective and provide a wider range of insights. Language anxiety is one of the learners' characteristics, which has received little attention in research.

By considering the above-mentioned points, the aims of this study are as follows:

1. To focus on the relationship between the participants' amount of strategy use, and their level of language anxiety.
2. To investigate the amount of anxiety of the high and low language learning strategy users.

Accordingly an attempt was made to find an empirically justified answer to each of the following questions:

1. Is there any relationship between the extent of language learning strategy use and the level of English language anxiety?
2. Is there any relationship between different categories of LLS (Language Learning Strategies) and the level of English language anxiety?
3. Do the learners who have a relatively higher extent of language learning strategy use differ significantly from those who have a lower extent of language learning strategy use, in terms of the level of English language anxiety?

For each of these questions a null hypothesis will be adopted. The hypotheses are:

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HO1. There is no significant relationship between the extent of Language Learning Strategy use and the level of English Language Classroom Anxiety.

HO2. There is no relationship between different categories of LLS and the level of English Language Classroom Anxiety.

HO3. There is no significant difference between learners who have a relatively higher Language Learning Strategy use and those who have a relatively lower Language Learning Strategy use, in terms of the level of English Language Classroom Anxiety?

Design of the Study

First of all it should be noted that this study is a descriptive one. Based on Best & James (1989), "A descriptive study describes and interprets what is. It is concerned with conditions or relationships that exist, opinions that are evident, or trends that are developing. It is primarily concerned with the present, although it often considers past events and influences as they relate to current conditions" (p.76). As a result, the design of the study is ***ex post facto***. In this design, the researcher has no control over what has already happened to the participants. As Hatch & Farhady (1981) maintain: "Correlational designs are the most commonly used subset of ***ex post facto*** design." (p.27). Accordingly, in this study the extent of Language Learning Strategy use has been taken as independent variable and the level of Foreign Language Anxiety as the dependent one. The other way, that is, looking at language anxiety as independent has been considered in an earlier study by Noormohammadi (2009). So, comparing the results of these two studies might be fruitful for foreign language learning and teaching.

Participants

The participants of the present study were 85 students at Islamic Azad University in Khorramabad, Iran, studying English language teaching at the BA level. In order to have a homogeneous group of respondents only the junior and senior students were selected as the sample of the study. The participants aged 20-28.

In fact the sample will be considered representative of typical Iranian students at this age range and field of study, while having different social, economical and cultural backgrounds.

Instrumentation

Two paper-and-pencil instruments used in the study include:

1) A questionnaire on language learning strategies, which is called **SILL** (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning).

2) A questionnaire on language anxiety, which is called **FLCAS** (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale).

The definitions, descriptions and characteristics of each of these instruments are discussed below.

a. The SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning)

The Persian version of the 50-item Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990), translated by Noormohammadi (2009), was one of the instruments of this study. Primarily, the SILL was designed, as an instrument, for assessing the frequency of use of Language Learning Strategies by students at the Defense Language Institute, Foreign Language Center in Monterrey, California. Two revised versions of the SILL appeared in Oxford's (1990) book in the appendices. One of these instruments consisted of 80 items and the other one had 50 items. The former is used for learners whose native language is English; the latter is most appropriate for learners of English as a second or foreign language. The 50-item questionnaire (used in the present study) includes six categories of strategies for language learning: **Memory** strategies, **Cognitive** strategies, **Compensation** strategies, **Metacognitive** strategies, **Affective** strategies, and **Social** strategies.

For the SILL, Cronbach alpha has been chosen as the most appropriate reliability index (Oxford, 1996). In general, the ESL/EFL SILL reliabilities have been very high. A number of studies have revealed high reliabilities of the SILL. To name a few, it was .93 with 332 Korean university EFL learners (Park, 1994), and in the range of .91 to .95 for the 80-item questionnaire (Oxford and Ehrman, 1995, Oxford and Nyikos, 1989).

Each of the items in SILL was answered on a five point Likert scale, ranging from "Always true of me" to "Never true of me". A subject's endorsement in "Always true of me" was equated with **5**, "Generally true of me", **4**, "somewhat true of me" was equated with **3**, "Generally not true of me", was **2**, and "Never true of me" was equated with **1**.

b. The FLCAS (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale)

Horwitz's (1986 in Al Sibai, 2005) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) has been used in most research done on language learning anxiety. In FLCAS items have been classified into three dimensions of related performance anxieties: 1) communication apprehension, 2) test anxiety, and 3) fear of negative evaluation which are considered sources of anxiety.

The Persian translation of the FLCAS was the second instrument of this study. It is consisted of 33 items, which is based on Horwitz et al.'s (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale. This scale is used to measure the amount of anxiety that English language learners experience while taking part in English classes. The FLCAS has been translated into Persian language by Noormohammadi (2009) and revised by the researcher. Translation of this instrument prevents the impact of English language proficiency on the result of the study.

Internal consistency of the FLCAS, as measured by Horwitz (1986) by Cronbach alpha coefficient, was 0.93, and test retest validity over eight weeks was 0.83 (p=0.001, n=78). Criterion-related studies, concerning the construct validity of the scale, have also been conducted by Horwitz and Young (1991). The correlation of the FLCAS with the scale of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, 1983) obtained was 0.29 (p=0.002, n=108); and with the Personal Report of

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Communication Apprehension (McCroskey, 1987) was 0.28 (p=0.063, n= 44). Watson and Friend (1989) found that the correlation between FLCAS with the fear of Negative Evaluation Scale was 0.36 (p=0.007, n=56); and the correlation of the FLCAS with the Test Anxiety Scale (Sarason, 1980) was 0.53 (p=0.001, n=60).

Each of the items in the FLCAS was answered on a five point Likert scale, ranging from: a) "strongly agree", to c) "neither agree, nor disagree", to e) "strongly disagree". A subject's endorsement in a) "strongly disagree" was equated with a numerical value of **one**; b) "disagree" was **two**; c) "neither agree nor disagree", **three**; d) "agree", **four**; and e) "strongly agree" was **five**. For each subject, an anxiety score is derived, by summing his or her ratings of the thirty-three items. The theoretical range of this scale is from 33 to 165.

Data collection

The Persian versions of the SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning) and the FLCAS (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale) were attached to each other and then they were administrated to the participants of the study. Prior to this, they were fully briefed on how to fill out the questionnaires. The questionnaires were collected within a week. Some of the questionnaires were discarded because they had been hastily worked on.

Data Analysis

After the administration of the questionnaires, the data were collected and analyzed (with a significance level of .05) to the following statistical methods:

1. Phillips (1992), Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999), Noormohammadi (2009), and Aida's (1994) studies, all used Pearson-product-moment correlation to determine correlation between foreign language anxiety and the selected variables such as course grades, oral exam grades, language learning strategies, etc. Therefore, in this study Pearson correlation was calculated between the SILL and the FLCAS. Moreover, Pearson-product-moment correlation was calculated between different categories of the SILL and the FLCAS.

2. For the purpose of answering the third question of the study, each subject was classified into either a high Language Learning Strategy user group or a low Language Learning Strategy user group by a median split procedure, based upon their total score on the SILL. Then, because the scores were normally distributed, the t-test was conducted to compare and find the difference between means of these two mentioned groups on their FLCAS.

Descriptive Statistics

After collecting the questionnaires, the SILL scores of the participants in the study were calculated. The results of the participants' SILL scores are as follows.

a. Frequency of Use for the Different Categories of Language Learning Strategies

Comparing the means of the subsets of Language Learning Strategies (LLS), it turned out that ***metacognitive*** strategies were most frequently used (mean = 3.94), and ***affective*** strategies were the least frequently used strategies (mean = 2.97) (see table 4.1).

TABLE 1:
FREQUENCY OF USE FOR THE SUBSETS OF LLS

Rank	LLS category	N of items	Mean	N of participants
1st	Metacognitive	9	3.94	85
2nd	Compensation	6	3.60	85
3rd	Social	6	3.50	85
4th	*Cognitive*	14	3.49	85
5th	*Memory*	9	3.16	85
6th	*Affective*	6	2.97	85

Table 2 demonstrates the frequency of use for the six categories of the SILL in some of the above-mentioned studies.

TABLE 2:
THE FREQUENCY OF SILL STRATEGIES ACROSS DIFFERENTS STUDIES

Rank	The Present Study (2012)	Oxford et al. (1989)	Phillips (1990, 1991)	Oxford and Ehrman (1995)	Tajjeddin (2001)	Salehi (2002)
1st	Metacognitive	Social	Metacognitive	Compensation	Metacognitive	Metacognitive
2nd	Compensation	Metacognitive	Social	Social	Cognitive	Cognitive
3rd	Social	Cognitive	Compensation	Cognitive	Social	Compensation
4th	Cognitive	Compensation	Cognitive	Metacognitive	Compensation	Social
5th	Memory	Affective	Affective	Memory	Memory	Memory
6th	Affective	Memory	Memory	Affective	Affective	Affective

There is a difference between this frequency-based strategy ranking and the one resulted from Oxford and Ehrman's (1995) study, where ***compensation*** strategies were the most frequently used category of strategies among 855 adults in an intensive training in a wide variety of languages at the U.S Department of State. In their study, ***social, cognitive,*** and ***metacognitive*** strategies received second, third, and fourth ranks respectively, while in this study they received third, fourth, and first ranks, respectively. However, in their study, ***memory*** and ***affective*** strategies received the same ranks as in this study. They received the fifth and sixth ranks. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) found ***affective*** and ***memory*** strategies to be receiving the lowest frequencies, while the highest frequencies went to ***social, metacognitive, cognitive,*** and ***compensation*** strategies. In the present study the same results are approved.

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Phillips' (1990, 1991) found the same results. In that study, ***cognitive, affective,*** and ***memory*** strategies were found to receive the lowest frequency of strategy use. In the same study, ***metacognitive, social,*** and ***compensation*** strategies had the highest frequency ranking. Tajjeddin (2001) and Salehi (2002) also found that ***metacognitive*** strategies were the most frequently used strategies. In their studies, ***affective*** strategies got the sixth rank.

b. The Level of Anxiety Experienced by High and Low LLS Users

After dividing the participants into high and low LLS users, we calculated the mean of anxiety scores for each group to find the level of anxiety experienced by each group. The results of this computation are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3:
ANXIETY MEAN SCORE OF HIGH AND LOW LLS USERS

Statistics / *LLS users*	Mean for SILL (50 items, 250 points)	Mean for FLCAS (33 items, 165 points)
High LLS users	192.69	82.07
Low LLS users	152.10	95.86

Correlational Analysis

a. LLS and Language Anxiety

To test the first null hypothesis, i.e., ***"H01: There is no significant relationship between the extent of LLS use and the level of English Language Classroom Anxiety"***, a correlational analysis was run. It was found that there is a negative and significant correlation between LLS use and foreign language anxiety (r= -0.33, p< .05, n= 85). So, this null hypothesis is rejected.

TABLE 4:
CORRELATION OF THE FLCAS & THE SILL

Pearson Correlation (r)	FLCAS
SILL	r = - 0.33

This finding supports an inverse relationship between LLS use and ELCA, i.e., students who use more LLS, express less ELCA than those who use less LLS. This amount of relationship is also meaningful and significant at p<0.01.

b. Categories of LLS and Language Anxiety

In order to test the second null hypothesis, i.e., ***"H02: There is no relationship between different categories of LLS and the level of English Language Classroom Anxiety"***, another correlation analysis was calculated. As it is shown in table 5, there is a negative and significant correlation between different categories of LLS and English Language Anxiety.

TABLE 5:
PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN CATEGORIES OF LLS AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY (ELCA)

Strategies	Metacognitive	Cognitive	Memory	Compensation	Affective	Social
ELCA	- 0.17	- 0.42	- 0.14	- 0.31	- 0.03	- 0.27

The highest significant correlation belongs to that of ***cognitive*** strategies and ELCA (r= - 0.42, p<.05, n= 85). The lowest correlation was found to be between ***affective*** strategies and ELCA (r= -0.03). There was a statistically significant, but little, correlation between ***social*** strategies and ELCA (r=-0.27, p<.05, n=85) and between ***compensation*** strategies and ELCA (r=-0.31, n<.05, n=85). No significant correlation was found between ***affective, memory,*** and ***metacognitive*** strategies and ELCA. So, the above hypothesis is rejected if we consider ***cognitive, compensation,*** and ***social*** strategies and it is accepted if we talk about ***affective, memory,*** and ***metacognitive*** strategies.

T-Test

a. Total English Language Classroom Anxiety

In previous sections, taking the *median-point* into account the total scores for LLS were arrived at, and two LLS groups, high and low, were determined. The median score for LLS use for this sample was 117. Therefore, participants with scores of 117 and above have been considered as high LLS users and participants with scores lower than 117 have been considered as low LLS users group.

To test the third null hypothesis of the study, i.e., ***"H03: There is no significant difference between learners who have a relatively higher LLS use and those who have a relatively lower LLS use, in terms of English Language Classroom Anxiety?",*** another index, called total English Language Classroom Anxiety, was calculated. To determine whether the samples meet the criterion of equality of variances, an *F*-test was used.

$$F = \frac{S^2 \text{ (Highest variance)}}{S^2 \text{ (Lowest variance)}} = \frac{646.36}{369.34} = \mathbf{1.75}$$

TABLE 6:
F-TEST OF THE HIGH AND LOW LLS USERS ON THE FLCAS

F-observed	df for numerator	df for denominator	F-critical
1.75	41	41	2.11

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As it can be seen from table 6, the F-observed (1.75) is less than the F-critical (2.11). So, it was concluded that the variances fulfilled the condition of the homogeneity of variances and that the method of pooled variances was appropriate.

Then a t-test was used to test the third null hypothesis. As shown in table 7 and 8, this null hypothesis was rejected. In table 7 high LLS users group show a mean of (M=82.07, sd=25.42, n=42) on their FLCAS and low LLS users group show a mean of (M=95.86, sd=19.22, n=42) on their FLCAS. The results of this t-test analysis show that there is a significant and meaningful difference between high LLS users and low LLS users in terms of English Language Classroom Anxiety at $p<0.05$ and even at $p<0.01$. High LLS users have a relatively lower anxiety than low LLS users. AS a result of this t-test analysis, the third null hypothesis of this study is rejected. As it can be seen, mean anxiety for high LLS users is less than mean anxiety for low LLS users. This finding supports the result of the correlational study, in which a negative correlation (r= -0.33) was found between LLS use and language classroom anxiety.

It is worth repeating here that, in this study, LLS and ELCA have been considered to be independent and dependent variables of the study, respectively. As it can be seen, the difference between groups was founded to be significant and meaningful, showing that more frequent use of LLS is related to the less amount of ELCA. High LLS users are less anxious in the foreign language classroom than low LLS users.

TABLE 7:
T-TEST FOR HIGH AND LOW LLS USERS, ASSUMING EQUAL VARIANCES IN TERMS OF THEIR ELCA

Statistics	*Low LLS Users*	*High LLS Users*
Mean on the FLCAS	95.85714	82.07143
Variance on the FLCAS	369.3449	646.3606
Standard Deviation	19.22	25.42
Observations	42	42
Degrees of Freedom	82	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
Pooled Variance	507.8528	
t-Observed	2.803303	
t-Critical (two-tailed)	1.98932	
Level of Significance (two-tailed)	0.006312	

IV. SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

This study was an attempt to see whether the use of Language Learning Strategies is correlated with the amount of English Language Anxiety experienced in the classroom situation. Besides, the frequency of the use of Language Learning Strategies (LLS) and the correlation between different categories of Language Learning Strategies with English Language Classroom Anxiety were investigated. Running a Pearson-product-moment correlation, it was found that the use of LLS correlate significantly with English Language Classroom Anxiety (ELCA) ($r=-0.33$, $p<0.01$, $n=85$). Among different categories of LLS, ***metacognitive*** strategies were most favored by students and ***affective*** strategies were the least used category. The results of correlational analysis revealed that ***cognitive*** strategies correlate with ELCA more than the other categories, and ***affective*** strategies correlate less than the others. It should be mentioned that all the correlations were negative.

After running a *t*-test, it was found that high LLS use is related to less amount of ELCA. The high LLS users reported less ELCA than the low LLS users.

V. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

A number of researchers have suggested that the existence of foreign language anxiety is not a favorable phenomenon and it must be overcome by students at different stages of learning and for different language learning situations, so that they can take full advantage of foreign language instruction (Horwitz, et.al, 1986). This aim can partly be obtained through using language learning strategies. The main purpose of this study was to investigate the correlation between LLS and ELCA among Iranian EFL learners. Proposing the research questions, three null hypotheses were formulated. There were 85 junior and senior students participating in the study. They were studying English language at Islamic Azad University. They were all administrated the SILL and the FLCAS. Based on the statistical analyses of the data in this study, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. There is a meaningful negative relationship between the degree of LLS use and the level of ELCA (r= -0.33, $p<0.01$, $n=85$).
2. There is a meaningful negative relationship between ***cognitive, compensation*** and ***social*** LLS and the level of ELCA. But there is not any significant relationship between *affective, memory,* and *metacognitive* LLS and ELCA.
3. The learners who have a relatively higher extent of LLS use, report less ELCA than those who have a relatively lower extent of LLS use.
4. ***Metacognitive, compensation,*** and ***social*** strategies are used more frequently by Iranian EFL learners.
5. *Affective, cognitive,* and *memory* strategies are used less frequently by Iranian EFL learners.

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Wenden and Rubin (1987) state that "LS are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affects learning directly." It can be inferred that the knowledge and use of LLS can improve better language learning. If teachers can tailor LLS to their students' needs, it can enhance their learning as well as their level of language anxiety.

As language instructors, many may notice some level of anxiety in their students that result in unpleasant feelings in them. Even though it is not suggested that LLS be taught directly, language teachers can have a side in their teaching to talk to their students about LLS and how to employ them to lower their level of anxiety. The possible anxiety, that students might have, could have a negative effect on their learning. Despite their pressure of time, sometimes teachers may hesitate so that their students share their concerns and emotional stress caused by language issues. However, this language-related anxiety and possible emotional stress should be acknowledged, considered, and overcome so that students can display their existing abilities to the fullest. All these boosts the need to shift the teachers role from a pure knowledge imparter to a facilitator in the process of language learning which needs a mutual respect between the teacher and the learners. As a result, students can become more independent and more responsible for their own learning. Acknowledging the relationship between LLS and ELCA, the language teachers can provide an environment in their classes to train their students to be familiar with LLS and employ such strategies when confronting ELCA. This way, students can take optimum results from instructions in their classes and take full advantage of learning and acquisition opportunities in the society.

For future studies, it is recommended that other learner variables not accounted for by this study such as learning styles, age, self-perception, risk taking, gender, learning style, language background, etc., and their relationships with each other be considered.

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Differences of English and Chinese as Written Languages and Strategies in English Writing Teaching

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***Abstract*—The size of both the United States and China guarantees that many people will communicate in English and Chinese. But those two common languages do not guarantee perfect communication in writing practice for several reasons. This paper explores the factors resulting in non-understandable communication of English and Chinese as written language, and some strategies applied by English teachers when training students' English writing.**

***Index Terms*—differences, English, Chinese, written language, strategies**

No one knows exactly how many languages are used in today's world. According to one estimate, there are about 3,000 to 4,000 spoken languages. Each differs in sound, grammar, and sentence construction as well as writing style. English and Chinese, which are the most commonly used languages in the world have some factors that influence a good understanding in oral and written communication both in and between these two languages. Especially in business writing, there are some differences in writing style that attract our attention.

I. Differences between English and Chinese Thinking Mode

The thinking patterns are one of the most important cues in culture. It is closely related to cultures and embodies the characteristics of cultural psychology. "The ways of thinking is quite different, actually, people live in certain area have their own way of thinking. It connects to various kinds of factors, such as geography, history, nation and so on. The ways of thinking are the important reason of cultural difference. It includes knowledge, concepts, methods, language and custom and so on."(Deng Yanchang, 1997) Besides, the modes of thinking also are closely related to language. Different modes of thinking are embodied in language. Therefore, the ways of thinking have their own characteristics.

The differences of the thinking patterns between Chinese and English nations can be approached and considered from various viewpoints. Here are but a few instances for illustration.

A. Visual Thinking VS Rational Thinking

The visualized thinking mode, or empirical synthesizes thinking pattern as Zheng Yanhong (Zheng Yanhong, 2003) puts it, establishes the essential difference between the Chinese and the English nation who favors the rational analytic thinking modes. The Chinese is perceptual in their comprehensive thought, but the English and other Western nations may have developed their own rational and analytic thinking modes. The doctrine of "yin and yang as one" in the Chinese philosophy, not denying the opposition though, lays greater emphasis on the aspect of unity. But the separation of God and human in the English and the Westerners philosophy stresses the opposition aspect though not obviously denying the unity. Such difference has been typical of the two different thinking modes. The Chinese stresses the whole and abstract, and the Westerners stress the components and the specific; the Chinese favors synthesis, while the westerners analysis. For instance, when talking about time, the Chinese always start from general units and move on to smaller units, but the English is opposite; and this is also true of their expression of locations. Even in their acquaintance introduction, the Chinese would list the titles (whole) first (from the higher to the lower) before referring to the specific names (individual), but the English would announce the specific name first (individual), then list a succession of duties from the lower to the higher.

B. Generalizing Thinking VS Analytical Thinking

The Chinese people are concerned more with their own bodies in expressing emotions, so intuition thinking is the main feature of their mode of thought, for which people study objects as a whole and emphasize entirety. Chinese philosophy is systematical naturalism. (Mao Ronggui, 2002) In the English thinking pattern, individualism is greatly emphasized. The English people link their own emotion to planetary influence and the natural elements, so they prefer analytical logic thinking. Target objects are subordinated into small parts in order to be scrutinized, which, of course, may lead them to place the components before the whole when they try to know something.

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That's why in the Chinese language, sense has always been the dominator while the expression forms has been much neglected. But the Westerners, esp. the British nation has always stressed analysis and rationality in their thinking. In their minds, individualism is the prime concern and is always dependent, which has resulted in their dualistic philosophy. Following such perceptions, materials and spirits are separated, just like human and nature, content and form. Here is an example.

S1A: 只有这样才能解决问题。

S1B: Only in this way can you solve the problem.

S1C: The problem can only be solved this way.

S1C is literal translation of the Chinese, as most Chinese learners of English more often than not would do. Such translations reveal that the Chinese learners tend to generalize the English expressions without sufficient attention to the analytical nature of the target language.

C. Tortuous Thinking VS Straight Thinking

In the Western philosophy, it has been a lasting convention to pursue alternate contrast in its reasoning, thus establishing a straightforward thinking mode. But the Chinese, on the other hand, have been more accustomed to the harmony and unity of the world, and are more likely to adopt both sides of a matter, thus establishing a tortuous thinking mode. As reflected in their speech, the English tend to stick to the point at the very beginning of the speech, offering a straight and frank theme of the speech before proceeding on to present the relevant details and accompanying situations. That may well account for the syntactic features of a compact head and a long and heavy ending with the emphasis at the front part of the sentences. And the Chinese sentences, due to the speakers' thinking modes, will present the relative information in great detail before hitting upon the theme. For example:

S2A: I met with my middle schoolmate at the entrance of the theater at 7:30 yesterday evening, when I haven't seen for years.

S2B: 昨天晚上 7 点半在剧院门口， 我遇到了我多年未见的中学同学。

D. Backward Thinking VS Predictive Thinking

It has been found that the Chinese tend to consider matters in predicative order while the English prefers backward thinking. (Zhou Fangzhu, 2004) For instance, the Chinese would usually give reasons before presenting the consequences while the English would rather state the result before giving the causes. E.g.

S3A: She was amazed that he should arrive so soon.

S3B: 他来得真快，让她惊奇不已。(He had arrived so soon and this surprised her very much)

E. Dialectical Thinking VS Logical Thinking

Another specialty of the Chinese thinking mode lies in the dialectical elements. The Chinese seldom consider things isolate but rather dialectical. The easiest instance is the Chinese phrase "舍得" ("afford to lose" in the common sense) which actually implies that you should first of all offer something to others if you mean to get something back. To give and to take are two opposite actions but in Chinese the contradictory actions are combined in one phrase "舍得" — to take by giving. The English have strict sense of logic and things are black or white, no middle position or combination of the two.

II. Linguistic Differences Resulting from Differences of Thinking Patterns

The effect of different thinking modes on linguistic construction is also apparent in the lexical, syntactic, contextual and grammatical features of the two languages.

A. Lexical Differences

English word formation takes various forms such as affixation, compounding and conversion, blending, clipping acronyms, backformation and adoption from proper nouns. But Chinese words (characters) never experience such formation process. Their grammatical functions and meanings are decided by their relations with other words (characters) in their context and are thus more flexible and context-dominated. In English, we have "we, our, us, ours" and "I, my, me, mine" for the first personal, but in Chinese we have only one word (character) "我" (I, me) and by adding another word "的", we get the phrase "我的" (my or mine) to indicate the possessive relationship or adding "们" to get "我们" (we or us) for the plural form of "我" and we can get another phrase "我们的" by adding both words "们" and "的" after "我" to get the plural possessive form of the word "我". This implies that the Chinese morphemes enjoy more liberal combination with other morphemes to establish new and more complicated phrases. But the English morphemes, when forming new words, or even conducting different grammatical functions, will follow strict rules and even take completely new forms.

Such differences in lexical features have also caused great trouble to translators. Actually in too many cases translation is impossible, and the original meaning is only partly conveyed via metaphor or explanation as no other alternative is available for such translation.

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B. Syntactic Features

Wang Yin, the famous professor once said that some linguistics lively compare English structure as "grape structure", for the trunk of the grape is very short with many fruit attached on it to form very long sentences. Different from that, the Chinese sentences are shorter with phrases in sequential order by themselves just like the bamboo joints. So Chinese is called "bamboo structure". (Hu Wenzhong, 1999)

The most commonly used word order for English is the strict SVO. English sentences take verbs as their cores, which are their center controlling all the relationships between the sentence components. Except the predicate verb all the verbs take the form of indefinite form to make difference from the predicate verb, and many prepositions and conjunctions are used to connect the phrases contained. For Chinese it usually makes good use of verbs together in one sentence to present the things one by one according to the time when the things happened.

C. Semantic Features

The semantic features of English and Chinese thinking modes can be analyzed in two sub-sections: the intra-sentence relationship and the inter-sentence relationship. The former refers to the relationship among different parts within a sentence and studies the way that different parts are composed to establish meaningful sentences. The latter, in a broader sense, tends to expose the relationship between or among different sentences and how they are related to each other to convey the author or speaker's intentions. Yet the latter, inter-sentence relationship is different from contextual relationship in that contextual relationship studies such relationship in light of whole paragraphs or even whole passages while inter-sentence relationship is more sentence-oriented.

1. Intra-sentence Relationship:

Even within a sentence, the Chinese would rather shift from the general information to the more specific and detailed and would usually give the minor information before focusing on the key points. This well embodies their thinking patterns such as tortuous thinking and subject-oriented etc.

S4A: 为了保障涉外经济合同当事人的合法权益，促进我国对外经济关系的发展特制定本法。

S4B: This law is formulated with a view to protecting the lawful rights and interests of the parties to Chinese-foreign economic contracts and to promoting the development of China's foreign economic relations.

The Chinese sentence introduces the objectives in great detail before bringing out the key point of the whole sentence, but the English translation, instead, begins with the focus------the law is formulated----before offering the objective and other minor information. When reading the Chinese sentence, we can also find that the speaker is more concerned with the law-maker's consideration in making the law while the English emphasized the fact that the law has been formulated and shall be duly implemented.

2. Inter-sentence Relationship:

The relationship among sentences is also different between Chinese and English. As the Chinese are hypotaxis-oriented while the English are parataxis- considerate, Chinese sentences are usually more distant from each other in connotation and demand few conjunctive phrases, thus offering the speaker or writer greater freedom in thought and composition. To sum up, the Chinese inter-sentence relationship are more like a brook flowing freely. E.g.

S5: We don't understand that pain may be telling us that we are eating too much or the wrong thins, or that we are smoking too much or drinking too much, or there is too much emotional congestion in our lives, or that we are being worn down by having to cope daily with overcrowded streets and highways, the pounding noise of the garbage grinders, or the cosmic distance between the entrance to the airport and the departure gate.

Long as the whole sentence may be, the frame is but a simple SVO structure followed by some parallel clauses or short semantic segments connected by some "ors". The structure is clearly outlaid and the relationship between clauses readily comprehensible.

S6A: 苏州城内外有许多古老园林，其中十几个作为古迹保留下来向公众开放。它们是中国传统山水园林建筑的精华之作，融诗歌、绘画、园林于一体。

When translating the above paragraph about Suzhou, we have to add some functional, esp. conjunctive phrases so as to realign the original segmented loose clauses into well-structured full sentences dominated by some core semantic units, and the reading thus reads:

Inside and outside the city are scattered many classical gardens, over a dozen of which are being preserved as historical monuments open to the public. They represent the cream of traditional Chinese landscape architecture that integrates poetry, painting, and landscape gardening.

It's necessary to mention that hypotaxis here refers to the integration among sentences and phrases by means of functional and grammatical components. Parataxis is the connection by means of the connotations of the semantic units rather than by means of external functional components. Cohesion is the focus in hypotaxis whereas coherence is the main concern in parataxis.

D. Contextual Features

Also based on the Chinese hypotaxis-tended thinking mode and their dialectical consideration in expressions, the contextual features in Chinese writing or speech are also apparently different from the English. The Chinese do not pay so much attention to the external connection among sentences but the sentences join themselves by the internal

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correlations logically and semantically. The English, in contrast, pay great attention to the formal connection among sentences and use various conjunctive phrases to indicate the logic relationship in the context. Therefore, reading Chinese paragraphs, the reader will have to understand the author on basis of the whole context so as to get a thorough and comprehensive understanding of the paragraph or the essay. The readers of English passages will not be so burdened.

S7A: 十月五日第 ot-5 号合同项下的 20 万吨大米，原定于十二月底前交货。你放在合同中保证提前交货，并且以此作为签订合同的条件，但是，这批大米迄今尚未装运，对此我们深表遗憾。

This is a typical business message in which the author presents the background information for his claim and then offers two evidences for it and finally puts forward the claim. Such sequence is typical of Chinese thinking modes, but if literally rendered, it reads:

S7B: The 200000 tons of rice under Contract No. OT-t of October 5 is scheduled to be delivered by the end o December. You have guaranteed an early delivery in the Contact and it is on this understanding that we signed the contract. Up to now however, the shipment has not yet been made. We very much regret for that.

Such literal translation in conformity with the Chinese sequence of thoughts, is loose in structure and logic and is lacking in theme, making the whole passage appears confusing. But native English speakers would prefer to express the same as follows:

S7C: We very much regret that the 200000 tons of rice under Contract No. OT-5 of October 5, scheduled to be delivered by the end of December, is up to this moment not dispatched, in spite of the fact that you have guaranteed an early delivery in the Contract which as actually signed on this understanding.

In S7C, the speaker/author begins with the theme of his writing-----to claim on the failure of delivery of the 20000 tons rice，which will sound natural and readily acceptable and comprehensible to native English speakers. The sequence of thoughts, the purpose and the reasoning are all well composed.

A brief comparison will indicate that there are not only syntactic changes in the translation but also great changes in the viewpoints of narration, esp. in those sentences without subject in the Chinese original story.

The internal logic relations among semantic segments are not clearly or directly stated in the Chinese but rather indicated by the context and have to be recognized by the reader. Yet in the English, it's always necessary to state the relationship clearly or the sentences would sound awkward or meaningless. The reason for these is the difference in the thinking modes of the Chinese and that of the English.

E. Grammatical Features

Due to the English people's emphasis on objective observation and the Chinese nation's focus on subject perceptions, sentence with an inanimate subject or in passive voice are more popular in English while the Chinese prefer active voice or sentences without subject. E.g.

S8A: Yet the Nile has been changed by modern man in ways not yet fully understood.

S8B: 然而现代人却使尼罗河发生了变化，不过就连他们自己也不完全了解尼罗河就近发生了什么变化。

In some other grammatical aspects, Chinese has no grammatical changes in the morphemes while it is just too common in English to change the forms of words for different grammatical functions. Referring to almost any Chinese writing and comparing it with similar English version, we have little or no difficulty finding abundant instance to this effect.

III. Some Strategies to Overcome the Chinglish Writing

There are a lot of differences in the writing style of the English and Chinese languages in the way of thinking, discourse structure and language features. Combining with the practice of English teaching and analyzing the Chinese writing style in the Chinese students' compositions, we believe that only the students are familiar with and master the Western mindset and make the paradigm shift consciously in the process of writing in English, can they write authentic English essays. We should do the following in our teaching and learning:

A. Develop Students' Cross-cultural Awareness.

Kaplan (1966) believes that students from different cultural backgrounds use different modes of written language, which is due to the negative transfer of the mother tongue. Guo Chunjie and Liu Fang (1997), studying the output process of second language learners, found that most of the reasoning of second language learners in the target language output is assumed due to the mother tongue. Therefore, we should compare the different ways of thinking in Chinese and English in conjunction with the teaching contents to enable students to understand the differences of Chinese and English thinking to improve cross-cultural awareness and cultivate their English cultural sensitivity to overcome the impact of Chinese thinking in English learning process.

B. Attention to Discourse Teaching.

First, by purposeful reading training and detailed analysis, we can enable students to understand the different characteristics of the Chinese-English mode of thinking. According to the study, the students' English reading ability and discourse knowledge of have indirect effects on their English writing (Ma Guanghui, Wen Qiufang, 1999).

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Therefore, wasting no time to introduce the discourse knowledge in reading training will have a positive impact on the improvement of English writing ability. Then we should conduct targeted writing trainings to train students to use the English way of thinking to organize their minds and to construct the framework of their articles.

C. Train Students to Construct the Connection of English Discourse with the Formal Logic Thoughts.

Because the Chinese students are influenced by dialectical thinking, they usually write English thesis with "agreeing in opinion", lacking conjunctions in sentence borders among paragraphs. Readers will have a jumping and incoherent feeling to the article, thus causing the difficulty in understanding and affecting the quality of the article. Therefore, in the writing teaching, the teacher should train students to construct the engagement of discourse with the logical thinking and encourage students to use the conjunctions to strengthen the continuity of their thesis appropriately. To realize the engagement of macroscopic discourse, students should use discourse mark conjunctions expressing the meanings of progressive, enumerates, transition, contrast, degree, causal relation, summary as well as analysis and conclusion so as to manifest the engagement and linking-up of discourse.

In the daily teaching, teacher can train students to use the discourse conjunctions from two aspects. First, teachers can ask students to recite the above mentioned discourse mark conjunctions expressing progressiveness, contrast, cause and effect and so on. For example, conjunctions of contrast like however, nevertheless, differ from, in contrast to on the contrary, on the other hand, in opposition to, etc. Conjunctions of cause and effect like so , thus, therefore, accordingly, owing to, thanks to, out of, there as on for, the cause of , it follows that and so on. In memorizing these different expressions, students will be able to come in handy to use them, and the convergence effect of their composition will be significantly improved and enhanced.

On the other hand, teachers can devise some practices of this aspect to train students. Take the following paragraph as an example: He was a delinquent in many ways. His mother loved him. He was a truant. He was arrested for breaking street lights. He stole a car. He was a bully in the school. He was intelligent. He made poor grades. His mother was worried and hurt. She never let him know. She was there. She believed in him. She let him know it. He never felt deserted. She stood behind him. He reformed. A mother's love paid off.

The above paragraph appears disorganized and the meaning of the expression is not clear because of the lack of conjunctions. Students are required to add appropriate conjunctions to achieve coherence so the improved paragraph is as follow: Although he was a delinquent in many ways, his mother still loved him. Even though he was a truant and was once arrested for breaking street lights, his mother kept right on loving him. At one time, he even stole a car. In addition, he was bully in school, and although he was intelligent, he still made poor grades. Even if his mother was worried and hurt, she never let him know. She was always there. She believed in him, and she let him know it. He never felt deserted because she always stood behind him. Finally, he reformed. A mother's love, in this case, paid off.

The revised paragraph by adding the necessary conjunctions becomes fluent and coherent. Such exercises can enhance students' ability of applying the connections and improve their English writing competence.

D. Practical Application of Grammar Teaching and the Cultivation of Students' Language Ability.

China's traditional English teaching focuses on grammar but ignores language application ability of students. Students only mechanically gained the vocabulary and rules of grammar, lacking the feeling and understanding of the language, far from understanding the thinking characteristics of Chinese and English languages, and as a result, lacking the ability of practical application of language. English grammar teaching can not just stay in listing the rules of grammar but make comparison of the different expressing methods of English and Chinese, and convert the two ways of thinking consciously in English writing. In short, there are many factors that affect students' English writing, but if teachers lay emphasis on different modes of thinking, find the corresponding countermeasures and give students targeted training in English writing, students will be able to receive good results in their writing practice.

IV. CONCLUSION

Chinese students can not rid themselves of the participation of the mother tongue in their English writing. A lot of mistakes in the Chinese students' writing are caused due to the interference of the Chinese thinking. Therefore, if the Chinese students want to write good articles in English, they should be aware of the Anglo-American culture on the one hand, to improve the ability to master the language. On the other hand, they should also pay attention to the differences in English and Chinese thinking modes and how they influence the language application. Students should be familiar with the laws of English writing, learn to use English thinking mode to organize materials, thus reducing Chinglish in articles and being able to write to meet the requirements of writing.

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Developing Speaking and Writing Skills of L1 Arabic EFL Learners through Teaching of IPA Phonetic Codes

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***Abstract*—This exploratory study investigated the development of speaking and writing skills of L1 Arabic EFL learners based on their level of perception and understanding of phonetic transcriptions through visualisation of letter-to-symbol representations using the International Phonetic Alphabet (henceforth IPA). The participants were 169 University-level Preparatory Year Program (PYP) male Saudi EFL students. The study was carried out as a pedagogical approach to improve university first year students' pronunciation, correct speech and writing skills. The students selected attended 6, 50-minute Integrated Pronunciation Teaching (IPT) lessons which included IPA transcription codes using both audio and visual teaching methods in addition to one ICT aided lesson. Throughout those lessons, students were initially introduced to the IPA phonetic codes in gradual increase of difficulty and were encouraged to use the monolingual (English-English), Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDCE). Two written tests and one oral test were conducted using a number of carefully selected IPA transcription codes related questions and results were analysed and interpreted. Results obtained showed slight variations between higher and lower ability students in understanding the IPA transcription codes. As a whole, however, the results indicated that students reached a high level of understanding of letter-to-symbol representations – the IPA system - and oral test results proved that phonological awareness can help Saudi students at tertiary level education improve their writing and speaking skills. Above all, learning the phonetic transcription codes helped them develop a sense of autonomy and competence when using monolingual dictionaries. The study concluded with a brief discussion of the ramifications of the study and the potential for further research.**

***Index Terms*—EFL, K.F.U.P.M, IPA, IPT, phonemes, phonetic transcription, phonological awareness**

I. Introduction

As English language continues to grow and spread as a global lingua franca and as the main language for international communication, EFL teachers need to become more aware of ways to develop the EFL learner's competence by focusing on more effective and successful pedagogical strategies. Achieving effective communication as well as the production of intelligible English pronunciation can be complex for Arabic speakers EFL learners (Rababah, 2005).

One of the important issues the Ministry of Higher Education in Saudi Arabia is addressing nationally and eager to elevate is the overall proficiency level of English among secondary and tertiary level students. Government tertiary level institutions in Saudi Arabia (e.g. Universities and Colleges) are adopting English as a medium of instruction and each follow specially tailored EFL (English as a Foreign Language) courses to meet the needs of their students. However, students leaving high school to join Universities or Colleges in Saudi Arabia face great difficulties trying to catch up with these courses due to the existence of problems in EFL learning. These problems – which mainly exist in mainstream government secondary schools - include inadequacy of target language input, the pervasiveness of the traditional teacher-centred English teaching method, and a considerable use of focus on forms in exercises such as grammar translations and pattern drills in class which renders the learning of English as similar to rote memorization of English vocabulary and sentence structures to students. Very often, students are forced to memorize things they either do not comprehend or have no desire to learn. Thus, English Language Centres at various Saudi Universities follow a structured, intensive EFL program for their PYP students where the emphasis on pronunciation and phonological awareness forms the backbone of the two major disciplines of speaking and writing. This study investigated pronunciation training following the teaching of the IPA codes and how it improved the speaking skills and confidence in Saudi University EFL learners.

II. Literature Review

Phonetics is defined broadly as the study of speech sounds (Denes & Pinson, 1993) using special signs, often different from ordinary letters, to represent the sounds of speech (LDCE, 2005)pp. 1230). Phonological awareness is considered to be the most extensively studied aspect of phonological skills as part of the phonological structure of

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language. Phonological awareness is defined as the ability to manipulate the individual sounds of words independent of their meaning (Foorman, 1991);(Blachman, 1994). (Stanovich, 1993), however, defines "phonological awareness" as the ability to deal explicitly and segmentally with sound units smaller than the syllable.

Despite the fact that research carried out in the USA and UK into how children learn to read and write, as well as on what the best pedagogical methods might be, review articles of earlier significant research in adult ESL/EFL instruction in reading and writing (Grabe, 1991); (PéryWoodley, 1991); (Raimes, 1991) do not mention phonics and/or spelling in the acquisition of English pronunciation. The importance of teaching pronunciation and phonetics cannot be over-emphasized. (Stevens, 1991), suggests that all aspects of second language teaching involve the teaching of pronunciation. (Koren, 1995) states that good pronunciations are part and parcel of successful communication. As EFL teaching has moved to language functions and communicative competencies, a new urgency for the teaching of pronunciation has arisen (Celce-Murcia, 1991); (Morley, 1994) ; (Liu, 2011) . In addition, pronunciation, generally, plays an important role in helping the learner become an intelligible speaker (Morley, 1998) . The research carried out by (Stanovich, 1993) indicates that phonological awareness is the best predictor of the ease of early reading acquisition and in addition, it is a foundational ability underlying the learning of spelling-sound correspondences. Phonological awareness is also an important and essential element for reading progress (Griffith, 1992). A research conducted by (Ingvar Lundberg, Jbrgen Frost, & Petersen, 1988) also indicates that students with increased phonemic awareness facilitated their subsequent reading acquisition. Phonemes are defined as distinctive feature bundles. That is, a phoneme is the smallest unit that will distinguish between words, e.g., [tEnt] versus [dEnt] (LDCE, 2005) .Two important findings by (Kruidenier, 2002) suggests that phonemic awareness and/or word analysis instruction may lead to increased achievement in other aspects of reading for beginning level adult readers. The second finding suggests that adult non-readers have virtually no phonemic awareness ability and are unable to consistently perform, on their own, nearly all phonemic awareness tasks. Amongst the most difficult learning problems experienced by EFL learners may well be the phonemic differences and variation between languages (James Flege & Port, 1981). As English spelling is morphophonemic (Stubbs, 1980; Venzky, 1970), understanding how phonemes are represented by single letters as well as spelling patterns can assist in the development of basic ESL literacy (Jones, 1996). This is in line with theories that consider noticing as an interface in language acquisition. According to Schmidt (1995, p. 20), "the noticing hypothesis states that what learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning". He also considers noticing as a necessary condition for L2 acquisition. One way for the ESL/EFL learners to “notice” L2 English is to learn phonetic transcriptions. Phonetic transcription is merely a written record of the sounds of spoken language. It is the link between acoustics and text. By reading the written symbols, the sequences of speech sounds produced by the original speaker can be reproduced. It helps a speaker of any L1 language to learn the correct pronunciation of another language's words. Using phonetic transcription in the EFL classroom can be very advantageous. It can help the student visualise difficult codes representing words as sounds and therefore increase the EFL student’s awareness of English Language second language sound features. It can also help EFL students acquire some autonomy when looking up words and their corresponding pronunciation in the dictionaries. (Atkielski, 2005) mentioned in his paper that written English is only a representation of the spoken language, however, phonetic transcription, in contrast, is an exact representation, without any ambiguity, redundancy, or omission. He concluded his paper with the finding that IPA to the experienced ESL teacher is very easy to teach and its use can save time and facilitate the teaching of concepts related to the spoken language. (Pennington, 1996) believes that the materialisations of sounds through graphic representations (phonetic codes) are useful resources in helping enhance L2 learner pronunciation production quality. Although, phonetic transcription (or phonetic notation) is very convenient in the teaching of a foreign language, it can have the effect of a double-edged sword. If the teaching of phonetic transcription is carried out favourably, it may increase the student’s motivation to learn and use phonetic notations. On the other hand, if the teaching is carried out unfavourably, students may perceive the notations as a useless and irrelevant part of their learning of English language. It is therefore important to decide when and how to teach phonetic transcriptions to ESL students. One of the recommended strategies is to have an Integrated Pronunciation Teaching (IPT). IPT has several advantages over non-IPT. The main advantage of IPT is that it does not treat pronunciation as a separate phenomenon from the process of communication - (Kenworthy, 1987) ; (McMullan, 1988).

The IPA system of teaching phonetic transcription was employed in this study due to several factors. The IPA system is the most widely used alphabet for phonetic transcription (Handbook of the International Phonetic Association 1999). Many of the IPA letters are the same as those of the English alphabet. The students at K.F.U.P.M are provided each with a free copy of LDCE (the 2005 edition at the time of this research study) which uses the IPA system (alphabet) of transcription. In addition, the IPA has another advantage when used to teach transcription. The IPA provides transcription of the intonation of speech such as change in pitch, loudness and so on.

III. METHOD

The 169 students selected to take part in this study came from 7 different classes (for simplicity, these classes will be assigned group names as follows: Group A, Group B, Group C, Group D, Group E, Group F and Group G).

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TABLE 1.
NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN EACH GROUP.

Group	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Number of Students	27	26	24	25	16	25	26

The following table illustrates the dates when the study was carried out:

TABLE 2.
DATES FOR DATA COLLECTION.

Group	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Date	September -October 2005		February – March 2006		June - July 2006	September –October 2007	

All of the students were Saudi (with the exemption of 3 Yeminis, 2 Indians, 1 Pakistani and 1 Syrian), males and ranging in age between 18-22 years old. Groups A, B, C, D, F and G were registered with Dammam Community College (DCC) as full time PYP students whereas group E students were registered for the intensive EFL summer course held at K.F.U.P.M. The participants were mixed abilities EFL learners.

At the beginning of the academic year, each student was provided with a free copy of (LDCE, 2005) -, four textbooks from the Skills in English (2005) series (Terry & Anna Phillips): reading (with supplementary reading resource book), writing, speaking and listening textbooks and in addition, students were given a simplified, custom designed (using word processing) IPA table sheet containing carefully chosen codes. The table included the IPA 21 vowels codes as well as 24 consonants codes. However, in this research study, the focus was on ten consonant codes: /d/ , /ʃ/ , /ʧ/ , /z/ , /s/ , /p/ , /b/ , /k/ , /g/, /ʤ/, four long and short vowel codes: /i:/ , /I/ , /a:/ , /æ/ and two diphthongs codes /aʊ/ and /aɪ/ with several examples given for each of these codes. Each student was given a short question (that was related to phonetic transcription) with – a piece of A5 paper size sheet to answer. This was done at the start of this study in order to determine any prior knowledge of the IPA codes or the academic usage of monolingual (English-English) dictionaries. The students were taught these codes in 6, 50- minutes IPT lessons over the period of 6 weeks. They were presented with two IPA codes at a time using the interactive smart board. The codes were briefly explained and pronounced individually to the students and they were requested to familiarise themselves with these codes that represent actual pronunciation of corresponding words. Ample time was given to the students with several examples relating to these codes in order for the students to successfully understand the IPA codes. Questions were asked at the end of each session to retrieve feedback from the students and any difficulties encountered were quickly resolved. The IPA codes presented were placed between forward slashes similar to those indicating phonetic spellings in the LDCE used by the students (LDCE, 2005) and by the Terry & Anna Philips (2005) Listening and Speaking student's books. At the end of weeks 3 and 6, students were given written tests (Tests 1 and 2) which incorporated four types of questioning: multiple choices, fill in the blank, place words under their consonant/vowel code corresponding column and answer the questions by writing in transcription or vice versa. At the end of week 6, students were also given an oral test where they were asked two questions relating to the phonetic codes taught and asked to answer them. Those tests were given in order to examine the successful recognition of the selected IPA codes taught in this research study.

The first test was constructed so that it related to 10 of the IPA codes taught to the students in the first three weeks. The second test however, included one section with four additional codes which were not taught to the students – but were included in the IPA codes table- and was included to test the high abilities students. The first test included 16 questions and the second test included 32 questions. The oral/speaking test on the other hand, was straight forward face-to-face interview style which aimed at evaluating the understanding of the IPA codes taught throughout the course as well as the correct pronunciation of words based on the knowledge acquired of these codes in their speaking. The first part of the oral/speaking test included questions related to identifying code(s) representing a specific consonant or vowel sound in a given word pointed at from the interactive smart board. Whereas, the second part included questions related to pronouncing a chosen word (also pointed at from the interactive smart board) correctly.

Tests 1 and 2 were marked manually and scores were entered into a custom made constructed tally table for each code. Pre-marked test papers were photocopied and two other faculty members were asked to mark them to add extra validity to the results. The oral/speaking test was conducted with three instructors. The first instructor interviewed the students individually and the other two instructors recorded marks relating to the IPA codes taught in the research study, separately. Overall group grades and correct/incorrect results for individual IPA codes were analysed using Microsoft Excel® software.

IV. RESULTS

The first set of results obtained regarding prior knowledge or usage of monolingual (English-English) dictionaries is as follows:

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TABLE 3.
STUDENTS WITH/WITHOUT PRIOR KNOWLEDGE OF PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION AND/OR USAGE OF MONOLINGUAL (ENGLISH-ENGLISH) DICTIONARIES.

Question	YES	NO
Previous Usage of Monolingual (English-English) dictionaries	10	159
Recognising Phonetic Transcriptions	2	167

For each test, the overall group results were presented in a table and are given below (as a percentage %).

TEST 1
THE RESULTS (GIVEN AS A PERCENTAGE) OF SUCCESSFUL RECOGNITION OF THESE CODES ARE AS FOLLOWS:

Group	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Result (%)	66	63	69	70	90	81	75

TABLE 4.
TEST 1 INDIVIDUAL GROUPS' RESULTS.

/d/	/ʃ/	/tʃ/	/z/	/s/	/p/	/b/	/k/	/g/	/ ʤ /
95	76	67	99	98	54	53	98	69	71

TABLE 5.
ALL GROUPS' RESULTS FOR THE 10 SELECTED INDIVIDUAL IPA CODES TAUGHT IN THE FIRST THREE WEEKS (TEST 1).
TEST 2 THE RESULTS OF SUCCESSFUL RECOGNITION ARE AS FOLLOWS:

Group	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Result (%)	70	65	64	71	92	80	76

TABLE 6.
TEST 2 INDIVIDUAL GROUPS' RESULTS

/d/	/ʃ/	/tʃ/	/z/	/s/	/p/	/b/	/k/	/g/	/ ʤ /	/i:/	/I/	/α:/	/æ/	/ aɪ /	/aʊ/
90	77	66	95	98	50	56	97	73	77	65	69	70	68	79	92

TABLE 7.
ALL GROUPS' AVERAGE FOR THE 16 SELECTED INDIVIDUAL IPA CODES TAUGHT IN THE WHOLE OF THE SIX WEEKS OF THE COURSE OF THE RESEARCH STUDY (TEST 2).

Group	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Result (%)	77	50	61	66	96	85	74

TABLE 6.
TEST 2 INDIVIDUAL GROUPS' RESULTS FOR THE ADDITIONAL FOUR IPA SELECTED CODES WHICH WERE NOT TAUGHT IN THE STUDY.

/θ/	/ð/	/ɲ/	/ˈf/
70	68	79	96

Table 7.All groups' average for the 16 selected individual IPA codes taught in the whole of the six weeks of the course of the research study (Test 2).

TABLE 9.
GROUPS' RESULTS FOR THE ORAL TEST.
Oral Test The results of successful recognition are as follows:

Group	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Result (%)	66	63	69	70	90	81	75

TABLE 10.
GROUPS' RESULTS FOR THE 16 SELECTED INDIVIDUAL IPA CODES FOR THE ORAL TEST.

/d/	/ʃ/	/tʃ/	/z/	/s/	/p/	/b/	/k/	/g/	/ʤ/	/i:/	/I/	/a:/	/æ/	/aɪ/	/ αʊ /
69	65	60	94	97	49	52	96	70	76	55	64	66	62	72	87

V. CONCLUSION

It is clear from the data collected that Saudi students did not have great difficulties learning the selected IPA codes and the concept of phonetic transcriptions. This is apparent from the results of the tests that were carried out. The students managed to get most of the consonant codes above and well above 50% except for /p/ and /b/. This is due to the fact that the consonant letters' sounds such as /z/, /s/, /ʤ /, /d/ and /k/ exist in the Arabic language alphabet and are pronounced in the same way in the Arabic language (Swan & Smith, 2001). Thus, the majority of the students did not have great difficulties identifying these codes or pronouncing words containing these consonants correctly. Although the /g / letter's sound does not exist in the Arabic alphabet, it apparently does not resemble (to L1 Arabic speakers) any other letter's sound and therefore the students managed to recognise and pronounce it correctly. Another reason for this is that the students were taught some rules regarding the differences between / ʤ / letter's sound and /g/ (e.g. words starting with letter "g" and followed by the vowel "o" have the IPA phonetic symbol /g/). The greatest difficulty the students faced was the alternations of letters "P" and "B". Nearly 50% of the students were not able to distinguish between these two letters in writing, pronouncing (words having 'P' or 'B' in them) and even in transcribing them.

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Again that may well be traced back to the fact that Arabic language lacks the sound /p/ - (Ibrahim, 1978) and therefore approximated to the nearest Arabic letter 'B' which is allophonic to "P".

Prior to this study, the students who participated in this study (with the exception of ten students), had little to no knowledge of phonetic transcription and its usage in the monolingual (English-English) dictionaries. Even when the students were each given a copy of the (LDCE, 2005) and were instructed to interpret (or try to explain the purpose of) the IPA codes that followed the words in the dictionary. No acceptable answer or explanation was given. When they were informed that they will learn some of these IPA codes soon, some of them were doubtful of the usefulness or benefits of learning the IPA codes. The very same sceptical students were quick to change their stance and realise the benefits of learning phonetic transcription. They became familiar with the concept of phonetic transcriptions. They understood what these IPA characters and codes stand for and why they are printed in monolingual (English-English) dictionaries. The students realised that passive acquaintance with phonetic transcription helps in enabling them to extract precise and explicit information on pronunciation from dictionaries.

VI. Recommendations for Further Research

This unprecedented research study could be the starting point of further studies and research in the field of phonetics relating to the Arab EFL learners. The following recommendations for additional studies and research are offered:

1. Replicate the study with a larger number of students (possibly double or triple the number in this study) either at a tertiary institute in Saudi Arabia or any tertiary institute in the region.
2. Replicate the study with EFL learners with L1 other than Arabic (e.g. Chinese EFL learner, Korean EFL learners and so on) and compare the results with this research study.
3. Replicate the study with the rest of the IPA codes and compare the results with this study.
4. Conduct a similar study (preferably considering 1 and 2 earlier) and include statistical analysis using Hypothesis testing (e.g. Null Hypothesis).

Appendix A Pronunciation Table

Vowels Codes

Symbol	Keyword
/i/	heat, feed
/ɪ/	sit, hit
/eɪ/	date, paid
/ɛ/	bet, bed
/æ/	rat, bad
/ɑ/	box, odd, father
/ɔ/	bought, dog
/oʊ/	boat, road
/ʊ/	look, good
/u/	boot, food, student
/ʌ/	but, mud, mother
/ə/	banana, among
/ɚ/	shirt, murder
/aɪ/	bite, cry, buy, eye
/aʊ/	about, how
/ɔɪ/	voice, boy
/ɪr/	beer
/ɛr/	bare
/ɑr/	bar
/ɔr/	door
/ʊr/	tour

Consonants Codes

Symbol	Keyword
/p/	pack, happy
/b/	back, rubber
/t/	tie
/d/	die
/k/	came, key, quick
/g/	game, guest
/ʧ/	church, nature, watch
/ʤ/	judge, general, major
/f/	fan, photograph
/v/	van
/θ/	thing, breath
/ð/	then, breathe
/s/	sip, city, psychology
/z/	zip, please, goes
/ʃ/	ship, machine, station, special
/ʒ/	measure, vision
/h/	hot, who
/m/	men, some
/n/	sun, know, pneumonia
/ŋ/	sung, ringing
/w/	wet, white
/l/	light, long
/r/	right, wrong
/y/	yes, use, music

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APPENDIX B. SAMPLE QUESTIONS

Q3. Put the following words (in the box) under their corresponding sound symbol:

shoes **brush** **teacher** **picture** **international** **wash** **cheese** **touch** **should**	
/ ʃ /	/ tʃ /

Q4. Write the words corresponding to the following phonetic codes(the first one is done for you):

/ kɑːnt/	can't
/ kæt/	
/diːp/	
/ fɑːr/	
/ riːd/	
/bɜːn/	
/θæŋk/	

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A Study via Interviews of the Chinese Bouyei College Learners' EFL Classroom Anxiety Coping Strategies

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***Abstract*—The present study aims to investigate EFL classroom anxiety coping strategies employed by the Chinese Bouyei college students through semi-structured individual interviews of 25 Chinese Bouyei college students from five colleges located in the southern and southwestern areas of Guizhou Province, China. The findings demonstrate five categories of the participants' reported EFL classroom anxiety coping strategies, i.e., *preparation, help/peer seeking, relaxation, resignation,* and *positive thinking,* which were mostly supportive to the results of the rotated component matrix of factor analysis for the FLCACSQ conducted in the researchers' previous study. In addition, implications were made on the research findings.**

***Index Terms*—Chinese, Bouyei, college learners, EFL, anxiety coping strategies, indications**

I. Introduction

Anxiety is an unpleasant emotional state or condition which is characterized by subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, and worry, and by activation or arousal of the automatic nervous system (Spielberger, 1972). It is also referred to as a cognitive-affective response characterized by physiological arousal (indicative of sympathetic nervous system activation) and apprehension regarding a potentially negative outcome that the individual perceives as impending (Leary, 1983). In general, anxiety refers to the emotional situation of an individual who is nervous due to the feeling of failure and guilt caused either by the factors which prevent his/her expected goal from a success, or by the obstacles that s/he cannot overcome.

In the foreign language context, anxiety is regarded as a negative factor that attributes to the "affective filter" (Krashen, 1982), because it makes a FL learner less responsive to language input and attempt to convey more concrete messages than those in a non-anxiety-producing setting. Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) describe FL classroom anxiety as a situation-specific anxiety arising from the uniqueness of the formal learning of a FL, specifically from students' low self-appraisal of their communicative abilities in that language. Horwitz *et al*. point out that anxiety prevents some people from successfully performing in class, and many people find FL learning, especially in the classroom setting, particularly stressful. Numeral studies show that FL classroom anxiety can bring about a consequence of poor outcomes (Gregersen, 2005), and negatively affect learners' performance and achievement in class (Chen & Zhang, 2004; Zhao, 2007; Tan, 2009). Some scholars (Spielberge, 1966; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Young, 1991; Yamashiro & McLaughlin, 2001) have found out that classroom anxiety exits in FL learners and that higher levels of anxiety tend to indicate lower levels of proficiency in FL learning. Classroom anxiety is indeed a cause of poor English learning in both individuals and situation as an incontestable factor (Horwitz, 2001; Gobel & Matsuda, 2003; Chen, 2002; Chen & Zhang, 2004; Liu, 2006; Tan, 2009).

With the development of economical and cultural society, English has become the major compulsory FL course that learners at all levels from primary school to college and university must learn in China. Studies show that classroom anxiety is existent among about one-third or so of the Chinese college students learning English as a foreign language (EFL), and their course grades and interest in English, intentions to continue their study of English, and their CET-4 scores are negatively affected by EFL classroom anxiety (Chen, 2002; Chen & Zhang, 2004; Liu, 2006; Tan, 2009). Wei's (2012a) quantitative study in use of Horwitz's FLCAS (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale) (1986:129) reveals that Chinese Bouyei college learners in EFL experienced medium levels of overall classroom anxiety (M=3.10, SD=.68) and communication anxiety, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. However, studies on the anxiety as well as its coping strategies of Chinese college students from minority ethnic groups are still very limited in China, particularly in the remote mountainous areas inhabited by minority ethnic groups. Therefore, this study aims to make a further investigation of the anxiety coping strategies employed by the Chinese Bouyei EFL learners at college who were interviewed for responses to the following research questions (RQ):

RQ1: What are the Chinese Bouyei college students' strategies for coping with their EFL classroom anxiety?

RQ2: What EFL classroom anxiety coping strategies are most frequently reported employed by the Chinese Bouyei college students?

Previous Studies in Relation to Anxiety Coping Strategies

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Coping is of vital importance for alleviating and adapting to environmental pressure and for maintaining both physical and mental health (Wei & Tang, 1996). Actually, coping refers to the evaluation on the significance of the resources of emergency, control or change of emergent situation, a kind of cognitive activity and behavior to reduce the emotional reaction caused by emergency (Zeidner & Endler, 1996). However, researchers had different understandings of coping in different periods of time. In 1960s, coping was regarded as a process of adaptation; in the 1970s, a kind of behavior; and in the 1980s, an integration of cognitive activity and behavior (Xiang, 2001). Accordingly, FL classroom anxiety coping styles are of countermeasure that the learners apply to lessening or eliminating anxiety occurring to them in the process of their classroom English learning (Kondo & Yang, 2004; 2006). It is closely related to a kind of cognitive and behavioral effort which is employed to reduce pressure and injury when FL individuals face embarrassing situations.

As to how to deal with anxiety in the FL context, researchers have devoted a lot to the study of coping styles. It is found that a person often uses more than one coping strategy to cope with an emergent situation, and to cope with the same event, some people even have different coping styles (Chen, 2002). Although a study states that avoidance is the most common strategy used by the students to alleviate their language anxiety (Pappamihiel, 2002), some research indicates that there are at least two types of coping styles, "immature" type and "mature" type, which construct a continuum of "*avoidance*", "*imagination*", "*self-reproach*", "*help-seeking*", "*rationalization*", and "*problem-solving*" (Xiao & Xu, 1996). It is argued that the former three belong to the immature coping strategies which may reflect a person's maturity of his/her mental development as a kind of immature type; and the latter three combine the mature coping style because of their positive correlation with problem-solving (Chen, 2002). Marwan (2007) argues that there are four strategies that learners often use in coping with their FL classroom anxiety—*preparation*, *relaxation*, *positive thinkin*g, and *peer seeking* (Marwan, 2007). Of these four strategies, peer seeking and relaxation were used by the majority of learners in their attempt to reduce their anxiety followed by the other two strategies, preparation and positive thinking. Whereas, resignation, which refers to "not taking part in class activities" such as "voluntarily answering questions" was not considered by Marwan's participants as a strategy they use to cope with their anxiety in FL classroom (Marwan, 2007). However, low-efficiency-students have been found to actually use resignation as a strategy to cope with their FL anxiety in the classroom (Wu and Zhao, 2006).

It is noteworthy that the Chinese college students learn English as a foreign language (EFL) and they attend CET or TEM in order to obtain relative certificates that help reveal their EFL proficiency for further study and employment. As EFL classroom anxiety is existent among the Chinese college learners, the Chinese college learners must use different coping strategies to reduce or eliminate their anxiety in class (Chen, 2002). Since Chinese and English as well as Chinese and English cultures are quite different, the strategies used for coping with FL anxiety normally may vary a great deal in the classroom. However, a pity is that college learners anxiety coping strategies are most investigated quantitatively in the previous studies. As Wei's (2012b) conducted, for instance, a investigation through a published scale, i.e., the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Coping Styles Questionnaire (FLCACSQ) (Chen, 2002:41) found that the Chinese Bouyei college learners claimed to use a medium level of anxiety coping strategies as a whole (M=2.91,SD=.53). And, through factor analysis, the Bouyei informants were found to use five categories of anxiety coping strategies, such as *preparation, help/peer seeking, problem solving, resignation, and positive thinking.* Nevertheless, Wei has made no analysis of the strategies for cope with EFL classroom anxiety in the voice of the informants in terms of qualitative-oriented study, which embodies the necessity of the present research.

II. Research Methodology

A. Participants

The investigation was conducted with 25 1st- and 2nd-year Chinese Bouyei students randomly selected from various classes at each of the following five colleges—the South Guizhou Teachers College for Ethnic Groups, the South Guizhou Vocational College for Ethnic Groups, the South Guizhou Medial Science College for Ethnic Groups, the Xinyi Teachers College for Ethnic Groups, and the Southwest Guizhou Vocational College for Ethnic Groups. The five colleges are located in the south and southwest areas of China's Guizhou Province where a majority of the Chinese Bouyei people are living. Many of the interviewees, however, speak Bouyei language as their mother tongue and come from the countryside.

B. Instrument

Semi-structured individual interviews with 10 questions (See Appendix 1) translated into Chinese were used to collect data in the present study. As Sandelowski (2002) claims, individual interviews are the most widely-used data collection tool in qualitative research. Price (1991) also asserts that interviews allow the researchers to obtain descriptive information on variables not easily assessed through empirical research, and can provide a way to view phenomena from the point of view of the subjects. Although questionnaires can elicit abundant responses from the participants about their EFL classroom anxiety coping strategies (See Wei, 2002b), interviews are also very helpful in the present study in order to get additional, supplemental information that is valuable from various sources of elicitation. Meanwhile, percentage was also used to identify the frequency of the informants' anxiety coping strategies reported in the interviews.

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C. Data Collection

The main areas of the interviews as well as questions for the interviews had been worked out in advance through focus group discussions by the researcher of the present study. After the questions had been refined, the researcher formally collected data from the informants by talking with them face to face in a harmonious atmosphere to collect information as to how they responded to the questions.

D. Data Analyses

The individual interviews audio-recorded were listened to and comprehensively transcribed by the researcher who thereafter wrote down the statements of the subjects in relevant sections according to the similarities of the context or situation from which the FL anxiety were resulted. Then data reduction like coding, synthesis, etc. operated repetitiously according to the "open coding" and "axial coding" techniques proposed by Paunch (2005) and Strauss and Corbin's (1998). Percentage of the anxiety coping strategies reported by the interviewees was also used to demonstrate the frequency of related strategies.

III. Results and Implications

To have an overall picture of the interviewees' anxiety coping strategies, the results from the interviews include all possible anxiety coping strategies reported by the 25 Bouyei college students as interviewees with detailed information. Each of the interviewees was labeled with a code according to the time order of being interviewed. For example, ST1 refers to a student who was the first one to be interviewed (See Appendix 2). Through the data analysis of the interviews, the present study has found five categories of anxiety coping strategies under each of which are relative aspects, together with the interviewees' responses. What follows are the inventory of relative coping strategies and the presentation of the key examples of the interviewees' reported strategies, followed by the person-time and percentage of the 25 interviewees who shared the same categories and aspects.

(1) Preparation (P) (18) (72%)

Preparation consists of "working hard for various tests", and "preparation for classroom activities". The two aspects demonstrate that some students spent much time on English study before and after class in order to achieve better in learning English with less anxiety.

• **P 1.1: Working hard for various tests** (9) (36%)

Some of the interviewees reported that they spent much time on the preparation of various tests like final exams, CET, and TEM which they were all struggling not to fail, although some of the tests were not so easy to pass. They reported that they were crazily upset when preparing for CET and TEM by doing some more simulation exercises or learning more words by heart in order to overcome test anxiety. For example:

ST12: ...I have never experienced a makeup. However, in order not to fail in any test, I must prepare crazily hard…I know if I fail in a final exam, there is possibility that I might fail another time in the makeup…Then, I will have to pay more for repeated educational service…That will be too bad for me.

ST20: ...I have no confidence to passing TEM. It is very hard. I failed last time although I spent nearly all my spare time on the preparation…I'm nearly crazily upset when preparing for CET and TEM, because they are not easy if you don't spend enough time to prepare so well. It really gets on my nerves.

ST16: ...Not really, if I am well prepared. …I usually do some make-up exercises after class….However, CET and TEM are too difficult for me and I have no confidence to passing them.

• **P 1.2: Preparation for classroom activities** (9) (36%)

Various sorts of preparation for classroom activities were reported employed by some of the interviewees as a coping strategy to their anxiety for the purpose of improving their performances in English class. These interviewees reported that they did not give up learning English by working hard at it although they knew their English was not so satisfactory. For example:

ST11: ...My spoken English is poor and I'm afraid other classmates will laugh at my English pronunciation in discussions…Yes… I think I will first of all improve my pronunciation.

ST14:…To reduce my anxiety in class, I usually choose to volunteer answers and then the teacher usually questions those who seldom volunteer answers. That is a good tactic.

ST4: ...I'm bad at grammar use when expressing my idea both in spoken and written English although I often read grammar books after class.

ST7: ...I try my best to answer the teachers' questions in class in order to improve my ability

(2) Help/peer seeking (HS) (18) (72%)

Help/Peer Seeking consists of three aspects, "seeking help from peers", "seeking help from the teacher", and "seeking help from the use of Chinese". The three aspects makes clear that some students did not wait but sought assistance in order to go on English learning successfully.

• **HS 2.1: Seeking help from peers** (9) (36%)

Some of the interviewees reported that they sought advice from their deskmates, classmates, roommates, and friends. For example:

ST9: ...I exchange feelings with my deskmate when I feel very worried about how to understand a long paragraph

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and so on in English.

ST2: ...My parents know nothing about English learning, so I never communicate with them about my English study…Em…my classmates can help me with some questions I don't know so well after class.

ST13: ...I feel shy to tell the teacher about my anxiety in English learning, but I can tell my best friends about it and get some opinions from them.

• **HS 2.2: Seeking help from the teacher** (4) (16%)

The English teacher was reported by some of the informants as a source of help when they had anxiety in English learning. They asked the teacher to explain the meanings of words, and to pronounce the new words for them as well as provide them with some other advice. For example:

ST1: ...I sometimes inquire the teacher for some advice as to how to pronounce new words as well as how to reduce my worries in English learning. You know, I worry if I can catch up with other classmates.

ST3: ...I feel worried when I cannot pronounce some words correctly. ...My pronunciation needs improvement, I know. However, I will get help from my English teacher either in or after class.

ST15: ...If I meet new words while reading in class, I will ask the teacher for help.

• **HS 2.3: Seeking help from the use of Chinese** (5) (20%)

It was reported by some students that they sought help from the use of Chinese instead of their mother tongue when they met difficulty in communication. For example:

ST25: ...In discussions, I'm usually hesitating what to say in English, but sometimes uttering Chinese words instead…

ST1: ...Sometimes, when I cannot express my mind in English, I speak Chinese instead so that my counterpart can easily understand. It's really embarrassing when not knowing how to utter some English words.

ST7: ...I feel awkward while speaking English which I'm not so good at, so Chinese is what I often use in the middle of the pair work and discussions.

(3) Relaxation (RLX) (4) (64%)

Relaxation consists of three aspects, "turning concentration away from class activities", "taking a deep breath", and "imagining the audience to be less prepared". The three aspects display that some students conducted such tactics that could effectively help them relax in order to perform better in FL class.

• **RLX 4.1: Turning concentration away from class activities** (7) (28%)

They also reported that they chose to turn their concentration away from class activities by reading some stories, pictorials, and text books themselves, listening to MP3 music, and even pinching the arm or leg or going out to wash face in order to feel relaxed from class. For example:

ST2: ...When I feel worried about my English learning, I choose to read some stories instead.

ST8: ...I read some pictorials in class if I am nervous, for they are easy to understand.

ST9: ...I look out of the windows far away into the sky. This may help make me better when feeling bad in English class.

ST16: ...I sometimes pinch my arm or leg…and it makes sense as a refreshing method when I feel bad.

• **RLX 4.2: Taking a deep breath** (6) (24%)

Taking a deep breath is what some interviewees reported as a tactic of *relaxation*. They usually took a deep breath while entering the examination room, and when going to the Bb for presentations or speaking to the whole class on behalf of other group members. For example:

ST1: ...Before I go to the Bb for my presentation, I'm used to taking a deep breath. This really makes me relaxed in English class.

ST3: ...I'd like to take a deep breath when the teacher asks me to go to the Bb to do some writing exercises. I know I may make mistakes.

ST5: ...I shake hands with some of my group members and take a deep breath when going to the Bb as required for a oral report about what we have discussed.

ST10: ...I take a deep breath before a test, although I am not so afraid of test if I am well prepared.

• **RLX 4.3: Imagining the audience to be less prepared** (3) (12%)

Some of the interviewees reported that they usually imagined other classmates in class to be the audience who might be less prepared while they were doing some presentations to the whole class as required. They said:

STI15: ... I believe that other classmates may be not so well prepared with this question and might not know how to express their minds as well as I was doing. This makes me relaxed a lot and become less worried.

ST13: ...It really happens, I believe, that other peers are not as well-prepared as you are, but you are too much nervous about whether you would do as well as others. In this case, I choose to pretend that I am much better at knowing about things than my peers. This makes me a bit relaxed.

ST8: ...However hard I try to overcome my anxiety in class, my anxiety seems never to disappear. So I choose to force myself to think that other people may be "stupid" and I am smart enough in many aspects.

(4) Resignation (RSN) (12) (48%)

Resignation consists of "avoiding participation in classroom activities", and "staying away from school". The two aspects illustrate that some students did not leave English class but chose to do something else like sleep in class, chat

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on the cell-phone, and refuse to take part in any classroom activities, and some stayed away from class by asking for leave, playing truant, and leaving early during class.

• **RSN 5.1 Avoiding participation in classroom activities** (8) (32%)

Some of the students reported that they do not leave English class but choose to do something else like sleep in class, chat on the cell-phone, and refuse to take part in any classroom activities. For example:

ST1: …Well, I'm not sure what I can learn …so I'm not so willing to go to English class for the reason that it might be a waste of time…because what I can do is to sleep in English class.

ST6: …I sometimes turn to chat on my cell-phone if the English teacher's class is quite boring…This happens many times.

ST16: …I usually say, "Sorry, I don't know", while blushing with a shame. Then the teacher would change to ask others.

ST7: …I never give up learning English, but sometimes keep silence in class to avoid getting involved in discussions when I am not so well prepared for some other reason.

• **RSN 5.2 Staying away from class (4) (16%)**

In a very casual, and harmonious atmosphere, a few of the interviewees honestly reported that they even chose to stay away from class by asking for leave, playing truant, and leaving early during class. For example:

ST12: …My English is not bad in class. However, I occasionally resign some single class if I forget to do homework and not able to hand it in the next day. I know it is not good to tell a lie though, I sometimes pretend that I am ill. What a shame…

ST25: …The English teacher does not encourage us with efforts …I feel bored and sometimes stay in the library instead reading English books myself.

ST3: …I know about the discipline of the school although I escape from class every now and then. …Um…some of my close friends sometimes help find some excuse for my absence.

(5)Positive thinking (PT) (10) (40%)

Positive thinking consists of two aspects, "planning to work harder at English learning", and "conducting self-encouragement". The two aspects indicate that some students decided to take some measures to improve their FL learning, as well as not to lose hope in FL learning.

• **PT 3.1: Planning to work harder at English learning** (3) (12%)

Some of the students reported that they would work harder at English learning although they had difficulty in it. For example:

ST1: …English is not my strength although I'm interested in it. I will turn to exert myself to fulfill my wish in other fields in order to achieve better results. However, I will not totally give up English learning, especially English speaking.

ST9: …Honestly speaking, how I yearn the years when my English was good at junior high school and received some awards from the English teacher. I hope I can be as confident as before if I do not give up and work harder from now on.

ST15: …I know my English is poor, but I believe if I work harder, there is possibility that I can make progress and learn something needed for my future.

• **PT 3.2: Conducting self-encouragement** (7) (28%)

Some of the interviewees reported that they usually encourage themselves by being determined not to give up learning English as well as struggling for passing CET although their progress is low. They also reported that they tried to reduce their anxiety by saying something to themselves when encountering anxiety and believed they would be okay. For example:

ST6: …I think I will not give up English learning although my progress is not obvious.

ST7: …I would compare the present anxiety with the past that made me more worried, and tell myself that I have made greater progress at present.

ST11: …I usually say to me, "Your difficulty is merely temporary. Go ahead, …."

ST16: …Yes, I do. I say with firm belief to myself, "I will be okay later on. Just wait and see."

The above findings reveal that *preparation* (18) (72%) and *help/peer seeking* (18) (72%) seem to be the most frequently reported categories of anxiety coping strategies followed by *relaxation* (4) (64%) that the interviewees employed. It is noteworthy that the former two are consistent with the most commonly employed coping strategies found the rotated component matrix of factor analysis for the FLCACSQ conducted in the researchers' previous study (Wei, 2012b: 31-43). However, the other two anxiety coping strategies were supportively associated with Wei's quantitative study in use of the closed-ended questionnaire, whereas the strategy *problem solving* was little reported by the interviewees and therefore was not considered a strategy the informants commonly employed.

IV. Conclusion

Based on the analysis of the data collected from the semi-structured individual interviews, it seems that the Chinese Bouyei college students mainly employed five categories of strategies (*preparation, help/peer seeking, relaxation, resignation, and positive thinking*) for coping with their classroom anxiety in EFL. The research manifests their solutions to lessen their FL classroom anxiety as doing preparation for class, seeking help from peers, the English

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teacher and others, employing tactics that could effectively help relax in order to perform better in EFL class, doing something else to temporary solve the problems, avoiding participating in classroom activities, and conducting positive thinking. Interestingly, the results in terms of frequency of the reported coping strategies mostly support the researcher's previous quantitative study, showing that the Chinese Bouyei college students' first two most commonly employed coping strategies are related to *preparation*, and *help/peer seeking*, although the third most commonly employed was not *positive solving* but *relaxation* that differentiates Wei's previous findings. Nevertheless, this also indicates that their coping styles are also of "mature" type (Wei, 2012b), which demonstrates the necessity and stringency of the teacher's effort to act as a facilitator in EFL classroom by developing a harmonious relationship with the learners and showing much concern about college EFL learners with different characteristics and various personalities.

APPENDIX 1 INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR COLLEGE EFL LEARNERS

Q1: Do you feel worried and depressed about your English study in class? Do you have the feeling of not going to English class? Why?

Q2: Are you worried when listening to the tape, the English teacher, or the native speaker in class? Can you tell me the reason? How do you cope with such worries?

Q3: Do you feel pressure when required to read some English materials in class? Why? What do you do to deal with such pressure?

Q4: How do you feel when you know you have to perform a task of output like speaking or writing in your English classroom? Why? What do you usually do in face of such situation?

Q5: What are the distinctive differences between the acquisition environments of Bouyei language, Chinese language, and English that cause language anxiety for an EFL learner? Why?

Q6: What do you think are the main factors contributing to your nervousness or anxiety in English class? (language competence, personality traits, classroom settings, cultural differences, language test, social status and self-identity, or anything else)

Q7: Whom do you often go to for advice or to exchange feelings with about your worries in English learning?

Q8: What more do you usually do to reduce stress or anxiety in English class?

Q9: What do you think the English teacher could do to help reduce your anxiety in class?

Q10: What else would you like to suggest for reducing foreign language anxiety in the college learners?

P.S. The Chinese Version of the Individual Questions for College EFL Learners: 大学生英语学习焦虑及其应对策略个别访谈问题

1. 在英语课堂学习上，你感到焦虑和沮丧吗？为什么？
2. 在听磁带，听英语教师和外教讲课时,你感到焦虑吗？为什么？你是如何应对的?
3. 当老师让你在课堂上阅读英语材料时，你有压力吗？原因是什么？你是任何处理的?
4. 老师让你在课堂上进行英语口头或笔头表达时，你有什么样的感受？为什么？你又是怎样应对的?
5. 你认为在学习布依语、汉语和英语之间，有些什么明显的差别？哪一种学习更容易造成更大的学习焦虑？为什么？
6. 你觉得造成英语课堂学习焦虑的主要因素是什么？（语言能力，个性差异，课堂环境，文化差异，语言测试，社会地位和自我认证，等等）
7. 你通常和谁进行交流，以便听取他们关于如何克服英语学习焦虑情绪的建设性意见？
8. 对于任何减少英语学习的压力和焦虑，你通常还采取哪些应对办法？
9. 你觉得英语教师该怎样做，才能帮助你减少课堂学习焦虑？
10. 对存在英语课堂学习焦虑的同学，你还有哪些可行的建议？

APPENDIX 2 A SAMPLE INTERVIEW SCRIPT (THE ENGLISH VERSION)

Interviewer: Wei Jianhua
Interviewee: ST21
Date: September 27, 2011
Time: 3:10 p.m.
Place: South Guizhou Teachers College for Ethnic Groups

Me: Good afternoon.
ST16: Good afternoon.
Me: Please take your seat.
ST16: Thank you.
Me: Could I know you name, please?
ST16: Yes, my name is ….
Me: My name is Wei Jianhua. Thank you for your coming to the interview.

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ST16: It's my pleasure.

Me: When did you start learning English?

ST16: En…a temporary teacher, who knew a little English, taught us some when we were at primary school. Actually, we formally started learning English from the first year at junior middle school.

Me: **Do you feel worried and depressed about your English study in class at college?**

ST16: Um…yes, I feel nervous when I answer questions in class.

Me: Do you even tremble?

ST16: (Laughs) Sometimes… I tremble sometimes.

Me: **Why?**

ST16: I feel worried when I don't understand what the teacher says; but if I understand, I am not so worried.

Me: That means if you understand, you can also be worried, but not that much?

ST16: Yes.

Me: Do you have the feeling of not going to English class?

ST16: Sometimes, especially, when I first came to college.

Me: **Can you tell me the reason?**

ST16: I am a bit timid and I don't know about grammar…my grammar is poor, and… my vocabulary is inadequate. I'm not good at grammatical structure…about the subject, the predicate, object, etc… and how to connect words in proper order. I feel bad when seeing others speak better than I do.

Me: How can it be like that?

ST16: When we were at senior higher school, the English teacher merely read the text to us and told us the meanings of the sentences…What's more, we were also lazy and didn't explore effective learning approaches about how to study English well…These might be the reason.

Me: Are you in the same situation at college now?

ST16: It's a bit better now, but terrible during the first term. I felt bored and I didn't find it interesting…maybe because of the way the teacher taught us. I remember we met an English teacher from South Korea at junior high school, and we were all very much interested in her lessons with a lot of fun… She taught us in a very interesting way.

Me: Are you still depressed in English learning as before?

ST16: Not so much and I am studying harder now.

Me: What brings you to a change?

ST16: We have had some new English teachers since last term whose lessons were more interesting. What's more, I have to pass the terminal exams of a few English courses like Listening, English Speaking, General English, and English Writing. In addition, I have to prepare for my CET and TEM. I cannot stay where I was.

Me: You have already a lot to do. Why must you attend CET and TEM?

ST16: They are important for job-seeking in future, I am told. I'm puzzled for that…You know, my English is nor satisfactory.

Me: **Are you worried when listening to the tape, the English teacher, or the native speaker in class?**

ST16: However, I find it even harder to understand the Chinese English teachers because they sometimes speak too much and too fast, even faster than native speakers with no care for our understanding. The fact may be that native speakers care more for our comprehensive competence than the Chinese ones.

Me: **How do you cope with such worries?**

ST16: Um…I usually do some make-up exercises after class.

Me: What about in class?

ST16: I have to endure the fact that I am weak in such activities.

Me: Do you say something to yourself in order not to worry so much?

ST16: …Yes, I do. I say with firm belief to myself, "I will be okay later on. Just wait and see."

Me: **Do you feel pressure when required to read some English materials in class?**

ST16: Not really …if I have no new words… and I can ask the teacher for help if I meet words I don't know.

Me: **How do you feel when you know you have to perform a task of output like speaking or writing in your English classroom?**

ST16: Well, I'm very nervous

Me: **Why?**

ST16: Because my spoken English is very poor. And I fear that others would laugh at my mistakes when answering the teacher's questions orally.

Me: **What do you usually do in face of such situation?**

ST16: (Laughs shyly) I usually say, "Sorry, I don't know", while blushing with a shame. Then the teacher would change to ask others.

Me: Do you have anxiety in writing in class?

ST16: Yes, when I don't know how to express my mind in English…Instead, I choose to write in the style of Chinese regardless of English grammar… or use some Chinese characters in the sentence.

Me: Another question: **What are the differences between the acquisition environments of Bouyei language,**

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Chinese language, and English that cause language anxiety for an EFL learner? Why?

ST16: For me, we are Chinese and so feel bigger anxiety in learning English than in learning Chinese. I speak Bouyei as well as Chinese naturally since I started to learn Chinese in the first year at primary school…; but for English, we learned it very late and had no other people speaking English with us around …and their sentence structures and sounds are quite different…hard to learn it well, you can imagine.

Me: **What do you think are the main factors contributing to your nervousness or anxiety in English class?** (The researcher slowly says out one by one the following factors as choices given: language competence, personality traits, classroom procedure, cultural differences, language test, social status and self-identity, etc.)

ST16: I think they are mainly language competence, personality traits, cultural differences, and language tests.

Me: Are you an introvert or an extrovert? Why do you think personality traits can contribute to anxiety?

ST16: I was an introvert before, but I am becoming an extrovert now. I think extroverts are usually more open-minded and like to talk with people, so they can learn English better and faster.

Me: Are you confident to your English study?

ST16: Yes. I believe I can catch up with others.

Me: Do you think self-esteem can help you with bigger effort to reduce your anxiety?

ST16: I think so. Since I have a strong esteem, I don't want to be looked down upon by others, so I will work harder than before so that I can participate in all classroom activities. With my English improved, I believe I will have less anxiety.

Me: Why don't you regard social status and self-identity as a factor that causes English learning anxiety in class? For example, you may have a sense of inferiority because you are a minority person from the countryside…and by the way, I am also a Bouyei who grew up with such a feeling in the countryside.

ST16: Um… I come from the countryside as a minority student, but there are many other minority students in class. Hans are not so many in my class. However, my cousin has the problem in Shanghai University, where there are less minority students. Actually, her problem is not that serious and she even feels a bit "superior" for her being able to speak not only Chinese, but also Bouyei language and some people even feel curious about the minority students. In this case, I have not such feeling.

ST16: What about if you feel inferior and are in fear of being laughed by those classmates whose English you think is better than yours?

ST16: In this case, I really feel depressed while others seem unwillingly to speak with me in discussions because my spoken English is poor.

Me: That's very interesting. Are you afraid of tests very much?

ST16: Not really, if I am well prepared. However, CET and TEM are too difficult for me and I have no confidence to passing them.

Me: What more you think are responsible for anxiety?

ST16: The teacher's teaching approaches, I think. You see, we felt it interesting to learn English with that English teacher from Korea at junior high school. Some college English teachers are serious and their teachings not so interesting to us.

Me: **Whom do you often go to for advice or to exchange feelings with about your worries in English learning?**

ST16: I often communicate with my classmates and get help from them.

Me: Do you communicate with your parents about your anxiety?

ST16: No. They know nothing about English study.

Me: What about asking the teacher for some advice?

ST16: Yes. I sometimes do…it just depends. However, some teachers seem busy.

Me: You don't fear that the teacher or your classmates may then have a negative impression on yourself?

ST16: I do. I am afraid the teacher and my classmates would lay a special eye on me.

Me: **What more do you usually do to reduce stress or anxiety in English class?**

ST16: I sometimes pinch my arm or leg…and it makes sense as a refreshing method when I feel bad.

Me: Really?

ST16: Um yes.

Me: Interesting. Uh…**What do you think the English teacher should do to help reduce your anxiety in class?**

ST16: Give us more chances to do pair work in class, not only to listen to the dialogue in the tape or merely to speak to the whole class.

Me: Good. Don't you want the teacher to ask you to do exercises on the blackboard or to answer questions in front of the blackboard?

ST16: Um…I really want the teacher to do that, but I sometime am not so aware of what to do.

Me: I see. Uh…**What else would you like to suggest for reducing foreign language anxiety in the college learners?**

ST16: Um…I think… the teacher should carry out new…innovative classroom procedures… so that the English students can learn English more efficiently…um… with less anxiety… but… more motivation stimulated.

Me: Good suggestion…Anything else?

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ST16: The teachers speak too much in class…They speak, speak, and speak…and we should be given time to speak too. We need time to practice and then get improved. Furthermore, the students' interest in English is the foremost, or they will loose heart.

Me: Thank you so much for your useful and valuable information about classroom anxiety and relative coping styles.

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Languages in Contact, a Blessing or a Scourge? A Case Study of Yoruba Ethnography of Greetings

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***Abstract*—The paper posits that "languages in contact", a sociolinguistic phenomenon, is both a blessing and a scourge in Nigeria. This phenomenon was analyzed from both the diachronic and synchronic perspective. The author asserts that the contact between English and Yoruba in Nigeria has positive consequences such as bilingualism, multilingualism, effective code – mixing and code- switching, borrowing, bi-and multi-culturalism, and language enrichment. English language came with its culture, and this has a facilitating and pervasive influence on Nigerian education system, the entrenchment of democracy and cultural best practices. These are a real blessing. However, the negative or deleterious consequences of languages in contact are devastating. These include language interference problems arising from inter-lingual phenomenon; the issue of linguistic suicide and murder, or what is called language and cultural endangerment and extinction. The ethnography of communication, especially of greeting, among the Yoruba, is fast losing its vitality, finesse and value as a result of the negative influence of English on Yoruba language and culture. The author suggests that effective language planning; both corpus and status, with a serious commitment to language documentation may be the panacea to language and cultural endangerment occasioned by languages in contact.**

***Index Terms*—ethnography, inter-lingual, accommodation, linguistic suicide, documentation, endangerment, theosophy, ideational**

I. Introduction

Different nations of the world have different experiences regarding the story of languages in contact. In Nigeria, it is a chequered history; traumatic socio- psychologically, politically and economically,though it is a natural sociolinguistic development which societies must contend with.Nigeria is a multilingual nation where English language has acquired the status of a second language. English languagewas implanted in Nigeria through some crucial aspects of European contact. These aspects, according to Ogunsiji (1994), which had a serious impact, include missionary activities and colonial rule. The Nigerian languages thus had contact with the English language through colonization.The consequence of this contact on the ethnography of Yoruba greetings is the main thrust of this paper.

A. Language Contact Situation

Writing on languages in contact, Comrie (2009) asserts that while much change takes place in a given language without outside interference, many changes can result from contact with other languages. When two or more languages come in contact, some socio- linguistic phenomena take place, among which are bilingualism, multilingualism, code-switching, code- mixing, calquing, borrowing, language interference and, perhaps, creolisation and pidginisation (Olaoye, 2007). Some Nigerian languages also had contact with Arabic and French. English, as Nigeria's Lingua Franca, is a British colonial legacy which eventually became a major player in Nigerian education, politics, administration, economy and legislation. English today can be regarded as the lamp with which the Nigerian youth travel through the education tunnel. It is now being referred to as one of the major Nigerian languages (Ogundare, 2004). It is a compromise language of communication in Nigeria's multi- lingual and multi- cultural setting. The reason being that the orchestrated political resistance to the choice of an indigenous language, as a national official language (NOL), has foreclosed choosing any of the three major Nigerian languages (Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba) as a Lingua Franca. English is thus seen as the socio- linguistic and symbolic embodiment of political power and authority (Adekunle, 1974).

English is a vehicle of globalization through which came information and communication technology (ICT), which has a pervasive influence on education delivery. Through English, western democracy has become a popular and regular news menu on the nation's political agenda. Through ICT many exoglossic languages have had close contact with some Nigerian languages. The influence of these foreign languages has been overwhelming, contributing to the growth and development of the Nigerian ethnolects. Through language borrowing, vocabulary expansion is made possible by lexical modernization. Yoruba language in particular has become superbly enriched. This enrichment takes place in almost all aspects of Yoruba language.The three major Nigerian languages, Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba borrowed from English. Some of the characteristics of those borrowed words are that they are integrated into the borrowing Nigerian languages, and that consonant clusters in these words are broken with epenthetic vowels.This is an incidence of linguistic symbiosis. According to Brann (2008) the in road so exoglossic languages have brought a shift from mono-lingualism to multilingualism, and has thus created a class of polyglots in urban cities from the monoglots of the rural areas.

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B. Negative Consequences

The history of languages in contact, the world over, is a chequered one, the above delineated salutary consequencesnotwithstanding. The English-ization of the world, particularly the pervasive influence of English on Nigerian languages and Nigeria's polity, hasa deleterious consequence. English language inNigeria behaves like an overbearing monster, bestriding the nation, with its octopus legs, like a colossus. According to Lawal (2006), English is the most adventurous and adulterous of all the languages of the world today. It behaves, in its brazen and penetrating force, as a rapist, raping some Nigerian languages to death. French, another malevolent aggressor, is not even spared. Homogenization and hegemonization, Lawal (2006) laments, are the goals of English language expansionism.

Linguistic hegemony is manifested in three ways: (a) linguistic genocide known as linguicidal trait. In this situation, English is monopolistic, totalitarian and destructive.It decimates or kills the Nigerian languages; (b) Linguistic imperialism, a situation where English becomes a dominant language linguistically, socio-politically and economically; and (c) linguistic opportunism, a situation where English dominates other languages that can not compete with it.Linguistic genocide is of two types in Nigeria.We have suicide and murder instances. In the linguistic suicide case it is the contact between English and Nigerian languages that encouraged Nigerians to develop long throat for English for prestige purpose, and for the socio- political and economic benefits derivable from the learning of English.Speakers of the Nigerian minority languages thus plunge themselves headlong into English, leaving their own languages to die due to lack of use, neglect and misuse. This is suicidal. The murder instances are encouraged by government's retrograde language education policy. Emenanjo (2004) points out that Nigeria has no de jure national policy which can be found in one source, but that a de facto national language policy exists.Nigerian language education policy encourages the cultivation and propagation of English at the expense of the Nigerian languages.Federal government has created stiff and tough competition between English and the local languages, and has also introduced other foreign languages such as Arabic, French,Portugueseand Chinese into the Nigerian school curriculum. The Nigerian constitution also promotes the growth of English when it recommends that: 'the business of the National assembly shall be conducted in English and in Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba when adequate arrangements have been made therefore', (1999, section 51).

The same constitution recommends that, at the state level: 'the business of the House of Assembly shall be conducted in English, but the House may, in addition to English, conduct the business in one or more languages spoken in the state…' (Section 9).This is how, according to crystal (1987), in Elugbe (2008), languages can be actively promoted, passively tolerated, deliberately ignored, positively discouraged, and even banned or killed. The type of linguistic diversity we have in Nigeria is described by Elugbe (2008) as a linguistic mosaic which creates conflict between languages, and which leads to endangerment and death.Language endangerment is a serious threat arising from the negative impact of languages in contact. According to Bamgbose (2008), language endangerment is a continuum, at one end of which there are dying languages and at the other end of which there are deprived languages. Bamgbose (2008) laments that Nigerian Languages are facing threat of extinction occasioned by the Federal Government's retrograde step, particularly the scrapping of the only semi-autonomous institute devoted to its languages. This is murderous, as this movement in the wrong direction is having a toll on Nigerian Languages. English, the malevolent contact visitor is thus being more vigorously empowered to prey on Nigerian Local Languages, its hapless hosts. This trend has to be reversed, because a dead language can be equated with a dead civilization with the whole spectrum of cultures, technological imperatives, and intangible values that only a language can give life.The death of some Nigerian languages is a danger signal. The eventual creolization of Yoruba and other Nigerian languages is imminent if care is not taken.

A language isn't just a body of vocabulary or a set of grammatical rules.It is a flash of the human spirit, a vehicle through which the soul of a particular culture comes into the material world. When we lose a language we lose a vital part of the human spirit. Supporting this assertion, Maidugu (2006) adds that our indigenous languages are treasures of our culture and self-identity, but these indigenous languages are disappearing. He laments about the disappearing indigenous texts in Nigerian libraries caused by Nigerian authors who are embracing the highly patronized English language texts. Language interference is also one of the negative consequences. Many Nigerians are neither proficient in English nor good in their Mother Tongues. Inter-lingual problems are responsible for this double tragedy. The over cultivation and promotion of English at the expense of the Nigerian languages may be the cause of this scourge.

It is equally worrisome that some Nigerian languages- Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba- also constitute another source of endangerment. Hausa language is threatening the survival of Kanuri and other northern Nigerian minority languages. Haruna (2006) describes this situation as a serious desertification and deforestation in the linguistic landscape. According to him, the Hausa -ization of Northern Nigeria is responsible for the murder threat on Tula, in Kaltungo LGA of Gombe State (Emenanjo and Bleambo, 1999). Yoruba language too behaves like the rapacious English that is decimating Nigerian Languages. Language death in the Middle Belt of Nigeria is a case of murder or suicide (Yusuf 2006). In suicide case, languages with some degree of similarities gradually eat each other up. This seems to be the case of the Ajowa – Akoko in relation to Yoruba. It is language murder when the National policy on education forces some speech communities to adopt a major language. Ogorii relation to Yoruba falls in this murder category case. The survival of many South- South and Mid-West minority languages is also being threatened by Igbo. This is a case of dog eats other dogs. This is unpalatable.

Languages in contact also affect people's cultures in contact both positively and negatively. The culture of the speakers of English was also imported to Nigeria. This affected the host cultures of the people with which English

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language had contact. English language and culture have a pervasive influence on Nigerian cultures in the area of food, dress, occupation, health, customs and traditions, values and belief system including education and technology. In many aspects of these cultural practices, the English-Yoruba contact has salutary effects on Yoruba culture. And in some respects the contact has devastating effects. One of these areas is the Yoruba ethnography of greetings.Languages in contact also bring about cultural endangerment. Olaoye (2008) observed that the much-cherished, rich, age-long Yoruba culture of greetings is fast being eroded by cultural and linguistic globalization.

C. Ethnography of Yoruba Greetings

The ethnography of communication, particularly greetings among the Yoruba is an interesting and intriguing socio-linguistic phenomenon. Greetings are conventional expressions used for welcoming people, or for expressing pleasure when meeting people.Greetings refer to salutations, kind well wishes, congratulatory remarks and compliments in general. It involves exchange of pleasantries between two of more people. The phrase phatic communion is used to refer to this social human desire to signal friendship, or at least to show lack of enmity. Greetings are social lubricants used for maintaining a comfortable relationship between and among people. In greetings, paralanguage is involved. Greetings among the Yoruba are accompanied by gestures such as kneeling, genuflecting, prostrating, bowing down and sometimes handshakes. A breach of this language and cultural behaviour is regarded as an act of rudeness, insolence or indiscipline, and it is often followed with a heavy sanction. Greetings follow Grice's (1975) co-operative principles, as the Yoruba culture of greetings entails a lot of co-operative interactions. Greetings also follow Leech's (1983) politeness principle which states the necessity for tact, generosity, approbation and modesty.

D. Arabic and Yoruba in Nigeria

Diachronic studies of Arabic language revealthat the contact with Yoruba came through Islam. As a Semitic language, Arabic has no recognizable genetic connection with Yoruba, except that the two belong to the Indo- European languagefamily. Examining the historical factors leading to the heavy linguistic borrowings and influences of Arabic on some languages, Abubakre (2002) observed that Yoruba is one of those languages which manifest appreciable linguistic convergence with Arabic. Similarities in cultural traits which explain the genetic affinity of Yoruba with Arabic have also been attested. A lot of narratives in the Yoruba Folklore lend credence to this assertion.Contacts between Arabic and Yoruba were also promoted through education.Universities, Institutes and academic institutions contributed immensely in the Arabic- Yoruba multilingualism. Arabic loanwords are transmitted through Hausa, though not all Arabic loanwords came via Hausa. Nupe, the immediate linguistic neighbour of Yoruba and Kanuri, could be said to be the linguistic conveyor belt. According to Abubakre (2002),Mande and Songhai are plausible vectors through which Arabic got transmitted to Yoruba. Some of the Arabic words loaned to Yoruba are:

ARABIC LOANED WORDS

ARABIC	YORUBA	ENGLISH MEANING
Ad-du'a	Adua/adura	Prayer
Al- barakah	Alubarika	Blessing
Al-amr	Alamori	Matter
Ar-rad	Ara	thunder
Al-a: fiyah	Ala: fiya	Good health
Al-ayb	Ala:bu	Blemish /stain
Ar-rizq	Arisiki	Wealth
Sabab	Sababi	Cause
Waqt	Wakati	Time/hour

These Arabic loan words have to adapt to the morphological structure of Yoruba. The consonant cluster in Arabic has been broken with epenthetic vowels. This linguistic accommodation has made it possible for literary and non-literary artists to produce beautifully code- switched and code – mixed songs, lyrics, poems and proverbs."Languages in contact" is, no doubt, a welcome development, as it has contributed in no small measure, to the growth of the entertainment industries. The likes of Sunny Ade in Juju music, Haruna Ishola in Apala music, Yusuf Olatunji and S. Aka in Sakara, Sikuru Ayinde and Kolington Ayinla in Fuji, have risen to stardom in music in this language contact situation.

The transportation of foreign culture especially English and Arabic traditions to Nigeria has been noted. Yoruba traditional oral literature has been greatly influenced by Arabic literary tradition. Yoruba mythology shares certain aspects with Arabic geomancy (divination) especially Ifa. According to Abubakre (2002) many sources have noted the similarities between the Arabic form and the Yoruba Ifa, the Dahomean Fa, and the Sikidy (Sigidi in Yoruba) of the Malagasy.Arabic has also been greatly influenced by Yoruba in the diachronic and synchronic history of the two languages in contact. Instances of this reciprocal influence are in the production of Yoruba proverbs in Arabic and narration of Yoruba stories in Arabic. In these Yoruba stories, the language used is still Arabic but the setting, the plot and narrative techniques, including characterization have Yoruba origin. Who then says that Arabic and Yoruba are strange bed- fellows? The phenomenon of languages in contact is therefore a blessing.

II. DOCUMENTING ETHNOGRAPHY OF GREETINGS

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Documentary linguistics, as a new sub-discipline within linguistics, is a relatively new coinage that dates back to only about two decades. According to Akinlabi and Connell (2007), interest and perhaps works on the state of the world linguistic heritage have increased dramatically as a form of language development or "salvage" work called documentation. Interest in work on endangered languages dates back to the mid-1990s with Connell's work in the Mambila Plateau of Nigeria and Cameroon, with the work of Gibbon, Connell and Ahoua in the Ivory cost on Ega, and with the collaborative work of Akinlabi, Connell and Ndimele on Defaka and Nkoroo in the South Eastern part of Nigeria (Akinlabi and Connell 2007).Documenting the ethnography of speaking, particularly of greetings among the speakers of three Dialects of Yoruba, namely Igbomina, Ijebu and Ijesa, involves the collection, organization, transcription and translation of primary data. The work also entails annotation of data in such a way that it is accessible to many people. What we have done in this work involves re-creating and archiving record of linguistic materials on language and culture, in order to create a data bank that could be used for teaching others about Yoruba language and the three dialects.

A. Global Views on the Concept of Greetings

Greetings are conventional expressions used for welcoming people or for expressing pleasure when meeting somebody. Greetings are so important to the Yoruba people that they refer to themselves as "Omo O Kaaro Ojiirebi" which means descendants of those who greet by saying "good morning, and how are you?" Daramola and Jeje (1967) assert that it is obligatory for parents to teach their children how to greet politely, as "Omoti a baji lowuro lodo agbalagba ti kosi mo ohunti o to lati se yoo gba eebu, yoo si gba abuku". This means that a child who wakes up early in the morning without first of all greeting the elders would be rebuked. On the other hand, a child that wakes up and first of all observes the norms associated with greetings would be highly favoured. Greetings however depend on three basic factors, viz; the time of the day, the context of greeting and the people involved, especially their age and relationship.

Paralanguage is involved in greetings. Greetings are accompanied by gestures such as kneeling down, genuflecting, prostrating, bowing down, and sometimes hand shake. A younger female person kneels down greeting an elderly person, while a younger male person prostrates and also removes his cap. A breach of this language behaviour is often regarded as an act of rudeness, insolence or indiscipline. The Yoruba people hold greetings in high esteem. This is evident from the proverbs associated with greetings, two of which are: "Ki a rinilokeere, ki a se ariya, o yoni juonje lo", which means "warm greetings satisfy more than food". The second is "Eniyanni a koti a koki, eniti a bakikotarajeni'', which means greeting someone is a privilege, let him that is greeted respond promptly, after all there are people one meets without greeting them.

B. Theoretical Frame Work

The framework of analysis is our model framework called the Co-operative Politeness Hypothesis, which we found very apt in describing and analyzing the ethnography of greetings among the Yoruba. The syntactic-semantic analysis of some of the greetings was carried out, bringing out the variant forms in the three dialects and the Yoruba Standard Form. The Co-operative-Politeness Theory in this paper, our model framework, is based on Grice's (1975) co-operative principles and Leech's (1983) politeness hypothesis. Grice's pragmatic theory finds application in the ethnography of greetings of the Yoruba People. The co-operative principle has it that conversation is usually a cooperative activity. Grice believes that at any point in a conversation, a speaker should be guided by certain maxims, such as: quality – speakers should say only what is true; quantity – speakers should say no more and no less than is required; relation – speakers should be relevant; and manner – speakers should be perspicuous, i.e. be brief, orderly and should avoid ambiguity. Greetings follow Gricean laws or maxims, because Yoruba culture entails a lot of co-operative interactions which also involve politeness. The primary function of the co-operative maxims is that of constraining the participants in the greeting conversation to make their conversation orderly, purposeful and maximally efficient.

Leech's (1983) politeness principle also has four maxims; viz: tact, generosity, approbation and modesty. A speaker is required to be tactful rather than offensive, generous rather than dismissive or insensitive, be modest rather than boastful, and also be socially approving rather than pretentious. In greetings, as in any other communicative event, conformity to societal rules, or code of conduct, especially respect for elders and superiors, reciprocal respect for one another, condescension, accommodation and modesty are instances of the co-operative-politeness principles which interlocutors must observe. The politeness principle is motivated by the desire to maintain social equilibrium and friendly relations. These two principles are largely regulative factors which ensure that conversation does not follow a fruitless or destructive path; as principles have normative characteristics akin to moral imperatives.Greetings and politeness are universal concepts which are inseparable and indispensable. In Yoruba culture, refusal to greet others is regarded as impolite, whereas greeting people is regarded as the greatest honour that could be bestowed on those who are being greeted. Greetings and politeness are both levels of conversational interaction (Coulthard 1985, and Leech 1983).

III. GEO-LINGUISTICS OF THE AREAS

Yoruba language is spoken mainly in Oyo, Ogun, Ondo, Osun, and Ekiti states of Western Nigeria. Speakers are also found in Kwara, Edo and Kogi States, and in the Republics of Benin (formerly Dahomey) and Togo, in Sierra Leone

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and Ghana. Some speakers are also found in the West Indies and South America, particularly in Cuba and Brazil. Yoruba language has many dialects among which are Ekiti, Igbomina, Ijebu, Ijesa, Oyo, Ondo, Owo, Ikale, Ilaje, Ikare, Yagba, Gbede, Ijumu, Ife, Ikiri, Isabe, Ijo,etc. The standard Yoruba is described by George (1981) as a blend of two closely related dialects, Oyo and Lagos.

The Ijebu dialect is spoken in Ijebu Ode Local Government Area of Ogun State. There are two main varieties, viz: the Emo variety spoken in Sagamu, Oderemo, Ipara, Isara, Iperu and Ikenne; while the Ijebu Central variety is spoken in Ijebu-Ode, Ijebu-Igbo and its environs.Ijesa dialect is spoken in about ten local government areas of Osun State. Some Ijesa speaking villages include IjebuIjesa, Enriomo, EsaOke, Odo, EtiOri, Ifewara, IpetuIjesa, IyeMogun and Ilesa.Igbomina dialect is spoken by the Igbomina who are found in both Kwara and Osun States. Igbominaland is divided into eighty districts, in three Local Government Areas, viz; Ifelodun LGA, with Share as the headquarters; Irepodun LGA with Omu-Aran as the headquarters, and Isin LGA, with Owu-Isin as the headquarters. Several types ofIgbomina dialects are spoken in different parts ofIgbominaland. The Mosan, Moye, Mohan and Ileko (EyoIgbomina) are spoken in different areas. The speakers of Mosan variety are found in Isin LGA and in Irepodun LGA of Kwara state while speakers of Moye variety are found in Ifelodun LGA. Ileko variety is spoken at the borders of Ilorin, while Mohan is spoken in Isin and Irepodun LGA.

IV. Methodology

The data used in this paper was collected through both structured and unstructured interviews. The native speakersofStandard Yoruba, and three dialects, (Igbomina, Ijebu and Ijesa), between the ages of 60 and 100 years, were the main respondents. Yoruba students of the University of Ilorin and Abuja, and students of some Colleges of Education inIla-Orangun, Ikere-Ekiti, Oto-Ijanikin Lagos were also randomly selected and interviewed. A total of 100 respondents were sampled .Their responses were tape-recorded. Questions posed to both the aged and the students centered on certain types of Yoruba greetings, like greetings for festivals, at work, mourning, greetings to kings/chiefs, eulogy/pedigree greetings, seasonal greetings, etc. Only those forms of greetings which were adjudged by the respondents as dying were used for this paper.

A. Data Analysis

i. Types and Forms of Greetings

Greetings could be broadly sub-divided as follows:

- Daily greetings
- Periodical/seasonal greetings
- Greetings at the place of work
- Greetings to kings and Chiefs
- (Oriki) praise name greetings (i.e. eulogy or pedigree)

There are different forms of greetings which depend on the time of the day, the role relationship between the people involved, their age, sex, status, educational background, occupation and the context.

B. The Sociolinguistic Structure of Greetings

The grammatical structure of greetings among the Yoruba, (Igbomina, Ijebu, Ijesa), is determined by some sociolinguistic variables such as the time of the day, the season, status of the people being greeted and the social and psychological setting. There are two prominent structures, the first is considered to be old use, while the second structure is more contemporary.

In the standard Yoruba, the structure is:

1. a. Pronoun + ku + time of the day, as in:

E kuawuro or e k aaro = Good morning.

"E" is either plural "you" or singular "you" but called honorific plural – used for elders, kings, etc.

b. Ku awuro orkaaro = good morning, used among mates, or an elder greeting a younger person.

2. In Igbomina dialect the structure is: Pronoun + kun+ the time of the day. The table below shows a comparison of standard Yoruba structure with that of Igbomina, Ijebu and Ijesa dialects, for both the old and contemporary time.

Old Form

Time	Standard Yoruba	Ijesa Dialect	Ijebu Dialect
a. Morning	E ka aro babaa mi	Kaaro baba	K aaroba mi
b. Afternoon	E kaasan baba mi	Ku osan baa mi	K aasanba mi
c. Evening	E kuirole baba mi	In ku role baa mi	Ku role ba mi
d. Night	E kaaaleiyami	K aaleyeemi	K aale ye mi

Igbomina dialect is a variant of the standard Yoruba Form:

'E kunowuro baa mior'e kun ooro baa mi'

E kunosanba mi

E kunaale baa mi or e kale baa mi

E kunowuromomo mi or e kunooro moo mi

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E kunaasanmomo mi or e kunaasan moo mi
E kunaalemomo mi or e kale moo mi

CONTEMPORARY FORM

Standard Yoruba	Ijesa	Ijebu
E Kaaro baba mi	In kaaro o baba or in pele o baa mi	Wen/E Kaarobami
E kaasan baba mi	In kun osan o baa mi	Wen/E kaasanba mi
E kaasaniya mi	In pele o yee mi or in kuosan oyeemi	Wen/E kaasanba mi
E Kaale baba mi	In kale o baa mi	Wen/E Kaalebami
E Kaaleiya mi	In Kaale o yee mi	Wen/E kale ye mi

The honorific or respect pronoun used by the Ijesa and Ijebu are "in" and "wen" or "e". In Ijesa dialect, "In pele" is the alternative form of "in ku".

C. Endangered Yoruba Greetings

English language and western civilization have made in-roads into the language and culture of the Yoruba. Many of the Yoruba greeting forms are fast disappearing from their ethnography of communication. The following greetings are gradually becoming moribund:

D. Festival Greetings

'E kuodun, e kuiyedun, Olorunyoo je kaseopoodunlaye'. This corresponds to happy +name of the festival, e.g. happy Christmas, happy Easter, happy Id-el-kabir, etc.may God allow us to see more of the festivals.The youths are gradually losing these structures, as they simply say "e kuodun" without adding the other deep sociolinguistic forms.

E. Marriage Greetings

'E kuinawoiyawo o, eyiniyawokonimeni'.
"You + greeting + expenses + bride + back + bride + will not+ know + mat", i.e. well-done for the expenses of the wedding, may the bride not suffer or stay long before conceiving. The youths will simply say "E kuinawo" or congratulations. Only the elders go on into detailed or more complex greetings, with well wishes or prayers.

F. Childbirth Greetings

'E kuewuomo, Olorunyoo daomonaasi', i.e. "You + greeting + risk + child + God + will + save + child + the alive". This corresponds to congratulations on the child's delivery, may God protect the child or keep the child alive.

G. Greetings to Kings

'Kabiyesi o, kade o pelori, kibatapelese', i.e. Your royal majesty, may crown stay long on your head, and may your shoes stay long on your feet. This corresponds to: long live the king! The youth just simply say: "kabiyesioo" and then prostrate, with their cap removed.

H. Seasons' Greetings

Dry season: ' 'E kuogbeleyi'
Rainy season: 'E kuoginitinyi'
Most youths do not even know the Yoruba words for dry or rainy season, or any other season for that matter.

I. Burial Greetings

a. 'E kuaraferaku'
You + greeting + body + missed each other
This corresponds to "sorry for missing/losing somebody" or sorry for the death of ……..
b. 'Ekuileedeoloogbe, ojo a jinasira won'
You + greeting + absence + the dead + days + will be far + from + each other, i.e. sorry for the loss of the dead, may you live long.

J. House Warming Greetings

'E kuisile, ile a turao'
You + greeting + opening house + house + will + cool body, i.e. congratulations on the commissioning of the house, may the house bring you comfort.

K. Occupational Greetings

The most endangered forms of greetings are those for occupations or trades or professions. The youths hardly ever use these greeting words and phrases.
- Hunter: 'a rin pa a', i.e. may you walk and kill
- Dyeing: 'are du o', i.e. may you soak it dark/black
- Plaiting: 'ojugboro o', i.e. may you do it with facility
- Farming: 'a rookobodun de' – may you farm year in year out.

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- Trading: ‘e kuoroaje, a tagbowo, a ta jere’.

You + greeting + matter + business +may u+sell +get money. This means well-done in your business, may you trade and prosper in it

- Palm wine taper: ‘Iigba a yi o’,i.e.

rope + will + strong, i.e. Your rope will be strong and will never cut

- Blacksmith:‘Aro ye o’,i.e.you will do smithing with success
- Ifa Priest:‘Aboruboye o, ebo a fin o’ , i.e.Your sacrifices will bepropitious

Marble (Ayo) players:‘mokiota, mokiope’, or one asks the players ‘tani ope, taniota’, i.e.who is losing, who is winning? Or who is the loser, and who is the winner?

- Child loser:, i.e. one whose child has died: ‘e kuiroju, omi lo tuagbe kofo’, which means, sorry, it’s only the water that has spilled out, the calabash or gourd is not broken. This means take heart because you are still alive, it’s only the child that is dead.

From these and many other greetings there are other structures found in Standard Yoruba greetings that are different from “Pronoun +ku +time of the day, season, festival”, etc. pattern. “E kuise” has almost replaced all types of greetings, especially if one wants to greet somebody who is working, the type of work or job notwithstanding.

The Igbomina, Ijebu and Ijesa dialects also have similar but different structures from that found in Standard Yoruba. The morphological and syntactic structures of the greetings in Igbomina, Ijebu and Ijesa dialects are different from Standard Yoruba.

L. Oriki Orile

(Pedigree Greetings) More worrisome is the fact that (orikiorile) lineage praise names used in greeting are fast disappearing in the ethnography of communication of the Yoruba race. The following praise names are used to greet and inspire people:

- Abeni – female name – one who was begged before having, i.e. got through supplication to God/gods. “Abeni o”, i.e. Abeni, how are you?
- Agbeke – female name: one you carry up and care for, i.e. a delicate or fragile jewel.
- Aduke – female name: one you hold tenderly to cater for.
- Abeke – female: one you beg to cater for. Every lineage has their history of chivalry, valour, defeat, sanctity, piousness, weakness, heroism, opprobrium, infamy, etc. with which they are known and greeted.

Lineage Praise names (LPN) used for greeting can be categorized into four broad based semantic types:

a. Theosophic LPN: Praise names derived from God or gods’ attributes, such as:

- “O, kun, omoluwabi”, i.e. hello, God’s own child. This is a form of greeting for a well-behaved child, a descendant of Noah in the Bible.

b. Testimonial LPN: names that testify to the individual’s fortune, with respect to procreation, good luck, etc. such as:

- ‘O kun, omoAdedibu’, i.e. hello, a child from a royal family whose lineage is getting enlarged or expanded by the day.
- ‘Pele o, omoIrebaayo’, i.e. how are you, child whose birth has brought goodness or fortune upon joy.
- Pele o, ‘Omo Otedola’, i.e. hello, a child whose birth has turned conspiracy into honour and wealth.

c. Ideational LPN: Praise names that reflect cultural ideas, such as Yoruba concept of man, society, universe, goodness, death, re-incarnation, spirit world, etc. such as:

- ‘O kun, omoAbioje’, i.e. how are you, child born into the masquerade cult.
- ‘Taiyelolu, omoiyamoye’, i.e. used for greeting the first born of twins whose mother is regarded as sagacious, prudent or discreet.

d. Monumental LPN: Praise names derived from parents’ personal achievements, as in physical prowess, wealth, professional excellence, courage, industry, bravery, etc. e.g:

- ‘Pele o, Omo Adifala’, i.e. greetings for a child whose father (an oracle priest) has been enriched through correct divination work.
- ‘Pele o, omoajanakutii mi igbokijikiji’, i.e. greetings for a child whose father is regarded as an elephant (a strong and brave person) whose moves shake the bush/forest very terribly.
- Others are: “Omo Akinleye” – a child whose father’s heroism possesses dignity and honour; “Omo Olupefon”, i.e.a child whose father is known for valorous deeds like killing “Efon” i.e. Buffalo.

Educated Yoruba youth no longer use these greeting forms, either because they do not know them, as modernizationhas taken over these forms of greeting, or they have no time for all these cultural niceties. Even among the elders, both literate and illiterate, this practice is fast dying out, and needs to be revived. A glossary of these endangered Yoruba greetings is therefore imperative.

V. Conclusion

Language contact is a sociolinguistic phenomenon which has both positive and negative consequences. In Nigeria its salutary effects are seen in people’s bilingualism, multilingualism, and could also be seen as the pathway to good job opportunities. Proficiency in English has become a status symbol. Through English came globalization which also

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brought advancement in Science andTechnology. Democracy became a regular news menu on the world's political programmes, thus opening our eyes to democratic cultures and best practices. Nigerian languages got expanded and enriched in all their aspects through borrowing. Nigerian cultures also got enriched. These are, certainly, wonderful blessings.

However, the negative consequences of languages in contact seem to be more pervasive. Yoruba ethnography of greetings is facing threat of extinction, as the rich culture of greetings is being overtaken by English greetings. The Yoruba are experiencing language interference challenges, language endangerment and threat of extinction. Linguistic suicide and murder are taking their tolls on Nigerian languages. Cultural endangerment is also being faced. Neo-colonialism is now the order of the day. In this respect, "languages in contact" is not a blessing but a scourge. Effective language planning and language documentation may be the panacea to language and cultural endangerment, occasioned or caused by languages in contact.

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Conceptual Metaphor in American Presidential Inaugural Addresses

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***Abstract*—Metaphor has long been a hot topic for linguistic scholars. Traditionally, metaphor has been viewed as a pure linguistic phenomenon and studied as a rhetoric device. Contrary to the traditional view of metaphor, American linguists Lakoff and Johnson think that metaphor is not only a form of human language, but also a matter of human action and thought. Political discourse has always been considered to be bearing strong smell of politics and influenced by ideology. Therefore, it's usually abstract and hard for people to understand. The present thesis attempts to apply conceptual metaphor theory and in American Presidential Inaugural Addresses. They like employing metaphor to express their own political thought and standpoints to persuade infect and motivate people by means of mapping concrete familiar concepts onto abstract political concepts.**

***Index Terms*—conceptual metaphor, American presidential inaugural addresses**

I. Introduction

Metaphor has long been a hot topic for linguistic scholars. Traditionally, metaphor has been viewed as a pure linguistic phenomenon and studied as a rhetoric device. Contrary to the traditional view of metaphor, American linguists Lakeoff and Johnson think that metaphor is not only a form of human language, but also a matter of human action and thought. Since Aristotle, there has been a vast amount of theoretical researches on metaphor from various perspectives. In recent decades, there have been some scholars studying political discourse from the perspective of metaphors.

Political discourse has always been considered to be bearing strong smell of politics and influenced by ideology. Therefore, it is usually abstract and hard for people to understand. Critical discourse analysis is mainly about the relationship between language, power and ideology. As this theory shows, language is the primary medium of practicing ideology and power, and metaphorical language is much more powerful.

This research attempts to adopt the conceptual metaphor theory to analyze political discourse. Through the analysis of the speeches of American presidents, the conceptual political metaphors in these speeches will be made clear and the basis and functions of these metaphors will be investigated. It is a systematic research of the political conceptual metaphors by analyzing typical and authentic data. This will reveal how the metaphors work in the political world. In practice, it can help people understand American politics and cultures in a certain way.

II. The Systematicity of Conceptual Metaphor

"Metaphorical entailments can characterize a coherent system of metaphorical concepts and a corresponding coherent system of metaphorical expressions for those concepts."(Lakeoff & ohnson, 1980, p.9) That is to say, conceptual metaphors do not work separately, but are closely related with each other. From our own experience, we can see that not only metaphorical expressions under a conceptual metaphor can form a coherent system to express many aspects of that concept, but also different conceptual metaphors under the same concept can operate systematically.

The systematicity of metaphor is reflected in two aspects: (a) each conceptual metaphor heads and governs a system of correspondences between the source domain and target domain, for example, the systematicity of metaphorical expressions within a single conceptual metaphor; (b) conceptual metaphors may also systematically relate to each other to form a hierarchical or parallel structure.

Metaphorical systematicity has the function of highlighting and hiding. " The very systematicity that allows us to comprehend one aspect of arguing in terms of another will necessarily hide other aspects of the concept"(Lakeoff & Johnson, 1980, p.10)

III. Cultural Coherence of Conceptual Metaphor

The most fundamental values in a culture will be coherent with the metaphorical structure of the most fundamental

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concepts in the culture." (Lakoff & Johnson1980, p.22) That is to say, the cultural values of a society are, to a large extent, expressed through metaphorical concepts. Just as Lakoff and Johnson suggest, each conceptual metaphor has what they call an "experimental" basis. In other words, Metaphors are not randomly assigned: they are rooted in our experience. Although, experience can be defined as physical experience and cultural experience, every experience still happens in a presupposed cultural background. We experience our world, in this way, our culture is already presented in the experienced itself.

IV. The Signifiance of the American Presidental Inaugual Address

The inaugural address is of great importance to the new president and his administration. In fact, it can be said that each presidential inauguration revolves around the inaugural address, which will have a lasting influence upon America. One speech writer for presidents Ford and Bush once said, The beauty of the inaugural is that we've built up a huge tradition where this is the legitimizing of the president…This is one occasion where you can go way up on the eloquence scale (Zheng, 2001). Horace Busby, who wrote the inaugural address for the 36th president Lyndon Baines Johnson, said that the day of the presidential inauguration was the first time when the newly elected president stood in front of his people as the leader of the nation instead of a candidate or a party member (Zheng, 2001).

The newly elected president often takes advantage of this chance to address the nation's divisions, publicize his fundamental political principles and policies for the next four years, and at the same time project America's place in the world. The inaugural address also sets the objective for the new government and promises a bright future to the public. The prominent aim of giving such a speech is to lay out briefly and justify the principles that will become the guide for the newly elected president in the administration of the government. More importantly, it is aimed at convincing a national audience of the appropriateness and benefits, molding public opinion, inspiring public for action, putting the new government in a favorable position and seeking the largest amount of support.

Every president knows well that it is his moment when giving the speech. At that moment, the whole nation or even the world is watching him. It is his first chance to make a good impression to the public. What he says will be regarded as a standard to measure the achievements and fulfillments of him and his government. This can also help to form his image in the country. Besides, he can use this opportunity to appeal to more people to support his government and his party, for every speaker knows that if he could manipulate or limit what is possible in language, he could manipulate or limit what is possible in thought (Wilson, 2001).

It is even argued that a president is judged as much by what he says as by what he does, and his words delivered can shape his image forever. How well a president succeeds depends on his crafting and delivery of the words to a certain extent. Many studies have pointed to the presidency as a talking institution where the American president presides through his words. It can be seen that usually the more successful presidents in American history showed stronger rhetorical abilities and presented excellent addresses such as Abraham Lincoln in 1861, Theodore Roosevelt in 1905, Franklin D.Roosevelt in 1933, John F.Kennedy in 1961, Richard Milhous Nixon in 1969 and Ronald Reagan in 1981. The first step for these presidents was a success and it could not be denied that their addresses played a role to a large extent. In contrast, such presidents as Warren G. Harding, Herbert Hoover, Gerald Ford, and Jimmy Carter whose terms in the White House have been described as less inspiring turned out to be least rhetorically gifted. This is not meant to prove that there is a certain link between the successfulness of a president in administration and his inaugural address, but for the presidents in addition to their leadership qualities, negotiation skills and administrative abilities, the rhetorical ability is also important which enable them to communicate effectively. According to Kiewe (1998),the 20th century presidency in particular has even been labeled "the rhetorical presidency" to denote a style of governing and leadership that relies heavily on public discourse and whose rhetoric equals action.

In order to achieve their goals, the new presidents often resort to language skills among other things. Among those language skills, metaphor can serve their purposes properly and effectively, therefore, many presidents adopt it widely in their inaugural addresses.

V. Poliical Metaphors in American Presidental Inaugural Addresses

This part will identify, categorize, analyze and explain the political metaphors in the American presidential inaugural addresses. According to conceptual metaphor theory presented by George Lakoff, through a thorough examination of the metaphors identified by the five-step procedure in the addresses, the findings turn out to be very fruitful. The author has classified the major and most frequent metaphors.

A. Journey Metaphors

Lakoff (1993) defined "journey" metaphor as PURPOSEFUL ACTIVITY IS TRAVELLING ALONG A PATH TOWARD A DESTINATION. Just like a traveler. In a journey, any activities of any politicians are goal-oriented and their goals can be conceptualized as the destinations of a traveler. In American data, there are also a lot of metaphors that involve "speed", "path", "steps", "advancing", and "goals", etc. President Bush wants to employ metaphor as a tool to help him gain the support from his people about his domestic and foreign policy

For example:

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(1) We seek the end of tyranny in our world. (Bush, Jan 31st, 2006)

(2) Far from being a hopeless dream, the advance of freedom is the great story of our time.(Bush, Jan 31st,2006)

(3) The only way to protect our people, the only way to secure the peace, the only way to control our destiny is by our leadership—so the united states of America will continue to lead. (Bush, Jan 20st, 2006)

(4) Every step toward freedom in the world makes our country safer—so we will act boldly in freedom's cause. (Bush, Jan 20st, 2006)

(5) We will choose to act confidently in pursuing the enemies of freedom or retreat from our duties in the hope of an easier life. (Bush, Jan31st, 2006)

Americans have strong opinion of democracy, rights and freedom. They highlight the" natural rights", and they think everyone is created equal and human rights are superior to everything. Therefore, "democratic progress" is a socially valuable activity, and we should not give up or "retreat", when confronted with difficulties. The great power of this metaphor make Americans believe that what Bush government does is to achieve democracy in the world. Thus, all the actions Bush government takes can be justified and Americans are made to support Bush's foreign policy.

For example:

(6) Tonight I will set out a better path: an agenda for a nation that competes with confidence (Bush, Jan31st, 2006)

(7) So tonight, I ask you to join me in creating a commission to examine the full impact of body boom retirements on social security, Medicare, and Medicaid. (Bush, Jan31st, 2006)

(8) To meet this goal, we must have stronger immigration enforcement and border protection. (Bush, Jan31st, 2006)

As we can see from the above examples, Bush's domestic policy is conceptualized in terms of a journey. This metaphor forms a path that invites American people to participate in the journey.

(9) The only way to protect our people, the only way to secure the peace, the only way to control our destiny is by our leadership. (Bush, Jan31st, 2006)

(10) Together, let us protect our country, support the men and women who defend us, and lead this world toward freedom. (Bush, Jan31st, 2006)

(11) We will build the prosperity of our country by strengthening our economic leadership in the world. (Bush, Jan31st, 2006)

In the journey, if there are no maps, the traveler may get lost; therefore, he needs a guide who knows the direction for destination. In the American data, Bush mentions the word "leadership" many times, attempting to tell his citizen that America is the best and strongest nation in the world. Within this metaphor, Americans will have a sense of superiority and participate in his journey, helping him finish his so-called great cause.

B. War Metaphor

POLITICS IS WAR, this metaphor is deeply rooted in people's minds and expressed in daily language. In fact the election campaign is compared to a war. The candidates try all means to fight for the presidential position. This can be seen clearly in the news report about the presidential election.

In a war there are enemies and for the American people enemies are social drawbacks, any forces that hinder the progress of America and those countries that are against America.

For example:

(12)We have beaten back despair and defeatism. We have saved a number of countries from losing their liberty. (Harry Truman, 1949)

(13)Standing in this same place a third of a century ago, Franklin Delano Roosevelt addressed a Nation ravaged by depression and gripped in fear. (Richard Nixon, 1969)

(14)These United States are confronted with an economic affliction of great proportions. (Ronald Reagan, 1981)

(15)We suffer from the longest and one of the worst sustained inflations in our national history. It distorts our economic decisions, penalizes thrift, and crushes the struggling young and the fixed-income elderly alike. It threatens to shatter the lives of millions of our people. (Ronald Reagan,1981)

(16)There is crime to be conquered, the rough crime of the streets. (George H.Bush, 1989)

(17)We will stand mighty for peace and freedom, and maintain a strong defense against terror and destruction. (Bill Clinton, 1997)

In the above examples, the enemies are terror, destruction, crime, inflation, depression, despair and defeatism. These enemies are powerful and will not retreat themselves. What kind of attitude should be held? To escape or surrender is definitely not allowed. The enemies are powerful but not fearful. Just as Franklin D Roosevelt said in his first inaugural address in 1933 when confronted with the Great Depression, "the only thing we have to fear is fear itself". It is the task of the people to conquer the enemies. Surrender or escape is not allowed.

C. Building Metaphor

Building which is common in people's life is a common source domain. A building has a base, structure, stanchion, bricks, etc. From the data two conceptual metaphors can be abstracted, namely, SOCIETY IS A BUILDING and WORTHWHILE ACTIVITY IS BUILDING.

SOCIETY IS A BUILDING

A society shares many similarities with a building. A society which is composed of people also has foundations and

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structures. In political speeches the nation, society, and its systems are usually the target domains. In building metaphor the American people are the builders and the social system is the building. In order to build and protect an edifice, efforts are needed from everyone. The political system is the base of the edifice which can not be shaken. Otherwise, the whole building will collapse. That is the most dangerous thing for a country. The following are some examples:

(18) Our whole system of self-government will crumble either if officials elect what laws they will enforce or citizens elect what laws they will support.(Herbert Hoover,1929)

(19) Thrones have toppled and their vast empires have disappeared. (Dwight D.Eisenhower, 1953)

(20) Let us remember that America was built not by government, but by people—not by welfare, but by work—not by shirking responsibility, but by seeking responsibility. (Richard Nixon, 1969)

(21) Let us resolve that we the people will build an American opportunity society… (Ronald Reagan, 1985)

(22) Communism's collapse has called forth old animosities and new dangers. (George W.Bush, 2001)

In the examples (18), (19) and (22) the social system—capitalism, thrones, and communism are conceptualized as buildings. Once they collapse, the whole country will disappear. Examples (20) and (21) emphasize that the building needs everyone to make effort to add a brick. Building metaphor is a typical example of reification.

D. Family Metaphor

Family metaphor is used widely in political speeches which can unite the people to a great extent. In this metaphor the government is the strict father and citizens are children.

(23)To renew America, we must be bold. We must do what no generation has had to do before. We must invest more in our own people, in their jobs, in their future, and at the same time cut our massive debt. And we must do so in a world in which we must compete for every opportunity.(Bill Clinton,1993)

(24)Each and every one of us, in our own way, must assume personal responsibility--not only for ourselves and our families, but for our neighbors and our nation. Our greatest responsibility is to embrace a new spirit of community for a new century. For any one of us to succeed, we must succeed as one America. (Bill Clinton, 1997)

Example (23)is a warning of the dangers of the outside world. In (24) the father is teaching his children what is wrong and should not be done.

The strict father provides nurturance and expresses his devotion to his family by supporting and protecting them, and also by setting and enforcing strict moral bounds and by inculcating self-discipline and self-reliance through hard work. For the strict father, strictness is a form of nurturance and love--tough love. The strict father is restrained in showing affection and emotion overtly, and prefers the appearance of strength and calm. He regards charity as an expression of compassion for those less fortunate and as an expression of gratitude for his own good fortune.

E. Natural Environment Metaphor

For the convenience of analysis, natural environment is divided into two subcategories—weather conditions and geographical features. These two source domains are less common than others; however, they are still important.

Weather condition is a conventional source domain for conveying abstract concepts of changes. This metaphor is related to a conceptual metaphor CIRCUMSTANCES ARE WEATHER. (Grady,1997, p.109) The knowledge that wind brings about a change in the weather provides a useful metaphorical representation of the cause of the change of social conditions.

Usually metaphors associated with changing conditions are more common than those associated with stable ones. So here the conceptual metaphor SOCIAL CONDITION IS WEATHER is proposed. While sunshine and breeze indicate a favorable social condition, storm and tempest imply an unpleasant condition. The more intense the weather condition is, the more intense the change is implied. Such uses are based on source knowledge of the destructive potential of the weather which is so common in our life. Weather metaphors evoke either a positive or a negative evaluation.

Usually this metaphor combines with journey metaphor as the weather condition usually affects the travel of a person. Though good weather is favored, bad weather cannot be avoided. What people should believe is that after the tempest the beautiful rainbow will be seen. People will enjoy happiness after undergoing hardships.

(25)For a new breeze is blowing, and a world refreshed by freedom seems reborn. (George W.Bush, 2001)

(26)There are times when the future seems thick as a fog; you sit and wait, hoping the mists will lift and reveal the right path. (George H.Bush, 1989)

(27)…we rode through the storm with heart and hand. (Ronald Reagan, 1985)

(28)Since this century's beginning, a time of tempest has seemed to come upon the continents of the earth. (Dwight Eisenhower, 1953)

Social conditions are closely related to the geographical features as well—SOCIAL CONDITIONS ARE GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES. This metaphor highlights a particular aspect of a physical geographical feature which is either horizontal or vertical. When the vertical feature is involved it is related to the conceptual metaphor UP IS GOOD.

This honor now beckons America—the chance to help lead the world at last out of the valley of turmoil, and onto that high ground of peace that man has dreamed of since the dawn of civilization. (Richard Nixon, 1969)

VI. SUMMARY

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The American presidential inaugural address is an important political discourse. In the speech the new president will take advantage of this chance to make his fundamental political principles and policies public. It makes the public be clear about the political views and stands in domestic and international affairs of the new government. As a powerful weapon for politicians it plays an important role in political life. In the addresses metaphor is often used by the politicians to make their speeches more convincing.

This thesis has analyzed the political metaphors in 20 American presidential inaugural addresses by adopting the conceptual metaphor theory proposed by Lakoff and Johnson. Through the investigation, several groups of conceptual metaphors are found, namely, Journey Metaphor, Human Metaphor, War Metaphor, Building Metaphor, Family Metaphor, Light Metaphor, and Illness Metaphor, which constitute most of the metaphors in the data. In each group there are several related conceptual metaphors which together have a very important persuasive role by evoking strong emotional responses. From the analysis it is clear that the source domains are closely related to our daily life and experience which make these metaphors understandable and persuasive. Besides, different metaphors are also related to one another. Sometimes one metaphor is embedded in another one, which leads to the phenomenon that some metaphors are reflected in one single sentence.

Political metaphors have such functions as filtering, persuasion, motivation, simplification and bridge. Different metaphors highlight different aspects and thus have different functions. Metaphors are deeply rooted in people's experience and the American culture. The understanding and explanation of metaphors are closely related to the historical, social and cultural knowledge of America, which is familiar to the American people. Therefore, it is not difficult to appeal to the emotions of the Americans so as to have a better understanding of the policies of the politicians.

Metaphor analysis is a good way of revealing the underlying ideologies, attitudes and beliefs and therefore turns out to be a vital means of understanding more about the complex relationships between language, thought and culture.

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Overall Rhetorical Structure of Students' English and Persian Argumentative Essays

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***Abstract*—This study investigates commonalities and differences in overall rhetorical structure within the Iranian EFL subjects in their Persian and English pre- and post-argumentative essays and also it examines the effect of two different treatments, namely, models with implicit instruction, and models alone. After conducting TOFEL test, 76 subjects were selected. They were randomly divided into two groups, an experimental group which received no-instruction treatment, and a control group which was instructed implicitly. A pre-test and a post-test were administered before and after the treatment. The quantitative analysis of the post-argumentative essays revealed that the implicit group outperformed the no-instruction group. This study is significant for genre analysis and contrastive rhetoric research.**

***Index Terms*—argumentative essay, contrastive rhetoric, deductive, inductive, both, off**

I. Introduction

An ability to write appropriately and effectively is generally believed to be a formidable task for the English foreign language (EFL) students. Hyland (1992) believed this difficulty could be due to the fact that different levels of language knowledge such as rules of syntax, spelling, and cohesion are relevant to the writing process. Of all these, the most crucial challenge appeared to be learning how to organize and develop ideas in an academically persuasive manner; that is, to organize ideas into logical and cohesive arguments that will convince the reader (Hyland, 1999).

According to Kaplan (2005), even advanced students who have a good command of the syntactic structure and lexicon of English may still write papers that are considered ineffective and inadequate by native instructors.

To mitigate this problem, different researchers have conducted various corpus-based analyses and determined rhetorical organizations of different genres in order to find ways to facilitate writing by providing models of different communicative activities (Bhatia, 1993; Master, 1997).

As a result, the notion of genre and genre-based pedagogy in English language teaching, especially in the teaching and learning of English for specific purposes (ESP) have been emphasized (Hyland, 2002; Paltridge, 2001). Genre-based instruction involves of how to begin and end a text, what to put in the middle and of how to organize information (Hammond, 1987).

Basically, genre-based instruction is teaching language based on the results of genre analysis. Genre analysis studies the structural organization of texts by identifying the moves and strategies (Bhatia, 1997) and it examines how language is used within a particular setting and most often studies the production of moves (Swales, 1990).

Furthermore, genre theorists (Martin & Rothery, 1980) argue that pupils will benefit from explicit or implicit teaching of various genres in the classrooms. As a result, composition practitioners might have seen increased emphasis being placed on the notion of genre and genre-based pedagogy in English language teaching and on the various types of academic writings (Hyland, 2002; Paltridge, 2001).

Argumentative writing as a mode of academic writing constitutes an important part of second-language learners' academic experience at the college level. It is a fundamental writing style across various English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and ESP writing tasks. It is considered as an important skill during the school years and beyond because it can empower individuals at work and in society (Nippold, 2000).

This study has chosen argumentative genre to investigate similarities and/or differences in the way Iranian students structure the overall rhetorical structure of their essay before and after instruction, it also examines the effect of implicit and no-formal genre-based instruction. The investigation was intended to address the following research question:

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Are there any significant differences in overall rhetorical structure, regarding the placement of the thesis statement *(deductive, inductive, off, both)* within the experimental and the control groups in their Persian and English pre- and post-argumentative essays?

II. The Overall Rhetorical Structure of English Argumentative Essays

The thesis statement provides the stance, the belief, or the point of view of the writer; or it states the purpose of the essay and conveys the central or main idea of the text (Yan & Cahill, 2008).

Regarding the placement of the thesis statement, this study follows the approach introduced by Kubota (1998). There are four kinds of placing the claim. These four types are *deductive, inductive, both,* and *off*.

The first type, *deductive,* characterizes a paper in which a clear point of view is stated right in the beginning of paper followed by specific reasons and evidence supporting the position. In *inductive* kind, a writer's claim is presented at the end of the paper, and supporting evidence is stated in the beginning. The third type is called *both* which presents and discusses both points of view on a controversial topic in the beginning of the paper, and the writer's position is delayed until the end. *Both* papers differ from *inductive* papers in that the former devote a great deal of attention to presenting both sides of the controversial topic, with little space left for supporting the writer's own point of view, although the view is presented at the end of the paper (Kubota, 1998).

The fourth type is *off*-task. Papers within this category fail to address the writing task as required that is either they fail to provide a clear position or the position is a neutral one (i.e., presenting the advantages and disadvantages of a controversial issue without taking a stance).

Empirical Studies on Contrastive Rhetoric

Since the emergence of contrastive rhetoric, there has been great interest in examining English rhetorical patterns. Kaplan (1966) analyzed the organization of paragraphs in ESL student essays with focus on linearity and circularity. He found that the rhetorical pattern of English writing tend to be distinctively linear in the sense that it first states the topic of the essay and then develops the topic with relevant details through describing, defining, comparing, or illustrating.

Moradian (1999) examined the rhetorical construction of Persian and English newspaper editorials regarding the rhetorical writing styles of deduction, induction, and quasi-induction. They revealed that while Persian editorial writers used the quasi-inductive style, English editorial writers preferred the deductive style.

Hirose (2003) analyzed how 15 Japanese EFL students organized their Japanese and English argumentative essays. It was found that the organizational patterns of Japanese and English argumentative essays were similar, specifically, using deductive organization. Anyhow, the Japanese essays exhibited more variations in organizational patterns and had more uses of general or neutral information, which had no direct relevance to the argument.

Uysal (2008) examined rhetorical patterns in Turkish and English essays. Following Kubota (1998), the location of main ideas was coded as one of the following four: initial, middle, final, and collection. It was found that the participants tended to organize their Turkish essays in a way similar to the English ones, that is, the thesis statements were presented first, followed by explanation and evidence for the argument. These participants were also found to be reluctant to use topic sentences.

Khiabani and Pourghassemian's (2009) study aimed at investigating the differences in organizational patterns and the quality of L1/L2 argumentative writings of Iranian EFL students. The results indicated no significant difference between the organizational patterns of L1 and L2 writings despite the better quality of L1 writings which could have been due to the transfer of some rhetorical patterns from L1 to L2.

Rashidi and Dastkhezr (2009) compared Persian and English organizational patterns in the argumentative writing of Iranian EFL student writers. The study made within-subject comparisons of L1 and L2 compositions in terms of organizational patterns, organization scores, and overall quality. The results revealed that (a) a majority of students employed deductive type organizational patterns in both L1 and L2.

This dissertation research will contribute to the field of contrastive rhetoric by comparing English and Persian argumentative writing patterns as well as examining the effect of two instructional techniques (models with implicit instruction and models with no formal instruction). Hence, the present study could be considered as a contribution to this line of research.

III. Research Design

The quasi-experimental design of the present research investigated the effectiveness of using an implicit and no-instruction genre-based approach to teaching the learners the placement of the thesis statement (*deductive, inductive, both, off*). The control subjects participated two instructional sessions; they were given four model essays and they read, discussed them in class, and responded orally to sets of questions provided by the instructor. The experimental group received no-instruction treatment; they were just given the model texts to read by themselves. At the end of the treatment, the subjects of the two groups participated in the post-test. All the procedures across the conditions were similar for the pre- and post-sessions

A. Subjects

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Totally 90 EFL freshmen participated in the study. In order to have a homogenous sample, they were pre-tested through a TOEFL test. The selected subjects (76) were those with intermediate level of language proficiency.

All subjects were native speakers of Persian and had studied English for approximately six years at school. According to the results of the questionnaires of the study, the subjects had no previous argumentative writing experience in either English or in Persian and they were not familiar with the placement of the thesis statement (*deductive, inductive, both, off*).

B. Administering the Pre- and Post-essay Writing

Before the treatment, the subjects of the two groups wrote two argumentative essays (one in English and another one in Persian) without any prior instruction an in-class timed argumentative essay (referred to as the pre-test) in which they supported their stand on the issue (see Appendix A). Given that the students were required to compose two essays, in order to avoid collecting unreliable data, writing prompts for two different topics were designed so that students would not respond to the same topic twice. At the end of the treatment, the two groups were asked to write English and Persian essays on the different topics to test whether the subjects had acquired the ability to use proper rhetorical organization and how their writing products had changed from their pre-test.

C. Model Texts

The two groups were given the same model texts. Four sets of argumentative texts were selected from the IELTS book (Warshawsky, 2006). To fit the research purpose, the four texts had to have claims, data and similar lengths.

D. Treatment

The researcher exposed the subjects of the control group to two models of the argumentative genre. These were designed for the subjects to read and understand. In the implicit treatment the placement of the thesis statement (*deductive, inductive, both, off*) was not directly taught. In two sessions, the model texts were given to the subjects. They read the model essays and analyzed the introduction section, the body section; and the conclusion. The researcher provided learners with practice to ask questions. The experimental group received no formal instruction in English rhetorical patterns; instead, they engaged in reading argumentative essays by themselves.

IV. Analysis of L1/L2 Organizations

The English and Persian pre- and post-argumentative essays were analyzed in terms of the placement of the thesis statement (*deductive, inductive, both, off*). Two raters who were experienced EFL professionals scored the essays. Because of the possible subjectivity associated with the rater scores, the consistency in assigned scores (scorer reliability) within and between raters were examined.

The computed Pearson correlation coefficient for the pre-test of English regarding the placement of the thesis statement, namely *deductive, inductive, off* and *both* were .93, .92, .89, .95 respectively and for the post-test of English regarding the use of thesis statement, *deductive, inductive, off* and *both* were .98, .94, .91, .87.

The computed Pearson correlation coefficient for the pre-test of Persian placement of the thesis statement, namely *deductive, inductive, off* and *both* were .91, .93, .94, .95 respectively and for the post-test of Persian regarding the use of thesis statement, *deductive, inductive, off* and *both* were .91, .95, .91, .89. The results indicate that there were a high positive relationship between the scores rated by rater 1 and rater 2 in the pre- and post- argumentative essays.

Results

The data used for the analysis were 304 English and Persian essays produced by the subjects of the two groups at the end of the treatment. A chi-square was employed for finding the significance of the differences between the two groups in terms of the placement of the thesis statement (*deductive, inductive, both, off*) in both English and Persian pre- and post-argumentative essays. The results are presented in Table 1.

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TABLE 1
OVERALL GROUP CROSS TABULATION

		GROUP		Total
		Experimental	control	
Both post test English	N	1	3	4
	%	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%
Both pre test English	N	3	1	4
	%	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%
Deductive post test English	N	6	26	32
	%	18.8%	81.3%	100.0%
Deductive post test Persian	N	8	21	29
	%	27.6%	72.4%	100.0%
Deductive pre test English	N	8	14	22
	%	36.4%	63.6%	100.0%
Deductive pre test Persian	N	10	7	17
	%	58.8%	41.2%	100.0%
Inductive post test English	N	12	8	20
	%	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%
Inductive post test Persian	N	12	12	24
	%	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
Inductive pre test English	N	8	4	12
	%	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%
Inductive pre test Persian	N	8	12	20
	%	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%
Off post test English	N	19	1	20
	%	95.0%	5.0%	100.0%
Off post test Persian	N	18	5	23
	%	78.3%	21.7%	100.0%
Off pre test English	N	19	19	38
	%	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
Off pre test Persian	N	20	19	39
	%	51.3%	48.7%	100.0%
Total	N	152	152	304
	%	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%

According to Table 1 the frequency of *off* type organizational pattern employed per English pre-argumentative essays across the control and the experimental groups was 50.0%, 50.0% and the frequency of *0ff* type employed per Persian pre-argumentative essays across the control and the experimental groups was 48.7%, 51.3% respectively.

An example of *off* type written by one of the subjects of the control group is presented here. In the excerpt, the writer does not provide a clear position.

Example 1: *Off* paper. Topic: marriage

There are two kinds of marriage in Iran, modern, traditional. Most of the people do both of them. For example, first several hours in traditional ceremony and after that people prefer to have modern wedding. In modern marriage boys and girls make friendship before get married. Usually they get family through friends or net or pub places. In this kind of marriage couples get tired of each other so soon because they can not deal with their expectations. They think about a romantic life with their partner before marriage but after that they face problems of life. But in traditional marriage kids get familiar before marriage. They consult any items that think maybe have negative affect in their next life; and try to solve them, and satisfaction of parent is so important too and have positive affect on the life of child.

As Table 1 shows, the frequency of *deductive* type organizational pattern employed per English post-argumentative essays across the control and the experimental groups was 81.3%, 18.8% and the frequency of *deductive* type employed per Persian post-argumentative essays across the control and the experimental groups was 72.4%, 27.6% respectively. The Table shows that a small number of papers used *inductive* pattern. Almost no *both* type pattern was used in the English and Persian essays.

Example 2: *Deductive* paper. Topic: marriage

Today marriage is a very hot topic among people, specially among young ones. Some are agree with modern and some are agree with traditional one. I myself agree with modern one because of some reasons such as communication, and compatibility.

One of the important point in marriage is communication. If the couples don't know each other as well it cause some misunderstanding and their marriage can break up easily, because each partner have his own expectation and other partner cannot guess it unless they have a good and healthy communication before their marriage.

Compatibility can be another major point for marriage. Marriage is not just about physical compatibility, the couple should have mental compatibility as well to have a successful marriage and it never create in traditional marriage.

As a conclusion if parents have forced their daughter or son or let them married without understanding each other without paying attention their interests, it too many times ends up in divorce.

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TABLE 2.
CHI-SQUARE TESTS OF PLACEMENT OF THE THESIS STATEMENT IN THE ENGLISH AND PERSIAN ESSAYS

	Value	*df*	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	49.000	13	.000
N of Valid Cases	304		

The result of chi-square test (x^2= 49, *df*=13, *p*=.000<0.05) indicates that there are significant differences between the two groups in terms of the placement of the thesis statement in both English and Persian pre- and post-argumentative essays.

V. CONCLUSION

The results revealed that a majority of students of the two groups employed *off* type organizational patterns in both English and Persian pre-argumentative essays; that is, the subjects of both groups failed to provide a clear position. In contrastive rhetoric research, it has been assumed that EFL students organize their EFL texts in the same way they do their Ll writing influenced by Ll conventions and that this approach negatively affects the quality of their EFL essays. The results of this study, however, showed that almost all students wrote in a similar way in the two languages. This finding is not in line with those of Hirose (2003), who found that the organizational patterns of Japanese and English argumentative essays were similar in using *deductive* organization where the main idea was presented initially in paper.

The results are also in line with findings reported by other Iranian researchers of contrastive rhetoric (Khiabani & Pourghassemi, 2009; Rashidi & Dastkhezr, 2009), who showed that the participants of their study used similar organizational patterns in both their L1 and L2 writings as there did not exist any significant difference between the location of main idea and macro-level structures they used on the two writings.

Similar to Hirose (2003), Uysal (2008) reported that the Turkish participants in her study organized Turkish and English papers similarly by presenting the thesis statements first followed by explanation and evidence for the argument, which is not consistent with the present study.

Regarding the participants' English and Persian post-argumentative essays, the control group used the *deductive type* in their English and Persian post-argumentative essays while the experimental group didn't. In this study, most control subjects put their positions in the initial section and used the *deductive* pattern in English and Persian post-argumentative essays which can be concluded that exposing the participants to the model texts can be surmised to have been made across languages. Results indicated that the implicit instructed students used significantly more *deductive* type pattern in their essays and followed the model organization more closely than those students who only received models (the non- instructed students).

It should be noted that, in the present study, a relatively a small number of papers employed *inductive* organization, and it seems that the *both* papers were not used in the Persian pre- and post-argumentative papers. Kobayashi and Rinnert (2008) called this type of discourse organization "exposition" which comprised a discussion of a topic without taking a side but analyzing the advantages and disadvantages of each. They also found that students tended to use exposition when they wrote the Japanese essays, which does not confirm the finding of the present study.

The results of the study justify the claim that the implicit teaching of genre develops students' writing abilities and genre awareness. By being taught implicitly, students can gain control over genres and as there is a lack of Persian rhetorical instruction in schools, writing instruction in a second language may compensate for this gap; thus, transfer from L2 to Ll would be a desired positive fact.

One such instructional strategy that was particularly effective was teacher modeling. Teachers could use modeling to provide students with the processes necessary for learning, attention, retention, and reproduction (Bandura, 1977).

Regarding contrastive rhetoric research, the initial purpose of this research was to offer pedagogical suggestions for teaching EFL writing. The findings of this study offered some implications about the type of organizational patterns and rhetorical elements which would help students improve their argumentative essay writing. In this regard, Gao (2007) argued that it is important for non-native learners of English to make an effort to adopt the writing style that native speakers use, especially on the sociolinguistic level.

Contrasting English and Persian argumentative essays has a lot to offer to teachers and students. Firstly, it explains patterns of essay writing in both English and Persian languages. Purves (1988) emphasizes that the understanding of the rhetorical deviations among languages "would bridge the gap between cultural encoding and decoding" (p. 19). He suggests that instructors should be aware that, in essence, "differences among rhetorical patterns do not represent differences in cognitive ability, but differences in cognitive style" (p. 19). Contrasting English and Persian essay writing helps teachers make students aware of different writing styles and different audience expectations when writing in other languages.

Several questions remain for future research. First, the small sample size of the subjects may limit the generalizability of the results; thus, the findings should be confirmed with a larger sample of participants. This study, featuring within-subject comparison, only compared EFL intermediate learners. Future investigations are expected to focus on comparison of L1 and L2 writing performance of students at various levels such as those with higher or lower L2 proficiency levels.

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With regard to the two different kinds of treatments used in the research, the study would perhaps be enhanced by rating investigation of combing explicit, implicit and no-formal instruction on argumentative essay with an attempt to integrate reading and writing skills.

APPENDIX A WRITING PROMPT FOR THE ENGLISH PRE-ARGUMENTATIVE TASK

Name: Class number:
Student number: Date:
Time 45 minutes

"There are two ways of marriage in Iran: traditional and modern one. Some argue that parents should choose their son's or daughter's spouse (in a traditional way); however, there are strong arguments against it. Use specific reasons and examples to support your position."

On the afternoon of the pre-test day, all the two groups were asked to write a Persian essay. The prompt given to the students in Persian was as follows:

"Some argue that the university entrance exam should be omitted; however, there are strong arguments against it. Use specific reasons and examples to support your position. "

APPENDIX B WRITING PROMPT FOR THE ENGLISH POST-ARGUMENTATIVE TASK

"Some argue that the students should have a part time job; however, there are strong arguments against it. Use specific reasons and examples to support your position."

On the afternoon of the pre-test day, all the two groups were asked to write a Persian essay. The prompt given to the students in Persian was as follows:

The prompt given to the students in Persian was as follows:

"Some argue that News should be censored in Iran; however, there are strong arguments against it. Use specific reasons and examples to support your position."

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The Cultivation of Russian Phonetic Communication Competence

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***Abstract*—The successful mastery of oral Russian largely depends on the audio-phonetic competence. To master a foreign language is to have such 5 competences as listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating. This paper only deals with the relationship between the former 4 competences and phonetic study. The relationship between listening and speaking and phonetics is very close, and reading is also based on audio-phonetic competence. Reading-based teaching method can promote the coherence of phonetic organs and improve reading speed. Even if grammar is correct, incorrect pronunciation and stress will directly hinder the interpretation of language. Besides, the degree to which one masters pronunciation directly influences writing. Phonetic errors are often reflected in writing. Thus, pronunciation is very important in mastering a foreign language.**

***Index Terms*—communication competence, Russian phonetic, stress, intonation**

Linguistic phonetic system is the base of phoneme. Phonetic system determines the correlations between different sounds in a language (Xiujin A.N., 2003). For instance, the consonant can be divided into hard consonant and soft consonant in Russian, whereas there is no the partition in English and Chinese. To pronounce угол and уголь accurately, Russians will correct their own articulation consciously. Otherwise, the lexical meaning will change. If we pronounce the 'L' in English harder or softer, the words just sound strange while the meanings do not change. It will be very difficult for students to study the articulation between phonetic systems of Russian and first language. The phonetic places of articulation seem coincident, but they are different actually. When we study the articulation of Russian, the knowledge of phonetic system can help overcome the difficulties (Lieangtuoweiqi O. A., 2007). Teachers explain theoretical knowledge at the same time; they select appropriate data and organize exercises. So the students can understand the essentials of articulation of each sound gradually.

When teaching the articulation, the best way is to depend on its native language. The articulation proficiency which everyone masters has become a self-conscious behavior when he was young. Therefore, when learning the Russian articulation, students will go with the features of their first language naturally. At present, the majority of Chinese students don't major in Russian until they attend universities. Besides, they begin to learn Russian after learning English for six to ten years. As a result, the articulation students learn will be influenced by their native language (Chinese) and English. For 'Zero-based' Russian learning students, the phonetic learning and phonetic drills seem very important at the beginning of Russian learning. Phonetic learning is the base in cultivating the ability of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

In order to achieve the state of conscious pronunciation, teachers should first let students drill monophonic, make up syllables and then read the whole words. Students do the articulation training repeatedly like this until they could use words in sentences in communication. At the same time, they should focus on 'speaking' and make the verbal phonetic aspects to be a conscious behavior. Therefore, the important thing is to make students begin communicative activities as soon as possible (after learning articulation) in teaching initial stage.

Generally speaking, phonetic teaching can be organized in initial stage according to the following two phases: phonetic introduction course and phonetic accompanying course.

I. Phonetic Introduction Course

The task of phonetic introduction is to cultivate students' listening and pronunciation skills and facilitate students' mastery of basic characteristics of Russian phonetic system. In general, it takes about six weeks (in the non-Russian environment) to teach the course with the content as follows:

1. The contrast between monophonic and basic phonemes (vowel-consonant, voiceless sound-voiced sound, hard sound-soft sound)
2. The stress rhythm pattern of monosyllable, two-syllables and three-syllables.
3. The four Intonation types used in distinguishing communication types of sentences: contour-1 used for declarative sentence; contour-2 used for interrogative sentences with interrogative; contour-3 used for interrogative sentences without interrogative; contour-4 used for interrogative sentences with contrast significance.

Phonetic introduction course can be divided into two types: taking the native language into account and taking no account of native language. The phonetic learning will be more effective if the consideration is given on systematic characteristics in Russian and native language phonetics. This kind of contrast will make Chinese students know which

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sound can be mastered easily and which sound will be difficult to master. Monophonic learning varies in sequence from easy to hard. At the first few lessons, teachers let students observe the different position of lips and tongue and experience the muscle feeling. And then comes to the vocal organs just like lips and tongue.

From the observation of physiological aspects, we can find that Russian and Chinese differ dramatically in phonetics since both of them have no completely same monophonic.

First, in vowel respect:

1. There are monophonic alone just like [a], [o], [y]. But there are not only monophonic just like <a>, <o>, <u> but also diphthong like <ia>, <ou>, <iao> in Chinese.

2. The tongue position will be lower to pronounce Russian vowels than pronounce homologous vowels in Chinese.

3. When pronouncing [o], [y] in Russian, the degree of the overhanging and rounding will be more obvious in the articulation of Russian than in the homologous Chinese vowels.

4. The central high non lip vowel [ы] in Russian has no homologous phoneme in Chinese.

Chinese often confuse the vowels in Russian and Chinese, such as [a]-<a>, [o]-<o>, [y]-<u>, [и]-<i>, [ы]-<ei>, [э]-<ai>, [б]-<b>, [к]-<k>, [л]-<l> and so on (Zhao Aiguo, Jiang Yaming, 2003). Actually, in the process of pronouncing the similar sounds, we use different vocal organs and vocal positions both in Russian and Chinese. Thus, we should distinguish them particularly in initial learning stage and teachers should explain their distinction with demonstration, or they can let students imitate the acoustic recording.

Secondly, in consonant respect:

1. One important feature of Russian consonant is to have corresponding relation with voiceless consonant and voiced consonant, such as [п-б], [т,-д,], [ш-ж] and so on while no such kind of relation exists in Chinese but the corresponding relation with aspirated and inspirited just like<b-p>, <q-j>, <c-z> and so on.

2. There is the corresponding relation with soft and hard in Russian just like [б-б,], [д-д,], [х-х,] and so on whereas there isn't in Chinese.

3. There are their own particular sounds respectively in Russian and Chinese, such as [р], [ы] in Russian and <z>, <ch>, <eng> in Chinese and so on.

4. The number and position of consonants as well as the combination of vowels are relatively free in Russian: one consonant in one syllable or two or more consonant clusters such as (звонок, английский, общежитие); Consonants can be put before vowels or after vowels; The syllables can be open syllables or closed syllables. Moreover, most consonants can be used at the end of closed syllables. But in Chinese syllables, the number and position are regular: [1] one syllable only has one consonant and at most two syllables. If one syllable has two consonants, the vowel must be placed between the two consonants; [2] most consonants only can be positioned before vowels, or prior to syllables with the exception of the consonants <n>, <ng>, <r>, which can be put after vowels ,say, at the end of syllables. [3] They do not have consonant clusters. [4] Syllables are almost open syllables, and closed syllables are less. [5] The closed syllables can only be ended with the consonants <n>, <ng>, <r> etc (Zhao Aiguo Jiang Yaming, 2003).

The physiological differences between Chinese (or English) and Russian will lead to the mistakes in phonetic. Therefore we should put more attention on the distinction at the primary stage.

Students are required to listen to letters materials (syllables or words) in the previous lessons of phonetic introduction in order to train their audition and build the auditory standard of phonetic phenomena that have been learned. Gradually, students will be cultivated to read the phonetic materials on one side and listen to the recording and read the syllables, words and short verses after it on the other side. With the gradually increased difficulties of the practice, it train students' audition as well as build up their pronunciation foundation. Several types of practice can be involved such as : «Слушайте слова и предложения», «Определите место ударения», «Опознайте тренируемый звук», «Определите тип ИК» и т. д. The practice training the speech speed may include: «Читайте текст вместе с диктором», «Читайте текст в паузу» (Xiujin A.N., 2003). Compared to audition, the articulate chart, articulate methods pictures and palate bitmap also have great advantages owing to their intuitive visual effects. When practicing individual sound, students can checkout their own place of articulation by a mirror, paying attention to the rounded lips, openness when pronounce vowels, the closure of lips and the features of tongue dorsum etc.

II. Phonetic Accompanying Training

In order to foster our listening, speaking, reading and writing capability, we start to go further study on lexical and grammar materials after phonetic introduction course. At present, the students can't fully possess listening and pronunciation skills. Therefore, it is necessary to have basic Russian class accompanied by phonetic training.

The task of phonetic accompanying training is to improve students' pronunciation skillfully and the corresponding training are as follows:

1. Collocation of consonants and vowels in different phonemes, consonant collocation and vowel collocation and word pronunciation of various grammatical forms.

2. Rhythm modes of polysyllabic words and the words of stress changed and unchanged

3. Words continuity in utterance, unstressed words and weak stress words

4. The combination regularity in context, distribution and transference of the contour central

The phonetic accompanying training is usually arranged about five to ten minutes at the beginning of the class. So it

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can effectively shift the students' hearing and speech organs to the Russian articulation. If there are not corresponding exercises in textbooks, teachers should prepare practice materials before classes. The forms and types of phonetic training are various: Reading samples (The more difficult phonetic phenomena occur in teachers' dictation should be read several more times. And teachers can remind students to notice the difficulties, then carry on drills.); for some difficult sounds, students can practice by reading idioms, mottos and tongue twisters and recite short poems and songs. They can also play games to memorize the sounds: to speak out the words with particular phonemes as requirement. An experienced teacher will shift to phonetic training more than once and correct students' mistakes in practice in order to remind students of their attention to articulation.

III. Imitation Methods and Analysis of Imitation Methods

There are two ways of learning phonetics: imitation method and analysis of imitation method (conscious method) (Xiujin A.N., 2003).

Imitation method refers to the way of students' imitation after listening to the phonetic samples. The role of teachers is to read by themselves or to play the recording samples while the students need to hear the phonetic samples accurately (Wang Dechun, 2001). In fact, because of their early formed native language system, usually it is hard for adults to recognize foreign pronunciation exactly. The disadvantage of imitation is that students' learning achievement totally depends on their phonetic competence. Since children's imitation ability is the best, with the age increasing, a great majority of people's imitation gradually slow down. Therefore, when undergraduates practice pronunciation, imitation method only functions as a supplement.

Analysis of imitation method is the main means of phonetic study. What the students should do is to analyze phonetic acoustic attribute, imitate the position and methods of articulation and compare each sound in phonetics. Students' imitation is based on their research on the phonetic phenomena, hence, teachers may make use of the articulator table, graph and diagram showing the changes in various types of tone to show as a pronunciation model. Moreover, it is better to notice that the analysis should come before the imitation, thus the result will be better.

IV. Pronunciation Skills of Several Difficult Sounds in Russian

In Russia, the pronunciation of [ы] is a difficult sound for all foreign learners. When you pronounce this sound, you should pay attention to the means. The sound is produced by raising the middle of the tongue, moving tongue backward forcefully, opening lips sideward with about 1 cm between upper and lower teeth. The practice of the three dorso-velar sounds (г), (к), (х) plays a auxiliary role in mastering the pronunciation of (ы).

The most difficult sounds in consonants are rustlings and affricates. When pronouncing (ж) (ш), we should move the tongue backward forcefully, curve the tip of the tongue and raise it, make lips rounded in order to make the powerful and fluent airstream go through the palate. When pronouncing (ж), make sure the vocal cords vibrate. Meanwhile, the mastery of the three sounds (о), (у), (г) will be a help to the pronunciation of (ж).

The gist of pronouncing the consonants щ is: We should move tongue forward with both sides of the tongue contacting the side of teeth. Besides, the tongue tip pushes against the bottom of teeth and two lips move forward and get rounded. When the lips get closer to teeth, keep your upper and lower teeth open, then strong airstream can flow to the alveolar. If students can pronounce (ш), they only need to lower their tongue tips and move tongues forward. The Auxiliary sound (и) and sound group т и, д и, ищи, тищи, дищи will perfect your pronunciation of the consonants щ.

Soft affricates (ч) has block and slit, so this sound is produced when tongue moves forward, the tip and front of the tongue adjoin to the alveolar ridge with round lips, tight lip side and close teeth. With it, strong airstream may flow to the alveolar. The supplementary exercises include the sound (и) and sound groups, т и, течь, течение, пить чай.

Consonant (ц) is also blocked, but it is different from (ч). Tongue moves backward forcefully with tongue tip reaching the lower teeth; lips open slightly and move toward the side with the front of the tongue close to hard palate and upper teeth and closed teeth. The narrow airstream squeezed goes through the front of the teeth. Auxiliary pronunciation practices are д and т: отцы, молодцы (stop extended), and sound group аци, ацу, ацо consisting of four sounds (а), (о), (у), (ы).

Learning the consonant (л), foreign learners may also encounter some kind of difficulties. The hard consonants (л) are produced by observing following gist: the tongue should be positioned forward with the front part of the tongue raising and getting close to the teeth. Moreover, keep the tip of the tongue tense, upper and lower teeth slightly open, lips slightly forward as well as the vocal cords vibrated. Auxiliary practice of sounds are: (о), (у), (к), (г), and (х). The soft sound (л) is made by moving the tongue forward, raising the middle of the tongue. As the front of the tongue is slightly tense, it is easy for airstream to go through the upper of the teeth. At that moment, lips open and vocal cords vibrate. Auxiliary practice of sound is (и) and sound group ч и, щ и, д и, т и, чили, тили, etc.

Among the sounds of the back of the tongue, the most difficult is (х). The sound is produced by opening mouth until it is rounded and moving the tongue backward with non-vibration and weak airstream. Auxiliary sounds are (к), (о), (у) and the sound group: кхо, кху.

The most difficult sound in Russian is the pronunciation of vibrato (р). In order to master this pronunciation, you should pay attention to the means: tip of the tongue vibrates at the upper teeth. The most difficult position of

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pronunciation is that (р) locates between the end of the word and soft consonants. Auxiliary sounds are (ж), (з), (т), (д), and vowels (а), (о), (у): тра, дра, тро, тру, дру. The auxiliary sound (и): жри, зри is a help to practice the soft consonant (р).

V. Study on Word Stress in Russian

When you've mastered word pronunciation, it comes to the learning of word spelling. If you want to read out Russian words precisely, first of all, the attribute of stressed words should be figured out clearly. Russian stress can be divided into non-located stress (stress can be placed on any syllables of a word: e.g. комната, дорога, голова), shifted stress (stress can be shifted from one syllable to another within one word of different forms) and forceful stress (stress can be made through tightening the articulation organs to make the stressed syllable clearly) (Xiujin A.N., 2003). Russian pronunciation of stressed words is characterized by extending the time of pronouncing the stressed syllables. Phonetic introduction course is to learn the attribute of stressed words, vowel weakening, the comparison between stressed syllables and unstressed syllables, besides, monosyllabic, two-syllable and three - syllable word exercises are involved. Then the practices of four syllables, five syllables and even more syllables word followed. In addition to vowels weakening and words rhythm, the students also need to learn consonantal pronunciation, the shift in articulation from hard consonants to soft consonants, back dentals to front dentals, the shift from voiceless consonants to voiced consonants as well as the pronunciation of consonant clusters etc.

The failure of pronouncing the stressed words in Russian may be associated with the following factors: the articulation organ is not tense enough which leads to lengthen the pronouncing time of stressed vowels; the damage of quantity weakening lengthens the unstressed vowels or changes the quantity of unstressed vowels. In this case, we need phonetic practice by shifting between the first or second vowels before or after the stress continuously. Meanwhile, more practice should be implemented in the continuity of words and preposition such as на столе, о нас, до дома, перед домами, не буду, не видел. A common mistake is to entrainment vowels between the consonants. They usually occur between voiceless consonants (e.g. встреча). For teachers, it is preferable to explain a few difficult sounds initially, and then compare the words with consonant clusters in practice.

For foreigners, the hardest part of the pronunciation is the shift from hard consonants to soft consonants (e.g. математика, переписывать), back labial sounds to front labial sounds, affricate [ч] to [ц] as well as fricatives to affricates and soft front dentals(e.g. щ-ч-ть)

VI. Learning on Russian Intonation

In addition to stress, it is an important part to learn intonation in Russian pronunciation. Intonation is the change of sentence strength, length and basic tone. Without intonation, there will be no sentences, neither will utterances. Intonation is the logical basis of audible utterances in emotion, which makes words, sentences, utterances, contextual meaning and semantics as a whole. On the one hand, intonation and syntax (formal logic structure of utterances) are closely related. On the other hand, intonation and addresser's attitudes are connected with each other (for their modal logic purposes as communicative acts). To learn intonation, we should make full use of real communication context and integrate intonation meaning and modality.

The following methods will help grasp Russian intonation:

1) Reading among three students (the first person reads the front contour, the second person reads the central contour and the third person reads the back contour)

2) Sentence reading with different sonorities (read the front of contour with normal sonority, the central of contour with the highest sonority, and the back of contour with very soft sonority).

3) The usage of gesture (the teacher points out the changes of voices while the students repeat the teacher's gesture).

4) Psychological methods (read loudly at the front of contour and turn to low pitch in the central contour. Then lower the voice in the back of contour.) (Xiujin A.N., 2003).

After learning the basic contour, it is necessary to practice it in real utterance communication. Contour-1 will be drilled in declarative sentences by being placed at the end of it with special attention to the comparison of complete and incomplete intonation meaning (seldom use contour-2). Contour-3, contour-4 and contour-6 will be employed in unfinished meaning sentence of non-end segment.

Some errors to be avoided when learning intonation are as follows:

1. If the intonation of the central contour and back contour aren't lowered, it sounds the discourse doesn't end. Hence we need to make a distinction between contour-1 and contour-3, countour-2 and countour-4.

2. When learning contour-3, we need to sharply improve the intonation in the central contour, otherwise, the sentence will be changed into interrogative sentence or exclamatory sentence: Это твоя ручка? Это твоя ручка! What we should notice is to distinguish between interrogative sentences and declarative sentences (concour-3 and contour-4), interrogative sentences and exclamatory sentences (contour-3 and contour-2).

3. False judgement on contours center. Contours center is usually placed on the unknown information to interlocutors. We should practice the shift of the contour center in the same sentence due to the fact that different contour centers make the logic centers different within one sentence.

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The effects of phonetic learning depend on teachers' creativity, patience as well as their occupational skills. Meanwhile, the extend of teaching method, classroom approaches to phonetic training and strategic treating students methods will also be a great boost in students' phonetic learning.

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Jordanian Teachers' Awareness of Their Role in the Classroom

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***Abstract*—This study aimed at investigating the Jordanian teachers' awareness of their roles in the classroom. The independent variables investigated were gender, experience, and specialization, teaching load, and academic qualifications. A questionnaire was used to collect the data necessary to answer the study questions. Correlation coefficient, Five-way ANOVA, means, and standard deviations were used to analyze the data collected. The sample of the study consisted of Jordanian teachers working at Jordanian schools in rural areas in the North of Jordan. The findings of the study revealed that Jordanian teachers' awareness of role Applicability and Practice was "High". The "High" awareness of role was attributed to many different reasons.**

***Index Terms*—language teacher, role, awareness, Jordanian, communicator**

I. Introduction

Teaching is a hard job as it dictates various responsibilities and changes upon the teacher's character and behavior. Teaching was part, if not the whole part, of the messages of all Prophets and Messengers. Our Messenger, Mohammad (Peace be upon him), praised the job of the teacher by saying "Hadn't I been a messenger, I would have been a teacher." This means that the word "teacher" is not exclusive to schools and educated people and educators who are expected to practice this role.

Lanier (n.d.) viewed the process of teaching by saying: "Teaching is recognized as one of the most challenging and respected choices, absolutely vital to the social, cultural, and economic health of our nation." Shishavan (2010, p. 1) states that "Teachers in general and English Language teachers in particular play a fundamental role in their learners' learning and academic achievement". Choudhury (2011, p. 34) adds that "the teacher in the classroom is of paramount significance because it is central to the way in which the classroom environment evolves." Teachers have to adapt with all the teaching process inputs: students, curriculum, classroom environment, students' parents, the society, and the principals. They have to deal with each case separately. They have to adapt with all students' conditions and psychological problems. These requirements require the teacher to perform various roles during the day, or sometimes the lesson. Veira (2012, p. 1) asserts that "Teachers perform different roles when making decisions about the planning and teaching of lessons". The definition of the word "role" by Banten (1965) means what is expected from some kind of behavior.

The significance and rationale of this study stem from its comprehensiveness of roles gathered from the literature devoted to the teacher's role in the foreign language classroom as a first step, and from its attempt to find out the levels of teachers' awareness of both: Applicability of the roles on Jordanian teachers of language and level of Practice of these roles by them. It, moreover, hopes to let Jordanian teachers know the shift in language teacher's roles in accordance with Choudhury (2011, p. 34) words "Teachers must be clear about their role in the classroom so that there is no chasm between their perceptions of their role and what they actually practice in the classroom".

The study aimed to investigate the level of applicability of teacher's roles on the Jordanian teacher of language, and the level of Practice of these roles by the Jordanian English teacher of language, as well. Therefore, this study sought to answer the following questions: 1) what is the level of applicability of teacher's roles on Jordanian teachers of language? 2) Are there any significant differences of Applicability of teacher's roles on Jordanian teachers of language among respondents' responses due to teacher's gender, major, university degree, experience, or stage teaching load at α=0.05? 3) What is the level of Practice of teacher's roles by Jordanian teachers of language? 4) Are there any significant differences in Practice of teacher's role by Jordanian teachers of language among respondents' responses due to teacher's gender, university degree, experience, major, or stage teaching load at α=0.05? 5) Is there any significant congruence between Applicability and Practice of teacher's roles by Jordanian teachers of language?

II. Literature Review

Language teaching methods and approaches assigned different roles to the teacher that probably stemmed from their philosophies and conditions they were devised in. *The Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching* viewed the

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teacher as a skillful conductor of an orchestra from learners (Byrne, 1976, p. 3), and a skillful manipulator to elicit correct sentences from learners, and to set the pace for learning. That is, classes were teacher-directed ones. *The Audiolingual Method* was a teacher-dominated one as the teacher models the target language, controls the direction and pace of learning and monitors and corrects the learners' performance (Richards & Rodgers 2003, p. 62). *The Total Physical Response* viewed the teacher's role as a provider of opportunities for learning. It also suggests that the teacher should behave like a parent in correcting students' mistakes and giving feedback depending on the learner's age. Stevick (1980, p. 56) summarized the teacher's roles for *The Silent Way* as "to teach, to test, and to get out of the way".

The Suggestopedia assumed that the teacher's primary role is to create situations for good language learning (Richards & Rodgers 2003, p. 104). *The Whole Language Approach* pointed out that the teacher's roles were a facilitator and an active participant in the learning community. Concerning *The Multiple Intelligences Theory*, Campbell (1997, p. 19) indicated that the teacher has to construct and develop the curriculum and be professional in as s/he has to improve her/himself as an educator.

Communicative Language Teaching Approach had assigned two main roles for the teacher. The first is a facilitator of the communication process, and the second is a participant within the learning-teaching group. However; these roles imply some secondary ones like: organizer of resource and as resource himself, guide within the class, researcher, learner, needs analyst, counselor, and group process manager (Breen & Candlin, 1980, p. 99). *The Natural Approach* named three roles for the teacher. First, the teacher is a primary source of comprehensible input in the target language. Second, the teacher is a creator of an interesting and friendly atmosphere for learning. Third, the teacher is a selector of rich activities and content that suit students' needs and interests. In terms of *The Cooperative Language Learning Approach*, Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec (1994) described the teacher's role as a facilitator and has to create a highly structured and well-organized learning environment in the classroom like selecting the material and time.

As for *Content-Based Instruction* and *Task-Based Instruction*, somehow different roles had been identified for the language teacher. In *Content-Based Instruction*, the teacher must be knowledgeable in the subject matter and able to elicit knowledge from learners (Stryker & Leaver 1993, p. 292). Moreover, the teacher should become student needs analyst, and create truly learner-centered classrooms (Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, 1989, p. 3). *Task-Based Instruction* assumed clear roles for the language teacher. These include: Selecting and sequencing of tasks, preparing learners for tasks, and consciousness-raising (Richards & Rodgers 2003, p. 236).

Brown (2001) mentioned some roles for the interactive teacher. These roles are: controller, director, manager, facilitator, and resource. Harden and Crosby (2000) reviewed the literature relating to the roles of the teacher and summarized them in the following areas: information provider, role model, facilitator, assessor, planner, and resource developer.

Arafat (2005) investigated eight roles of the English Language teacher as perceived by university TEFL students of all levels. The findings showed that the perception for the roles "investigator" and participant was Very High; and it was High for all other roles investigated namely: "resource", "prompter", "organizer", "tutor", "assessor", and "controller" respectively. However, the findings also revealed no significant differences for the gender variable. Jin (2008) described the role language teacher in accordance with communicative language teaching as a facilitator, guide, advice giver when necessary, participant, activator, and communicator.

Huijie (2012) attributed the change and shift in the language teacher's roles from those of a ruler and dominant to those of an advisor and a facilitator to the theory of constructivism when the teaching pattern changed from teacher-centered to learner-centered. Huijie revealed that a language teacher should be a manager and organizer of the language teaching class, a designer of the teaching process, a source of the teaching material, an investigator and a counselor of students' learning and a promoter of deepening and confirming the accepted knowledge.

Keblowska (2002) revealed that teachers suggested thirteen roles for the teacher; three of these roles were teacher's *role behavior* (organizer, instructor, & controller); five were *task-related* roles (facilitator, counselor, participant, expert/resource, & evaluator); three were *interpersonal roles* (creator of conditions conducive to learning, friend, and socializing agent; two were called *special roles* (motivator, & learner). Teachers' responses showed that the most important roles were: instructor, motivator, counselor and socializing agent respectively. However, the most common roles: instructor, expert/source, evaluator, & organizer respectively. The observations revealed that the roles that were always present were: organizer, evaluator, instructor, & controller while the roles which were rarely present were: motivator, friend, participant, & learner.

Simon (2002) and Yuveinco and Huang (2005) investigated the English Language roles in distance learning and e-learning respectively. Simon's study revealed that the English Language teacher practices five roles through distance learning namely: technologist, process facilitator, content expert, instructions' designer, and manager. Yuveinco and Huang's revealed that the English Language teacher practices four roles through e-learning namely: facilitator of learning, advice-giver, educational and technological supporter and provider.

This review reflects the importance of the role of language teacher that was considered an important component of all methods and approaches proposed for teaching a foreign or second language. Richards and Rodgers (2003), in their discussion of the teaching methods and approaches, talk about the language teacher's roles. Willis (1990, p. 131) views the language teacher's role as one of creating an environment in which learners can operate effectively and the helping learners manage their own learning. Mohan (2012, p. 35) describes metaphorically the teacher's role during the three

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stages of the lesson (presentation, practice, and production) as the role of information and environment architects. Richards and Rodgers (2003, p. 29) state that: "The role of the teacher will ultimately reflect both the objectives of the method and the learning theory on which the method is predicated, since the success of a method may depend on the degree to which the teacher can provide the content or create the conditions for successful language learning." This implies that various roles are expected from the teacher to fulfill. Some of these roles are seen and expected through the mentioned statement "provide the content" while other roles are not seen at the moment and they are embedded in the phrase "create the conditions for successful language learning". This latter phrase implies the various developments in the teaching-learning process, and the development of societies.

Littlewood (1981) and Harmer (2001) look at the language teacher's role in the classroom as a facilitator from two somehow different angles. Littlewood (p. 92) broadens this role and entails some sub-roles with it. These sub-roles are: overseer of students' learning, classroom manager, consultant or advisor of students and sometimes co-communicator. However, Harmer looks the "facilitator" in a much broader form than Littlewood does as all teacher's roles are meant to facilitate the progress of the learner in some way or another. He adds that the teacher has the roles of controller, organizer, assessor, participant, resource, tutor, and observer.

To sum up, there are still some roles, for the language teacher, which have not been investigated yet. Furthermore, there are some variables which might be affecting the language teacher's roles that have not been investigated right now. This study will hopefully reveal the impact of other variables affecting the teacher's role so as to introduce some contribution to the field or give insights for new ideas to other researchers.

III. Methodology

A. Sample, Data Collection Tools and Analysis

A Four-Likert questionnaire consisting of two halves containing 31 teacher roles (Appendix A), one for role Applicability and the other for role Practice, was used to collect the necessary data from the volunteer respondents. The correction scale had three levels for mean scores: 1 to 1.99 was considered "**Low**"; 2 to 2.99 was considered "**Moderate**"; and 3 to 4 was considered "**High**". Most of these roles have been taken from the literature on the language teacher's roles. The researchers dropped the role of "facilitator" as they believe that this role is so comprehensive and entails a lot of other roles in accordance with Harmer (2001) and Littlewood (1981). Concerning the domains of the questionnaire, the researchers adopted Keblowska's (2002). Regarding the insertion of the additional roles not mentioned in Keblowska (2002) into the four domains, the researchers resorted to experts in the field of language teaching and their own experience. The questionnaire also included the independent variables of the study. The sample consisted of 245 teachers of Arabic and English Languages. All participants are Jordanians, teach in rural schools that lave a few facilities, have their full load of teaching, and work in schools not far away from their living areas. The distribution of the sample according to the study variables is presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Distribution of Sample according to Study Variables

Independent Variables	Levels	Frequency	Percent
Major	Arabic	106	43.3
	English	139	56.7
Experience	1 to 5	57	23.3
	6 to 10	87	35.5
	11 to 15	39	15.9
	16 and above	62	25.3
Gender	Male	147	60.0
	Female	98	40.0
Load	1 to 6	63	25.7
	7 to 10	112	45.7
	Secondary	70	28.6
Academic Qualification	Bachelor	179	73.1
	High Diploma	32	13.1
	Master and above	34	13.9
Total		**245**	**100.0**

B. Study Tools' Validity and Reliability

To investigate the construct validity of the role Applicability part on Jordanian teachers of language and its Practice by them, Pearson Correlation formula between the items and the tool as a whole unit with all its domains was calculated on a pilot sample consisting of 30 teachers from outside the sample of the study. The correlation coefficient for *Applicability* ranged between 0.45-0.68 at the domain level and it was between 0.38-0.63 at the whole tool level. This means that correlation coefficient was high at both levels: the domains, and whole scale. The results are presented in Appendix D.

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However, the correlation coefficient for *Practice* ranged between 0.42-0.72 at the domain level and it was between 0.26-0.63 at the whole tool level. This means that correlation coefficient was high at both levels: the domains, and whole scale. The results are presented in Appendix E.

To investigate the internal validity, Pearson Correlation formula between the domains and the tool from one hand and between the domains from another hand was calculated. The correlation between the domains and the tool ranged between 0.84-0.93 and between 0.61-0.77 between the domains. This indicates that correlation coefficient was very high at both levels: the domains, and whole scale.

In answering the questions of the study, various statistical devices were used. Means and standard deviations were used to answer the first and third questions. Means and standard deviations followed with Five-Way ANOVA (without interaction for both tools) and Multi Five-Way ANOVA (without interaction for study domains), according to study variables, were used to answer the second and fourth questions. Pearson's Correlation Coefficient between the study tools and their domains were used to answer the fifth question.

C. Reliability of Study Tool

The reliability of internal congruence for the study tool and its domains was counted using Cronbach Alpha Formula on the piloting sample and Stability Index was counted after 21 days of the first application using Cronbach's Alpha Formula. The results are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2
VALUES OF INTERNAL CONGRUENCE AND STABILITY INDEX

Level of Applicability on Language Teacher and its Domains	Cronbach's Alpha	Stability Index	N of Items
Task-Related Roles	0.75	**0.85**	10
Interpersonal Roles	0.76	**0.89**	7
Role Behavior	0.70	**0.88**	9
Special Roles	0.73	**0.92**	5
Over Whole	**0.90**	**0.86**	**31**

IV. FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

To answer the first question: "What is the level of Applicability of teacher's roles on Jordanian teachers of language?", mean scores and standard deviations for the level of Applicability of teacher's roles on Jordanian teachers of language were calculated (as a whole with domains) taking into consideration a descending order of the domains according to their mean scores. The results are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3
MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE LEVEL OF APPLICABILITY OF TEACHER'S ROLES ON JORDANIAN TEACHERS OF LANGUAGE

Rank	Domain ID	Level of Applicability on Language Teacher	Mean	Std. Dev.
1	4	Special Roles	3.356	0.44
2	1	Task-Related Roles	3.283	0.41
3	2	Interpersonal Roles	3.228	0.42
4	3	Role Behavior	3.195	0.42
Over Whole			**3.257**	**0.38**

Table 3 shows that the level of Applicability of teacher's roles on Jordanian teachers of language is ***High*** (3.257). The Special Roles domain came first; the Task-Related Roles domain came second; the Interpersonal Roles came third, and the Role Behavior came last in forth position.

To answer the second question: "Are there any significant differences of Applicability of teacher's roles on Jordanian teachers of language among respondents' responses due to teacher's gender, major, university degree, experience, or stage teaching load at α=0.05?", mean scores and standard deviations for the level of Applicability of teacher's roles on Jordanian teachers of language were calculated (as a whole) according to the variables of the study. The results are presented in Table 4.

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TABLE 4
MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF APPLICABILITY OF TEACHER'S ROLES ON JORDANIAN TEACHERS OF LANGUAGE ACCORDING TO STUDY VARIABLES

Independent Variables	Levels	Mean	Std. Dev.
Major	Arabic	3.322	0.36
	English	3.207	0.38
Experience	1 to 5	3.233	0.35
	6 to 10	3.248	0.40
	11 to 15	3.235	0.32
	16 and above	3.305	0.41
Gender	Male	3.273	0.38
	Female	3.232	0.36
Load	1 to 6	3.308	0.38
	7 to 10	3.232	0.38
	Secondary	3.251	0.36
Academic Qualification	Bachelor	3.238	0.38
	High Diploma	3.267	0.35
	Master and above	3.346	0.39

Table 4 shows that there were observed differences between the mean scores and standard deviations for the level of Applicability of teacher's roles on Jordanian teachers of language resulting from difference of levels of the study variables. To investigate the significance of these observed differences, Five-Way ANOVA (without interaction) was carried out for the level of Applicability of teacher's roles on Jordanian teachers of language according to the variables of the study. The results are presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5
RESULTS OF FIVE-WAY ANOVA (WITHOUT INTERACTION) FOR THE LEVEL OF APPLICABILITY OF TEACHER'S ROLES ON JORDANIAN TEACHERS OF LANGUAGE ACCORDING TO THE VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Major	0.763	1	0.763	**5.501**	0.020
Experience	0.216	3	0.072	0.519	0.669
Gender	0.073	1	0.073	0.529	0.468
Load	0.425	2	0.213	1.533	0.218
Qualification	0.325	2	0.163	1.173	0.311
Error	32.59	235	0.139		
Total	34.323	244			

Table 5 shows that there is a significant difference at α=0.05 between the two mean scores of the level of Applicability of teacher's roles on Jordanian teachers of language ascribed for "major" variable for the teachers of Arabic Language when compared with the teachers of English Language. However, the other variables of the study (teacher's gender, university degree, experience, and stage teaching load) did not show any significant difference.

To answer the third question: "What is the level of Practice of teacher's roles by Jordanian teachers of language?", mean scores and standard deviations for the level of Practice of teacher's roles on Jordanian teachers of language were calculated (as a whole with domains) taking into consideration a descending order of the domains according to their mean scores. The results are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6
MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE LEVEL OF PRACTICE OF TEACHER'S ROLES BY JORDANIAN TEACHERS OF LANGUAGE

Rank	Domain ID	Level of Practice by Language Teacher	Mean	Std. Dev.
1	4	Special Roles	3.298	0.46
2	1	Task-Related Roles	3.273	0.40
3	2	Interpersonal Roles	3.198	0.44
4	3	Role Behavior	3.173	0.39
Over Whole			**3.231**	**0.37**

Table 6 shows that the level of Practice of teacher's roles by Jordanian teachers of language is ***High*** (3.231). The Special Roles domain came first; the Task-Related Roles domain came second; the Interpersonal Roles came third, and the Role Behavior came last in forth position.

To answer the fourth question: "Are there any significant differences of Practice of teacher's roles by Jordanian teachers of language among the respondents' responses due to teacher's gender, major, university degree, experience, or stage teaching load at α=0.05?", mean scores and standard deviations for the level of Applicability of teacher's roles on Jordanian teachers of language were calculated (as a whole) according to the variables of the study. The results are presented in Table 7.

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TABLE 7
MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF PRACTICE OF TEACHER'S ROLES BY JORDANIAN TEACHERS OF LANGUAGE ACCORDING TO STUDY VARIABLES

Independent Variables	Levels	Mean	Std. Dev.
Major	Arabic	3.267	0.34
	English	3.204	0.38
Experience	1 to 5	3.257	0.34
	6 to 10	3.205	0.33
	11 to 15	3.242	0.28
	16 and above	3.237	0.48
Gender	Male	3.229	0.38
	Female	3.234	0.34
Load	1 to 6	3.226	0.36
	7 to 10	3.209	0.37
	Secondary	3.270	0.37
Academic Qualification	Bachelor	3.227	0.34
	High Diploma	3.164	0.46
	Master and above	3.315	0.39

Table 7 shows that there were observed differences between the mean scores and standard deviations for the level of Practice of teacher's roles by Jordanian teachers of language resulting from the various levels of the study variables. To investigate the significance of these observed differences, Five-way ANOVA (without interaction) was carried out for the level of Practice of teacher's roles on Jordanian teachers of language according to the variables of the study. The results are presented in Table 8.

TABLE 8
RESULTS OF FIVE-WAY ANOVA (WITHOUT INTERACTION) FOR THE LEVEL OF PRACTICE OF TEACHER'S ROLES ON JORDANIAN TEACHERS OF LANGUAGE ACCORDING TO THE VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Major	0.217	1	0.217	1.607	0.206
Experience	0.104	3	0.035	0.256	0.857
Gender	0.000	1	0.000	0.001	0.974
Load	0.200	2	0.100	0.740	0.478
Qualification	0.377	2	0.188	1.394	0.250
Error	31.762	235	0.135		
Total	32.659	244			

Table 8 shows that there were no significant differences at α=0.05 between the two mean scores of the level of Practice of teacher's roles by Jordanian teachers of language ascribed for any of the variables of the study.

To answer fifth question "Is there any significant congruence between Applicability and Practice of teacher's roles by Jordanian teachers of language?", correlation coefficient between the level of Applicability of teacher's roles with its domains from one hand and the level of Practice of teacher's roles with its domains from another hand. The results are presented in Table 9.

TABLE 9
VALUES OF CORRELATION BETWEEN APPLICABILITY AND PRACTICE OF TEACHER'S ROLES BY JORDANIAN TEACHERS OF LANGUAGE

Correlation between Level of Applicability on Language Teacher With Level of Practice by Language Teacher		Sig.
Task-Related Roles	**0.59**	0.000
Interpersonal Roles	**0.55**	0.000
Role Behavior	**0.53**	0.000
Special Roles	**0.50**	0.000
Over Whole	**0.60**	0.000

Table 9 shows that the values of correlation between the level of Applicability and its domains on Jordanian teachers of language from one hand and the level of Practice and its domains by Jordanian teachers of language from another hand was statistically significant at α=0.05 between. It was positive and could be classified as "moderate correlation" according to the criterion of Hinkle (Weirsma & Jurs, 1988).

V. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The discussion of the findings will be divided into two parts. The first part will be devoted for the first, third and fifth questions as the first and third are both descriptive ones and the fifth question links between them. The second part of the discussion will be devoted to the second and fourth questions as these questions are analytical.

The findings to the first and third questions in Appendix E and Table 4 revealed that the levels of teacher's role Applicability and Practice were *High*. This finding agrees with Arafat (2005). The findings also match with some of the studies in the review of literature only in some of the roles investigated. They match with Harden & Crosby (2000),

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Keblowska (2002), and Arafat (2005) in the role of "assessor" that meets the role of "evaluator of pupils' learning" in the current study. They match with Jin (2008) in the roles of "guide" and "communicator"; and with Arafat (20050, and Huijie (2012) in 'organizer", "promoter", and "counselor"; and with Yuveinco & Huang (20050 and Arafat (2005) in the role of "supporter".

However, the mean score for role Applicability (3.257) was higher than that for role Practice (3.231). This difference in mean scores did not reveal any significant difference for question five between role Applicability and role Practice. This **High** level of Applicability of the role on Jordanian teachers of language might be the fruit of the in-service training programs which teachers of language attend now and then, or reflection of teachers' satisfaction of the recent increase in their salaries and the rights obtained such as obtaining scholarships for their sons and forming the Teachers' Association.

However, this difference between Applicability and Practice strengthens the gap between theory and practice as role Applicability, here, represents theory. This could, also, mean that Jordanian teachers of language do not practice what they think applies on them as the fruit of the in-service-training programs has not ripened yet.

Concerning the analytical questions, the variable of "major" in question 2 for role Applicability revealed a significant difference on behalf of Arabic Language teachers whereas question 4 for role Practice did not reveal any significant differences for any of the study variables. In terms of the significant difference on behalf of Arabic teachers, it could be attributed to many reasons. The first reason can be the large number of weekly hours- 6 hours on average for all stages- for teaching Arabic when compared with the number of hours devoted to English classes- 4 hours on average for all stages. This large number of classes might give the teachers of Arabic a greater chance to think that these roles really apply on them while Jordanian English Language teachers might not have this chance. The second reason could be the Arabic teachers' deeper understanding of the explicit or implicit meaning of each of the roles included in the questionnaire. The third reason could be the type of learning material included in the Arabic curricula includes lots of religious texts that regulate life. The fourth reason might be ascribed for the Arabic teachers' background affected by the literature courses they studied at university. The fifth reason could result from the easiness of communication between the Arabic teachers and their students as they both use the native language when compared with the teachers of English where lots of students might not understand everything explained in the classroom. This could affect the teacher's role by creating a feeling of frustration and nervosity that leads to a change in teacher's roles.

Although the findings to question 4 did not reveal any significant differences for any of the study variables, there are certain points that should be raised with reference to Appendixes B and C. First, all items in the domains of "Interpersonal Roles" and "Special Roles" obtained the same order in both cases of role "Applicability" and "Practice". This could be ascribed to the smaller number of items in each of these two domains when compared with the other two domains. Second, three items of each of the domains of "Task-Related Roles" and "Role Behavior" obtained the same ranks in both cases of role "Applicability" and "Practice"; items "1, 4, and 2" of "Task-Related Roles" domain and items "23, 7, and 10" of the "Role Behavior" domain. Third, the mean scores for 19 items retreated in Practice while 11 items increased and only 1 (Instructor) obtained the same mean score in both cases "Applicability" and "Practice".

VI. Conclusion and Recommendations

This study has set out to examine the Jordanian English and Arabic Languages' teachers' awareness of their roles in the classroom. It has shown that teachers exhibited a ***High*** level of awareness with regard to role Applicability and Practice. The results also revealed a significant difference for the Specialization variable. It can be concluded that Jordanian teachers of language still have much impact of schooldays that in-service training programs have not yet overcome regardless their experience, academic qualification, or gender. This is represented by the high mean scores of roles indicating teacher-centered classes such as: taskmaster, disciplinarian, instructor, and manager. Jordanian teachers of language still apply the traditional role of the teacher despite the modern curriculum adopting the latest methods of teaching than contain activities which minimize the teacher-centered classroom and optimize the learner-centered classroom.

It is recommended that teachers should be subjected to more specialized pre-service and in-service training programs and workshops that concentrate on modern teachers' roles in the classroom; and the supervisors should follow-up the activation of these programs. More studies should be carried out to investigate the effect of other variables on language teachers' roles.

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APPENDIX A DATA COLLECTION QUESTIONNAIRE

No	Role	Level of Applicability on Language Teacher				Level of Practice by Language Teacher			
		To a large extent	*To some extent*	*To a little extent*	*Does not apply*	*To a large extent*	*To some extent*	*To a little extent*	*Not practiced*
1	**Communicator**: He transmits information, content, thoughts to the pupils.								
2	**Counselor**: He understands his pupils' personal and academic problems and acquaints them with post-educational choices.								
3	**Collaborator**: He joins hands in performing his task with his colleagues.								
4	**Consultant**: He enjoys the confidence of pupils and advises them.								
5	**Cultural Agent**: He seeks to preserve and transmit the cultural heritage to posterity.								
6	**Evaluator of pupils' learning** in terms of their achievements, abilities and lapses.								
7	**Innovator**: He innovates, performs, and improves the techniques, content, activities….etc.								
8	**Instructor**: He imparts instructions by way of direction and order.								
9	**Leader**: He acts as a leader in the matter of educational reconstruction.								
10	**Manager**: He organizes, supervises, and manages institutional affairs and problems.								
11	**Model**: He commands perfection as a teacher and serves as a source of inspiration.								
12	**Monitor**: He monitors the course of true education in every aspect.								
13	**Motivator**: He stimulates and sustains active interest through various techniques.								
14	**Organizer** of pupils' activities and supervises approved program of activities in and outside the school.								
15	**Pupil guide**: He directs pupils in the conduct and way of life.								
16	**Professionalist**: He keeps himself awake for his professional growth.								
17	**Promoter**: He contributes to the growth and welfare of his students.								
18	**Agent of social change**: He changes in social environment and perspective to realize the objectives of a progressive society.								
19	**Supporter**: He supports students by providing material and physical facilities to help.								
20	**Moral Booster**: He not only believes righteously but also encourages uprightness among his pupils.								
21	**Demonstrator**: He shows and explains to his students what he is doing.								
22	**Taskmaster**: He assigns tasks, listens to recitations, asks questions, corrects answers and assigns marks.								
23	**Disciplinarian**: He maintains order in the classroom so as to control it.								
24	**Surrogate parent**: He feels responsible for the learner as a whole: his health, social adjustment, recreation, emotional health, character development, intellectual development…and so on.								
25	**Therapist**: He takes responsibility for the psychological problems and mental health of his pupils.								
26	**Midwife**: He guides the pupil's thought processes by asking him the questions that will lead him eventually to come to wise conclusions.								

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27	**Evangelist**: He asks his pupils to live virtuous lives and lead them to the way of goodness. He asks the pupils not to lie, steal, attack their classmates or cheat on examinations.								
28	**Persuader**: He is able to persuade his pupils to accept his views.								
29	**Propagandist**: He sometimes wants his pupils to accept a pre-established point of view.								
30	**Human being**: He has his own needs, interests, weaknesses, strengths. He can play many roles effectively.								
31	**Researcher**: He can carry out classroom research and solve the problems of his classrooms especially through so-called action research.								

APPENDIX B MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF LEVEL OF ROLE APPLICABILITY ON JORDANIAN TEACHERS

Domain	Rank	Item ID	Level of Applicability on Language Teacher	Mean	Std. Dev.
Task-Related Roles	1	1	Communicator: He transmits information, content, thoughts to the pupils	3.571	0.55
	2	21	Demonstrator: He shows and explains to his students what he is doing	3.355	0.68
	3	26	Midwife: He guides the pupil's thought processes by asking him the questions that will lead him eventually to come to wise conclusions	3.347	0.75
	4	4	Consultant: He enjoys the confidence of pupils and advises them	3.335	0.77
	5	22	Taskmaster: He assigns tasks, listens to recitations, asks questions, corrects answers and assigns marks	3.298	0.75
	6	12	Monitor: He monitors the course of true education in every aspect	3.249	0.76
	7	19	Supporter: He supports students by providing material and physical facilities to help	3.216	0.80
	8	15	Pupil guide: He directs pupils in the conduct and way of life	3.196	0.76
	9	16	Professionalist: He keeps himself awake for his professional growth	3.180	0.75
	10	2	Counselor: He understands his pupils' personal and academic problems and acquaints them with post-educational choices	3.086	0.77
Interpersonal Roles	1	3	Collaborator: He joins hands in performing his task with his colleagues	3.490	0.66
	2	28	Persuader: He is able to persuade his pupils to accept his views	3.392	0.67
	3	6	Evaluator of pupils' learning in terms of their achievements, abilities and lapses	3.380	0.72
	4	24	Surrogate parent: He feels responsible for the learner as a whole: his health, social adjustment, recreation, emotional health, character development, intellectual development…and so on	3.224	0.76
	5	29	Propagandist: He sometimes wants his pupils to accept a pre-established point of view	3.069	0.75
	6	18	Agent of social change: He changes in social environment and perspective to realize the objectives of a progressive society	3.045	0.77
	7	5	Cultural Agent: He seeks to preserve and transmit the cultural heritage to posterity	2.996	0.81
Role Behavior	1	23	Disciplinarian: He maintains order in the classroom so as to control it	3.473	0.69
	2	11	Model: He commands perfection as a teacher and serves as a source of inspiration	3.327	0.74
	3	27	Evangelist: He asks his pupils to live virtuous lives and lead them to the way of goodness He asks the pupils not to lie, steal, attack their classmates or cheat on examinations	3.302	0.78
	4	9	Leader: He acts as a leader in the matter of educational reconstruction	3.273	0.72
	5	8	Instructor: He imparts instructions by way of direction and order	3.196	0.78
	6	7	Innovator: He innovates, performs, and improves the techniques, content, activities… etc.	3.159	0.73
	7	14	Organizer of pupils' activities and supervises approved program of activities in and outside the school	3.020	0.78
	8	25	Therapist: He takes responsibility for the psychological problems and mental health of his pupils	3.004	0.85
	9	10	Manager: He organizes, supervises, and manages institutional affairs and problems	3.000	0.84
Special Roles	1	13	Motivator: He stimulates and sustains active interest through various techniques	3.616	0.51
	2	20	Moral Booster: He not only believes righteously but also encourages uprightness among his pupils	3.490	0.66
	3	17	Promoter: He contributes to the growth and welfare of his students	3.306	0.76
	4	30	Human being: He has his own needs, interests, weaknesses, strengths He can play many roles effectively	3.294	0.67
	5	31	Researcher: He can carry out classroom research and solve the problems of his classrooms especially through so-called action research	3.073	0.83

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APPENDIX C MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF LEVEL OF ROLE PRACTICE BY JORDANIAN TEACHERS

Domain	Rank	Item ID	Level of Practice by Language Teacher	Mean	Std. Dev.
Task-Related Roles	1	1	Communicator: He transmits information, content, thoughts to the pupils	3.547	0.58
	2	15	Pupil guide: He directs pupils in the conduct and way of life	3.322	0.69
	3	22	Taskmaster: He assigns tasks, listens to recitations, asks questions, corrects answers and assigns marks	3.302	0.72
	4	4	Consultant: He enjoys the confidence of pupils and advises them	3.282	0.73
	5	12	Monitor: He monitors the course of true education in every aspect	3.265	0.74
	6	21	Demonstrator: He shows and explains to his students what he is doing	3.257	0.75
	7	16	Professionalist: He keeps himself awake for his professional growth	3.233	0.73
	8	26	Midwife: He guides the pupil's thought processes by asking him the questions that will lead him eventually to come to wise conclusions	3.224	0.71
	9	19	Supporter: He supports students by providing material and physical facilities to help	3.171	0.80
	10	2	Counselor: He understands his pupils' personal and academic problems and acquaints them with post-educational choices	3.127	0.68
Interpersonal Roles	1	3	Collaborator: He joins hands in performing his task with his colleagues	3.376	0.67
	2	28	Persuader: He is able to persuade his pupils to accept his views	3.331	0.70
	3	6	Evaluator of pupils' learning in terms of their achievements, abilities and lapses	3.322	0.71
	4	24	Surrogate parent: He feels responsible for the learner as a whole: his health, social adjustment, recreation, emotional health, character development, intellectual development…and so on	3.180	0.78
	5	29	Propagandist: He sometimes wants his pupils to accept a pre-established point of view	3.094	0.79
	6	18	Agent of social change: He changes in social environment and perspective to realize the objectives of a progressive society	3.065	0.73
	7	5	Cultural Agent: He seeks to preserve and transmit the cultural heritage to posterity	3.020	0.82
Role Behavior	1	23	Disciplinarian: He maintains order in the classroom so as to control it	3.392	0.68
	2	27	Evangelist: He asks his pupils to live virtuous lives and lead them to the way of goodness He asks the pupils not to lie, steal, attack their classmates or cheat on examinations	3.380	0.74
	3	11	Model: He commands perfection as a teacher and serves as a source of inspiration	3.282	0.75
	4	8	Instructor: He imparts instructions by way of direction and order	3.196	0.76
	5	9	Leader: He acts as a leader in the matter of educational reconstruction	3.171	0.73
	6	7	Innovator: He innovates, performs, and improves the techniques, content, activities… etc.	3.094	0.76
	7	25	Therapist: He takes responsibility for the psychological problems and mental health of his pupils	3.053	0.87
	8	14	Organizer of pupils' activities and supervises approved program of activities in and outside the school	3.004	0.79
	9	10	Manager: He organizes, supervises, and manages institutional affairs and problems	2.984	0.78
Special Roles	1	13	Motivator: He stimulates and sustains active interest through various techniques	3.514	0.62
	2	20	Moral Booster: He not only believes righteously but also encourages uprightness among his pupils	3.404	0.68
	3	17	Promoter: He contributes to the growth and welfare of his students	3.249	0.76
	4	30	Human being: He has his own needs, interests, weaknesses, strengths He can play many roles effectively	3.184	0.70
	5	31	Researcher: He can carry out classroom research and solve the problems of his classrooms especially through so-called action research	3.139	0.78

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APPENDIX D APPLICABILITY CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN THE ITEMS WITH THE DOMAINS AND THE WHOLE SCALE

Domain	Item ID	Level of Applicability on Language Teacher	Correlation With:	
			Domain	Scale
Task-Related Roles	1	Communicator: He transmits information, content, thoughts to the pupils	**0.46**	**0.43**
	2	Counselor: He understands his pupils' personal and academic problems and acquaints them with post-educational choices	**0.45**	**0.38**
	4	Consultant: He enjoys the confidence of pupils and advises them	**0.58**	**0.51**
	12	Monitor: He monitors the course of true education in every aspect	**0.55**	**0.51**
	15	Pupil guide: He directs pupils in the conduct and way of life	**0.59**	**0.55**
	16	Professionalist: He keeps himself awake for his professional growth	**0.54**	**0.51**
	19	Supporter: He supports students by providing material and physical facilities to help	**0.59**	**0.55**
	21	Demonstrator: He shows and explains to his students what he is doing	**0.62**	**0.58**
	22	Taskmaster: He assigns tasks, listens to recitations, asks questions, corrects answers and assigns marks	**0.60**	**0.58**
	26	Midwife: He guides the pupil's thought processes by asking him the questions that will lead him eventually to come to wise conclusions	**0.60**	**0.58**
Interpersonal Roles	3	Collaborator: He joins hands in performing his task with his colleagues	**0.49**	**0.43**
	5	Cultural Agent: He seeks to preserve and transmit the cultural heritage to posterity	**0.58**	**0.47**
	6	Evaluator of pupils' learning in terms of their achievements, abilities and lapses	**0.59**	**0.44**
	18	Agent of social change: He changes in social environment and perspective to realize the objectives of a progressive society	**0.64**	**0.63**
	24	Surrogate parent: He feels responsible for the learner as a whole: his health, social adjustment, recreation, emotional health, character development, intellectual development…and so on	**0.56**	**0.49**
	28	Persuader: He is able to persuade his pupils to accept his views	**0.58**	**0.56**
	29	Propagandist: He sometimes wants his pupils to accept a pre-established point of view	**0.58**	**0.55**
Role Behavior	7	Innovator: He innovates, performs, and improves the techniques, content, activities… etc.	**0.54**	**0.51**
	8	Instructor: He imparts instructions by way of direction and order	**0.48**	**0.34**
	9	Leader: He acts as a leader in the matter of educational reconstruction	**0.53**	**0.49**
	10	Manager: He organizes, supervises, and manages institutional affairs and problems	**0.57**	**0.48**
	11	Model: He commands perfection as a teacher and serves as a source of inspiration	**0.60**	**0.49**
	14	Organizer of pupils' activities and supervises approved program of activities in and outside the school	**0.50**	**0.43**
	23	Disciplinarian: He maintains order in the classroom so as to control it	**0.49**	**0.45**
	25	Therapist: He takes responsibility for the psychological problems and mental health of his pupils	**0.65**	**0.60**
	27	Evangelist: He asks his pupils to live virtuous lives and lead them to the way of goodness He asks the pupils not to lie, steal, attack their classmates or cheat on examinations	**0.54**	**0.49**
Special Roles	13	Motivator: He stimulates and sustains active interest through various techniques	**0.52**	**0.44**
	17	Promoter: He contributes to the growth and welfare of his students	**0.66**	**0.63**
	20	Moral Booster: He not only believes righteously but also encourages uprightness among his pupils	**0.64**	**0.51**
	30	Human being: He has his own needs, interests, weaknesses, strengths He can play many roles effectively	**0.68**	**0.50**
	31	Researcher: He can carry out classroom research and solve the problems of his classrooms especially through so-called action research	**0.68**	**0.56**

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APPENDIX E: TABLE 3 PRACTICE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN THE ITEMS WITH THE DOMAINS AND THE WHOLE SCALE

Domain	Item ID	Level of Practice by Language Teacher	Correlation With: Domain	Correlation With: Scale
Task-Related Roles	1	Communicator: He transmits information, content, thoughts to the pupils	**0.53**	**0.50**
	2	Counselor: He understands his pupils' personal and academic problems and acquaints them with post-educational choices	**0.51**	**0.44**
	4	Consultant: He enjoys the confidence of pupils and advises them	**0.42**	**0.34**
	12	Monitor: He monitors the course of true education in every aspect	**0.63**	**0.60**
	15	Pupil guide: He directs pupils in the conduct and way of life	**0.50**	**0.43**
	16	Professionalist: He keeps himself awake for his professional growth	**0.61**	**0.56**
	19	Supporter: He supports students by providing material and physical facilities to help	**0.56**	**0.52**
	21	Demonstrator: He shows and explains to his students what he is doing	**0.65**	**0.63**
	22	Taskmaster: He assigns tasks, listens to recitations, asks questions, corrects answers and assigns marks	**0.59**	**0.59**
	26	Midwife: He guides the pupil's thought processes by asking him the questions that will lead him eventually to come to wise conclusions	**0.59**	**0.59**
Interpersonal Roles	3	Collaborator: He joins hands in performing his task with his colleagues	**0.54**	**0.44**
	5	Cultural Agent: He seeks to preserve and transmit the cultural heritage to posterity	**0.60**	**0.49**
	6	Evaluator of pupils' learning in terms of their achievements, abilities and lapses	**0.63**	**0.53**
	18	Agent of social change: He changes in social environment and perspective to realize the objectives of a progressive society	**0.67**	**0.60**
	24	Surrogate parent: He feels responsible for the learner as a whole: his health, social adjustment, recreation, emotional health, character development, intellectual development…and so on	**0.52**	**0.51**
	28	Persuader: He is able to persuade his pupils to accept his views	**0.57**	**0.56**
	29	Propagandist: He sometimes wants his pupils to accept a pre-established point of view	**0.59**	**0.53**
Role Behavior	7	Innovator: He innovates, performs, and improves the techniques, content, activities… etc.	**0.57**	**0.48**
	8	Instructor: He imparts instructions by way of direction and order	**0.42**	**0.26**
	9	Leader: He acts as a leader in the matter of educational reconstruction	**0.58**	**0.47**
	10	Manager: He organizes, supervises, and manages institutional affairs and problems	**0.51**	**0.39**
	11	Model: He commands perfection as a teacher and serves as a source of inspiration	**0.64**	**0.52**
	14	Organizer of pupils' activities and supervises approved program of activities in and outside the school	**0.44**	**0.36**
	23	Disciplinarian: He maintains order in the classroom so as to control it	**0.54**	**0.46**
	25	Therapist: He takes responsibility for the psychological problems and mental health of his pupils	**0.54**	**0.54**
	27	Evangelist: He asks his pupils to live virtuous lives and lead them to the way of goodness He asks the pupils not to lie, steal, attack their classmates or cheat on examinations	**0.45**	**0.43**
Special Roles	13	Motivator: He stimulates and sustains active interest through various techniques	**0.61**	**0.56**
	17	Promoter: He contributes to the growth and welfare of his students	**0.72**	**0.61**
	20	Moral Booster: He not only believes righteously but also encourages uprightness among his pupils	**0.63**	**0.52**
	30	Human being: He has his own needs, interests, weaknesses, strengths He can play many roles effectively	**0.65**	**0.47**
	31	Researcher: He can carry out classroom research and solve the problems of his classrooms especially through so-called action research	**0.59**	**0.47**

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